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GENDER ANALYSIS AND ASSESSMENT FOR FEED THE FUTURE PROGRAMMING

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Harare, Zimbabwe

ACRONYMS

| | |
|---------|--|
| ACP | Zimbabwe Agricultural Competitiveness Program |
| AGRITEX | Agriculture Research and Extension Services |
| ARDA | Agricultural Rural Development Authority |
| ASP | Agro Veterinary Service Providers |
| ASP-Z | Agrodealer Strengthening Project Zimbabwe |
| BACOSS | Basic Commodities Supply-Side Intervention |
| CEDAW | Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women |
| CIDA | Canadian International Development Agency |
| CLUSA | Cooperative League of the USA |
| COP | Chief of Party |
| CRS | Catholic Relief Services |
| DFID | Department for International Development |
| DHS | Demographic and Health Survey |
| E-ATP | Expanded Agribusiness and Trade Promotion Project |
| EU | European Union |
| FaaB | Farming as a Business |
| FAO | Food and Agriculture Organization |
| FGM | Female Genital Mutilation |
| FNC | Food and Nutrition Council |
| FtF | Feed the Future |
| FTLRP | Fast Track Land Reform Program |
| GBV | Gender-Based Violence |
| GFP | Gender Focal Person/Point |
| GIZ | Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit |
| GoZ | Government of Zimbabwe |
| IRD | International Relief and Development |
| M&E | Monitoring and Evaluation |
| MWAGCD | Ministry of Women's Affairs, Gender and Community Development |
| NGO | Nongovernmental Organization |
| NGP | National Gender Policy |
| OECD | Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development |
| ORO | Operation Restore Order |
| PLHIV | People Living with HIV |
| PRIZE | Promoting Recovery in Zimbabwe |
| PRADAN | Professional Assistance for Development Action |
| REALIZ | Restoring Economic Agricultural Livelihoods in Zimbabwe |
| SaCU | Savings and Credit Union |
| SADC | Southern Africa Development Community |
| SDC | Swiss Development Corporation |
| SEDCO | Small Enterprise Development Company |
| SME | Small and Medium Enterprises |
| SNV | Netherlands Development Organization |
| STAMP | Smallholder Technology & Access to Markets Program |
| U.N. | United Nations |

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| UPA DI | L'Union des Producteurs Agricoles du Québec Développement International |
| USAID | United States Agency for International Development |
| VSL | Village Savings and Loans |
| WFLA | Women Farmers Land and Agricultural Trust |
| ZAPAD | Zimbabwe Agriculture Production and Agribusiness Development |
| ZIM-AIED | Zimbabwe Agriculture Income and Employment Development |
| ZimVAC | Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee |
| ZWLA | Zimbabwe Women's Lawyers Association |
| ZWRCN | Zimbabwe Women's Resource Centre and Network |

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This report presents the findings from a gender analysis of the agricultural sector in Zimbabwe and an assessment of gender mainstreaming in development programs, particularly as they relate to food security and the U.S. government's Feed the Future (FtF) initiative. The findings are a result of a seven-week study that used a variety of methods to gather data and analyze information. Methodologies included literature, data and policy reviews, an online survey of mainstreaming practices, participatory qualitative fieldwork with focus groups of male and female farmers, and informant interviews with stakeholders from the government of Zimbabwe (GoZ), donors, international development organizations, and local civil society and private sector actors. While many of the report's findings are applicable to most of sub-Saharan Africa, all findings presented in this report were validated through fieldwork, expert interviews and desk review as part of this study.

USAID has the opportunity to build on lessons learned from implementing partners and maximize its future impact on gender equality in economic development. Successful intervention models should:

- address underlying constraints that prevent market engagement;
- focus on end-market channels with the fewest barriers to entry and lowest risks;
- initiate the process of establishing commercial relationships and building market literacy; and
- ensure that increased participation of women is meaningful so that it also translates into equitable benefits.

In addition, access to finance is a critical issue for rural households, particularly for women. To effectively address this need, a market-based investigation must elucidate the gap in supply and offer alternative financial products for rural women's context. Finally, limited time is a major underlying constraint that disproportionately affects women because of their dual household and productive responsibilities. Therefore, development efforts must invest in and introduce labor-saving activities and women-friendly equipment to reduce these workloads.

Findings from the gender analysis support many of the assumptions about women's status in agriculture in sub-Saharan Africa. According to the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), women constitute 53 percent of agricultural labor in Zimbabwe, yet they do not have equitable access to key productive resources and assets, including land, inputs, capital, finance, water and equipment.¹ These constraints generally are applicable across all value chains. While many of these constraints apply to both women and men, they all have particular gender dimensions and often represent an even greater challenge to women than men as a result of gender dynamics in Zimbabwe. The key points from the study are outline below.

Rural women play a critical role as guardians of household food security. One of the few household decisions over which women have primary control is how much of their food crop to store for consumption and how much to sell for profit. Food crops (e.g., vegetables, maize and groundnuts) often are associated with being a "woman's crop," meaning that women traditionally manage small plots with these crops, store part of the harvest for consumption and barter or sell the remainder in local markets. Women use the income to buy food, household goods and pay for children's education. Women in Zimbabwe are more likely than men to spend income on household goods and welfare, such as education fees and healthcare. Statements and observations from both focus groups and informant interviews indicate that as food crops are becoming more commercialized in Zimbabwe, men are becoming more involved and are appropriating the market opportunities, which means they receive the income and women have less control over how the income is spent. These are critical income transactions in relation to household food security. They indicate that

¹ FAO. The State of Food and Agriculture 2010–2011. p. 11.

commercialization of crops in Zimbabwe could potentially contribute to household food insecurity if efforts are not taken to ensure women also have influence over how income is spent, or that income is spent more equitably on household welfare.

Female-headed households (estimated 39–42 percent of households) face different constraints than married women in male-headed households and implementation must take that into consideration. De jure female-headed households are more likely to be among the very poor, but have similar physical asset bases as male-headed households, except for livestock and equipment. De facto female-headed households have fewer productive assets, but do not see a disproportionate lack in income or education, and generally manage to achieve crop incomes similar crop to male-headed households. Female-headed households can be potential entry points for engaging women in nontraditional roles.

Women are **de jure heads of household** if they have no husband, whether from divorce, death or having never married.

Women act as **de facto heads of household** when their husbands are temporarily or permanently absent from homes.

Women farmers have noted they are increasingly involved in household decision making, due to their significant contributions to household income. This is a positive indication; however it is important to note that ultimately, men still retain control. Women increasingly are involved in group contract farming and farming associations, yet a deliberate approach is required to ensure that women participate in meaningful ways; otherwise men are often the primary beneficiaries.

Women’s access to extension and training is increasing, which seems to be due to the increased direct targeting of these services to women by both the AGRITEX (Agriculture Research and Extension Services) and NGO community. However, if only one household member can attend training, the man usually attends. Programs should avoid targeting only one member of the household for trainings, since this typically means only men will attend. Female heads of households in Zimbabwe are less likely to attend a mostly male training.

Women-targeted efforts need to have the support of men in order to avoid backlash or appropriation. Local women’s and gender-oriented civil society groups, such as Padare Men’s Forum and Zimbabwe Women’s Lawyers Association (ZWLA), are demonstrating effective models for engaging men on women’s rights, land rights and the benefits of their participation in farming clusters.

There is an outreach gap between women’s need for credit and implementers’ ability to meet that need. Participatory fieldwork showed that women rank access to finance higher than men, yet implementers have reported that women do not apply for financing schemes and then assume they do not want it. Further exploration of this issue is necessary to identify how to close the outreach gap for women.

USAID programs are doing a commendable job increasing the numbers of women participating in programs. However, more effort is needed to measure and report the benefits of participation—both quantitatively and qualitatively—and ensure that participation is meaningful. Programs need to allocate more resources to gender mainstreaming, since they largely agree that capacity in gender awareness and expertise is the main constraining factor to enhancing gender approaches. Successful approaches identified in this assessment include:

- Village savings and loans (VSLs) that allow women to meet basic household needs and serve as an entry point for them to build assets and develop market literacy skills in a way that is comfortable and accessible.
- Contract farming targeted to women. Women then need to be supported at each stage of the process, including ensuring that the person whose name is on the contract is the same person who picks up the inputs, getting women into lead farmer positions, and holding trainings at times, intervals and places that fit into women’s schedules.

- Appropriate irrigation technologies introduced to reduce women’s workload and increase productivity, such as gravity-fed irrigation systems and mechanized pumps.
- Land rights awareness raised through community-driven methods, such as the peer educator method implemented in Mudzi in partnership with the Women in Law in Southern Africa, Ministry of Justice, Ministry of Health, the police and Ministry of Gender. The training focuses on how to write a will and administer the estate of the deceased. Anecdotal results show that more people are writing wills that protect women’s assets.
- Projects focused on setting the training time, interval and location around women’s needs and schedules. These projects report greater participation by women, and findings indicate they are most likely to actively participate if they are in women-only or women-majority trainings.
- Efforts engaging women in nontraditional roles, such agro-veterinary service providers and milk committee boards. This often relies on the implementer’s persistence, deliberate targeting, and creative rethinking of traditional requirements for such roles.
- Women’s Business Platforms that cluster women in a comfortable environment where they build and practice leadership skills while developing critical market and business skills.

Projects and agencies are most successful at introducing creative and effective approaches to increase women’s access to economic opportunities if they have a senior-level person dedicated to gender equity. USAID key personnel requirements should include demonstrated commitment to gender equity. Projects also should not lump gender focus into a “cross-cutting” position. Instead these responsibilities should be assigned to the position where they are most relevant and filled by the individual who is most capable of leading change within the project. USAID should support greater investment in building staff gender capacity and sensitivity, which was identified as the major barrier to implementing more effective gender approaches.

Women and gender-focused Zimbabwean civil society organizations have been implementing creative and anecdotally successful projects to address sensitive gender issues in communities and increase women’s economic opportunities. However, they have not been fully engaged by USAID programs as resources, beneficiaries and value chain partners. USAID should create incentives in programs to work with women and gender-focused civil society, e.g., by providing training, developing a gender policy or mobilizing community members/farmers. Capacity building should focus on management, administration and business practices, and technical capacity. A strong, grassroots, women-focused civil society is critical for changing attitudes and behaviors regarding traditional gender practices in decision making and control of resources.

The National Gender Policy and corresponding action plan is underfunded. It suffers from lack of awareness and from the lack of resources and capacity within the Ministry of Women’s Affairs, Gender and Community Development.

GoZ and internationally funded researchers need to do a better job integrating gender into their data collection and reporting methods, particularly in reporting data that is disaggregated by sex in all quantitative and statistical studies, such as the Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee (ZimVAC) study.

Development implementers and Zimbabwean civil society are eager for ways to disseminate and share information about gender issues and successful approaches to economic and agricultural development and food security.

I. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to ascertain the status of women compared to men in accessing and benefitting from development efforts in Zimbabwe’s agricultural sector, particularly those relating to food security. The report presents findings from an analysis of gender inequities in policies and practices, as well as an assessment of current development efforts by government and nongovernment institutions to address gender inequities. Based on these findings, the report outlines the implications and recommendations for future programming in Zimbabwe, primarily USAID’s FtF program.

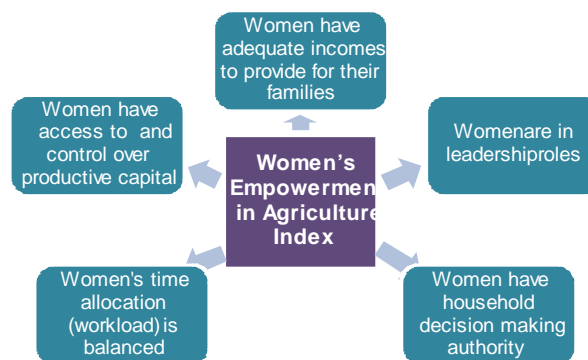
The motivation for this study is based on the premise that gender equality is a development goal, and gender equity is a smart development practice. Just as development means reduction in poverty and increased access to justice, it also means reduction in gaps in well-being between males and females.² Yet gender equity also is increasingly recognized by economists as a necessity for achieving economic growth, reducing poverty and increasing food security in many developing and emerging- market countries. Based on a study of a range of developing countries, the FAO determined that if women had the same access to and control over production resources as men, they could increase yields on their farms by 20–30 percent, which could raise total agricultural output in developing countries by 2.5–4 percent, thereby reducing the number of hungry people in the world by 12–17 percent.³ The implications of this study demonstrate that development efforts to reduce food security and increase economic growth cannot be achieved without ensuring gender equity in accessing development opportunities and the ability to reap the benefits of those opportunities.

What is “Gender”?

While “sex” refers to universal biological characteristics that define males and females according to reproductive abilities, “gender” is defined as the socially constructed differences between males and females and the social roles and relationships between them. Gender roles are learned through socialization and vary by culture and context. They also change over time. Gender shapes the dynamics of human interaction and is influenced by economics, distribution of resources, political power and social spheres.

This study’s approach is based on the hypothesis that gender mainstreaming of government and donor economic policies and programs is an effective strategy to achieve gender equality. Using the definition of the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC), gender mainstreaming is the process of identifying gender gaps and making the concerns of women, men, girls and boys integral to the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programs in all spheres, so that the participants benefit equally. With regard to food security, gender mainstreaming ensures equal access to, control over and benefit from productive resources and services involved in food production, processing, marketing and consumption.

The conceptual framework behind the ACIDI/VOCA team’s methodology is designed with reference to the FtF Women’s Empowerment in Agriculture Index, which was still under development at the time of this study. The index is expected to aggregate indicators for household decision making and time allocation in relation to agricultural production, women’s access to productive capital, the adequacy of their income to provide for their families; and women’s access to leadership roles in the community (see figure above).



² World Bank. World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development. p. 3.

³ FAO. The State of Food and Agriculture 2010–2011. p.5.

USAID ECONOMIC GROWTH/FOOD SECURITY PROGRAMS

In the past three decades, Zimbabwe's tremendous agricultural potential has been undermined by financial and political volatility. A decade of turmoil beginning in 1999 reached a climax in 2008 with hyper-inflation, high unemployment and increased food insecurity. Although the country has reached a degree of stability since 2009, rural Zimbabweans continue to face the double burden of uncertain livelihoods and food insecurity. The ZimVAC reported that an estimated 1.6 million people, about 18 percent of the rural population, were food insecure in 2009–2010.⁴

USAID/Zimbabwe is committed to supporting the country's economic stabilization and food security through USAID's Economic Growth program. The strategy includes analysis for economic growth planning and support for livelihood activities that increase income and employment as well as agricultural activities. USAID Economic Growth programming in Zimbabwe includes value chain development, linking farmers to markets, strengthening farmer associations and improving the enabling environment. In addition to enabling economic growth, USAID/Zimbabwe supports emergency food programs during periods of food insecurity, working with partners including the World Food Program, World Vision, and Catholic Relief Services (CRS). During the 2011 peak lean season (January-March) USAID/Zimbabwe contributed over \$61 million in humanitarian assistance.

Gender is a cross-cutting focus, and each project includes a gender equity component, for example, target numbers of women beneficiaries. This study supports USAID/Zimbabwe to assess the effectiveness of gender integration in existing projects, better understand the situation for women in rural Zimbabwe and provide the agency with recommendations to improve gender mainstreaming practices with a focus on food security through value-chain development.

METHODOLOGY

Data collection took place in several stages using multiple methodologies as a means of triangulating report findings. The assessment team conducted a *literature review* of secondary data and recent assessments related to gender issues, agricultural value chains, land rights, policies and socioeconomic status of women and men in Zimbabwe. The team reviewed existing quantitative data from publicly available surveys and statistical studies, which, unfortunately, was limited.

Two comprehensive gender analyses of the Zimbabwean agricultural sector were conducted within the last three years. The first, a *Situational Analysis on the Gender Gaps in the Agricultural Sector in Zimbabwe*, by the Zimbabwe Women's Resource Centre and Network (ZWRCN) was released in 2008 and is a comprehensive resource based on a quantitative survey.⁵ The second, a *Consultancy Study on the Economic Empowerment of Women in the Agriculture Sector*, contracted by the Ministry of Women's Affairs, Gender and Community Development (MWAGCD), was released in 2011 and provides updated information including a thorough review of government programs.⁶ This USAID assessment both validates and builds upon many of their findings and complements them by providing implications targeting USAID-funded programs, particularly FtF initiatives.

The methodology for this study also included *key informant interviews* with donors, government officials, Zimbabwe civil society leaders and value chain actors. USAID-funded project leaders in Harare contributed a large portion of the findings and recommendations. *Policy analysis* also was based on the review of available gender, land and agricultural policies. To inform the assessment of current USAID-funded approaches, the team conducted an *online quantitative survey* of perceptions about gender mainstreaming in projects.

⁴ Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee. *Zimbabwe Rural Household Livelihoods Survey*, October 2009, p. 8. The latest data from the 2011 ZimVAC study was not available at the time of this report.

⁵ Zimbabwe Women's Resource Center and Network. "Situational Analysis on the Gender Gaps in the Agriculture Sector in Zimbabwe." Zimbabwe, ZWRCN, 2008.

⁶ Chipika, Stephen. "Consultancy Study on Economic Empowerment of Women in the Agricultural Sector." Ministry of Women's Affairs, Gender and Community Development, April 2011, p. 17.

The team also conducted two weeks of field work in four districts in Zimbabwe—Gweru, Kwekwe, Goromonzi and Mudzi—that included *key informant interviews* with locally based officials and value chain actors, plus *participatory focus groups* with male and female farmers. The focus group facilitator used three gender analysis techniques:

- Harvard Analytical Framework Activity Profile
- Harvard Analytical Framework Access/Control Profile⁷
- priority ranking analysis tool based on the Social-Economic and Gender Analysis Framework⁸

Finally, formulation of recommendations was based on findings from all the methods, plus a stakeholders' workshop conducted in Harare with 40 participants representing government, donor and civil society communities. The bibliography is attached to this report and the lists of informants and focus group information are included in Annexes F and G, respectively.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

While the multiple techniques used during the study were informative and comprehensive, the information is largely qualitative and anecdotal and should be interpreted as indicative, not conclusive. There is a significant lack of publicly available sex-disaggregated quantitative data about Zimbabwe that would enable substantiation of anecdotal, first-person accounts, particularly related to economic activity and agricultural production in Zimbabwe. When sex-disaggregated data is available, it is even more difficult to find data disaggregated by both commodity, as well as sex, making value chain-specific findings hard to come by. It is hoped that these reports will inform development program strategies and interventions, and that USAID and policymakers will encourage future researchers to incorporate sex-disaggregated data and gender analysis into agricultural market and vulnerability studies and publicly available reports so that future gender assessments can incorporate deeper triangulation of qualitative findings.

II. GENDER ANALYSIS OF SMALL-SCALE AGRICULTURE SECTOR

Although women constitute 61.7 percent of the rural population and 53 percent of the agricultural workforce, GoZ policies and traditional practices have routinely restricted women from land ownership and equitably accessing productive resources and extension services.⁹ Significant gender equality gaps persist in Zimbabwe, particularly in economic and political sectors. Zimbabwe has shown only slight gains in closing gender gaps over the past five years, having increased its score in the Global Gender Equality Gap Index only slightly from 0.646 in 2006 to 0.661 in 2011, (where 1 equals the highest possible score of equality and 0 equals the lowest possible

⁷ The Harvard Analytical Framework's *Activity Profile* identifies who does what, when, where, how and how often. This information leads to an analysis of the gender division of labor in productive, reproductive and community work within the household and community, disaggregated by sex and age. The *Access and Control Profile* examines who has access to and control over which resources, services and decision-making institutions and who benefits from development projects and programs.

⁸ Priority Ranking Analysis assesses participants' priorities for development and was used to highlight where constraints differ between women and men and where they overlap. For more information, see: <http://www.fao.org/gender/seaga/en>.

⁹ Food and Agriculture Organization. State of the World's Food 2010–2011, p. 90, 111, 41.

score).¹⁰ To put this in an international context, Zimbabwe currently ranks 88 out of 136 countries in this index. The slight improvements mainly are due to greater gender parity in access to tertiary education and nonagricultural wage equality, both of which are relevant to this study.¹¹

This section presents findings from analysis of the key indicators of women’s socioeconomic status in comparison to men’s, specifically related to the agriculture sector. Due to limited available quantitative data disaggregated by sex and value chain, this information is based on triangulating findings from literature review, informant interviews and fieldwork. While many of the constraints described in the following sections can be regarded as general agricultural constraints faced by many males and females, they all have particular gender dimensions and often are experienced even greater by women as a result of gender norms. In addition, while many of the constraints described in this and subsequent sections may be applicable to sub-Saharan Africa in general, all findings presented are results of this study and relate specifically to Zimbabwe.

GENDER ROLES

RURAL HOUSEHOLD DIVISION OF FARM LABOR

On smallholder farms, all family members are involved in multiple productive tasks. Fieldwork suggested that women generally engage in productive activities to a much greater extent than men, such as planting, weeding, watering and harvesting. These tasks take up a great deal of women’s time during the day and throughout the year, and women generally spend more time engaging in farming activities on a daily and annual basis than men. Adult men, and sometimes male youth, generally engage in activities that require the most physical strength, such as land preparation, plowing and fencing or use more expensive mechanical technologies. Men, women and children of all ages typically are involved in harvesting of most crops. Overall, women provide productive labor for all value chains. However, women play a more minimal role in the male-dominated value chains of sugar, cattle and dairy. Despite limited involvement in these value chains, evidence from field research, stakeholders and desk review sources reveal that women are becoming more active in these traditionally male areas.

Gender roles are the behaviors, duties and responsibilities that normally are performed by men or women because of how society or power relations define what it means to be a man or woman in a given context.

One of the major distinguishing factors of Zimbabwean agriculture is the high prevalence of female-headed households, which the FAO reports to be 42.6 percent.¹² This is due in part to high levels of migration by men to cities and towns in Zimbabwe and neighboring countries in search of economic opportunities and livelihood diversification. A study of one region in Zimbabwe found that remittances sent by husbands working away from the homestead often are a major source of nonagricultural income for rural households.¹³ Women, who typically remain at the rural home, supplement income through agricultural labor and production.

Although many urban workers migrated back to their rural homesteads during and after Zimbabwe’s financial crisis, male migratory labor continues to be a major source of income for many rural families. Other

¹⁰ The Global Gender Gap Index is sponsored by the World Economic Forum. It benchmarks national gender gaps according to an index of 14 indicators in the areas of economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival and political empowerment. It provides country rankings that allow for effective comparisons across regions and income groups, and over time.

¹¹ Gender Gap Index 2011, p. 26.

¹² FAO. State of the World’s Food 2010–2011, p. 118. This is according to the “most recent observation” and FAO does not list a date for it. This percentage refers to the share of rural households that are female headed. It has increased from the FAO’s reported earliest observation, which was 39.4 percent. Again, FAO does not list a date for the earliest observation.

¹³ Muza, Olivia. “Informal Employment, Gender and Vulnerability in Subsistence Based Agricultural Economies: Evidence from Masvingo in Zimbabwe.” FAO, 2009.

nonagricultural activities that became more prominent for rural households after the financial crisis include fishing, hunting, collecting, logging, nonfarm informal wage employment and nonfarm self-employment.¹⁴ Focus group participants also mentioned fishing and logging as common nonagricultural income-generating activities for men.

WORKLOAD IMBALANCES: WOMEN'S TRIPLE ROLES

While it is common for men and women to perform many of the same productive activities, women primarily are responsible for reproductive work. Reproductive activities that women perform include fetching water and fuel, laundering, shopping, preparing food, cleaning the home and taking care of children and other family members. Men are involved in some reproductive roles such as making repairs to the home and collecting wood and water via scotch carts or wheelbarrows.¹⁵

Women's reproductive duties also overflow into responsibilities to the community, such as representation on burial societies, farming on communal plots (called *Zunde raMambo* plots¹⁶), and performing unpaid, manual labor and cooking duties in community improvement activities. Men also have important community responsibilities, however the gender imbalance lies in the joint reproductive and community-based work of caring for the most vulnerable in the community, including orphans and vulnerable children, people living with HIV (PLHIV) and the elderly, for which women are largely responsible. While this is an additional burden for individual women, it also is important to recognize that women have developed coping strategies and capacities for caring for vulnerable people; this should be recognized as a critical community resource.

Women face a triple role in which they perform a great deal of productive and reproductive work, as well as community work. Consequently, women bear the burden of heavy workloads, which are a major barrier to their economic empowerment in the agricultural sector. Women may be too busy with existing responsibilities to attend trainings, access key information on input schemes or market demand or serve in decision-making roles. Moreover, women's roles as caregivers and men's limited roles in reproductive labor can restrict women's mobility and their ability to access

Reproductive work refers to care and maintenance of the household and its members. It is critical for human survival but is often overlooked as being "work."

Productive work refers to the production of goods and services for consumption and trade. Women's productive work is often less visible and valued than men's.

Community work refers to the voluntary organization of social events and services, ceremonies and celebrations, community improvement activities, and participation in organizations and political activities.

employment, more profitable markets and training opportunities that require travel outside of the community. In addition, while de jure and de facto female heads of households may have greater decision-making capacity and control over household resources, focus groups in the field suggested that they are responsible for performing increased productive agricultural work to compensate for the absence of the husband. Consequently, they find themselves even further constrained in accessing development opportunities.

It is generally seen as culturally inappropriate for men to engage in much of the reproductive tasks that women perform. This is a major barrier to reducing women's workloads. Efforts are needed to address biases inherent in current gender roles and reduce such stigma, so that men feel it is important to participate in reproductive work and are comfortable doing so. In addition, it is possible to adopt creative approaches to engaging men in reproductive roles that work *around* traditional gender norms. For example, while male focus group participants admitted that it would be culturally taboo for a man to engage in the reproductive task of fetching water by

¹⁴ Muza, p. 7.

¹⁵ These findings are supported by the 2008 survey by ZWRN and focus group responses. Women predominantly carry firewood on their heads and men use scotch carts or wheelbarrows to collect and transport fuel, which is less time consuming.

¹⁶ *Zunde raMambo* (also referred to as *Nhimbe*) are plots set aside by traditional leaders where community members grow food for orphans and vulnerable people in the community. Men also work on these plots.

carrying buckets on their heads, they can and do participate in this task using scotch carts and wheelbarrows. In doing so, these men are translating traditionally a female task into terms that are appropriate and acceptable to men.

GENDERED DIMENSIONS IN INTRA-HOUSEHOLD DECISION MAKING AND CONTROL OVER ASSETS

Fieldwork and desk review findings overwhelmingly indicate that men control the bulk of household and family resources. This is in spite of the fact that women perform productive work equal to—if not more than—men, and carry the primary burden of reproductive and domestic work. While women can access many resources and the benefits of productive labor, they do not have the same decision-making authority over and ownership of them as men.

In general, men control the majority of the following resources used in performing productive activities: land, most tools and equipment, income and savings, raw materials, transportation, most livestock, trainings, farming inputs and information. While women are able to access many of these resources, they are generally unable to make major decisions regarding the purchasing, lending or sale of such resources. While husbands commonly consult with wives in making decisions on resources and benefits, men retain the final say.

Within the household, women control reproductive resources such as household utensils and kitchenware. The only productive resources women typically have some degree of control over are backyard gardens, fowl, ruminants and small agricultural tools—such as hoes—that are commonly used by women. However, while these resources are perceived as being controlled by women, in reality chickens and gardens had the highest rates of joint ownership out of a number of productive assets.¹⁷ This finding suggests that men also assert control and ownership over these resources. Similarly, both male and female fieldwork participants commonly admitted that men will sometimes exhibit more control over ruminants and fowl if the household does not own any larger livestock.

Women in polygamous marriages have a particularly reduced ability to both access and control resources and benefits, since limited resources and benefits must be shared across large families and multiple wives. This is a particularly important consideration given that one-third of Zimbabwe's population is Apostolic, a Christian-based sect that practices polygamy.¹⁸ This assessment did not reveal any direct findings on polygamy, since there were no Apostolic participants in fieldwork focus groups. However, male and female focus group participants in all fieldwork locations openly admitted that most men have girlfriends and that men will allocate money and other resources to them, even if resources are in short supply. Men's involvement in extra-marital relationships has similar implications as polygamy on women's ability to access and control resources and benefits.

However, fieldwork participants reported that women's roles in decision making are increasing, with women gaining a more active voice in household decisions due to their significant contributions to household income. This is a positive indication, but men ultimately still retain control. Women also have a significant degree of authority over the amount of harvested food crops to store for household consumption. This decision is critical for household food security and must be considered and incorporated into any intervention that seeks to increase household food security.

GENDER AND MARITAL STATUS: FEMALE HEADS OF HOUSEHOLDS

Female-headed households face different constraints and opportunities than do married women in male-headed households, and interventions must take this into consideration. Zimbabwe's rate of households headed by

¹⁷ ZWRCN, 2008, p. 35.

¹⁸ DFID. "DFID Zimbabwe: Gender and Social Exclusion Analysis." Harare, Zimbabwe, June 2011, p. 23.

women is estimated to be between 39 and 42 percent, which is comparatively high.¹⁹ This percentage is larger in the less agriculturally productive areas of the country, particularly regions IV and V, where up to 60 percent of households can be headed by women because husbands leave their wives in charge while seeking employment in neighboring towns, cities and countries.²⁰ Female fieldwork focus groups in Gweru, Goromonzi, Kwekwe and Mudzi were in line with national statistics, as illustrated in the chart below.

Marital Status of Female Fieldwork Focus Group Participants

| | Single | Divorced | Widowed | Total <i>de jure</i> head of household | Total <i>de facto</i> head of household | Total Married | Total Participants |
|-----------|--------|----------|---------|---|--|------------------|-----------------------|
| Gweru | n/a | 4 | 3 | 7 | 0 | 4 | 11 |
| Goromonzi | 1 | n/a | 4 | 5 | 1 | 4 | 9 |
| Kwekwe | n/a | n/a | 3 | 3 | 2 | 8 | 11 |
| Mudzi | 1 | 3 | 2 | 6 | 3 | 6 | 12 |

The Ministry of Public Service, Labor & Social Welfare’s 2006 “Poverty Assessment Study” found that the majority of female-headed households are amongst the poorest groups in the country with a 68 percent poverty incidence, compared to 32 percent in male-headed households.²¹ Female-headed households are more vulnerable to shocks that cause poverty than male-headed households.²²

De jure female-headed households are more likely to be illiterate and among the very poor than male-headed households or *de facto* female-headed households, even though they have similar physical asset bases as male-headed households and achieve similar levels of diversification.²³ They see less than two-thirds the income from crop sales and business activities than male-headed households.²⁴ Widows, divorcees and single women are less likely to own livestock than male-headed households, so often have borrow livestock and ploughing equipment from other households. Female focus groups participants described how this often meant that women were prevented from planting at the optimal times, thereby reducing crop yields and leading to loss of income and food security. In addition, fieldwork participants in most locations said that while it was somewhat easy to rent or borrow agricultural equipment from other households, community members were less likely to loan cattle to serve as draft animals.

De facto female heads of households have fewer productive resources and assets than other households, which constrains them in the crops grown and in their ability to take advantage of local market options.²⁵ They also have lower levels of labor available within the household, smaller land holdings, and are less likely to own land and farm machinery. However they typically have similar levels of livestock ownership compared to male-headed households.²⁶ Interestingly, *de facto* female-headed households do not suffer from a disproportionate lack of income, and generally manage to achieve similar crop incomes to male-headed households, while receiving remittances to supplement income.

¹⁹ Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee, “Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee Study (ZimVAC) Draft Report,” Zimbabwe, 2011 and FAO, *The State of Food and Agriculture 2010–2011*, p. 118.

²⁰ Stakeholder interview with Heather Van Sice, deputy chief of party, CARE Zimbabwe.

²¹ Ministry of Public Service, Labor and Social Welfare. “Poverty Assessment Study Survey (PASS).” Zimbabwe, government of Zimbabwe, 2006.

²² Jirira, Kwanele Muriel and Chimbete, Naome. “Gender Equality Analysis Zimbabwe.” CIDA, August 2009, p. 13.

²³ Horrell, Sara and Pramila Krishnan. “Poverty and Productivity in Female-Headed Households in Zimbabwe.” Cambridge Working Papers in Economics, July 2006, p. 18. While the report was published in 2006, it was based on results from a household survey conducted in Zimbabwe in 2001.

²⁴ Ibid.

²⁵ Ibid.

²⁶ Ibid. p. 8.

Gender roles are changing and adapting in the absence of men. Both de jure and de facto female heads of households often have decision-making capacity that married women do not. De jure female heads of household focus group participants did not require male permission to travel outside of the community, spend income or attend trainings. While some de facto female heads of household focus group participants required male permission, it was required less often than for married women with husbands at home. Female-headed households represent a potential entry point for engaging women in nontraditional roles. For example, women made up the majority of the milk center members in Goromonzi, partly because there were many more women present in the community than men.

GENDER CONSTRAINTS: RESOURCES AND OPPORTUNITIES

WATER

Lack of access to water is an increasing problem in Zimbabwe, particularly in regions IV and V and

Results from Priority Ranking Analysis in Focus Groups

When prioritizing agricultural constraints, both men and women in all four fieldwork locations identified many of the same problems: lack of water, inputs, equipment and cattle. When asked to list problems, female participants in all four focus groups did not name any gender-based constraints; gender-based constraints were always ranked at the lowest priority compared to other, more general, agricultural challenges. This finding indicates that both men and women largely are concerned with meeting basic needs and that helping both male and female beneficiaries meet these needs remains a priority.

When prompted, women identified their inability to own or access land in their name or jointly with their husband as key challenges. While such challenges were seen as less of a priority than meeting basic needs, women still described how they constrained their ability to engage effectively in agricultural value chains.

The only constraint that men and women prioritized differently was finance, with women in two out of four focus groups giving access to loans a higher priority than men. When facilitators revealed this difference to the men's focus group, they were surprised, having said that women typically are afraid of repayment. Stakeholders also had reported that women did not apply for financing when offered. This indicates assumptions about women's desire for financing and gaps in outreach to women about financing opportunities.

Matebeleland, which are drought-prone areas with erratic rainfall. Male and female focus group participants in all four fieldwork areas identified lack of water as a priority challenge and said that boreholes are limited in number and are being pushed to capacity.

Women bear the brunt of water scarcity because it is generally their responsibility to fetch water required for household use.²⁷ When water is scarce, women walk long distances to access it, which detracts from the time that could have been used for productive or reproductive work. Mercy Corps found that improved irrigation technology can reduce watering time for women in their project's targeted area, Murewa, by up to 70 percent.²⁸

While there has been substantial rehabilitation and development of irrigation systems, especially in communal areas under the Smallholder Irrigation Support Program and new farm irrigation projects, the overall land area with full-functioning irrigation facilities has declined in the last decade.²⁹ Most farmers lack resources to rehabilitate or maintain costly irrigation systems. The high costs of irrigation maintenance and rehabilitation have particularly strong impacts on female-headed households, which generally have fewer resources and less access to loans that could help them fund and maintain these systems and improve access to water. Efforts to improve irrigation technology need to be designed with women's interests and concerns in mind to ensure that the technology reduces their workloads in terms of accessing water and watering time. However, there is still

²⁷ ZWRCN survey found that women perform 76.6 percent of work for collecting drinking and bathing water. 2008, p. 36.

²⁸ Mercy Corps. "Revitalizing Agriculture Incomes and New Markets (RAIN) in Zimbabwe: Final Report." Submitted to USAID, 2011, p. 20.

²⁹ Chipka. 2011, p. 37.

disagreement on the irrigation technologies that are most appropriate and beneficial, which is discussed in more detail in Chapter 5.

INPUTS

While lack of access to inputs is accepted to be a major constraint for most smallholder producers, it is especially acute for small-scale women farmers. Studies have found that female-headed households have particular difficulties accessing government inputs and often are misinformed about terms of government schemes. For example, the ZWRCN study found that women were afraid to take advantage of a free fertilizer scheme because they had been misinformed that if they failed to produce, their assets would be confiscated.³⁰ Women's difficulties in accessing credit and loans, discussed below, also impede them from obtaining required inputs. This affects women's ability to cater to the nutritional needs of the family and engage in competitive marketing to earn greater income from the sale of produce.

Commercial input supply appears to be as accessible for male as for female farmers. Private agro-dealer informants listed their customers as between 50:50 and 60:40 male-female. Credit for inputs on the commercial market is inaccessible equally unless it is subsidized by donor-funded projects. There were reports of friction between farmers supported by NGO-subsidized input schemes and those who were not.

TRAINING AND EXTENSION SERVICES

In the past, women had lower levels of agricultural education and training than men. Constraints to women's participation in training and extension included targeting by AGRITEX agents and training programs, acquiring permission by husbands to attend training, women's heavy workloads and fear of venturing outside accepted gender roles when trainings are on nontraditional topics. However, focus groups and informant interviews indicate that women's access to education and training are improving, and in some cases felt that their participation was starting to surpass that of men.

One of the primary constraints that women still face is their heavy workloads that limit their ability to attend agricultural education and training. This may be particularly true for female-headed households. While these women may not require male permission (depending on whether they are *de jure* or *de facto* head of households), the burden of added productive labor in the absence of a husband can serve to increase the already heavy workloads of female heads of households, thereby making it even more difficult for them to find the time to attend trainings.

In addition, Harrell's 2006 report on female-headed households found that women often are reluctant to attend trainings that promote technologies perceived as masculine or require physical strength.³¹ This may be due to women lacking the confidence to believe they can succeed in male-dominated or strength-requiring activities or because they fear the stigma or other potential ramifications of stepping outside traditional roles.

One of the primary reasons given for increased female participation in agricultural training is because both AGRITEX and the NGO sector have undertaken more deliberate targeting of women for trainings. AGRITEX and training programs traditionally targeted heads of households or landowners.³² While there are no sex disaggregated data on providing extension services, past studies show that extension workers exhibited bias toward "bigger or better farmers" and targeted successful farmers who have better resources and are in positions to adopt recommendations.³³ Such favoring had an inherent male bias since male farmers often have better resources and positions. Interviews with local AGRITEX agents in Gweru showed that the organization

³⁰ ZWRCN, 2008, p. 43.

³¹ Horrell. 2006, p. 15.

³² Ibid, p. 32.

³³ Ibid, p. 31. Also, a 2002 report by AGRITEX found that while more women are able to access extension services, these services still are failing to meet specific needs of female farmers. See Horrell. 2006, p. 15.

has since modified its approach using a Master Farmer program that targets the people actually doing the work—not the landowners. Reportedly, more of the participants now are women. The GoZ has made great strides in increasing the effectiveness of extension programs for women, as well as recruiting more women to work as extension agents, which is discussed in detail in Chapter 3.

Despite improvements in women’s ability to access AGRITEX services, they still can be excluded from training opportunities when AGRITEX agents, donors, NGOs and other stakeholders target one member per household to attend trainings and other capacity-building sessions. Both male and female fieldwork focus groups said that if only one household member is allowed to attend a training, the man will attend.

Focus group participants also acknowledged that women recognize the benefits of training and subsequently are making greater effort to attend trainings. Female focus group participants expressed that women have not always had the same opportunities to attend trainings as they do today, with many women seizing on this increased opportunity.

TECHNOLOGY AND EQUIPMENT

Access to basic farming equipment, such as draft power, is required for successful commercial agriculture. Technology and equipment differ from other productive resources in that, in addition to women being unable to control these resources, they also cannot access them—even if they are available locally or within the household—due to the perceived value of equipment and the sociocultural norms of women’s roles. While women have user rights to many of the household resources they do not control, they typically do not have the same user rights to access equipment. In general, the more valuable an asset is, the lower the likelihood it will be owned, controlled or used by women within the household. This finding applies to tractors, carts, cultivators, plows, wheelbarrows and other types of agricultural and processing equipment. ZWRCN’s participatory study found low levels of joint ownership of productive assets, with less than five percent for these types of equipment.³⁴

Woman-Friendly Equipment

“Woman-friendly” equipment refers to equipment that is designed with women’s physical capacities and reproductive demands in mind. Woman-friendly equipment does not require much physical strength, can be used when multi-tasking—such as while carrying children—uses time more efficiently, is easy to transport and is easily maintained or repaired.

Focus group participants indicated that both women and men generally perceive women as too weak to use large equipment, with the use of such equipment widely regarded as men’s work. While large equipment might be difficult for some women to use, traditional gender roles prevent the majority of women from even trying. This can be particularly constraining to women who are de jure or de facto heads of households.³⁵ They must typically rely on a son or male family member to use the equipment or hire labor. Both alternatives can lead to delays in farming activities, which, in turn, can adversely affect yields. Many female heads of households, particularly widows, lack the financial means to hire paid labor to complete these tasks. This constraint can be overcome by promoting more efficient and “women-friendly” equipment and challenging social norms regarding equipment use, combined with increased assets and financing opportunities to better enable them to hire labor, if needed.

There is a much higher likelihood that women will own and actually control smaller equipment, such as hoes and buckets. Men also control small tools used mainly by men in agricultural labor, such as sickles and picks.

FARMER CLUSTERS, ASSOCIATIONS AND PRODUCER GROUPS

In the past 10 years, women have been making inroads as active players in farming-based organizations, yet their participation in these groups may not be as meaningful or equitably beneficial. Some women join existing male-

³⁴ ZWRCN, 2008, p. 35.

³⁵ Ibid, p. 43.

dominated farming associations because they are more established with many contacts. Informants suggested that women in these associations complain of information getting to them late and meetings being held at times that are not suitable to women. Male leaders claimed that women have equal access to their associations, but point out that women's capacity often is limited. When requesting access to inputs or to participate in grower programs, women claimed they are given fewer hectares than they requested. They said the reason is that they do not have the same capacity to produce as men.

Anecdotal experiences from development implementers suggest that they encourage farmer groups to achieve a gender balance in leadership. However, female members generally defer authority and decision making to male committee members and even are hesitant to participate in the presence of men. Women's role in decision-making bodies often is predominantly symbolic. This also reflects the constraint of internalizing gender norms of behavior and decision making by both women and men and calls for self-confidence as a first step towards women's leadership and self-efficacy.

In some cases, these issues have resulted in women farmers forming women-majority farming associations. For example, the Women Farmers Land and Agricultural Trust (WFLA) was founded because women felt they were not benefiting from existing, male-dominated farmers' unions and associations. According to WFLA's founder, unions and farming associations had women members, but were sidelining or only paying lip service to women's issues. The WFLA was formed by women farmers in response to this challenge and was explicitly designed to protect the interests of female farmers.³⁶

Most farmer associations provide services such as lobbying for access to farming resources, capacity strengthening, and access to finance and information on new farmer support initiatives from the government or private sector. However these initiatives lack a strong and well-coordinated institutional framework for supporting meaningful participation in farmer associations from both the government and the donor community.³⁷

FINANCIAL SERVICES

Women encounter particular challenges in accessing financial services and credit. In terms of formal loans, according to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) Gender, Institutions and Development Database 2009, women have equal access to bank loans under the law; however banks often ask for a husband's permission or consent. These practices led the OECD to rank Zimbabwe 0.5 on a scale of 0 to 1 for gender equality in accessing bank loans, with 1 being the worst possible score.³⁸ To receive credit, the loan applicant often has to be a landholder or permit holder. These requirements are particularly disadvantageous to women because land ownership is a major constraint for women.

While all microfinance institutions offer loans to women, many have a very low percentage of women applicants and clients. Microfinance institutions that currently have a high percentage of women clients include Women Development Savings and Credit Union, Self Help Development Company, Self Employed Women's Association of Zimbabwe, Wintron and the Collective Self Finance Scheme.³⁹ Several microcredit organizations and projects that specifically catered to women were severely affected by the country's recent economic troubles. For example, the Zimbabwe Women's Finance Trust and ZAMBUKO had loan facilities for women, but the former organization is no longer operational and the latter has significantly scaled back operations from

³⁶ Stakeholder interview with Phides Mazhawidza, Founder and Director, Women Farmers Land and Agricultural Trust .

³⁷ Chipika, 2011, p. 48.

³⁸ Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development. Gender, Institutions and Development Database 2009 (GID-DB), accessed December 2011. Ranking is on a 0-to-1 scale, where 1 is the worst possible score and 0 the best. www.oecd.org/dev/gender.

³⁹ Stakeholder Interview with Beatrice Machechera, Zimbabwe Association of Microfinance Institutions (ZAMFI).

30 branches to 6 branches due to financial challenges.⁴⁰ Current government financing programs are discussed in Chapter 3.

Despite the presence of organizations with high percentages of women clients, fieldwork for this study supported desk review findings that women are encountering challenges in accessing loans. Female focus group participants in all fieldwork locations described how they had trouble accessing loans and even information on existing loan opportunities and application procedures. Existing credit packages generally are highly inadequate for the needs of women farmers. Lending periods tend to be very short, while agricultural production often requires longer-term credit.⁴¹ Interest rates usually are very high, which makes it difficult for women, particularly those engaging in small-scale commercial farming, to repay and benefit from loans.

This study could not identify sex-disaggregated data on loan disbursement at the small-scale farming level since the financial crisis in 2008. While there is a perception among USAID implementing partners that men prioritize access to loans higher than women do, female focus groups ranked the inability to access loans and credit as a more serious problem than men in three out of four fieldwork locations, with women ranking it as a top priority problem in two locations. Yet, implementing organizations report that few women apply for financing, which suggests there is an outreach gap in current financing schemes. Women saw access to credit as a valuable resource for giving them greater access to inputs and other resources needed to expand productive work, increase production, diversify agricultural practices and take care of the family.

MARKETS

According to focus group findings, women in Zimbabwe are more active in selling produce at local markets than men. However, women encounter a number of constraints that make it difficult for them to engage in more competitive marketing. In most communal land areas, crops often are produced in quantities that are too small or too-poor quality to meet standards required for selling in formal markets. Markets often are located far from local communities, with transportation costly and scarce. Many married women require their husbands' permission to travel outside of the homestead or local community. Consequently, many women engage in barter or informal selling of products.

Female producers are more likely to sell produce through barter trade and informal mechanisms, whereas men are more likely to market products through formal mechanisms, such as the Grain Marketing Board. Focus group participants attributed this to the high volume of produce needed for such sales, and that it was harder for women to transport in bulk. This was seen as another reason why women dominate sales in local markets—they can work with smaller quantities of goods on a daily basis and not need to transport items in bulk.

At the local level, men also are more likely to market goods in cities. Male and female focus groups in most fieldwork locations admitted that while women can and often do market produce in cities, they are more vulnerable than men to theft of goods or being taken advantage of when selling crops. Additionally, rural dwellers who sell informally in peri-urban and urban markets often do not have working knowledge of urban marketing procedures and risk harassment by police.

The Hawkers Act of 2003 gives police the mandate to clear all unlicensed street vendors. As women constitute the majority of informal vendors, they are particularly vulnerable to such harassment.⁴² One interviewed stakeholder also suggested that police are more likely to target female vendors than males due to perceptions of female vulnerability. Women in one focus group specifically complained of a bribe, or “fee,” of up to \$4 per day. In addition, a 2009 report on informal employment, gender, and vulnerability in subsistence-based

⁴⁰ Makamure, 2011, p. 50.

⁴¹ Chipika, 2011, p. 36.

⁴² New Dimensions Consultancy and George Zimbizi. “Gender Scoping Study Report,” Joint Donor Steering Committee, April 2007, p. 6; DFID, 2011, p. 11.

agricultural economies found that some women are jailed if they do not pay bribes or the required fines for selling without a license. There have been some reports of women being forced to perform hard labor in commercial farms owned by the state if they did not have cash to pay fines.⁴³ While police harassment has served as a major constraint to women's ability to engage in marketing in urban and peri-urban areas, one stakeholder said that some municipalities recently have changed bylaws to better assist urban informal sellers, so police harassment may be less of a problem to women in the future.

The GoZ 2005 Operation Restore Order (ORO) or *Operation Murambatsvina*, was adopted to encourage urban to rural migration. But it also had very negative impact on the livelihoods of women involved in informal agricultural marketing. ORO provisions required informal vendors to apply and pay for licenses and operate only in designated areas.⁴⁴ Many informal market stalls were destroyed under the auspices of ORO. ORO was particularly harmful to women who are the key actors in the informal sector. Many women who were vegetable vendors could not meet the formal requirements or operate effectively from allocated sites.⁴⁵ Consequently, they were unable to market their products and lost their main means of livelihood. Strict enforcement of vending regulations made it very difficult for women to enter the sector. Overall, 700,000 people in cities across the country lost their homes, their sources of livelihood or both.⁴⁶

When women do attempt to engage in more formal marketing, they frequently lack sufficient market information and intelligence on market opportunities and trends. Opportunistic middlemen known as *makorokoza* often exploit this lack of information by offering to buy produce from rural households at low prices, hoping to resell it in urban areas at much higher prices. Most women do not understand the procedures and requirements for entry into high-demand markets, and largely are unable to penetrate them, both domestically and internationally.⁴⁷ In general, men have greater mobility, time, networks and access to mechanisms through which market information is shared.

GENDER CONSTRAINTS: ASSETS AND INCOME

LAND

Land tenure is perhaps the greatest constraint that rural women in Zimbabwe face. It is a constraint for both men and women, but the OECD's Gender, Institutions and Development Database 2009 gave Zimbabwe the worst possible score for women's equal access to land ownership, as compared to men's.⁴⁸ While more women have been able to access and control land in recent years due to campaigns on land rights, most of Zimbabwe's land is controlled by men, with 80 percent of state land leased to men.⁴⁹ Only 20 percent of women involved in agriculture are landowners or leaseholders.⁵⁰ While men hold an average of 2.73 hectares of communal land, female-headed households only hold an average of 1.86 hectares.^{51, 52}

Women face difficulties in acquiring land in their own name. While female-headed households can acquire land under resettlement schemes, married women access land through their husbands. Customary and administrative heads responsible for land allocation mostly are male and tend to favor male heads of households. In cases

⁴³ Muza, 2009, p. 12–13.

⁴⁴ New Dimensions Consultancy, 2007, p. 6.

⁴⁵ DFID, 2011, p. 11.

⁴⁶ Muza: 2009, p. 5.

⁴⁷ Chipika: 2011, p. 61.

⁴⁸ Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. Gender, Institutions and Development Database 2009 (GID–DB) (accessed December 2011). The ranking is on a 0-to-1 scale, where 1 is the worst possible score and 0 the best possible score. www.oecd.org/dev/gender.

⁴⁹ Jiriria, 2009, p. 5.

⁵⁰ Central Statistical Office. "Labor Force Survey," Harare, Zimbabwe, Central Statistical Office, 2006.

⁵¹ DFID, 2011, p. 20

⁵² There is a lack of current data on land ownership, mainly because it is such a political issue.

where women have applied for land with their husbands, land predominantly has been registered in the husband's name. In addition, some husbands do not want their wives to own or lease land in their names. The MWAGCD/World Bank study found that men often resorted to violence if women tried to gain land without their husbands' permission.⁵³ When women do have land titles in their own names, they often are lacking knowledge and information about their security of tenure.⁵⁴ Consequently, they do not always benefit from all their legal rights.

Tseu Yamai

Tseu yamai is a traditional practice that gave a woman the right to a small piece on which she could farm whatever interested and or was important to her. She had ownership and control of the produce and benefits from them. However the size and frequency of this practice has declined with the increased scarcity of land.

Women also face challenges in inheriting land. Governmental policy protects women's equal right to inherit land, but women still encounter challenges in inheriting land from husbands and parents because the constitution allows traditional law to supersede common law. The traditional practice of male domination in land ownership is largely attributed to the cultural belief that sons can continue the family lineage and keep resources in the family, whereas daughters will give inherited resources to their husbands. More information on the legal framework and policy related to women's inheritance is provided in Chapter 3.

Most widows can continue to live and farm on communal land, but user rights typically will remain in the name of the deceased husband. According to the literature, land disputes are common in resettlement areas, where women's ability to inherit a husband's land permit often is at the discretion of a resettlement officer, and many women are disintitiled after being widowed.⁵⁵ It also is common for brothers and other male relatives of deceased husbands to try to dispossess widows from their husbands' land. Women have encountered threats of physical abuse and intimidation from relatives of their husbands' who are trying to take control of land.⁵⁶ Women are rarely truly secure in their ability to access and control land if land remains in the name of the deceased husband.

None of the widows who participated in fieldwork focus groups had inherited land titles after the deaths of their husbands and most were still working on land in their husbands' names. It should also be noted that the majority of these women had not encountered any challenges to continuing access to their husbands' land. Female focus group participants were aware of situations where male relatives of deceased husbands tried to take land access from the widow, but felt strongly that village heads and local authorities would intervene on the widow's behalf in such situations. Despite these assurances, it is possible that these women are not sufficiently informed to realize the true vulnerability of their situation.

Without control over or ownership of land, women have less bargaining power in the household and community. They also have less opportunity to derive benefits from land than men do. Women's inability to control land also puts limitations on the crops they can grow. While husbands usually allocate a portion of land for women to use, women do not exercise full control over these plots. The size and location of the plot is at the discretion of the husband, which affects what and how much a woman can grow. In addition, married women often lose access to previously allocated land when land becomes scarce.⁵⁷

⁵³Chipika, 2011, p. 51.

⁵⁴ Ibid, p. 50.

⁵⁵ Cited in Horrell, 2006, p. 5, from Jacobs, Susie (2000) 'The effects of land reform on gender relations in Zimbabwe', in Tanya A. S. Bowyer-Bower and Colin Stoneman (eds) *Land Reform in Zimbabwe: constraints and prospects*, Aldershot: Ashgate, pp.175–186.

⁵⁶ Chipika, 2011, p. 61.

⁵⁷ Zimbabwe Women's Resource Center and Network, 2008, p. 49.

INCOME AND MONEY MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

While both male and female fieldwork participants reported that spending decisions generally were made in consultation between spouses, men usually have the final say over the use of cash resources and benefits. Men who sell produce usually control the income earned and often do not account for all the money. Women generally are able to control most of the money they generate from their own economic activities. Still, women also reported being unable to make large purchases without a husband's permission. Female heads of households, both de jure and de facto, were found to be more likely to control their own earnings. In considering the latter, de facto heads of households whose husbands are working away from the homestead have a greater ability to engage in decision making on the cash returns of produce they sell.⁵⁸ In contrast, one study that examined male-headed households found that 48 percent of sales decisions for all crops grown were made by wives, but only 78 percent of the women were able to keep the money.⁵⁹

Although they may not be able to make final decisions over household incomes, women play a significant role in keeping incomes earned by other household members; they are generally the guardians of household money, with men giving most and sometimes all of their income to women for safekeeping. This was largely attributed to the perception that women are better able to save money and resist temptation to spend money outside of the family. In their role as managers of the family's income, women are able to exercise some authority over spending. However, this authority is still limited. While women are able to purchase food and small items from the family's supply of income, they must seek male permission to purchase larger items. In contrast, men do not need female permission in purchasing. Additionally, female focus group participants admitted that they often do not know how much income their husband makes and that some husbands will only give a portion of income to the woman to guard.

All male and female focus group participants admitted that women spend a greater proportion of their own income on the household and family than men. Because women provide most of the services related to food consumption and family welfare, any income earned and controlled by women generally is allocated to these areas. Women reported they spent most of their income on food, household supplies, children's clothing and school fees. While a significant portion of men's earnings goes to the household, men are more likely than women to spend outside of the home on alcohol, social events, friends and girlfriends. Male misappropriation of agricultural income was cited as a common issue in both fieldwork and desk review sources. Sources frequently cited the suicides of 153 women in Gokwe in 1997, resulting from their husbands' contentious disposal of cotton earnings, as an example of male misappropriation and the consequences such misuse can have on women.

GENDER CONSTRAINTS AND WOMEN'S VULNERABILITY

The constraints mentioned earlier—particularly limited land security and control over income streams—leads to

The Intersection of Market Systems, Income Transactions, Food Security and Gender

Perhaps the most critical point related to gender dynamics in market systems is that income transactions inevitably affect women's ability to access and control income. When a woman takes surplus crops to local markets, she still has nearly full control over the money. Before returning home, she spends money on household goods—many of which are directly related to household food security and family welfare. Once she returns home, she has less control over the money and her husband—or other male household head, if present—becomes more involved. As market systems and income transactions change, development practitioners and policymakers need to consider how income is transacted, to whom, when, how, and what the implications will be for putting more cash under the control of women and men. They also must consider how this will affect expenditures on household needs, particularly those critical to food security and family welfare.

⁵⁸ Zimbabwe Women's Resource Center and Network, 2008, p. 48.

⁵⁹ Horrell, 2006, p. 5.

the conclusion that gender can be a characteristic of vulnerability in rural areas. This has particular implications for food security, especially because women also are primarily responsible for caring for other vulnerable persons and are the guardians of food security.

The uneven allocation of resources and benefits also makes women vulnerable to dependency and violence. If a woman lacks control and ownership over resources and benefits, divorce may leave her scant means with which to perform the productive and reproductive work needed for her children's and her own survival. Additionally, women in abusive or unhappy marriages may lack the necessary resources to leave their husbands and must choose between continued abuse and possible destitution.

GENDER DIMENSIONS IN AGRIBUSINESSES

This study resulted in a major focus on gender and constraints at the small-scale production level, due to the extensive nature of gender gaps at that level and lack of availability of sex disaggregated data on agribusinesses higher in the value chain. Wage inequality is a problem in Zimbabwe, although sex-disaggregated data on agricultural wages is not available.⁶⁰ Using nonagricultural wage inequality as a proxy indicator, Zimbabwe has a comparatively high ranking in wage equality, compared to other countries (15 out of 136 in 2011). This inequality gap has closed slightly in the past five years. However, the ratio is still greatly in favor of men (0.77 where 1 indicates wage equality between women and men and anything less indicates favorability towards men).⁶¹

Both male and female informants from agribusinesses agreed that the Zimbabwe business environment is moving in the right direction in terms of providing equal access for men and women to employment and management positions in agribusinesses. Informants were not able to give internal statistics for the number of women in management positions, but both men and women agreed that women do serve as division managers, and this is increasing over time. According to these informants, factory labor still is predominantly filled by men.

For example at Windmill, an agro chemical supply company, men primarily work in factories because women did not gain the required skills in school—although it was noted this is changing—and that schedules include night shifts that typically are not ideal for women because of their caretaking duties. Interviews with civil society organizations reported that gender insensitivity in business and office culture in all sectors—including lack of awareness of and enforcement against sexual harassment—are constraints that still need to be addressed to enhance women's participation in formal businesses.

SOCIOCULTURAL DYNAMICS: ACCEPTANCE OF GENDER NORMS

As described above, socially defined gender norms, perceptions and power dynamics are constraining for women in all sectors, including agriculture. Patriarchal traditions place men at the head of the family and have played a significant role in both shaping and *maintaining* many of the constraints women face. Low levels of education and income, as well as the consequences of living in rural or remote areas, also influence and exacerbate many of the above constraints.

When household-producer level focus group participants were asked about the root causes of the unequal division of labor and male dominance over most resources and benefits, participants answered with one word explanations of “tradition” and “culture.” This points to a perception of tradition and culture as the main cause of gender constraints in agriculture. In addition, fieldwork participants accepted gender roles and responsibilities as fixed and immutable and did not consider culture and tradition to be dynamic structures. This is in spite of many participants acknowledging that changes were taking place, such as decision making over income, with

⁶⁰ UNDP Human Development Report 2007/2008, in technical note 1, p. 361.

⁶¹ Global Gender Gap Index 2011, p. 278.

increased contribution to income generation. Small changes are occurring, but the overall tradition of male dominance still persists.

Consequently, any efforts to increase women's equitable access to and benefit from economic opportunity cannot ignore the social context. Efforts also must recognize that many women are not aware that gender norms defining their status are contrary to their human rights and can change.

Community-based and -driven efforts to create greater understanding among women and men about how gender dynamics and traditional patriarchy are negatively affecting women, households and entire societies is necessary.

"I think we have moved [forward on gender equity]. Still, there is a challenge for gender roles within the family and the need to redefine those roles. That is where the battle has to be fought."

-Zimbabwe Civil Society Leader

III. GENDER ANALYSIS OF POLICIES, LAWS AND INSTITUTIONS

The GoZ has a range of laws, policies, programs and institutions in place designed to protect the opportunities and rights of women and steer the country on a path towards equality. It is important to understand the implications of these mechanisms on gender overall before examining specific government actions with regards to women in the agricultural sector. All institutional efforts that seek to protect women's rights and work towards equality have the potential to impact the agricultural sector and women's economic empowerment.

Zimbabwe is a signatory to numerous regional and international conventions, declarations, and protocols that promote human rights and gender equality. These include the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), ratified by Zimbabwe in 1991, the Beijing Platform for Action (1995), the SADC Gender and Development Directive of 1998 and SADC Protocol (2008). By signing these conventions, the country is required to develop instruments necessary to ensure that it is in compliance with the conventions. However, Zimbabwe has only domesticated the section of CEDAW on domestic violence.⁶² As a result, these conventions cannot be invoked before any court, tribunal or administrative authority. Consequently, these symbolic acts give women a false sense of security, since women in Zimbabwe cannot legally use any of these international and regional conventions to demand their rights.

The legal and policy framework set up after independence promised to have positive effects on women's control over land and other resources in the agricultural sector. Resettlement models set quotas for women in land allocation and credit disbursement and encouraged women to participate in agricultural training on various levels through provision of appropriate facilities at training centers and affirmative action.⁶³ Despite these efforts, women are still unable to equally access and control land, assets and resources. Many of the policies have not been sufficiently implemented, while others are not adequately equitable.⁶⁴

⁶² Zimbabwe Women Lawyers Association, 2011. Domestication can occur only when an entire convention is ratified by Parliament and integrated into national law. Conventions that have yet to be domesticated include the Beijing Platform for Action, the SADC Gender and Development Directive and the African Charter on the Status of Women.

⁶³ Zimbabwe Women's Resource Center and Network, 2008, p. 44.

⁶⁴ Ibid.

The key national policy instruments to achieve gender equality and women's empowerment are the National Gender Policy (NGP) and the NGP Implementation Strategy and Work Plan, which outline priorities for gender mainstreaming and empowerment of women for the period 2008–2012. These instruments were meant to provide an institutional policy framework for addressing gender issues within the country.

While there have been a number of positive developments in institutionalizing gender equality and equity within Zimbabwe, almost all policies have encountered challenges. Overall, there is a need for the government to commit greater resources to gender mainstreaming at all levels and in all sectors to assist in turning policy into practice. In addition, efforts need to be made to create awareness of these policies at the community and household levels. Most Zimbabweans are not aware of their legal rights and laws designed to promote gender equality, and this ignorance is more pronounced in women, particularly those living in rural areas.

GENDER POLICIES

NATIONAL GENDER POLICY

Following the SADC Gender Declaration of 2002, which compelled countries in the SADC region to adopt gender as a cross-cutting issue in all development work and decision-making structures, the GoZ responded by putting in motion development of a NGP. The NGP was launched formally in 2004, after a wide consultation process to ensure buy-in from a range of stakeholders and to take into account a number of considerations, such as poverty, education, access to and control over economic resources, unemployment, HIV/AIDS and cultural and traditional practices.

The NGP targets various social partners, traditional structures and cultural institutions to play an active role in mainstreaming gender in policies, strategies, operational plans, programs and activities. It has sections on land, agriculture and resettlement, and water, laying out clear strategies for each sector. Some of the key agriculture strategies in the gender policy include:

- creating awareness campaigns on land rights;
- ensuring that access to, ownership and control of land is gender sensitive and equitable;
- repackaging and disseminating information on all aspects relating to land in all languages;
- increasing women's participation to at least 50 percent in all organizational structures and institutions created under the Draft National Policy, including the National Land Board;
- increasing the capacity of women to be able to compete for land resources, finance and inputs;
- rationalizing and unifying various pieces of legislation referring to immovable property, especially land, to enhance equality, equity and participation;
- developing gender-sensitive policies to guide accessing peri-urban and urban land and its various uses with a bias towards development of agro-based industries;
- ensuring food security at household and national levels;
- incorporating gender issues, including land and agricultural issues, in all school curricula and exams; and
- establishing gender-sensitive research and revision of existing data-collection methods to ensure gender disaggregated data on land and agriculture.

NATIONAL GENDER POLICY IMPLEMENTATION STRATEGY AND WORK PLAN

The GoZ developed the NGP Implementation Strategy and Work Plan to put the NGP into operation. The process revealed multiple verbal commitments to gender equality. Unfortunately, this commitment largely is not reflected in the subsequent policy, program, operations and activity documents of various departments. Overall, the NGP is still weak on implementation.

Among the many challenges to carrying out the NGP Implementation Strategy and Work Plan was the lack of common understanding among people on key gender and women's empowerment concepts. It was difficult to

reach consensus on gender and issues and their impact on diverse development processes. Many stakeholders were not clear on the mandate and role of the MWAGCD. Further, there is a lack of responsibility and accountability for gender mainstreaming and women’s empowerment in most ministries, parastatals and the private sector. Finally, the limited capacity within the MWAGCD has prevented significant gains in programs for women’s empowerment.

LEGAL ACTS RELATED TO GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE, ABUSE AND HARASSMENT

There are a number of policies related to employment discrimination, violence and abuse, which are summarized below.

| Act | Gender Context |
|---|---|
| Sex Discrimination Removal Act, 1997 | Prohibits discrimination against women in employment and recruitment. Advocates for the use of affirmative action due to the disadvantaged position of women. Example: Entry qualifications for University of Zimbabwe are slightly lower for female students. |
| Labor Relations Act, 1984 | Prohibits employers from discriminating against any prospective employees in relation to employment. Enables women to be employed in any sector of the economy so long as they have the necessary qualifications. |
| Sexual Offences Act, 2002 | Makes all form of gender-based violence illegal, including sex abuse, gender abuse or gender violence. Criminalizes marital rape. Makes it an offense for anyone to willfully infect a partner with HIV. Prohibits the trafficking of persons for purposes of prostitution. |
| Domestic Violence Act, 2007 | Criminalizes domestic violence, provides for protection and relief of victims. Domestic violence defined as any “unlawful action, omission or behavior which results in death or the direct infliction of physical, sexual or mental injury to any complainant by a respondent.” Also criminalizes abuse derived from any cultural or customary rites or practices that discriminate against or degrade women. Such violations include: physical, sexual, emotional, verbal or psychological abuse, abuse derived from customary/cultural practices (pledging of women and girls for purposes of appeasing spirits, abduction, forced virginity testing, child and forced marriages, forced wife inheritance). |

While these acts are broad and look to protect women in a multitude of spheres and situations, they have specific implications for women in the agriculture sector. For example, acts that prevent employment and workplace discrimination offer protection to women working in agribusinesses and on commercial farms. Additionally, efforts to modify qualifications for University of Zimbabwe admission as part of the Sex Discrimination Removal Act provide an opportunity for more women to seek degrees in business and agriculture. Acts relating to gender-based violence seek to prevent men from exercising control over women by violence, which has implications for women’s ability to engage in household decision making. These acts protect women from violence and abuse that could hinder their ability to engage in productive labor.

There is very little knowledge and awareness about these laws, particularly in rural and border areas where information on legal rights has not been fully disseminated; this is the biggest constraint to the implementation of the above laws. The Domestic Violence Act is limited in that it places too much focus on criminalization of the offense and incarceration of the offender, but not sufficiently protecting victims and survivors. Therefore, many women are withdrawing cases against their husbands.⁶⁵ It also is difficult for women to fully take advantage of these acts when they are economically dependent on men or the job in which they are being harassed, and thereby risking being disempowered in household decision making. Finally, awareness of these acts has not been mainstreamed fully in relevant enforcement agencies, namely the police and the judiciary.⁶⁶ The nongovernmental, nonprofit organization ZWLA is focused on ensuring these laws are enforced, raising

⁶⁵ DFID, 2011, p. 28.

⁶⁶ Jirira, 2009, p. 15.

awareness of them in rural areas and building capacity of the relevant ministries and institutions to enforce them. ZWLA is also an example of an organization addressing land rights issues. Their efforts are discussed in greater detail in Chapter 5.

In terms of commercial farm production labor, informants reported that female temporary laborers who have filed complaints are less likely to get permanent worker status because the companies do not want to pay the required 92 days of maternity leave. This assessment did not pursue this issue comprehensively, but it is a policy issue that should be explored further.

LAND OWNERSHIP, TENURE AND ASSET INHERITANCE POLICIES

Most agricultural land in Zimbabwe belongs to the state and in the past 30 years, the GoZ has undertaken two land-reform programs. The most recent was the Fast Track Land Reform Program (FTLRP) in 2000. In some instances, women are asked to go back to their birth families when their husbands die and leave behind the homestead they have been living on for years. A 2006 study noted that 20 percent of women leave their homesteads after the death of their husband.⁶⁷ Fieldwork supported this significant prevalence rate as several widows included in focus groups had gone back to their parents' land after the death of their husband or divorce. This occurs despite the legal inheritance law that states the surviving spouse and the couple's legitimate children will inherit the property. As a result of tradition and culture, the son generally takes over as the head of the household and ownership of farmland after the death of the male head.

This trend has been perpetuated because few women can afford to buy property. There are no land titles for communal and A1 farmers, as land belongs to the state. Village heads are the custodians of this land and administer it according to customary law, which benefits men as landowners. However, land allocation is different for beneficiaries since the 2000 FTLRP, as discussed below. Women now can own land and inherit it on the death of their spouses, although inheritance is less clear in the death of their parents.⁶⁸

CONSTITUTION REVIEW PROCESS

For the past 18 months, the GoZ has been in the process of a constitutional review. Section 18 of the existing constitution outlaws gender discrimination. Section 23 guarantees equal access to land. However, Section 23 is controversial due to inconsistencies over the precedence of customary and common law in communal areas:

Section 23 (3): “nothing contained in any law shall be held to be in contravention of sub-section ... (3)(b) the application of African customary law in any case involving Africans or an African and one or more persons who are not Africans where such persons have consented to the application of African customary law in that case.”

Section 23 (3a): “Notwithstanding subsection (3)(b), in implementing any program of land reform the government shall treat men and women on an equal basis with respect to the allocation or distribution of land or any right or interest therein under that program.”

This has been interpreted as allowing discrimination on the grounds of customary law in the private sphere. In inheritance and marriage issues, customary law takes precedence over common law if a woman is married informally. Consequently, the clause takes away the right of women in communal areas to inherit land and property if they are not formally married under common law. In addition, while a woman may enter into a contract to lease land, in a customary union the husband has the legal power to dispose of it on behalf of the

⁶⁷ Mazhawidza, Phides and Hatendi-Gutu, Felixity. “Women In Agriculture - Gender Concerns and Women's Land Rights.” Zimbabwe: Women and Land in Zimbabwe, June 2006.

⁶⁸ Zimbabwe Women's Resource Center and Network, 2008, p. 15.

family. Much of this could be blamed on the payment of *lobola*, the traditional bride price, where women commonly are viewed as the property of their husbands.⁶⁹

Civil society groups are in the process of trying to amend this exception in the new constitution so that women in customary marriages have full and equal citizenship rights. The dates for the referendum for the new constitution have not been set.

FAST TRACK LAND REFORM PROGRAM

FTLRP was premised on the need to make access to land more equitable for all Zimbabweans across the political divide. Enacted in 2000, the FTLRP was structured around two models of acquisition: the A1 for the decongestion of the rural areas and the A2 model to increase the number commercial farmers.

Women’s organizations working on land issues lobbied that a 20 percent quota of land to be redistributed be given to women. This target was in adherence to the SADC Gender Declaration of 1997, which demanded that all governments in the SADC region must achieve 20 percent quota of women in decision-making positions and programming. The 2003 land review revealed that of the total land that was redistributed under FTLRP, women in the A1 model acquired 18 percent and women in the A2 model acquired 12 percent. The 20-percent target was achieved only in Mashonaland East for A1 farms, where 24 percent of land was allocated to women, and Matabeleland South for A2 farms, where 21 percent of land allocated went to women.⁷⁰ However, these figures have been surpassed as more land has been redistributed and more women have accessed it. The current number is not known. Women did not have to be well connected politically to receive land under the A1 and A2 models. Land was allocated by local community leaders and district administrators who used the following criteria for receiving land: single women who were widowed, divorced or unmarried mothers.

Allocation of Land by Sex and Province in 2000 FTLRP⁷¹

| Province | Model A1 | | | | Model A2 | | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|--------------|-----------|------------|-----------|
| | Male | % | Female | % | Male | % | Female | % |
| Midlands | 14,800 | 82 | 3,198 | 18 | 338 | 95 | 17 | 5 |
| Masvingo | 19,026 | 84 | 3,644 | 16 | 709 | 92 | 64 | 8 |
| Mashonaland Central | 12,986 | 88 | 1,770 | 12 | 1,469 | 87 | 215 | 13 |
| Mashonaland West | 21,782 | 81 | 5,270 | 19 | 1,777 | 89 | 226 | 11 |
| Mashonaland East ⁷² | 12,967 | 76 | 3,992 | 24 | * | * | * | * |
| Matabeleland South | 7,754 | 87 | 1,169 | 13 | 215 | 79 | 56 | 21 |
| Matabeleland North | 7,919 | 84 | 1,490 | 16 | 574 | 83 | 121 | 17 |
| Manicaland | 9,572 | 82 | 2,190 | 18 | 961 | 91 | 97 | 9 |
| Total | 106,986 | 82 | 22,723 | 18 | 6,043 | 88 | 796 | 12 |

LAND ADMINISTRATION STRUCTURES

The rural and grassroots institutional framework for administering land and land resources is male dominated. This is not to say that male leaders cannot equitably distribute access and ownership of land to women, however it reinforces the social norm that men have preferential rights over land and other resources. The imbalance

⁶⁹ DFID, 2011, p. 27.

⁷⁰ Presidential Land Review Committee. “Report of the Presidential Land Review Committee on the Implementation of the Fast Track Land Reform Program (The Utete Report),” Zimbabwe, 2003.

⁷¹ Ibid, p. 40.

⁷² The breakdown of figures by sex for Mashonaland East Model A2 were not readily available.

between the number of male and female staff members in land allocation institutions was particularly pronounced during the FTLRP, where at the district level (A1 model), land was allocated by District Lands Committee, which comprised traditional leaders (i.e., headman/village heads), District Administrators, and chiefs. Because men predominantly occupy these roles, District Land Committees were largely male dominated. Furthermore, structures set up by the GoZ to develop and review land policies and their implementation—such as the Rukuni Commission, which developed the FTLRP models and the Utete Land Review Commission—were led by men.

SECURITY OF TENURE

Beneficiaries of FTLRP receive two separate land titles depending on the land classification. Land titles for A2 are called Offer Letters, whereas titles for A1 are called User Permits.

| Land Classification | Land Title Type | Administration |
|---------------------|-----------------|--|
| A1 | User Permit | Administered at the district level, with customary law prevailing. The village headman serves as the overall authority. |
| A2 | Offer Letter | Administered through the Ministry of Lands, Land Reform and Rural Resettlement. Land belongs to the state and is leased to beneficiaries through a 99-year lease agreement. |

In A2 lands, qualification for 99-year lease agreements demands that the farmer reside on the land for more than three years, develop a three- to five-year business plan, build structures and have a production record for sale of produce. Applicants must prove beyond reasonable doubt that they have the capacity to use the land. It is policy for the responsible Ministry of Lands to conduct a three- year performance review. If beneficiaries do not pass, they are subject to loss of land tenure. Political connections have also been reported to play a significant role in A2 land titles and tenure.

This A2 land tenure system is weak and subject to forms of abuse, such as corruption, male domination and disinheriting. This leads to high levels of insecurity over land tenure that is disproportionately felt by women and other vulnerable persons. Due to the imbalanced constraints facing women, the above policy makes widows, PLHIV, and female-headed households especially vulnerable. There is no law to protect their tenure. In one case, a woman’s husband was sick for two years, leading to his death. During that period, she was not able to produce on the land, and it was allocated to someone else, who happened to be a man. After much lobbying by a women’s agency, she was allocated another piece of land, though one not as fertile and strategic as the former allotment.

One of the requirements to qualify as an A2 land beneficiary was proof of capacity to use the land on a commercial basis. This is one contributing factor to the small number of women applying for land under this model. A study carried out by Women and Land in Zimbabwe on the use of land by A2 women land beneficiaries revealed that only 10 percent of the women farmers were productively using their land.⁷³ The challenges to effective use of land were lack of information about where to access production resources such as inputs financial credit, farming equipment and irrigation.

Until recently, it had not been a requirement to include both spouses’ names on the Offer Letter. There also was a policy of “one person one farm.” However, through lobbying and engagement by women’s advocacy groups, joint titling was made possible through an amendment to the Land Act of 1992. It passed in 2004 and appears in their Offer Letter and the 99–year lease agreement.

⁷³ Mazhawidza and Hatendi-Gutu, 2006.

Acts Related to Land and Asset Ownership and Inheritance

| Act | Gender Context |
|--|---|
| Matrimonial Causes Act No 33, 1982 | Equitable distribution of matrimonial assets upon death or divorce. However, does not apply to marriage registered under customary law, 80 percent of married women in country have unregistered marriages (Ngoro, 2006, ZWRGN 24). |
| Deceased Persons Family Maintenance Act, 1987 | Surviving spouse and children can continue occupying matrimonial home and using household goods. |
| Deeds Registries Act, 2006 | Married woman no longer needs consent of her husband to acquire and register immovable property. |

AGRICULTURE AND FOOD SECURITY POLICIES

There are a number of agriculture policies and strategies—including Policy Strategies for Stimulating Agricultural Production (1999), the Zimbabwe Agricultural Policy Framework for 1995–2020 and the Macroeconomic Framework for 2005–2006—developed to address the growing poverty in Zimbabwe through the creation of policies and programs that benefit vulnerable social groups, especially women farmers. However, agriculture policy frameworks generally are gender insensitive despite having a national gender policy.

One of the more recent initiatives to address food security in Zimbabwe is the establishment of the Food and Nutrition Council (FNC). The FNC is located in the presidential cabinet and has the mandate to coordinate, facilitate, convene, assess and research issues related to food and nutritional security in Zimbabwe. The FNC is in the process of finalizing the Food and Nutrition Security. Originally commissioned in 1998 (although development did not begin until 2010), the policy primarily is composed of recommendations. Based on review of the draft, gender was included in the policy in two key ways: to reaffirm women’s important role in agriculture; and encourage that all efforts be sensitive to the burden women have as caretakers in the home.

Both of these measures are important. However without prescriptive force or measures to hold government agencies accountable, it is not certain whether these portions of the policy will translate into any worthwhile action. A major gap in the draft policy regards monitoring and evaluation—there is no mention of including gender analysis or sex-disaggregated data, which is critical to understanding and addressing gender gaps related to food and nutrition security.

The FNC also oversees the ZimVAC, which conducts an annual vulnerability survey in collaboration with the national statistics office. The 2011 survey study report was in draft form at the time of this assessment, although a preliminary review showed that the data presented in the report rarely was disaggregated by sex, which is highly unfortunate considering vulnerability is linked to gender. Quantitative data, accompanied by statistical analysis that can be provided through studies such as ZimVAC, is critical for a comprehensive response to both vulnerability and gender inequality.

Unlike other ministries, FNC does not have a gender focal person who is mandated to coordinate with the MWAGCD.

GOVERNMENT PROGRAMS

The primary government support initiatives for agriculture is the AGRITEX. In 2005, AGRITEX introduced a policy of recruiting equal numbers of women and men for extension worker jobs and farmer training programs. This reportedly has been achieved at the training level, but due to higher turnover by male extension workers after they receive training, women make up approximately 60 percent of employed extension workers. Women extension agents still face constraints and further attention to gender mainstreaming is needed in the AGRITEX program. Key constraints are outlined in the text box, below.

Efforts to Recruit More Female Extension Agents: Successes and Challenges

Transport: The lack of adequate transport to cover their assigned territory means that female extension agents routinely are walking long distances in the dark with no protection. While the Ministry of Agriculture has not explicitly received complaints of assault or harassment, it was implied by informants of this study that these things take place. Some of the bicycles are neither strong nor appropriate to the terrain and break down easily. This is a burden to female extension workers who do not have the knowledge or resources to fix them.

Accommodation: In most new settlements there are no government houses, so extension agents stay in rented accommodations, old farm houses or school blocks that may expose women to abuse and harassment.

Backlash to “gender”: Female extension agents are required to do strenuous work, such as dehorning cattle. One informant told a story of a female extension worker who could not do this because she was pregnant. The farmers then complained that she was useless, and they wanted a male extension worker. In this instance—and others—farmers ridiculed the female extension workers by saying “*ndiyo gender yenyuka iyi*” or: “*this gender, you asked for it.*”

Nevertheless, female extension workers are earning prizes for Best Stands at agricultural shows, which is very encouraging because it shows their commitment to this work. In addition, AGRITEX has gender-sensitive policies that allow trainee women farmers who are breastfeeding to have maids look after their young children during the course.

There have been a number of agricultural support schemes run by the government, which have been reviewed in depth elsewhere, particularly by the ZWRCN (2008) and the MWAGCD in collaboration with the World Bank (2011). Many of these programs—such as the Agricultural Mechanization program (2007) and the Agricultural Sector Productivity Enhancement Facility (2007)—no longer are operational. Analyses of these programs show they either were not effective at ensuring women’s equitable benefit from the programs or they did not collect the data so the comparative benefits to men and women cannot be determined.⁷⁴

SOCIAL PROTECTION MEASURES

As outlined below, the GoZ has carried out a number of social protection measures meant to assist and cushion the poor and vulnerable. However studies revealed that overall, women complain that these programs always benefit the same people—those who are politically influential and well-connected, which excludes many women.⁷⁵ These safety-net programs are discussed below:

- ***The Maintenance Amendment Act, 1989:*** This act makes legal provision that fathers who avoid parental responsibilities must support their children until they reach the age of 18. Maintenance courts were set up to adjudicate over cases and facilitate payment. Money for maintenance care can be deducted directly from salaries through a “garnishee order.” The money is paid mostly to single mothers taking care of children.
- ***Zunde RaMambo (Granary Scheme):*** In an effort to provide safety nets for people living in rural areas, the GoZ reintroduced an old concept used by their forefathers, called *Zunde RaMambo*. Through this program, inputs are provided to the headman and village heads, who then set aside a piece of land for producing food exclusively for the granary scheme. Villagers take turns working the land, and the produce is distributed to needy members of the village. In addition, at the end of a good harvest, each household contributes to the granary by giving an agreed amount and type of grain. This is meant to ensure that no one goes hungry and to reduce dependency on foreign aid.
- ***Basic Commodities Supply-Side Intervention (BACOSS):*** BACOSS was introduced at the height of scarcity of basic food supplies and commodities. This was meant to provide a safety net for the poor and vulnerable so that they have access to food and other necessary commodities at an affordable price. The main issue was availability and reduced and controlled price.

⁷⁴ Chipika, 2011, p. 40.

⁷⁵ Chipika, 2011, p. 49.

- ***Food Relief and Disaster Mitigation:*** This is a government initiative meant to cushion the female- and child-headed households during droughts or other disasters. They are given food, clothing, seed packs, fertilizer and other basic supplies.

GOVERNMENT FINANCING PROGRAMS

As previously discussed, access to finance is a problem facing women and men in Zimbabwe, due to a variety of political and economic reasons. Below is an overview of current financing programs initiated by government ministries to attempt to fill these gaps:

- ***Women’s Economic Empowerment Fund, 2009:*** The MWAGCD initiated a fund to support women in agriculture, tourism and mining. The fund operates through the People’s Own Savings Bank. The loans are limited to \$500 per person, disbursed to a group of five women for a maximum of \$2,500 per group. This effort is commendable, however the amount often is not sufficient for smallholder farmers and the repayment period is too short. The scheme has not yet been evaluated, so there is no performance record.
- ***Small Enterprise Development Company (SEDCO):*** The Ministry of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) lends funds through SEDCO, which is a government-owned financing company, with funds allocated from the Ministry of Finance. It has a policy of granting 50 percent of loans to women, but in practice, women constitute only approximately 38 percent of loan recipients. Beyond targeting, there is no indication of additional efforts to encourage women to apply. Loans are for SMEs in any sector and are not limited to agriculture. The maximum loan for those with collateral is \$5,000. Those with no collateral form groups of 10 to access loans not to exceed \$500 per person. The loans are disbursed through “Loan Booths,” which are individuals in rural areas. The criteria to be a Loan Booth is that one must be “well known” in the area, influential, sincere, respectable and with one’s own resources. Awareness of the program is raised through radio and print media. Funds are divided equally among all 10 provinces of the country. Considering that the total amount was \$1 million in 2010 and \$2.5 million in 2011, this is not a significant pool of financing.
- ***Savings Bank and Credit Unions:*** The Ministry of SMEs is setting up a microfinance bank for SMEs through SEDCO so it can take deposits. Currently SEDCO only is disbursing loans and not taking deposits. The Ministry of SMEs is also initiating a Savings and Credit Union (SaCU) program with the goal of encouraging farmers to save their earnings.

CHALLENGES TO GENDER MAINSTREAMING WITHIN GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS

The NGP, NGP Implementation Strategy and Work Plan and other legal efforts have introduced a number of measures designed to help ensure that gender is mainstreamed at all levels and in all areas of government. These measures include creating a high-level gender mainstreaming coordination board called the Inter-Ministerial Committee on Gender, to be chaired by the MWAGCD and composed of various sectors, as well as a National Gender Management System made up of gender focal persons and gender-focused NGOs. All line ministers created gender desks with gender focal persons to help guide and monitor mainstreaming efforts. Gender focal persons were to be trained in gender awareness, sensitization and analysis. Gender desks at all line ministries were supposed to have their own budget items in order to effectively carry out mainstreaming efforts.⁷⁶

If implemented correctly, all these measures could play a major role in closing gender equality gaps in accessing economic opportunities. Such efforts would have had a significant impact in communicating the importance of

⁷⁶ Government of Zimbabwe. “The Zimbabwe National Gender Policy,” Government of Zimbabwe, 2004, p. 13.

gender mainstreaming and other equality-based strategies throughout the country. Overall, there has been little raising of awareness about the government’s mainstreaming strategy.⁷⁷ Economic challenges also have had negative impact on the national prioritization of gender issues, women’s empowerment and the implementation of national gender strategies.⁷⁸ For the most part, senior managers across all ministries lack sensitization on gender issues, and gender trainings have not reached all senior staff.⁷⁹ While lower-level employees are much more familiar with gender issues, this knowledge is required at all levels. In addition, many of the management structures designed to oversee mainstreaming functions have yet to be implemented. As of 2009-2010, when the MWAGCD released its progress report, the Inter-Ministerial Council and National Gender Management System were not yet put into practice.

The MWAGCD faces a number of challenges that prevent it from effectively fulfilling its mandate and plans. It has minimal budget, and the ministry must depend on the support from development partners like the United Nations. In terms of policy, there has been little budget allocated specifically to implement laws and no substantial legal literacy program to educate women on their rights.⁸⁰ Human resources are also a challenge, with high turnover due to uncompetitive pay.⁸¹ Despite these challenges, the MWAGCD has succeeded in forming strong collaborations with civil societies focusing on women’s affairs and gender. These organizations often play a key role in implementing women’s empowerment and gender programs throughout the country.

While all line ministries have gender focal persons in place, gender focal points encounter a number of challenges to operating effectively within ministries. They often are not recognized by senior staff and are excluded from senior management and policy planning meetings, where they could play a role in ensuring that gender was being mainstreamed.⁸² Additionally, a number of gender focal points occupy financial or administrative roles—not technical or program roles—within ministries. This is another barrier to their ability to mainstream gender within ministry programming. According to the MWAGCD itself, gender focal points require much more capacity building from the MWAGCD and turnover is high.⁸³ Finally, the GoZ and MWAGCD have yet to develop an accountability mechanism to evaluate the effectiveness of current GFPs.

GAPS IN AVAILABILITY OF POLICIES AND INFORMATION

The Food Deficit Mitigation Policy is one of many agricultural policies that were inaccessible by this study. In addition, interviews with donors, government officials and civil society representatives revealed they also have difficulty accessing existing policies and often do not know about certain policies, even those within their own ministry. Such lack of awareness and availability of policies is a major policy constraint in itself.

Monitoring and evaluation (M&E) mechanisms have been put in place to monitor progress achieved in terms of gender equality and mainstreaming, with GFPs and gender committees completing quarterly reports. However, M&E is not carried out in a systematic manner, and the MWAGCD lacks a feedback mechanism to respond to submitted reports.⁸⁴ The MWAGCD also said that lack of information and databases from which to access existing information is a major constraint.

⁷⁷ Ministry of Women’s Affairs, Gender and Community Development. “Progress Report of the Republic of Zimbabwe on Implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995) Outcome of the Twenty-Third Special Session of the General Assembly 2000,” Zimbabwe, Government of Zimbabwe, June 2009, p. 1.

⁷⁸ Jirira, 2009, p. 10.

⁷⁹ Ministry of Women’s Affairs, Gender and Community Development, 2009.

⁸⁰ Ibid, p. 21.

⁸¹ Ibid.

⁸² Ibid.

⁸³ Ibid.

⁸⁴ Ministry of Women’s Affairs, Gender and Community Development, 2009.

IV. GENDER CHARACTERISTICS OF SELECT VALUE CHAINS

This section puts the gender analysis in the context of selected value chains: cotton, horticulture, groundnuts, maize, dairy and poultry. Due to time limitations, the assessment team was not able to explore each value chain in depth. This section gives an overview of the gender roles specific to each value chain and some of the constraints and entry points that have particular gender dimensions. While many of the constraints and opportunities in the targeted value chains are the same for both women and men, and most quantitative studies do not disaggregate data by sex, the analysis in this chapter highlights that specific gender dimensions do exist. This section is based on findings from interviews with private sector value chain actors and government officials and from desk research.

COTTON

MARKET OVERVIEW

As of 2009, there were 12 cotton-buying companies in Zimbabwe, but the two largest buyers are Cottco, a former parastatal privatized in 1994 as the successor to the Cotton Marketing Board, and Cargill, a private U.S.–based international company.⁸⁵ Both are involved in ginning and lint export. During the 1990s, they shifted from sourcing primarily from large commercial farmers to relying on networks of smallholder farmers.⁸⁶ As of 2007, Cottco was contracting 77,000 farmers cultivating cotton on a total of 180,000 ha, while Cargill was contracting 70,000 farmers on a total of 90,000 ha.⁸⁷ These numbers indicate that Cargill is sourcing from farmers with an average plot size significantly smaller than that of Cottco’s farmers. Legislation in 2009 was enacted to reduce the occurrence of “side-marketing” by restricting the purchase of seed only to the companies that provide input credit and support, and that deal with cotton grading.⁸⁸ The Cotton Ginners Association coordinates input support and seed distribution. It acts as a promotion, lobbying and watchdog entity for the cotton industry, monitoring field operations of individual company members, ensuring that farmers follow through with contracts and monitoring fair trade practices and adherence to quality standards.

Cottco and Cargill Farming Contracts

With both Cottco and Cargill, farmers form into self-selected groups of about 20 and each group elects a representative. According to SNV’s 2009 study of smallholder contracting schemes, the group representatives then form a “lead-farmer” committee with an executive chairman or area representative who deals directly with the company. However, among the cotton farmers interviewed for this study, the group representatives were not aware of this structure.

Furthermore, all of the group representatives interviewed for this study were men, and informants of this study said that all (or at least the majority) of the representatives in the cotton farmer groups were men—despite the fact that most of the work is done by women.

GENDER CONTEXT AND CONSTRAINTS

According to the MWAGCD/World Bank Gender Study, 99.2 percent of cotton is produced by about 300,000 small-scale growers, of whom at least 50 percent are women.⁸⁹ Yet anecdotal findings from this study for USAID indicate that Cottco and Cargill primarily contract with male farmers. Another gender issue is that while

⁸⁵ USAID/Zimbabwe Agricultural Sector Market Study, June 2010, p. 47.

⁸⁶ World Bank. The Cotton Sector of Zimbabwe, 2008, www.worldbank.org/afr/wps/WPS_122%20Zimbabwe.CottonCaseStudy.pdf

⁸⁷ SNV. 2009 Inventory of Smallholder Contract Farming Practices in Zimbabwe, 2009, p. 10.

⁸⁸ USAID/Zimbabwe Agricultural Sector Market Study, June 2010, p. 48.

⁸⁹ Chipika, 2011, p. 17.

cotton companies used to collect the crop directly from the villages, allowing the women who cultivate it to be involved directly in the marketing, they now collect at central depots. Cotton generally is carried to the depots by men or boys, who collect part of the payment at the time of delivery. Decision making about this income then becomes farther removed from the women. The primary constraint women face is getting access to the outgrower contracting schemes.

OPPORTUNITIES AND ENTRY POINTS

There are opportunities to organize women farmers into clusters that collectively aggregate and market cotton through the Cottco and Cargill contracting schemes. Development efforts should facilitate linkages between women farmers and buyers, through which farmers will be better able to access key inputs. The World Bank gender study highlighted Gokwe (Midlands) and Muzarabani (Mashonaland Central) as target areas for cotton expansion with women farmers. Encouraging Cottco and Cargill to revert to a procurement structure where women are able to sell their cotton closer to their homes also would have an important effect on gender equity in the cotton value chain.

VEGETABLES

MARKET OVERVIEW

Most fresh vegetables produced in Zimbabwe are consumed by rural households—only about 30 percent of the 160,000 tons of fresh vegetables produced annually are commercially traded through local markets or exports.⁹⁰ Market systems for fresh vegetables largely are informal, wholesale and retail. This study only identified outgrower schemes for high-value horticulture production in the mangetout value chain. The main company involved in mangetout production and export is Selbys, which exports to Europe, the U.K. and South Africa. Selbys contracts farmers in commercial areas and provides inputs and technical assistance. Processing companies such as Cairns and Honeywood also contract farmers through outgrower schemes to manufacture tomato-based foods, including tomato sauce, pulp and whole stewed tomatoes. Meanwhile, community garden schemes supported by USAID through implementing partners such as CARE and CRS have been introducing an intermediate model of commercializing garden plots that expose male and female farmers to the market potential of vegetables that are selected and grown according to market demand.

Selbys Outgrower Scheme for Mangetout Peas

The assessment team interviewed two very different commercial farmers involved in the Selbys mangetout pea outgrower scheme. One, a male farmer at a large-scale commercial dairy in Goromonzi, supplies 12 tons per month, 9 months of the year to Selbys and uses the rejects for cattle feed. The other, an elderly female farmer in Goromonzi, whose family bought and rehabilitated a farm in 1998, has struggled with the mangetout scheme. Last year the farm's 5 ha crop was wiped out by frost. Nevertheless, they are attempting the scheme again this year. They report receiving lessons and extension visits covering GlobalGAP, as well as seeds and inputs.

GENDER CONTEXT AND CONSTRAINTS

At the level of small-scale farming, many horticulture crops are considered “women’s crops.” Women manage small horticulture plots or market gardens on a part-time basis.⁹¹ Yet “woman’s crop” is something of a misnomer because other family members assist with land clearing, plowing, harvesting and other production tasks. The term also suggests that these crops are associated with household subsistence rather than market opportunity, which is not entirely accurate. While much horticultural produce is consumed in the household, traded locally for maize or groundnuts, or sold at the local market, some community garden schemes have succeeded in establishing market linkages that have started to associate horticulture with market opportunity.

⁹⁰ D’Alessandro, Stephen P. For USAID and ACDI/VOCA, “Informal Markets for Fresh Vegetables in Zimbabwe,” September 2010, p. 6

⁹¹ Chipika, 2011, p. 18.

For example, one of the CARE–supported community gardens in Gweru established a regular supply contract with the local mission school and began selling to other buyers after the school had been supplied.

Fieldwork showed that men have become more active in producing the tomato crop because, according to the female focus group in Kwekwe, it is a simple crop to sell and makes for “easy cash.” The same focus group explained that men are not as active in the production of spinach because it is not considered as profitable as tomatoes. This demonstrates the risk of “male takeover” of food crops as they become more profitable.

Just like with the other food crops, women are responsible for deciding how much should be stored for household consumption and how much can be sold in the market. Poor storage systems result in post-harvest losses of as much as 25 percent of horticulture—especially tomatoes.⁹² Women usually sell or barter the surplus at the local markets and using the earnings to purchase household items. When men sell the surplus, they typically take it to markets in towns or cities that are farther away.

OPPORTUNITIES AND ENTRY POINTS

For high-value horticultural crops such as mangetout peas, interventions should focus on expanding contract farming opportunities among communal area garden projects and small-scale commercial farmers. While it is currently outside of the USAID target area, similar efforts also can be made among more established A1 and A2 farmers. To ensure that women are able to both participate in and benefit from this expansion, it is important to identify strong female farmers to highlight as model contract farmers. It is also important to support organizational and association development among smallholder farmers.

In the domestic market, vegetables offer expanded market potential, but upgrading needs to be complemented by substantial technical support, market assessment, production and marketing assistance, and key capital investments. Community garden projects implemented by CARE, CRS and Fintrac are treating farming as a business and creating good models for collaborative economic activity and market-oriented decision making—particularly for female farmers. Additional investments in business management, savings, irrigation and fencing also are necessary to address gender constraints faced by women trying to access these resources. Fencing was emphasized by men and women alike as a key intervention.

Fintrac has also identified tomato processing as a key opportunity for intervention, since exploiting existing market channels for tomatoes damaged through poor post-harvest systems—primarily managed by women—is presumably easier than improving those systems.

GROUNDNUTS

MARKET OVERVIEW

Groundnuts are key to nutrition and food security for the vast majority of Zimbabweans. Over 70 percent of the country’s groundnut crop is produced in communal areas and on small-scale commercial farms.⁹³ Between the 2008–09 and 2009–10 seasons, groundnut production area increased, but yield per hectare decreased.⁹⁴ Meanwhile, a draft report of the 2011 ZimVAC study found that 45 percent of rural households grow groundnuts—a decrease from 66 percent in 2010; the report gave no explanation for the decrease.⁹⁵ Most groundnut production is intercropped with maize, soya or vegetables and is cultivated by women. There has

⁹² Ibid. It is not clear whether this statistic includes household storage systems.

⁹³ Chipika, 2011, p. 19.

⁹⁴ FAO and WFP., Food Security Assessment Mission to Zimbabwe, Aug. 9, 2010, p. 16.

⁹⁵ This data has been released only recently and follow-up studies have not been done to understand why there has been a decrease.

been a recent trend to commercialize the groundnut subsector to meet domestic requirements and new export requirements.⁹⁶

Groundnut processing companies (e.g., peanut butter manufacturers) that source from small-scale farmers engage in contracting schemes that rely on traditional, small-scale production techniques. This study interviewed Spread Valley (trading under the brand Mama’s Peanut Butter), which buys directly from communal farmers in Mutoko, Murehwa, Gokwe and Wedza. Spread Valley only purchases shelled groundnuts, thereby excluding the vast majority of farmers who do not have access to shelling machines or credit to purchase them. The majority of these farmers are women. The larger peanut butter companies, such as Lyons, are buying from the commercial groundnut growers that make up the other 30 percent of production cited in the World Bank study.

GENDER CONTEXT AND CONSTRAINTS

One of the major constraints facing smallholder groundnut farmers is a lack of machinery for processing groundnuts. Manual shelling is labor and time intensive. Shelling is done mainly by women farmers or by laborers, if farmers can afford to pay them. This limits their ability to enter into contracting arrangements with buyers such as Spread Valley. In addition, groundnut contracting schemes reportedly differ from those for maize, cotton and horticulture, in that they generally do not provide any technical support or inputs to producers. This is a particular constraint for women since they are most likely to directly pocket the income from groundnuts. The only support Spread Valley provides is transport for farmers (or groups of farmers) who produce more than five tons. This observation is reinforced by the MWAGCD/World Bank assessment, which says that groundnut producers, like producers of other small grains, have suffered from inadequate support from national extension services, and from a paucity of technical and financial services embedded into private contracting schemes. Based on interviews with informants, this is attributed, at least partly, to the perception of groundnuts as a “women’s crop.”

Fieldwork focus groups noted shifts toward greater male participation in producing and selling groundnuts—and then getting the income. Three of the four sets of focus groups included groundnut farmers. In both Kwekwe and Gweru, women and children provided most of the labor, with men assisting in strength-demanding work like land preparation. Significantly, women were solely responsible for selling or trading groundnuts after setting aside some for consumption. They sold groundnuts at local markets only or traded for vegetables or maize. In Mudzi men became more involved in the labor and selling of the crop. All focus groups noted that both women and men sell groundnuts in local markets and in Harare, but the focus groups noted that women mostly go to Harare because “if the men go, they might not return with all the money.”

However, interviews with farmers contracting with Spread Valley tell a different story. Among the farmers contracting to Spread Valley, men initially were the ones to deliver the groundnuts and collect the money. In the last three years, the company has noticed that now husbands and wives share responsibility for delivering groundnuts, collecting the money and even negotiating the selling price. According to the informants at Spread Valley, women are perceived to be better negotiators, and men now are seen to consult their wives on the selling price. It was not clear why the behavior of Spread Valley farmers changed, however this example does indicate that significant opportunities for gender inclusion in contract farming exist.

The examples from fieldwork and from Spread Valley support the finding that there are shifts in gender roles and gender control over income streams as value chains become more commercialized, and that these shifts differ depending on the extent to which a value chain is associated with being in the domain of women.

⁹⁶ Chipika, 2011, p. 19.

OPPORTUNITIES AND ENTRY POINTS

Notably, there is no commodity association representing the interests of groundnut producers as there is for almost every commercial agricultural commodity in Zimbabwe. This is due most likely to the predominance of small-scale farmers in groundnut production; the majority of small-scale farmers are women, who are less likely to be organized into networks and associations than male smallholder farmers. Secondary resources and informants indicate that groundnut is a promising crop for commercialization. It is a natural fit for women, but deliberate approaches need to be taken to ensure that women accrue the benefits and that “male takeover” does not occur. Organization of women into group contracting schemes—with female lead farmers providing guidance and assistance, combined with savings and loans mechanisms—makes this a promising intervention to facilitate women’s expanded benefits from groundnut production.

MAIZE

MARKET OVERVIEW

The FAO, U.N. and EU All Commodities Program conducted a detailed analysis of the grain value chain and market context in 2010, however none of the data presented is disaggregated by sex, and there is no analysis of how value chain actors, constraints and entry points affect men or women differently.⁹⁷ It is well known that maize is the staple food for most households in Zimbabwe, and 80 percent of rural households produce it.⁹⁸

The maize subsector was dominated by the Grain Marketing Board (GMB), a parastatal market channel, from 2001 to 2009. The GMB’s control over cereal purchases was reduced in March 2009 when private actors were allowed back into the market. Nonetheless, GMB continues to distort the market by setting prices for maize at a rate that is higher than import prices. The GMB has often had trouble paying farmers on time due to liquidity constraints, and in October 2011 it began a program to address this by providing inputs instead of cash payment. In interviews, farmers expressed frustration at the late payments and at the recent information that they would be paid in inputs in lieu of cash.

Other major market actors in the maize sector include millers, which tend to mill both maize for the production of maize meal and wheat for the production of wheat flour. It was estimated in early 2010 that there were 486 large- to medium-scale millers in Zimbabwe, of which 37 percent are in Harare, 18 percent in Bulawayo and the rest are distributed between Mashonaland West, East, Midlands and Masvingo. Nine of the 10 largest millers are based in Harare or Bulawayo.⁹⁹ The main millers are National Foods, Blue Ribbon Foods, Victoria Foods and Agrifoods, and together they account for 70 percent of the milling market.¹⁰⁰ The primary wholesalers are Mahammad Mussa, Bhadhella, RedStar and Jaggers, which dominate the domestic markets for maize products, such as maize meal. Retail supermarket chains such as TM, OK, SPAR, Gutsai and other smaller retailers are part of the Retailers Association of Zimbabwe (RAZ).¹⁰¹

There is also a significant commercial marketing channel for maize seed. A number of private companies have similar vertically integrated schemes primarily for maize, wheat, soya, sunflower and sorghum seed for rain-fed cropping. The companies—Pannar, Seedco, Fresh Co., Agriseed, Pioneer and Delta—contract farmers and provide them with seed, fertilizer and extension services. Informants indicated that most of these farmers are male. While Pannar indicated that it is “gender blind” when it comes to purchasing seed, the reality is that over 90 percent of the farmers it buys from are male. They say this is because of the plot sizes needed to cultivate

⁹⁷ FAO, UN and E.U. Agricultural Commodities Programs, “The Grain Industry Value Chain in Zimbabwe,” 2010.

⁹⁸ Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment 2011 draft report.

⁹⁹ Kapuya, Tinashu, et al. *The Grain Industry Value Chain in Zimbabwe*. Harare: FAO, EU, 2010. Print.

¹⁰⁰ Fintrac Inc. Zimbabwe Market Analysis. USAID Office of Food for Peace. 2010.

¹⁰¹ FAO, UN and E.U. All ACP (Agricultural Commodities Programs), “The Grain Industry Value Chain in Zimbabwe,” 2010, p. 23.

seed commercially. The price paid by the seed companies was described by some farmers as “market price” and by others as “set in coordination with the government.” Maize seed is then sold through a network of agro dealers in towns and cities throughout Zimbabwe. Different agro dealers interviewed said the male-female breakdown of customers is between 50:50 and 60:40.

GENDER CONTEXT AND CONSTRAINTS

Both women and men are involved in maize production on small-scale household farms. Women play the critical role of identifying the amount of maize needed for household consumption and often are responsible for storage. It is estimated that 50 percent of households store maize in a simple room.¹⁰² If there is a surplus of a food crop, women usually sell or barter small quantities on the local market, using the cash (or barter) to purchase household items. Larger surpluses are taken to the GMB by women and, more frequently, by men.

Gender Roles at Household Level in Storage for Household (HH) and Marketing Maize as Reported by Focus Groups

| | Kwekwe | | Gweru | | Goromonzi | | Mudzi | |
|----------------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-----------|-------|-------|-------|
| | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women |
| Storage for HH | | x | | x | | x | x | x |
| Market – local | | x | | x | | x | | x |
| Market – GMB | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x |

OPPORTUNITIES AND ENTRY POINTS

Previous studies have determined that maize is not an attractive commercial venture in the current context where the GMB plays such an influential role in the sector.¹⁰³ Several NGO schemes are supporting maize farmers to increase yields and employ various conservation farming methods, particularly targeting women smallholder farmers. Many stakeholders said some conservation farming methods were too labor intensive for women who cannot afford to purchase labor. Yet it can be appropriate for some households. The CRS conservation farming scheme in Mudzi targets farmers who have their own fields, are in good health, are strong enough to dig holes, are between 20 and 45 years old, and are classified as poor and vulnerable. They are given vouchers for 25 kg of maize seed, two 50-kg bags of fertilizer and herbicide. Women make up 70 percent of the program’s participants. While most of these households are producing mainly for household consumption, they are increasingly able to produce excess to sell to the GMB. This is encouraging, but these achievements are entirely dependent upon highly subsidized input distribution, which is unsustainable.

A major problem identified by informants, particularly at AGRITEX, is farmers’ lack of knowledge of what to produce and perceptions that households must grow maize because it is their staple food. Farmers continue to produce maize year after year, despite its lack of profitability. This is especially problematic in areas where maize does not grow well, such as region V. Farmers need support in identifying alternatives, training to learn how to produce them and appropriate technology to process them. Among the A2 farmers, female farmers who had both a higher education level and access to even minimal levels of capital seemed to be even more likely to venture away from maize and into higher-value crops than their male counterparts.

¹⁰² ZimVAC, 2011 draft report.

¹⁰³ Chipika, 2011, p. 17.

DAIRY

MARKET OVERVIEW

Zimbabwe's national cattle herd was severely compromised during the drought and economic-crisis years and is being rebuilt slowly. Exports are 10 times below levels prior to land reform.¹⁰⁴ The sector is dominated by commercial production and 90 percent of value chain actors are men.¹⁰⁵ According to the head of Gormonzi livestock department, the main limitations to livestock development are a lack of resources to build the national herd and to increase the numbers and capacity of livestock extension agents and provide them with transport to the field. Currently there are on average 10 livestock extension agents for 25 wards.

Commercial farmers in the dairy sector initially were less affected by land reform than other sectors. However in recent years, the number of large-scale dairy farms has declined from more than 700 to less than 100, and those remaining are under threat.¹⁰⁶ Consequently, productive capacity is down.¹⁰⁷ Dairy farms that lose their land must slaughter dairy cows because they do not have land to keep them. As a result, the national herd has dropped from 200,000 cows to fewer than 40,000.¹⁰⁸ However, the sector is still dominated by large-scale commercial operations—mostly male-owned—selling to the large-scale commercial processors such as Dairiboard, Nestle, Den Dairy, Cashmare and Keffalocks. Commercial dairy production in this market channel is almost solely the domain of male commercial farmers.

Dairy production is a medium-term investment requiring a number of specialized skills. It is capital intensive, and there are often more barriers to entry for smallholder farmers. Nonetheless, there have been attempts to establish dairy schemes at this level, to allow farmers access to year-round cash-flow and improved nutrition for their families. For example, in the mid-1990s to 2005 there were efforts by the parastatal Agricultural Rural Development Authority (ARDA) to support small-scale dairy processing, including women-managed operations, but funding decreased in 2006 and the dairy schemes have reportedly diminished.¹⁰⁹ The ARDA model depended heavily on subsidized operations of the marketing and bulking channels through milk centers, leaving farmers poorly equipped to manage them once central government funding dried up.

Currently, the value chain for small-scale dairy farmers is underdeveloped, and the smallholder sector is suffering disproportionately more than the commercial, with production dropping below 200,000 liters per year in 2008. There was significant recovery in 2011 from a small base to over 790,000 liters entering the commercial sector and a similar amount in the informal sector.¹¹⁰ Milk producer association members lack business skills, suitable dairy animals, working capital, equipment, transport and storage systems, and finance.¹¹¹ Other small-scale dairy producer and collection cooperatives are supported by donor-funded projects. For example, from January 2009 to December 2010, E.U. STABEX worked with seven milk production associations and was very helpful in reopening seven milk-collection centers and starting the process of rehabilitating the smallholder sector. The extent to which E.U. STABEX engaged women in this activity is unclear. The Land O'Lakes Building Livelihoods and Food Security in Zimbabwe project is building on the E.U. STABEX project and currently is working with 20 milk production associations.

¹⁰⁴ Ibid, p. 20.

¹⁰⁵ Ibid, p. 21.

¹⁰⁶ National Association of Dairy Farmers, 2011.

¹⁰⁷ Ibid, p. 20, Dairy Services, 2011. The country's milk production decreased by 65 percent between 1990 and 2006, down from 17.5 million liters per month to less than 4 million liters.

¹⁰⁸ Dairy Services, 2011.

¹⁰⁹ Chipika, 2011, p. 20.

¹¹⁰ National Association of Dairy Farmers/Land O'Lakes, 2011.

¹¹¹ Ibid, v. 46.

GENDER CONTEXT AND CONSTRAINTS

Cattle are generally owned and looked after by men. Women reported in focus groups that men often use cattle-rearing duties as an excuse to leave for hours on end. Women have been becoming more active in dairy production and processing. Milk producer association activities implemented by Land O'Lakes have shown that positive changes in gender roles related to cattle and dairy production are possible, with women taking a more dominant role in what has been a traditionally male-dominated economic sector.¹¹²

OPPORTUNITIES AND ENTRY POINTS

The market opportunity for small-scale dairy production and processing is unclear. Dairy interventions can be used to teach farmers market principles and improve household food security for smallholder and vulnerable farmers. In addition, the dairy sector has lately shown potential for women to be increasingly active. Dairy production is capital intensive, requiring importation of exotic cows or time for breeding; for this reason women face greater constraints than men. Yet the large decline in production and the current demand are creating an opportunity for production and processing that can be met—at least in the immediate term—by women farmers and associations, such as the milk producers' associations participating in Land O'Lakes activities.

POULTRY

MARKET OVERVIEW

Poultry is important for household food security, particularly because women tend to be responsible for raising poultry and small ruminants for household consumption. However, as the poultry industry becomes more commercialized, opportunities to generate income from small-scale poultry operations are increasingly compromised. Poultry operations tend to fall into the following categories:

- small-scale, home-based operations with around a dozen chickens (according to a 2004 study, the mean flock size among rural households was 17 chickens per household, with female-headed households owning more than male-headed households);¹¹³
- mid-size operations with 1,000–5,000 layers; or
- commercial operations with around 7,000 layers or more.

GENDER CONTEXT AND CONSTRAINTS

Poultry rearing and selling among village-level producers is predominantly the domain of women; male farmers dominate commercial chicken production.¹¹⁴ Focus group participants said that men are more engaged in producing and selling poultry if they do not have larger, more productive livestock to manage. This again points to the vulnerability of women's income-generating work to takeover by males in the household. Women involved in home-based poultry rearing supplement their families' diets and sell eggs mostly at local markets.

OPPORTUNITIES AND ENTRY POINTS

Similar to dairy production, the overall market opportunity for small-scale poultry production and processing is unclear. Interventions in the poultry value chain can be used to teach farmers market principles and contribute to household food security for smallholder and vulnerable farmers. This means that poultry could be a targeted entry point to engage women in market principles since they are predominantly responsible for poultry. However, since poultry is commercialized only at a relatively high scale of operation, it is in most cases appropriate for smallholder and vulnerable households only as a supplemental source of nutrition and occasional income.

¹¹² Chipika, 2011, p. 46.

¹¹³ Muchadeyi, et al. "The Village Chicken Production System in Rushinga District of Zimbabwe," *Livestock Research for Rural Development*, 16 (6), 2004.

¹¹⁴ Women make up more than 60 percent of small-scale poultry producers according to the Poultry Producers Association.

BARRIERS TO ENTRY INTO MALE-DOMINATED VALUE CHAINS

Women encounter particular constraints integrating into male-dominated value chains. While women play active roles in almost all agricultural value chains, their participation is limited in the sugar, beef and dairy subsectors. Much of this is due to tradition, which labels these subsectors as male activities and deems women's participation in these value chains as culturally inappropriate. Women also have less access to capital. For example, women do not play a major role in the production of sugar because sugar is a capital-intensive cash crop and has been produced mainly on large-scale commercial farms that predominantly, and for traditional reasons, hire men as laborers. While women can be found in packaging operations of refined sugar, their employment in this part of the value chain is limited by E.U. trade regulations that require Zimbabwe to send mostly raw sugar to European markets. Consequently, women's involvement in this value chain is limited primarily to local packaging operations.¹¹⁵

Women also have been excluded from the beef and dairy industries. All male and female fieldwork participants at the household-producer level agreed that cattle were a resource predominantly accessed and controlled by men, and that women play only a minor supporting role in value chains related to cattle. Women encounter difficulties integrating into these subsectors due to the value of cattle assets, and because of gender norms related to perceptions of their strength and the manageability of cattle.

Cattle are regarded as an extremely valuable asset and can play a role in a number of productive agricultural practices. They can serve as draft power to assist in land preparation, provide milk and meat to be sold or consumed at home, serve as an asset in taking out a loan, and provide manure to fertilize crops. As a result, men generally maintain exclusive control over cattle.

Cattle are difficult to manage and many tasks involved in the dairy and butchery value chains require physical strength. Both male and female fieldwork participants at the household level said that only men had the strength and ability to participate in many of the activities involved in rearing cattle. These male-dominated activities included herding, training, branding, using cattle as draft power in farming activities and pulling scotch carts, and building the physical structures needed for cattle rearing. Fieldwork found that even widows who own their own cattle must rely on male relatives or paid labor to perform the majority of these activities. This finding demonstrates that in the case of de jure female-headed households, control over cattle does not necessarily imply access. Women participate alongside men in feeding, fodder production, dipping, cleaning of milk sheds, milking and milk delivery, but are mostly excluded from other cattle-related activities. Findings are similar for medium- and large-scale commercial enterprises involved in beef and dairy value chains. Such enterprises prefer to hire male workers, with women only recently gaining employment even in the canning sector.

While some women may want to break into the beef and dairy subsectors and may have the required strength and skills to do so, entering this value chain means going against traditional gender roles and could have negative consequences.

The traditional practice of *lobola* reinforces and sustains the belief that cattle are part of a man's domain. In this practice, a family can receive one cow from their daughter's husband as part of the marriage rite. *Lobola* creates an opportunity for mothers to have some ownership of cattle, but men receive more cattle. Furthermore, it seems that even cattle given to mothers through *lobola* often end up being managed and controlled by men, mainly due to perceptions about women lacking the strength and skills required to work with cattle.

¹¹⁵ Zimbabwe Women's Resource Center and Network, 2008, p. 24.

V. WHAT WORKS? GENDER ASSESSMENT OF IMPLEMENTATION APPROACHES

This section presents findings regarding the approaches used by USAID-funded projects, other donors and civil society to improve women’s access to agricultural and related economic opportunities and to increase the benefits to women of these opportunities. For a list of USAID-funded projects reviewed for this assessment, please see the text box, below.

USAID ECONOMIC GROWTH PROGRAMS

INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL

Gender mainstreaming of institutional processes, working environment and organizational structure plays a key role in the subsequent design, planning and delivery of gender- and equality-responsive programs and projects.¹¹⁶ Overall, interviews with stakeholders and review of project reports suggested that most

mainstreaming efforts mainly involve targeting and collecting gender-disaggregated output-level data. Mainstreaming generally is misunderstood to be increasing women’s involvement as participants and beneficiaries and not as achieving true equity or equality. This assessment found that there is a need for greater effort in mainstreaming gender in the planning and design of programs and in adopting a dual approach that includes gender consideration in existing activities and specific activities aimed at women’s empowerment. For the most part, projects lack technical gender knowledge, and senior management sometimes lacks the commitment to properly mainstream gender in all processes, policies and activities, and at all levels. As a result, most projects and approaches resort to a mere “checking of the boxes.” In the future, greater effort must be made to push for women’s inclusion throughout the entire lifetime of projects and ensure that gender support in Zimbabwe is well-designed and coordinated.

List of USAID-Funded Projects Assessed

- ACDI/VOCA – Restoring Agriculture Livelihoods in Zimbabwe (REALIZ)
- Africare – APS Livelihoods Generation Project
- CARE – Zimbabwe Restoring Livelihoods Program
- CLUSA – Zimbabwe Agriculture Production and Agribusiness Development (ZAPAD)
- CNFA – Agrodealer Strengthening Project (ASP)
- CRS – Promoting Recovery in Zimbabwe (PRIZE)
- DAI – Agriculture Competitiveness Program (ACP)
- Fintrac – Smallholder Technology and Access to Markets Program (STAMP)
- Fintrac – Zimbabwe Agriculture Income and Employment Development (ZIM-AIED)
- IRD – Restoring Livelihoods – Strengthening Value Chains (ReVALUE)
- Land O’Lakes – Rebuilding Livelihoods and Resiliency in Zimbabwe
- Mercy Corps – Revitalizing Agriculture Incomes in New Markets (RAIN)
- Technoserv – Poultry and Feed-grain Program
- World Vision – Revitalization of Smallholder Agriculture Production in Zimbabwe (RASPZ)

Mainstreaming Strategy and Gender Policy

Many USAID implementing partners, such as CRS, Mercy Corps, Land O’Lakes and Fintrac, have global or regional gender mainstreaming policies that country offices can adapt and use. A few implementing partners and

¹¹⁶ Moser, Caroline. “An Introduction to Gender Audit Methodology: Its design and implementation in DFID Malawi,” London, Overseas Development Institute, 2005.

projects have country-level or project-specific mainstreaming strategies or gender policies to guide gender mainstreaming efforts. In its Agrodealer Strengthening Project (ASP), CNFA adopted a Gender Action Plan that sets out objectives, actions, responsible actors and a timeline for implementing specific gender mainstreaming actions and activities both internally and externally. Cooperative League of the USA (CLUSA) adopted a gender strategy halfway through the Zimbabwe Agriculture Production and Agribusiness Development (ZAPAD) project as part of its effort to increase the number of women participants. Recognizing the need for a guiding approach, both Fintrac’s Smallholder Technology & Access to Markets Program (STAMP) and Zimbabwe Agriculture Income and Employment Development (Zim-AIED) project are working on adopting a joint local gender policy to inform future gender mainstreaming strategy and activities.

Senior Management

Senior management can play a key role in the success or failure of gender-mainstreaming efforts. Commitment from senior management is critical in demonstrating to staff that these efforts are important and worthwhile. Moreover, such commitment also is crucial for projects to allocate the necessary time and resources to ensure that gender is adequately mainstreamed. Projects that were most successful in mainstreaming gender had senior managers who were committed to mainstreaming and who advocated for innovation in gender mainstreaming and dedication to increasing women’s participation in project activities. One mid-level staffer gave the following example: “When our project started, the COP did not consider gender issues to be a central issue. That COP left, and we got a new one who saw it as central. He was passionate and dedicated to gender issues.” Gender mainstreaming is most successful if it has a leader or champion in senior levels of the organization. However, most implementing partners are lacking such commitment in senior management.

Gender Balance in Staffing

Overall, implementing partners are doing well in achieving gender balance in management roles and Harare-based positions. For example, four of six of Fintrac Zim-AIED’s program managers are women and three of seven of ASP’s management positions are held by women. However, almost all partners claim to have encountered challenges in achieving gender balance in field offices.

Taking a position in the field often means sacrificing family commitments, which women often are less willing or able to do than men because of the traditional gender roles of women as the primary caregivers in the home. Consequently, it is easier for projects and partners to hire young, unmarried women for field positions. However, the hiring of unmarried women often is not a sustainable solution for projects because many women leave positions upon marriage. For example, the Chief of Party (COP) of ACDI/VOCA’s Restoring Economic Agricultural Livelihoods in Zimbabwe (REALIZ) described how this had been the case for a number of female staff in the past year.

Project staff also thought that women are dissuaded from applying for field office positions because fieldwork involves working in rural environments with difficult terrain. Many project sites and villages are difficult to access, requiring trekking or advanced motorbike skills. While these conditions are challenging for both men and women, project staff thought that men generally were more willing to deal with them. In addition, it is generally considered unacceptable for women to ride motorbikes in traditional society, and the risk of stigma may prevent many women from applying for jobs that requires their use. And finally, some informants

Policies to Promote the Retention of Female Staff

Mercy Corps has gender-friendly human resources policies that appear to play a role in encouraging retention of female staff.

Staff members with infants are able to travel with them and their nurses as a means of ensuring that mothers can continue to work in the field. The organization also tries to be flexible with the work schedules of new mothers so they can feed their children.

The Deputy Chief of Party reported the organization had not had any female staff members leave after childbirth and believed that its progressive policies were a primary reason.

expressed that it is not practical, equitable or cost-effective for organizations to alter travel requirements for female staff.

While the hiring of female field officers is reported as a challenge, it is not impossible to achieve gender balance if projects are proactive. The REALIZ project did particularly well recruiting female agents. Managers made sure that all field officer positions had 60 percent of women short-listed. To ensure that female field officers did not encounter gender-related challenges while working in communities, the project had counseling sessions with female field agents on behavior, appropriate dress, how to carry themselves and how to interact with beneficiaries. It also carried out sensitizations with communities so that their members would be accepting of female field agents using motorbikes. Additionally, both the CRS Promoting Recovery in Zimbabwe (PRIZE) project and Land O'Lakes have sought to increase the number of female project staff through positive discrimination and are willing to invest in greater training for less-experienced female candidates.

While the DAI Agricultural Competitiveness Program (ACP) only has offices in Harare, it has adopted a good strategy for encouraging gender balance within the organization by hiring a pool of female interns who have just graduated from university. The use of interns might be a particularly good strategy for organizations seeking to hire greater numbers of female field officers, since interns generally do not have the same household and family responsibilities as older, married women.

Gender Expertise

Almost all USAID implementing partners have assigned gender focal persons to assist in mainstreaming practices. However, approaches in appointing gender focal persons have been largely ad hoc. Most are M&E staff members who were assigned to the role through a “best person for the job” approach among existing staff members, as opposed to having been recruited or hired based on gender expertise. Other focal persons are responsible for assisting in the mainstreaming of a wide range of cross-cutting issues, such as gender, HIV/AIDS and the environment. While it is critical that all such cross-cutting issues be adequately mainstreamed, it is highly doubtful that any one staff member possesses sufficient expertise in all three areas. Similarly, most gender focal persons lack formal training and special expertise. Although some have attended one or two gender workshops or trainings, this is generally insufficient to properly lead projects and country offices in internal and external gender mainstreaming processes. As one of the few exceptions, PRIZE has a full-time HIV/AIDS and gender focal person who had worked for the MWAGCD and has a master’s degree in gender. Overall, few partners have a designated gender specialist with the exclusive task of assisting in gender mainstreaming or with the necessary training to lead projects or organizations in these processes.

A number of implementing partners have gender specialists or gender focus groups based at headquarters that provide additional support on gender and mainstreaming issues. Land O'Lakes has a working group that assists on all projects to ensure gender is being considered, and Mercy Corps has a technical support unit with gender specialists. Fintrac, CARE and ACIDI/VOCA all have home-office gender specialists who can provide mainstreaming support to country offices. While such support exists, it is unclear to what extent this expertise is being used. For example, one implementing partner described having a gender focus group as a resource for answering mainstreaming questions, but it said this was more of an informal mechanism and the focus group did not provide much technical assistance in design and implementation of mainstreaming strategy.

Having one staff member with knowledge on gender concepts and mainstreaming approaches is not sufficient, since all project staff are responsible for participating in mainstreaming processes. While implementing partners are supposed to be mainstreaming gender, very few partners or projects have actually trained staff in basic gender concepts and gender mainstreaming. CNFA and CARE are two exceptions. All PRIZE staff members at CARE have been trained in gender topics, and the entire country office underwent basic gender training two and a half years ago. In 2011, 10 trainers (five men and five women) from the CNFA ASP were trained in gender analysis and gender mainstreaming in agricultural interventions.

Very few implementing partners have any plans to conduct gender trainings for project staff. CARE is planning a training-of-trainers workshop on basic gender concepts for 30 people, which will then be rolled out across the organization. Additionally, Land O'Lakes has informal plans to organize trainings for staff. However, gender training should be regarded as a key capacity-development activity for all projects and partners. If all project staff were expected to mainstream gender within their work, they would need to have a basic understanding of gender concepts and gender mainstreaming approaches.

Gender Assessment Online Survey Results

As part of the USAID/Zimbabwe Feed the Future Gender Assessment process, Economic Growth implementing partners were asked to complete an anonymous, 25-question survey on institutional gender mainstreaming practices and capacity. Partners were asked to assign one senior-level and one mid-level staff member from the organization to complete the assessment. Overall, 18 individuals completed the survey, with 11 men and seven women filling out the survey, including seven members of senior management and 10 mid-level staff.

The most significant finding of the survey is that participants feel that most staff lacks the capacity to adequately mainstream gender throughout programs and processes, with the majority of survey participants indicating that staff was generally lacking in the necessary training, tools and abilities needed to mainstream gender in their work. Asked if project staff had been trained in gender awareness and sensitization, the most common response (44 percent) was that training had occurred only to a limited extent, with 11 percent saying that such training had not occurred at all. Asked if project staff had the necessary knowledge, skills and attitude to carry out their work with gender awareness, 89 percent of respondents felt this was only true to a limited or moderate extent, with only 11 percent feeling that staff had the capacity to carry out work with gender awareness to a great extent. When asked to check any/all obstacles to integrating gender in project planning, implementation and evaluation within the organization, lack of capacity repeatedly came up—61 percent listed staff capacity, 67 percent listed lack of staff training on gender and 61 percent listed lack of gender tools as obstacles.

Having trained and knowledgeable GFPs or experts in place to guide gender mainstreaming efforts is also a capacity issue. Asked if there was a person or department responsible for gender in project offices, less than half (43 percent) responded that these individuals were in place “to a great or full extent.” In contrast, 19 percent said that there was no one responsible for gender in project offices and 38 percent said such individuals or departments were only in place to a limited or moderate extent.

The other key finding from the survey is that most participants feel that projects are not budgeting adequate financial resources to support gender mainstreaming efforts. For example, 16.7 percent said that no financial resources were budgeted towards gender mainstreaming, and 61 percent felt that resources were being allocated only to a limited or moderate extent. Similarly, 44 percent listed this as an obstacle to successful mainstreaming within organizations.

MONITORING, EVALUATION, LEARNING AND REPORTING

Impact Evaluation, Gender Assessment, Gender Auditing

Very few projects had carried out gender analyses, audits or impact evaluations to assess institutional, situational, cultural, political and socioeconomic barriers that constrain women’s economic empowerment in project areas or to measure *how* projects have affected the lives of women beneficiaries. Although most implementing partners included gender lines in baseline surveys, such efforts generally did not go beyond statistics to a more thorough analysis. The CARE Zimbabwe Restoring Livelihoods Project conducted a “mini gender analysis,” through desk review and field research, that looked at poverty and social issues in areas where the project works. In addition, the Mercy Corps Revitalizing Agriculture Incomes in New Markets (RAIN) project performed a global gender assessment in 2011 that included Zimbabwe. REALIZ conducted an impact evaluation that examined gender results at the end of the project.

In order to properly evaluate mainstreaming efforts, projects should go beyond tracking of participation and examine the impact of interventions on men and women and the barriers that prevent women from participating or benefiting from interventions. For example, it is not sufficient to count how many women are participating in a dairy program. Efforts need to be made to understand who is controlling the milk, who in the household is benefitting from the income from cattle and milk, and whether participation also extends to decision making. Overall, there is a great need for analysis at the start and end of projects and for examination of *how* projects are benefiting women. Many projects recognize this need. Fintrac has plans to carry out a field-

based gender assessment of STAMP and ZIM-AIED with support from its headquarters' gender specialist, and CRS is planning internal, partner gender audits for PRIZE in 2012 and hopes to build a mainstreaming strategy around audit results.

PROGRAM LEVEL

Setting Targets

As described above, most USAID-funded projects adopt a targeted approach to ensure that sufficient percentages of female beneficiaries are participating in projects. Partners vary in where and how they set their targets, with targets generally ranging from 30 to 60 percent. Both REALIZ and PRIZE established a 60 percent target for women's participation in project activities, based on the fact that women constitute 60 percent of the population in Zimbabwe. ASP, Zim-AIED and the TechnoServe project have targets at 50 percent. The Land O'Lakes project, working with a male-dominated value chain, has set its target at 33.3 percent.

In general, most projects did well in meeting their targets. However, almost all implementing partners stressed that targets were not easily reached and that project staff had to actively and continuously encourage women to play roles. Projects were also willing to be creative to better meet targets. In order to involve more women in agro-dealer training where there were not enough existing female agro-dealers to meet targets, ASP encouraged male agro-dealers to send their wives to courses.

REALIZ went to great lengths to meet its 60 percent participation target. For example, if women did not represent 60 percent of the beneficiaries present at a meeting, the project would call off the meeting and reschedule it. REALIZ also adopted a very mindful approach in communicating to project beneficiaries *why* targets were chosen and why there was a need for such targets. Project staff continually made it clear to beneficiaries that targets were based on population statistics.

Most partners and projects did particularly well in meeting targets for women as trainers and training participants. However, projects typically fell short of meeting targets for women filling lead-farmer positions and for receiving formal credit. Zim-AIED allowed husbands to accompany women on farm visits so that women could keep their lead-farmer role. Additionally, ACP is having challenges in meeting its 30 percent training target for demand-based business trainings that require payment for participation.

Several implementing partners did not have any mainstreaming targets. CARE explained that its project lacked targets because the project already included 70 percent women. However, other implementing partners without targets lacked a rationale for their decision. One project readily admitted that it had made no special effort to target female beneficiaries or integrate them into the program.

Despite the important role targets play in ensuring women's participation in projects, findings also suggested that targets can be misleading. For example, stakeholders described how males sometimes circumvent targets by getting female family members to register their names, with the men then taking control of all benefits from the intervention. Gender targets also have the potential to alienate or exclude men, who must be regarded as stakeholders in any meaningful drive towards equality. In addition, targets can be ineffective for interventions that are driven by demand, such as loans. Targets by themselves are insufficient to properly mainstream gender. Implementers need to ensure that targets are not counterproductive or perceived as being exclusionary. Finally, all implementers must recognize that targeting does not address community dynamics and social effects needed

Targeting Households for Training

Targeting can limit women's access to opportunities if only one person per household can attend a training, with male heads of household typically attending.

Land O'Lakes successfully addresses this constraint by requiring that two members of the household attend trainings. With this strategy, the project has been able to get more women to attend and found that women are now attending training sessions more frequently than men. This finding is particularly noteworthy because dairy is a nontraditional value chain for women.

for lasting change or ensure increases in decision making and meaningful participation. When employed, targeting *must* be accompanied by other mainstreaming activities that address these barriers to equality.

Theme 1: Addressing Women’s Workloads

Women have very demanding workloads that often make it difficult for them to meaningfully participate in development opportunities. Few implementing partners take women’s workloads into account when scheduling activities, and this omission can serve as a potentially large barrier to getting women to participate meaningfully in trainings and other project activities.

Planning Project Activities Around Women’s Workloads

Both Fintrac projects and the REALIZ project were mindful of women’s workloads and their multiple roles. Project activities are held in the mornings when women are free and generally are kept short so that women can complete other work and not risk angering their husbands, which would potentially prevent them from attending future trainings. These partners recognize that it is easier for women to participate from May to October when they already have harvested and are working on household gardens as opposed to dryland farming. In order to reach women during planting and harvesting season, REALIZ held trainings at lunchtime or visited women in the fields.

ACP trainers advise that it is better to hold trainings close to communities so that women do not have to travel far to attend and can still fulfill their reproductive and productive responsibilities. When women do have to travel, trainers reimburse bus fares, which is particularly important when working with poor households and women who do not control the households’ income. Finally, ACP trainers also suggest that women generally are slower to grasp new concepts due to low education levels, and they generally require more than the average of two days for trainings.

Childcare is a major constraint. Women sometimes bring infants and small children to trainings. The presence of children can have a disruptive effect on training sessions for all participants. ASP is the project to address this constraint, providing childcare alternatives for women who participate in agro-dealer training.

While targets help ensure that women participate on the project, efforts to develop, provide and train beneficiaries in the use of woman-friendly technologies will help create greater demand from women to participate in interventions. Although some projects are training beneficiaries in the use of equipment that is particularly difficult for women to use, others simply are failing to consider gender dynamics when selecting which technology is most appropriate.

Implementers disagree on which technology is most appropriate for women. For example, one USAID implementing partner praised the treadle pump as being woman-friendly because it is easy to operate and maintain. The partner reported that women enjoyed using it and that it cut down watering time by 70 percent. However, another implementing partner challenged its merits and advocated for motorized pumps, which they felt were easier to operate and more effective in reducing women’s workloads. Yet, motorized pumps are costly to build and maintain and run the risk of being co-opted by men, which would reduce women’s ability to control yet another resource.

This debate over appropriate technologies demonstrates the need for more research on the effects of existing equipment deemed to be woman-friendly and the best form of irrigation technology for both improving production and empowering women. While certain forms of technology may be effective in one context or region,

The Hip Pump

The hip pump is a low-cost, portable irrigation pump with a pivot hinge that enables the user to employ her leg, body weight and momentum, rather than the small muscles of the upper back and shoulders to pump water. This device was reportedly designed specifically with women in mind—pumping water with it is not as strenuous as with other pumps and can be done by a woman carrying a baby. It has been used in Kenya, Tanzania and Mali since 2008, and was developed by KickStart, a Kenyan company. The hip pump is currently unavailable on the local market. It is unclear if the hip pump would function effectively in Zimbabwe, and any initiatives to introduce the pump within the country should be preceded by regional and context-specific pilot testing.

Feedback from women farmers in Zimbabwe indicates that gravity-fed irrigation systems are perhaps the most woman-friendly form of irrigation technology currently being used in Zimbabwe. Women farmers said that these systems are effective in reducing workloads, and that they are affordable and easy to maintain.

they may not be effective countrywide: It is important for the appropriate technologies to be chosen based on the conditions. Some woman-friendly equipment has been developed internationally, but it needs to be tested to ensure applicability within the Zimbabwean context. In addition, some woman-friendly equipment that has proven to be very successful in countries with similar conditions and contexts is not yet available on the market in Zimbabwe. Greater effort should be made to make this equipment available.

Female Interns as Role Models

Land O'Lakes also makes use of female interns, who have recently graduated from agricultural colleges, in its milk centers. These interns help build capacity, assist with recordkeeping and provide administrative services to centers. While they play a crucial role in basic milk center function, the Land O'Lakes Chief of Party feels their greatest role is in demonstrating to other women that it is possible to make a career in this field.

Finally, women's heavy workloads can be reduced greatly if men begin playing a greater role in reproductive and domestic labor. Male focus group participants acknowledged this as a key means for reducing women's workloads. However, traditional gender roles and taboos preclude this from occurring. In efforts to reduce women's workloads, USAID-funded projects and other stakeholders should begin looking at effective and creative strategies to engage men in reproductive work in ways that are appropriate and comfortable for both women and men.

Theme 2: Participation in Committees and Trainings

Feedback from a number of stakeholders among USAID implementing partners, donors and local civil society groups indicates that when women attend trainings, meetings and workshops, they are often quiet and reluctant to participate. This was found to be especially problematic in mixed or male-dominated groups, with facilitators often working very hard to get women attendees to speak and actively participate in project processes.

Stakeholders never disputed that women *want* to participate in trainings. This also was supported by female fieldwork participants who overall expressed a strong desire to attend trainings and build their capacity. However, traditional Zimbabwean culture dictates that men are the decision makers, and women feel uncomfortable speaking in their presence. Illiteracy and low levels of self-confidence are other barriers to women's effective participation in trainings, meetings and other project activities.

Overall, many stakeholders stated that women participate more actively in women-only groups or when the majority of the participants are women. However, some stakeholders contradicted the latter part of this finding and said that even the presence of just a few men in trainings could serve to render women quiet. Yet, if all trainings are performed in separation, there is less buy-in from men and the overall community.

The ZAPAD project did particularly well engaging women in meaningful participation in Rural Group Enterprises (RGEs) by reconfiguring groups so they were made up entirely or mostly of women. They found that women were much more active participants and better able to assume influential positions within the group when women were in the majority. It is suggested that women be trained and engaged in mixed groups where the majority are women. Facilitators and field officers should be trained in gender-sensitive and empowering training techniques that specifically encourage women to speak out and become involved.

The STAMP project found it was easier to get women to actively participate in trainings when female field managers were working with the groups. This is problematic because most implementing partners have limited female field staff. To get around this institutional challenge, it is suggested that when implementing partners don't have sufficient "woman power," they should link with gender-focused civil

Women's Business Platforms

As part of its ZAPAD project, CLUSA instituted a Women's Business Platform. Women from different businesses and areas met to explore business opportunities. Members of the forum were provided training in business skills, marketing and business math.

Members then were encouraged to pass on the business leadership skills acquired through the training to other women in the community. Members of WBPs adopted leadership roles by engaging other women in business opportunities and better business practices.

society groups to assist in trainings. These groups have a good deal of experience in facilitating trainings and adopting techniques to promote the participation of women and can play very useful roles in encouraging meaningful participation from women beneficiaries. However, organizations also should make a concerted effort to increase the number of female field agents.

In addition to participation targets, many projects establish development management committees (e.g., water maintenance committees, irrigation management committees and marketing committees) and push for women to be included in them in equal numbers as men. While these efforts should be commended, the assessment found that women's roles on committees are usually symbolic. Female committee members generally defer authority and decision making to male committee members. Results are also differentiated by age, with it generally being easier to get older women to participate in decision making than younger women. Stakeholders attributed this to elderly women being well respected and because Zimbabwean traditional culture is deferential to the elderly.

Targeted activities are needed to build women's confidence to participate and play leadership roles, particularly in the presence of men. For example, the Africare Livelihoods Generation Project and many gender-focused civil society groups provide leadership trainings for women. Women and Land in Zimbabwe generally invites chiefs, traditional leaders and male heads to a portion of trainings to ensure male buy-in.

Theme 3: Access to Credit, Loans and Community-Based Financing

USAID-funded projects appear to have performed particularly poorly in increasing women's access to formal loans and microcredit. For example, one project was working with three banks to extend credit. It included a stipulation in its contract that banks must make a significant effort to extend 50 percent of the loans to women. However, this target has not been enforced, and only 29.53 percent of loan applicants and 33.33 percent of borrowers have been women, with women borrowers generally receiving smaller-scale loans.¹¹⁷

Another project with a specific microfinance aspect made a special effort to target women vegetable vendors. However, only 27 credit applicants were women and not all applicants received loans. This initiative was regarded by the implementer as the greatest failing of the project and attributed its failure to women simply not applying for loans. Fieldwork shows that while women want formal loans, they are largely unaware of how to access loans and take advantage of current loan opportunities. This demonstrates a gap between available loan opportunities and women's awareness of them. Greater efforts need to be made to increase awareness and facilitate and encourage demand, especially with women.

USAID-funded projects have been far more successful in creating small-scale savings and loan opportunities for women via VSL schemes. The Africare, CARE and CRS projects have been active in helping form and train VSL groups and report that 75–80 percent of group members are women. However, these groups are dominated by women not because of targeting but because men are uninterested in their initiatives.

VSL groups are self-selecting and involve working with like-minded members with the same savings capacities. Groups focus on economic activities that are culturally and socially acceptable to women and usually involve scaling up existing activities in line with what women already know, such as processing groundnuts into peanut butter and purchasing goats and small ruminants, carrying less risk for members. Overall, implementers report that women perform well in these small-scale activities. Participants invest profits in other economic activities or use them to meet basic needs. Implementers also observed that these schemes were enormously successful in increasing women's confidence levels.

These schemes can help women access resources that they otherwise would have to ask their husbands for, and they empower women by giving them the ability to make decisions about the use of funds. However, the long-

¹¹⁷ According to project monitoring data as of January 2012.

term effect is unclear: One implementer reported that qualitative evidence shows that in the beginning of the VSL process, women experience an increase in decision making due to increased access to funds. Over time, women's decision making decreases as men become interested in the money and want to be involved; women's decision making then plateaus.¹¹⁸ It would be useful to conduct a quantitative study on decision making concerning VSL funds to triangulate this qualitative finding.

VSL schemes also can be beneficial to women by allowing them to become familiar with the principles and practices of using and repaying loans. Advanced VSL groups have the potential to graduate into more formal microfinance opportunities. Both the CARE and Africare projects are involved in training successful groups to reach higher levels of activity, then linking the most advanced to microfinance organizations. VSL groups represent a possible entry point to increase women's access to formal loans and credit and to facilitate larger investments.

However, according to a stakeholder involved in VSL schemes, many women achieve a certain stage of the loan process and do not want to go beyond it. At the end of the year, VSL groups often have a sizeable pot of remaining money that could be used to make sizeable investments. Instead, these funds are distributed to members to start again. Women seek to sustain current levels of provision for family, which in itself is a significant accomplishment, rather than focusing on investment. It is possible that larger, more visible investments require male permission or are likely to fall under male control. In addition, many VSL members may lack the confidence to expand investments. These findings suggest that projects involved in VSL schemes could make a greater effort to investigate the barriers that may prevent women from expanding VSL schemes and make those who have been successful in VSL groups feel more confident about participating in larger investments.

Theme 4: Engaging Women in Nontraditional Sectors

Several projects have been active in encouraging women to play increased roles in nontraditional areas, such as in beef and dairy value chains or as agroveterinary service providers (ASPs) and lead farmers. For example, Fintrac's agritrade facility is working with successful women-owned butcheries.

The Land O'Lakes project is making a conscious effort to encourage the participation of women in milk collection center leadership and has been quite successful. It encountered significant male resistance when the project first introduced the notion of women having leadership roles on Milk Boards, with men feeling that women lacked sufficient experience in the sector to participate effectively. Field teams have had to push to counter negative attitudes and involve women. However, efforts have been successful, and more than 50 percent of milk collection center managers and treasurers are women. Project staff members maintain that participation goes beyond mere numbers and say that most women involved in milk center leadership are taking the lead in meetings and acting as actual decision makers. In addition, women have good mutual support and interactions at quarterly meetings of milk centers. This finding also was reflected in fieldwork results at a Land O'Lakes-supported milk collection center in Goromonzi. Male focus-group participants communicated that they respected the milk center's chairwoman and believed she was the right person for the job.

Despite successes in getting women to participate in milk centers, Land O'Lakes is struggling to involve women as artificial insemination technicians and community health animal workers. These roles involve a lot of time away from home, which makes it hard for women in these roles to fulfill reproductive obligations. The positions also involve making visits from farm to farm, and it is culturally unacceptable for married women to visit male farmers.

¹¹⁸ The interviewee who gave this information speculated that the plateau could be attributed to social peer pressure where VSL groups become empowered and make efforts to ensure men do not misappropriate VSL funding.

The ZAPAD project also has been successful in recruiting women to serve as ASPs, despite the fact that providing agroveterinary services traditionally is seen as a man's job. While it has been easier to engage women to act as extension agents to assist in crop-related value chains, the role of ASP involves working with livestock, which is generally regarded as a male activity. The program's initial selection of ASPs saw high rates of men being recruited, but the project held a second round and modified its requirements to recruit more women. ZAPAD found that even female farmers who performed less well on written tests performed well in the field. By the project's conclusion, women constituted over 40 percent of total ASPs.

ZAPAD also found that female ASPs were able to effectively reach out to female farmers, especially widows who found it difficult to seek such services from male service providers due to cultural restrictions. Female service providers generally were regarded as easy to approach and engage in negotiations. The services of female ASPs increasingly were sought by male farmers after women were able to prove themselves in the community; male farmers have come to regard female ASPs as more trustworthy. Current and future projects should build on these successes and identify additional entry points for women's involvement in nontraditional sectors.

While it is important to help women gain entry into nontraditional spheres, it is equally important to design interventions around women's interests. For example, many projects (e.g., Africare Livelihoods Generation Project, International Relief and Development [IRD] Restoring Livelihoods – Strengthening Value Chains [ReVALUE], CARE Zimbabwe Restoring Livelihoods Program, TechnoServe Poultry and Feed-grain Program and Fintrac STAMP and ZIM-AIED) focus on “women's crops” that can have a nutritional impact on households. They base this on the belief that women are more interested in these crops and that men will be more likely to take over projects relating to large livestock or maize. These value chains include oilseeds, poultry and small ruminants, sweet potato, groundnuts and group processing. For example, one project sought to add value to groundnuts at the local level and assisted women in processing groundnuts into peanut butter and marketing products through informal markets. While these value chains have nutritional value for the household, women often use money from the sale of surplus crops for home costs. In addition, projects also are focusing on turning home gardens, which are generally considered the domain of women, into income-generating opportunities.

However, as projects seek to commercialize women-dominated crops, implementing partners must be wary that such commercialization will attract male interest and may lead to male attempts to control the incomes. No projects have plans or measures in place to ensure that the commercialization of women's crops benefits household members equitably.

Theme 5: Engaging Men in Gender Mainstreaming

USAID-funded projects are not taking a strategic, planned approach to engaging men as part of gender mainstreaming efforts; instead, they address men (e.g., through community meetings) only when the need arises. Some projects believe they are doing enough to ensure male buy-in for mainstreaming efforts merely by inviting a few men to participate in women-dominated Rural Group Enterprises. Finally, while many projects make efforts to go through traditional leadership and have communitywide sensitizations to explain overall project activities, these efforts do not sufficiently address gender issues or explain why gender mainstreaming is important. These issues generally are being addressed only when there is a problem.

Gender cannot be properly mainstreamed without engaging men. Men are often gatekeepers of power and may feel threatened or hesitant when they see women becoming economically empowered or taking on nontraditional roles. For example, the ZAPAD project found that some female ASPs were forced to leave the program because their husbands felt they would use their work to cover up or engage in affairs. Stakeholders commonly referenced a gender backlash in which many men come to feel alienated by women's empowerment efforts and feel that gender is a women-only term that threatens their position in society. Several stakeholders expressed that this backlash also was witnessed among male staff. There is a need to better engage male beneficiaries *and* project staff. Padare Men's Forum, a civil society forum that specifically focuses on engaging

men and boys on gender issues, has found that men are best engaged by using targeted partnerships and small groups, as opposed to a rally-type approach.

In addition, greater efforts need to be made to engage men in agricultural activities that are perceived as women oriented, such as VSL clubs and Health and Hygiene Groups. Men often exclude themselves from these activities, even when they could otherwise gain a lot from participation. For example, in a non-USAID-funded project, Mercy Corps implements food and nutrition clubs known as “Fan Clubs.” Although these clubs are 90 percent women, the organization has observed that men’s involvement in the clubs helps balance household roles and prevents men from questioning women’s nutrition- and hygiene-based decisions.

Theme 6: Challenging Gender Norms

While many USAID-funded projects are adopting activities and measures to address women’s roles in agriculture and reduce the constraints that prevent them from benefiting from agricultural labor, a lot of strategies have addressed culturally acceptable issues, rather than tackling the root causes of such constraints. Projects have not addressed traditional gender roles, relations and responsibilities that shape and influence how men and women act. The ASP was the only project that reported directly addressing these issues in programming, with the organization conducting basic training on gender concepts for 86 farmers.

Gender issues can be integrated into programming in a way that connects topics to agricultural issues. Trainers for ACP recommended that existing training modules be adapted so that gender is infused throughout and there are distinct sections on gender and equality. Women-oriented civil society groups also recommend that trainings on sensitive issues be conducted with men and women in separate groups, with groups being brought together at the end of the training for a group discussion.

STAKEHOLDER COLLABORATION

This assessment revealed that most implementing partners are not collaborating with the MWAGCD and Ministry of Agriculture on their gender approaches. Even though MWAGCD is increasing its focus on women’s economic empowerment, implementing partners perceive it as an institution only worth engaging for specific women-focused projects. Among those interviewed, only CARE and CLUSA have ongoing interactions with MWAGCD. Stakeholders also said that they had yet to see a clear, strategic blueprint from the Ministry of Agriculture about how to include gender in the sector. ACDI/VOCA was the only exception, with AGRITEX officers initially advising the REALIZ project to hold trainings at times that fit around women’s workloads.

Very few implementing partners are collaborating with women- or gender-focused civil society groups that could help with gender mainstreaming efforts. For the most part, Economic Growth implementing partners do not know which organizations exist and are largely unaware of how collaborations between organizations could be mutually beneficial.

OTHER DONOR PROGRAMS

INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL

This assessment found that other donors and U.N. programs are adopting very similar approaches to gender mainstreaming as USAID and its implementing partners and are encountering many of the same challenges. Like many implementing partners, donors and U.N. programs have the ability to draw on international experience and expertise on gender, with headquarters-based knowledge often used to varying degrees. When it comes to in-country practice, gender mainstreaming predominantly is addressed through targeting and efforts to increase the numbers of women participating in interventions. Excluding U.N. agencies with an explicit gender focus, donors generally lack a thorough analysis of gender issues to inform country strategy and program design.

Most donors and U.N. agencies have gender focal persons in place to lead mainstreaming efforts. However, as with USAID implementing partners, these positions often have been filled in an ad hoc manner with gender

focal points lacking the necessary training and credentials. Most donors feel staff would benefit from additional gender trainings and that technical awareness on gender issues and mainstreaming practices is low. Overall, most donor stakeholders interviewed feel their organizations and projects could do more to sufficiently mainstream gender. In addition, a few donors reported they have encountered difficulties in getting staff to support and recognize the importance of gender mainstreaming efforts. For example, one organization said it had been very difficult to get staff to attend gender trainings, and the whole office had to be shut down to encourage attendance.

Some donors, like Swiss Development Cooperation (SDC), Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) and the European Union, have gender tool kits in place. However, both GIZ and SDC admitted that more training was necessary so that staff could actually use the tools. Both the Department for International Development (DFID) and the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) have carried out country-specific gender analyses to guide mainstreaming efforts. The reports produced from the analysis were reviewed over the course of the assessment and found to have a lot of useful information to guide staff in mainstreaming gender. DFID also carried out a gender audit of its Zimbabwe Office in 2011.

While all donors and U.N. agencies collect sex-disaggregated data, there seems to be little analysis of gender dynamics beyond this data. As with USAID-funded projects, most donors lack gender indicators. In addition, data often are collected at the household level, which can be misleading. For example, while donors collect information on the number of female-headed households who receive inputs, they do not measure if women in male-headed households are the ones receiving inputs, so they cannot say how many women in total actually are receiving support as a result of the intervention. Finally, a Gender and Social Exclusion Analysis by DFID Zimbabwe found there is an overall lack of coordination and harmonization by donors, especially in terms of research and planning.¹¹⁹

Overall, most donors engage in little direct implementation. Instead, they work through partners to implement programming. Representatives from donor organizations who participated in interviews for this assessment felt that it becomes increasingly difficult to adequately implement and monitor mainstreaming when working with partners and described how this often leads to ad hoc approaches. It appears there is great variance in partner capacity to mainstream, as well as in partners' willingness to do so. While some partners are committed to gender mainstreaming, others do it only because it is mandatory and adopt a "check the boxes" approach.

However, success in mainstreaming is not entirely up to implementing partners, and many donors realize this. Some stakeholders interviewed felt that partners often are lacking in clear guidelines from donor organizations on how to mainstream gender and what is expected of them. In addition, donors generally do not provide funding to partners to develop staff capacity with regard to gender, particularly in cases of humanitarian funding.¹²⁰ Overall, it seems that donors could do a better job coordinating with partners and using resources to provide more inputs for a shared approach to gender. Donors also can perform gender mainstreaming quality checks to better monitor partners' mainstreaming efforts.

PROGRAM LEVEL

Like implementing partners, most donors have set gender targets to ensure that women participate in development initiatives. For example, SDC's Voucher for Seed Project has its targets in line with national statistics and 60–70 percent of all beneficiaries must be women. In addition to targets, donors are mainstreaming gender into programming by focusing on woman-friendly value chains such as groundnuts, pulses, poultry and small ruminants; VSL activities; health and hygiene education; and increasing women's access to markets. Donors push to see women included in equal numbers for community-based planning efforts

¹¹⁹ DFID, 2011.

¹²⁰ DFID, 2011.

and decision-making bodies. Like implementing partners, other donors have also encountered challenges in getting men to participate in VSL and health and hygiene activities and encouraging women to actively participate in mixed trainings and decision-making structures.

While most gender-mainstreaming work has been similar to that included in USAID-funded projects, a few donor activities stand out. U.N. Women has been helping women run viable businesses by informing them about relevant laws and regulations and training women on how to negotiate with middlemen. SDC is working with the Sustainable Agriculture Trust to encourage the formation of local farming groups (cooperatives) that encourage men and women to work together. It also encourages men to participate in activities such as planting, weeding, watering and harvesting, which generally are seen as women's work. Gender and other cross-cutting issues are discussed while doing demonstrations on land plots for farming groups.

However, not all efforts have been successful. For example, one donor organization launched a project to get men more involved in caretaking responsibilities in households with chronically ill people. While the project was successful in the pilot phase, it did not work when scaled up. The organization attributes the project's poor performance to cultural differences between the areas of the pilot and the areas of expansion. Most men included in the expanded project retained the belief that caretaking responsibilities were "women's work" despite project trainings, and were thus unwilling to adopt a greater caretaking role.

In addition, when donors provide funding for gender activities, they generally focus on women-specific initiatives as opposed to an integrative approach that would seek to engage both women and men. A Gender Equality Analysis performed by CIDA in 2009 found that funding for gender activities is biased towards women's organizations, with 90 percent of it going to activities supporting women only, 3 percent going to men-only activities and only 7 percent going to initiatives that support both women and men.¹²¹

CIVIL SOCIETY PROGRAMS

GENERAL OVERVIEW

Zimbabwe has an active network of women- and gender-focused civil society groups that focus on efforts to economically empower women or provide skill-building and trainings to women farmers. These organizations include: The Women's Coalition of Zimbabwe, ZWRCN, Self Help Development Foundation, Zimbabwe Women's Bureau, WFLA, Women and Land in Zimbabwe, ZWLA and Padare Men's Forum. Each of these groups are discussed in depth in Annex C, with a summary of their programming that is relevant to agriculture and food security described below.

AGRICULTURAL PROGRAMMING

Most organizations touch on one or more of the following areas: income generation, access to land, productivity, use of sustainable agricultural methods, market access for rural women farmers, behavior change communication, savings and loans, and skill training. For example, the Self-Help Development Foundation and the Zimbabwe Women's Bureau organize internal savings and loans clubs and train members in skills, business management and marketing. Such initiatives aim to teach the importance of saving and assist women in adequately producing food for household consumption.

The ZWLA, Women and Land in Zimbabwe and the WFLA are active in rural land-rights issues. For example, the Trust is working with the Ministry of Agriculture to assist women in receiving 99-year leases. ZWLA is active in community engagement on land rights issues. It has partnered with Women in Law in Southern Africa on the Peer Educator program, discussed in the text box. Through this program they use "training of trainers" methods with male and female community leaders on issues of land and inheritance rights, child marriage and

¹²¹ Jirira, 2009, p. 11.

domestic violence. These groups also are involved in the constitutional reform process that would alter Section 23 (3)(b) of the Constitution, which allows for discrimination on the grounds of customary law in the private sphere and restricts rights to land, inheritance and property for women in informal, customary marriages. They collaborate with the women's parliamentary caucus and complement lobbying efforts through public sensitization on existing laws.

Many of these groups conduct agriculture-based trainings. The WFLA caters to female farmers from all categories and provides trainings in farm management, poultry, feed processing, bee keeping and mushroom and potato production. Women and Land in Zimbabwe provides trainings in farmer business management, food processing training and conservation farming training. Similarly, the Self-Help Development Foundation conducts a farming-as-a-business training designed to help women go beyond subsistence farming to running their farms as a business. Most of the groups interviewed for this study ensure that women represent the majority of participants in all trainings to encourage female participants to feel comfortable and actively participate. In addition, groups sometimes perform gender trainings with men and women in separate groups and bring the groups back together towards the end of sessions. They are mindful of not alienating men, try to include them in most activities and engage village leaders in advance of all initiatives.

Padare Men's Forum is the main platform working toward the engagement of men and boys in gender issues. The organization challenges patriarchal attitudes, beliefs and practices by mobilizing men in schools, rural communities and urban areas in a way that is empowering and not alienating to them. Padare has established 65 men's networks throughout the country. The organization specifically focuses on violence against women and girls, violence against men, irresponsible fatherhood, HIV/AIDS and toxic masculinities.¹²²

Gender- and women-focused groups have developed effective communication tools to engage women and men in gender issues. Many organizations rely on a number of visible tools to ensure that illiterate individuals are not prevented from accessing information. The Women's Coalition of Zimbabwe is working on developing Braille and sign language tools. They also frequently capitalize on the use of radio to access large numbers of women and men over different areas.

INSTITUTIONAL CHALLENGES

The women's movement in Zimbabwe has achieved numerous successes, yet most organizations encounter a range of institutional challenges that prevent them from operating as effectively as they could. First, the sector is fragmented due to stiff competition for resources and space. Women-focused organizations generally receive less funding than other organizations, which leads to a number of institutional challenges. U.N. Women reported that it had to provide institutional support to keep many of these organizations afloat. Second, there is a need to build human capacity within most organizations.¹²³ And finally, groups are operating in a highly

Land Rights Peer Education Program in Mudzi

Women in Law in Southern Africa (WLSA), a regional civil society organization, currently is implementing a two-year project to create greater gender awareness in the field of law, looking specifically at educating communities on issues of inheritance, marriage, domestic violence and the importance of drawing up wills. The project was based on the need to achieve sustainable development.

As part of the program, traditional leaders are trained in the above issues and then asked to identify other influential community members (30 men and 10 women per ward) to be trained as Peer Educators. Peer Educators attend trainings over a period of nine months and then are asked to perform sensitizations within communities once a week for three months on gender topics.

This peer education training had already been completed in Mudzi when the USAID/Zimbabwe Feed the Future Gender Assessment team was engaging in fieldwork. Men and women interviewed in Mudzi, including the extension worker and agro dealers, reported that the Peer Education Program had led to reduced violence, a change in attitude toward the education of girl children, greater willingness to write wills and increased acceptance of women in committee leadership roles.

¹²² Toxic masculinities are those that cause verbal, physical and psychological abuse of women at all levels.

¹²³ DFID, 2011.

emotive political environment, which often means that groups must tread carefully when implementing programs and activities that go against the status quo.

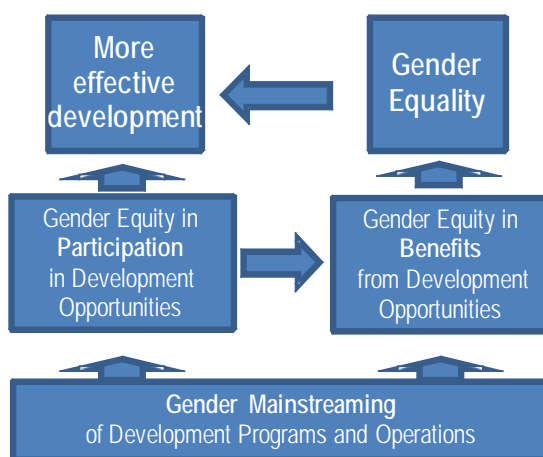
While groups frequently collaborate with each other, these groups are lacking in an effective coordination mechanism, which often leads to the duplication of activities. While the Women’s Coalition of Zimbabwe acts as an umbrella network and facilitates coordination among a very large number of women’s organizations, there are still a number of organizations that are not affiliated with the Coalition, mainly because only those with a national structure are able to join.¹²⁴ A Gender and Social Exclusion Analysis by DFID reported that over 65 percent of local NGOs lack M&E mechanisms,¹²⁵ so they are not able to assess the impact of their work and use those findings as a basis for increased financial support.

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FEED THE FUTURE PROGRAMMING

The following recommendations are based on the hypothesis that gender equality and effective development require that women and men have equitable opportunity to **participate** in development opportunities and equitably **benefit** from those development opportunities. The conceptual framework is outlined in the figure below.

Gender equality is a development objective in itself. In addition, deliberate approaches that ensure women and men equitably participate in and benefit from economic opportunities is good business practice and not mutually exclusive from market-driven development practices. Gender mainstreaming refers to the efforts and actions taken to deliberately incorporate gender perspectives and the overall goal of gender equality at all levels of program and policy design, operations, implementation and evaluation.

There are a number of concrete steps that USAID can take to spearhead a process for gaining the political will and capacity of stakeholders and local institutional partners to integrate and adopt gender considerations. First and foremost is the recognition that gender mainstreaming begins at the top. USAID is in an opportune position to set the standard for gender mainstreaming among the organizations implementing USAID-funded projects. Recommendations for the gender mainstreaming of USAID/Zimbabwe FtF programming are organized around the following categories: (1) FtF Strategy Design, (2) Program Interventions, (3) Operational Practices, (4) Stakeholder Engagement and (5) Information Gaps and Further Research.



¹²⁴ DFID, 2011.

¹²⁵ DFID, 2011, p. 46.

FEED THE FUTURE STRATEGY

APPLICATION OF VALUE CHAIN APPROACHES FOR ADVANCING GENDER EQUITY IN THE ZIMBABWEAN CONTEXT

This report finds that rural women in Zimbabwe are a vulnerable segment of the population, largely due to their limited and arbitrary land tenure, which is primarily facilitated through a relationship with a man and is put at risk upon divorce, widowhood or separation. The fact that between 39 and 42 percent of households are female headed makes the dependency of land tenure on marriage especially precarious. To help women who are in this position of vulnerability, it is necessary to apply value-chain principles that address the underlying constraints that prevent market engagement; enhance women's participation in and benefit from end-market channels with the fewest barriers to entry and lowest risks; and initiate a process of establishing commercial relationships and building market literacy.¹²⁶ It also should be recognized that gender constraints inhibit women who are not as vulnerable, such as those who have greater asset ownership, are more educated and face less explicit sociocultural barriers. For these less-vulnerable groups, efforts to engage them in nontraditional and more profitable activities are appropriate.

It is critical that any market-driven approach recognize that rural, household-level income transactions in market systems inevitably affect women's ability to access and control incomes. This ability—in the current environment where women are the primary guardians of household food consumption and health—will likely affect the household's food and nutritional security. As described in Chapter 2, income transactions have gender dimensions and as market systems are upgraded and become more commercialized, it is necessary to make deliberate efforts to ensure that changes in income transactions empower women in their roles as guardians of food security and not diminish it.

POLICY

Zimbabwe is in a critical phase where many of the policies that can influence women's access to and benefit from economic opportunities are under review, particularly the Constitution. USAID should work through appropriate channels to nullify clauses that contribute to discrimination and inequality. The GoZ also is currently developing an irrigation policy, which USAID should ensure incorporates measures for irrigation technologies that reach and benefit women, as well as men, particularly by reducing workloads.

In addition, the MWAGCD and national gender mainstreaming machinery need greater financial, technological and human resources to implement the Gender National Policy, Implementation Strategy and Action Plan. Gender focal persons within all line ministries require further training, as does senior staff across all ministries. Finally, future government data collection efforts through ZimVAC must collect and report on gender-disaggregated findings and results.

USAID should work through the appropriate political channels to make existing policies more accessible to all stakeholders and beneficiaries and to ensure that feedback from gender-focused civil society is incorporated.

PROGRAM INTERVENTIONS

Program interventions should address the underlying constraints that prevent market engagement; enhance women's participation in, and benefits from, end-market channels that have the fewest barriers to entry and lowest risks; and help establish commercial relationships and build market literacy.

¹²⁶ "Pathways Out of Poverty: Applying Principles of the Value Chain Approach to Reach the Very Poor," Draft USAID discussion paper, September 2011.

ADDRESS THE UNDERLYING CONSTRAINTS THAT PREVENT MARKET ENGAGEMENT

1. Incorporate a comprehensive approach to expand women's land tenure

It is absolutely critical that both men and women understand their rights and obligations with regard to land tenure and inheritance, especially as land plots continue to be subdivided. Zimbabwe is at a critical juncture concerning land rights because the constitution is being revised and women's advocates are championing the need to clarify the ambiguity of applicable law in rural areas where customary law can take precedence.

The comprehensive approach should include:

- support of MWAGCD, Ministry of Land and other political channels regarding reform of the legal framework so that it is nondiscriminatory and protects equitable inheritance and distribution of land;
- support of women's civil society organizations, such as the ZWLA, to advocate through the appropriate channels on legal reform, build grassroots support for reform and expand rural awareness of land rights through peer educator programs that target all segments of the community, including men, women, adolescents and religious leaders; and
- integration of land-rights awareness into support to farmers' associations and clusters.

2. Address gaps in access to inputs

Across all the value chains surveyed, access to inputs was listed as a key constraint. This is currently difficult to address through a sustainable market-oriented approach due to the market distortions present in Zimbabwe. This assessment found that contract farming arrangements have been shown to bridge input gaps for both women and men, as long as women are deliberately targeted, and should be continued. Donors and implementers should ensure that these activities are designed and implemented with attention to gender equity in terms of beneficiary selection and accessibility.

3. Expand basic financing and savings schemes for women using group methods

VSL initiatives have been largely successful and should be expanded. Implementation needs to continue to focus on ensuring that participants maintain control over the savings and loans by involving men in supportive capacities. This assessment revealed an outreach gap in rural lending services for women. Implementers need to do targeted outreach to women to understand why women are not applying for specific financial products and make corrections to these products based on those findings. VSL initiatives also should encourage participants to save and invest in equipment and other productive resources, such as fencing for market gardens, which were identified as critical capital-intensive needs during summer months. It is also something that should be planned for easily with a consistent group-savings scheme.

4. Facilitate reform of local market infrastructure and management so they are safe and nonthreatening to women

Fieldwork revealed that women are at risk of harassment and theft at markets beyond the local village. One focus group even acknowledged having to pay an informal fee of \$4 per individual. Program interventions should work with local agricultural officials and justice systems to reform market spaces and governance, while also organizing women in collective marketing units. This will enable women to directly or indirectly (e.g., through a group) sell their products for higher prices and reduce losses from fees and bribes.

5. Support community training and communication campaigns that build support for gender equality and gender sensitization

Implementers must recognize that market systems in Zimbabwe occur in a social context where men traditionally have greater control over resources and decisions. This is a defining aspect of all value chains in Zimbabwe. While this study indicates that women increasingly are influencing decisions as they contribute to household income, traditional norms persist. USAID programs need to support rights-based approaches led by Zimbabwean civil society. This should be done by:

- collaborating with Zimbabwean civil society efforts so that USAID program beneficiaries also are being reached by gender sensitization campaigns;
- training women in leadership in ways that build self-confidence and assertiveness; and
- targeting men within their social networks as an entry point to better understand their incentives behind the gender status quo and solicit their buy-in for changes in women’s participation.

FOCUS ON END-MARKET CHANNELS WITH THE FEWEST BARRIERS TO ENTRY AND LOWEST RISKS...

1. Target groundnuts and horticulture

Groundnuts and horticulture are promising entry points for increasing women’s access to economic benefits because women already are active producers of these crops, and there are multiple market opportunities in local, urban and commercial markets. Barriers to commercialization could be overcome through development of women’s producer groups. These groups could allow them to access inputs, receive grants for basic processing equipment and obtain more systematic access to extension services.

2. Use gender-integrated livelihood analysis to support diversification of income sources

When targeting communities, development workers should conduct livelihood analyses to understand the multiple income sources that women depend on to provide for their families. This must be done on a community basis and can be done rapidly using tools such as the FAO’s Socioeconomic Gender Analysis framework. It is critical to recognize that vulnerable and very poor populations rarely depend on one income source. Our research showed how rural women often are engaged in growing multiple crops, as well as raising poultry and small ruminants.

3. Address barriers to irrigation

Water technologies are a primary need in many farming communities. New technologies must be labor saving to reduce the amount of time and labor that individuals—mainly women—need to spend accessing water. Several of the community farming groups interviewed cited irrigation during summer months as one of their key capital-intensive needs. Irrigation has particular implications for gender, since often it is the women who are left to carry buckets of water when the irrigation pipes are not working. Gravity-fed irrigation has been cited as one of the best irrigation schemes that respond to women’s needs. Further testing of other mechanisms (e.g., treadle pumps and hip pumps) should be included as part of project implementation. It should use quantitative and qualitative methods to assess indicators of its impact on women’s workload, as well as their productivity. In addition, many boreholes are suffering under the current demand and more are needed.

...BUT ALSO RETHINK BARRIERS TO NONTRADITIONAL SECTORS

1. Rethink academic requirements for roles such as agroveterinary dealers

Academic requirements automatically will limit women because they have lower levels of literacy and education than men, especially in technical agriculture subjects. These requirements are not always necessary. CLUSA’s ZAPAD program found that persistence, dedication and communication made the most successful ASPs, not the ability to pass a test.

2. Identify and support women as “role models” in nontraditional sectors

Investing resources in supporting a few women to excel in a nontraditional role can be more effective in the long run than simply meeting a high target for women’s participation, but not providing them with the adequate support to succeed. As a few women “break the barrier,” it will become more culturally appropriate for other women to follow that pathway. Widowed or divorced women are potential entry points because they face less pushback from male family members. It is important however to provide adequate protection (e.g., in the form of diversification) because of their increased vulnerability and potential risk.

3. *Involve men so that they accept women in these roles*

Sensitization efforts, such as sending male staff into the community to talk to traditional leaders to explain why the program is targeting women for nontraditional roles, is an effective and simple way to get community and male support and avoid substantial pushback.

INITIATE PROCESS OF ESTABLISHING COMMERCIAL RELATIONSHIPS AND BUILDING MARKET LITERACY

1. *Integrate women into clusters: Contract group schemes, associations, lead farmer models*

Group contract schemes with lead farmers who provide guidance and technical assistance can be effective mechanisms for reaching women, if women are deliberately targeted and their special needs are taken into consideration. These efforts should be expanded. As described earlier in the report, existing women's farmers' associations were formed as a response to women feeling that their interests were being marginalized in mixed associations. Projects should focus on ensuring that associations promote the needs of both men and women farmers and value chain actors. In the meantime, associations with a majority of women can provide opportunities for women to promote their own interests. Projects should support these associations and ensure that they are integrated into—and not isolated from—the broader market system.

Across all the value chains surveyed, the development of representative and responsive associations is key. The main purpose of farmers' associations is to support their members in effectively using the land. To achieve this, they need strong administrative structures, targeted growth of farmer training programs, good corporate governance, and the capacity to meaningfully and effectively network with other value chain actors. Smallholder farmers—especially women—have negligible bargaining power and indicate that the associations that supposedly represent them are not serving them in any tangible way. Association development will be key to introducing viable mechanisms for reliable access to inputs and capital.

The collective action of a cluster—be it a cooperative, association, savings group or other group-based entity—has multiple benefits, particularly for women. It can be a mechanism for:

- negotiating and collective bargaining;
- accessing more profitable and/or commercial markets through aggregation of crops produced on a small scale;
- accumulating group savings and shared assets, such as equipment and storage facilities;
- accessing credit through credit schemes that offer group lending for clients without capital;
- receiving information and technical training;
- sharing information on markets, technologies and agricultural practices; and
- benefiting from peer support and entry points for awareness on issues such as gender inequities, legal rights, health and nutrition.

However, any cluster needs to be community driven so that it is sustainable, and women-only clusters should be carefully implemented so that they do not alienate men and other stakeholders.

2. *Build capacity of extension services to provide gender-sensitive services and training to women*

AGRITEX is making commendable efforts to mainstream gender throughout its operations. USAID programs should support these efforts by providing further guidance, in-kind support and capacity building, and by embedding gender issues into AGRITEX technical support for farmers.

3. *Continue the emphasis on farming-as-a-family-business trainings*

Additional management and business planning support is needed to help farming groups plan for necessary upgrading and potential expansion in a sustainable fashion. The concept of savings needs to be expanded

beyond a mechanism used to obtain household items and pay school fees and be understood as a mechanism for women to access longer-term economic benefits.

It is also critical that all farming-as-a-business trainings—including those where participants are primarily men—should teach farmers that budgeting begins with household budgets. This must include recognition (and calculation for the more literate farmers) of the monetary value of food crops consumed. This would help discourage farmers from compromising household food and nutrition security by selling crops that they later have to buy back at a higher price or that they are unable to buy back. At a minimum, these types of training should be embedded into AGRITEX extension services and into private sector services where the business case can be made.

PROGRAM INTERVENTIONS FOR LESS-VULNERABLE WOMEN

This assessment primarily focused on rural smallholder households because they have the greatest potential for increasing food production, while at the same time are the most vulnerable to food insecurity. However, the assessment also sought to better understand the inequities facing women in agribusinesses higher in the value chains, where they may be entrepreneurs and employees. These women tend to be less vulnerable because they are based in urban areas, are more educated and their livelihoods are less tied to land ownership. Nonetheless, the assessment identified gender barriers that should be addressed through the following interventions:

1. Support entrepreneurship development for women-owned micro/SMEs

This can be in the form of awareness and training for women business owners and having a credit portfolio with different types of credit suited to different levels of entrepreneurs/enterprises, such as farming, agro dealership, manufacturing, cross-border trading, etc.

2. Encourage a corporate culture of gender sensitivity, including awareness of and accountability for sexual harassment

This can be in the form of gender mainstreaming in all programming and development activities. Efforts can target schools and farmer field days that feature women in leadership roles, and can partner with the police force in delivery of these messages.

3. Pilot creative strategies for alternative collateral

The success of a farming venture depends on financing, which is dependent on availability of collateral. The majority of smallholder farmers are women and don't have traditional collateral. This and past studies have revealed that women have a high rate of loan repayment, so one recommendation is that this good practice be used as a replacement for collateral. It also must be supported by technical extension services, master farmer training and farmer field demonstrations.

TAKE STEPS TO ENSURE MEANINGFUL PARTICIPATION

Regardless of the type of initiative, implementers need to put targeted effort towards ensuring that women's participation is meaningful enough to result in actual benefits. Such efforts include:

1. Conduct training at appropriate times and locations

The easiest, yet often overlooked, step a program can take to facilitate the participation of women is to hold trainings at times and in locations that are appropriate and fit within women's schedules. Appropriate training times identified by stakeholders are between 9 a.m. and noon, May through September/October. During the rainy season, target women for trainings by going to the fields or having short trainings at lunch. Also, avoid targeting participants to only one member of the household, unless the training is implemented in a "training of training" style and effectively gets the household member to pass on the information to the spouse. Training should be targeted at the person(s) doing the work.

2. Provide childcare for women with small children

This strategy is being adopted by AGRITEX. The payoffs would be beneficial for all participants, including the mother, because it enables women to keep attending and focus. Children can be disruptive to both the facilitator and other participants.

3. Conduct women-only or women-majority trainings

Sometimes women-only trainings are most effective. In other cases women-majority trainings are most effective. Programs should test the most effective way of reaching women on a case-by-case basis, since this seems to vary by community, group and individuals. If a program adopts women-only training, implementers must inform the community so that key (male) stakeholders are aware and supportive.

4. Use gender-focused civil society resources to hold leadership trainings for women

Implementers should use the resources of women- and gender-focused civil society to hold leadership trainings for women that build their credentials and address issues such as confidence and awareness of rights. Lack of self-confidence and submissiveness are characteristics that women in rural areas commonly adopt, especially around men. Although these are intangible and socially influenced, they can inhibit women's ability to meaningfully participate and lead, especially in relation to men.

IMPLEMENTING PARTNERS' OPERATIONAL PRACTICES

GENDER POLICY AND PERSONNEL

1. Implement gender policies

All project offices should put in place a gender policy with guidance on how gender should be addressed in activity design, staffing, recruitment, budgeting, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. A gender policy is the first step to ensuring that gender is mainstreamed in a cohesive and strategic way instead of being carried out in a haphazard manner. The development of an official policy also will help ensure that gender is not regarded as a secondary issue. However, gender policies must be accompanied with incentives and methods for accountability, such as including responsibilities in staff job descriptions and in performance evaluations.

2. Provide ongoing gender training for staff

Findings revealed that most implementing partners do not have the necessary capacity to fully mainstream gender into their work, and lack of capacity is one of the main constraints. Organizations should hold regular (e.g., biannual) trainings for staff that focus on gender awareness, sensitization, analysis, community engagement and interventions. It is important to acknowledge that resources are limited, however the paybacks will be significant. There are a number of experienced Zimbabwean organizations that can provide this training for minimal cost.

3. Ensure gender expertise in project leadership

A common theme throughout interviews with stakeholders is that effective and comprehensive approaches to gender mainstreaming nearly always occur in projects where there is a champion at a senior leadership level. USAID should rethink its requirements for program leaders and require senior managers to have demonstrated commitment to gender equity and/or gender expertise. Assigning a gender focal person is important but not sufficient if senior managers do not empower him or her to influence the program.

4. Include empowered gender focal persons in all projects

Assignment of gender focal persons typically has been ad hoc. Programs should look for someone who has existing expertise, or who is willing to invest in building expertise. A gender focal person does not need to be a woman. Assigning two gender focal persons—one male and one female—could help mainstream efforts to engage men in gender programming.

5. Re-evaluate the “cross-cutting” position

Projects should distribute cross-cutting components, such as HIV/AIDS, environment, M&E and gender, to multiple different positions, based on skill and how the component relates to the staff person’s daily work. This approach would allow for greater depth in cross-cutting issues, including gender, and is preferable to the common practice of lumping all cross-cutting foci into one position.

6. Ensure gender balance and awareness among staff, especially in management roles

Gender balance in staff is critical, particularly at the field level and in leadership positions. Projects in Zimbabwe have shown that it is possible, so there is no excuse not to achieve gender balance in staffing.

7. Implement positive human resources practices that are supportive of women’s reproductive roles

Organizational culture is important for gender balance among staff, and especially for retaining women employees after they have children. Flexible practices should be encouraged, such as allowing babies and nurses to travel with working mothers to the field and providing safe and sanitary space for breastfeeding. It has been noted that the provision of sanitary bins in bathrooms often is lacking. All female employees should have clean and private access to sanitary bins during menstruation.

PROGRAM DESIGN, MONITORING AND EVALUATION

1. Integrate a plan into program design and implementation

Donors should require a gender action plan that is closely linked with the program work plan. Put the gender focal person in charge of ensuring this happens and that it is implemented, with supervisory accountability at a senior level.

2. Track indicators on gender equity in benefits as well as participation

It is very important to track sex disaggregated data on the number of participants in the project, training, cooperative, etc. However sex disaggregated data also should be collected regarding how participants benefit from the program. This means that sex disaggregated data should be collected, analyzed and reported at each indicator level: outcomes (e.g., number and percent of women in leadership positions) and benefits (percent average increase in yields or reported change in assets). This will be a requirement of FtF programs when USAID’s Women’s Empowerment in Agriculture Index is released, which is still being tested and developed.

3. Report all data disaggregated by sex

It is not sufficient to just collect data disaggregated by sex. If it is not reported, it is not publicly available for analysis of what works. If regular disaggregation makes for a busy narrative, then put disaggregates in an annex indicator tracking table. Use the narrative section to acknowledge and explain significant differences in numbers for men and women. It is also worthwhile to clarify that disaggregation means that the number of women is stated alongside the total number (i.e., the denominator) or alongside the comparative number for men. Stating the number for women without a comparison is not sufficient. While it seems like an elementary note, some projects do not report data this way.

STAKEHOLDER ENGAGEMENT

1. Use and strengthen capacity of women- and gender-focused civil society

Women’s empowerment and gender equality ultimately require grassroots, community-driven movements. Zimbabwe has a number of women- and gender-focused NGOs, community-based organizations and associations that can lead and support changes in the social norms and traditions that contribute to gender inequalities. They are also the source of a number of successful initiatives to increase women’s economic opportunities and benefits and engage men on traditional practices. USAID should put in place incentives and requirements for FtF implementers to use the capacities, networks and skills of gender-focused civil society as well as fund capacity building efforts in both technical areas and business administration. Technical areas in

need of capacity depend on the focus of the organization, however most economic-focused organizations need guidance in how to engage the private sector and implement market-oriented approaches on the ground.

2. *Support MWAGCD's efforts to facilitate coordination among gender-focused entities*

One entity needs to take leadership and be assigned to facilitate information sharing, whether it is U.N. Women, MWAGCD, ZWRGN, USAID, etc. It appears that MWAGCD is in the process of establishing a council that could take on this role. This mechanism should also include ways to engage international civil society, development programs and gender focal points across the GoZ, in addition to Zimbabwean gender and women-focused civil society.

3. *Establish email listserv for updates and information sharing*

By themselves, email listservs are not sufficient ways for effective information sharing. However, it is a simple and useful way to initiate dialogs and share the multitude of gender-focused and related studies and assessments underway in Zimbabwe.

INFORMATION GAPS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

1. *Encourage other stakeholder-led research and studies to incorporate sex-disaggregated data and gender analysis*

It is very difficult to plan for gender-responsive implementation and get the political will of other stakeholders—particularly the private sector—without the data that prove that gender gaps exist and have negative implications for productivity, development, poverty and food security. All studies should make a concerted effort to analyze and report data that is collected disaggregated by sex. In addition, gender analysis is most effective when it is consistently and systematically integrated into sector studies. When USAID advises research studies, such as ZimVAC, Demographic and Health Survey (DHS), value chain or market assessments, it should encourage the implementers to include gender expertise on the team and to have specific gender analysis research questions to facilitate gender analysis as part of those larger studies.

2. *Conduct further research*

There has been significant research conducted over the past several years on gender constraints in the agricultural sector in Zimbabwe. Further gender assessments should focus on: comprehensive, quantitative studies such as a follow-up to the ZWRGN study conducted in 2008; targeted, qualitative studies on specific issues; and piloting and rigorously testing approaches and activities.

3. *From analysis to action: Fund pilot projects*

There have been a number of gender analyses and assessments recently conducted in Zimbabwe. Ongoing analysis and research is important, and it is time to test and evaluate approaches to increase the benefits to women of economic participation. This particularly applies to the commercialization of staple crops, the scaling up of women's participation in (and benefit from) nontraditional sectors and the effectiveness of technologies in reducing workloads and increasing productivity. USAID should provide incentives for those implementing FtF projects to use innovation grant funding components to test and evaluate these approaches.

Potential Future Study: Analysis of Male Household Expenditure Practices

Why are men more likely to spend money on social expenses and women are more likely to spend income on household items? What specific sociocultural norms are at play? What defines the "positive deviants"—the men who are more likely to spend income on household needs? What noncultural issues are at play? Also, are there positive aspects to such social expenses? For example, how essential to household wellbeing is social capital built up by men through social expenses?

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ANNEX A. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This annex presents a brief summary of the key findings, lessons learned and recommendations that are discussed in Chapters 1-6 of this report. Readers are encouraged to reference these chapters for more detail and thorough analysis about the information presented in this annex.

FINDINGS

Gender Roles and Inequities Related to Agriculture and Food Security

1. Women constitute 53 percent of agricultural labor in Zimbabwe, yet they do not have equitable access to key productive resources and assets, such as: land, inputs, capital, finance, water and equipment. These constraints are generally applicable across all value chains.
2. There are critical legal and communication gaps in women's ability to secure equal access to land ownership and tenure. Addressing these gaps through both legal and widespread communication and awareness are critical to reducing women's vulnerability and increasing self-efficacy.
3. Female-headed households face different constraints and opportunities than married women in male-headed households, and interventions must take that into consideration. De jure female-headed households are more likely to be among the very poor, but have similar physical asset bases as male-headed household, except with regards to livestock and equipment. De facto female-headed households have fewer productive assets, but do not see a disproportionate lack in income or education, and generally manage to achieve similar crop incomes to male-headed household.
4. Women are the guardians of household food security. The amount of food crops to store for consumption and the amount that can be sold for profit is one of the few household decisions over which women have primary control.
5. Horticulture and groundnuts are often associated with being a "woman's crop," which means that women traditionally manage small plots that grow these crops, store part of the harvest for consumption, and sell the remainder of the harvest in local markets. Women use the earnings to purchase household goods and food, and pay for children's education. This is a critical income transaction in relation to household food security. Women also barter surpluses of maize in local markets for household purchases.
6. There is an indication that as food crops become commercialized, men become more involved in those crops and appropriate the market opportunities. This can result in men getting the income from the crops and women having less control over how the incomes are spent.
7. Women are more likely than men to spend income on household goods and welfare, such as education fees and healthcare.
8. Women farmers have noted that they are playing increasing roles in household decision making due to their growing contributions to household income. While this is a positive indication, it is important to note that ultimately, men still retain control.
9. Women are increasingly involved in group contract farming, yet a deliberate approach is required to ensure that women participate; otherwise, men will likely be the primary beneficiaries of such initiatives.
10. Women's access to extension services and training is increasing. This seems to be due to the increased direct targeting of these services at women by both the Agritex (agriculture extension agency) and NGO community. Nonetheless, if only one household member can attend a training, the man is often prioritized to attend. Efforts in expanding women's access to training need to be continued.

11. Efforts to increase women's role in agriculture need to have the support of men in order to avoid backlash or appropriation.
12. There is a gap between women's desire to access finance and women's ability to take advantage of existing credit and loan opportunities. Women in focus groups ranked access to finance higher than men, yet implementers report that women do not apply for existing financing schemes.
13. Women face heightened barriers in accessing equipment and productive livestock, as compared to other productive resources. Even when equipment is available in the household or community, women often cannot use it due to perceptions about women's physical weakness and that valuable equipment should be used by men.

USAID, Government, and Civil Society Programs

14. USAID programs are doing a commendable job in increasing the number of women participating in programs. However, more effort is needed to measure the benefits of participation and ensure that participation is meaningful.
15. USAID programs are devoting few resources to gender mainstreaming, primarily in establishing a part-time or full-time gender focal point position. USAID programs believe that capacity in gender awareness and expertise is the main constraining factor to enhancing gender approaches.
16. Women and gender-focused Zimbabwean civil society have been implementing creative and anecdotally successful projects to address sensitive gender issues in communities and increase women's economic opportunities. However, they have not been fully engaged by USAID and its programs as resources, beneficiaries, and value chain actor partners.
17. The NGP and corresponding action plan is underfunded and suffers from lack of awareness and a under resourced Ministry of Women's Affairs, Gender and Community Development. Therefore, many of the action items have not been implemented or have been implemented ineffectively.
18. GoZ needs to do a better job of integrating gender into its data collection and reporting methods, particularly in reporting data that is disaggregated by sex in all quantitative and statistical studies.
19. Development implementers and Zimbabwean civil society are eager for mechanisms for information dissemination and sharing about gender issues and successful approaches in the economic, agricultural, and food security context.

WHAT'S WORKING

1. Village Savings and Loans (VSLs) are enabling women to meet basic household needs and serving as an entry point for women to build assets and develop market literacy skills in a way that is comfortable and accessible to them.
2. Contract farming is successful when deliberately targeted at women and they are supported throughout each stage of the process. Efforts to support women include: ensuring that the person whose name is on the contract is the one to pick up the inputs, getting women into lead farmer positions, and holding trainings at times, intervals, and places that fit into women's schedules.
3. Land rights awareness through community driven methods such as the peer educator method being implemented in Mudzi appear to be a successful model. This activity is being implemented by the Women in Law in Southern Africa, Zimbabwe Women's Lawyers Association, Ministry of Justice, Ministry of Health, the Police and Ministry of Gender. The training focuses on how to write a will and the administration of a deceased estate. Anecdotal results show that more people are writing wills that protect women's assets and that families are educating girls, which is helping raise the number of educated women.
4. USAID projects have been most effective at introducing creative and effective approaches to increasing women's access to economic opportunities if they have someone at a senior level who is dedicated to gender equity.

5. Deliberate efforts to engage women in nontraditional roles, such as agroveterinary service providers and milk committee boards, appear to be working as a result of implementers' persistence, deliberate targeting, and creatively re-evaluating traditional requirements for such roles.
6. Women's Business Platforms appear to be a successful way to cluster women in a comfortable environment where they build and practice leadership skills while also developing critical market and business skills.
7. Padare Men's Forum is an example of effective, community based efforts to engage men and change predominant male perceptions of traditional gender norms.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Interventions

1. Continue interventions that are working (above) and measure the results using both qualitative and quantitative data that are disaggregated by sex.
2. For most rural women, focus on intervention models that (i) address the underlying constraints that prevent market engagement; (ii) focus on end market channels with the fewest barriers to entry and lowest risks; (iii) initiate processes of establishing commercial relationships and building market literacy.
3. Look into possibilities of renovating city market spaces to make them safer and less threatening for women. See Annex B for examples.
4. Continue the emphasis on farming as a (family) business training, but integrate gender issues into trainings by guiding participants – especially men – to plan for household expenses in addition to farm expenses. These trainings should also consider the value of women's labor and food farmed for consumption, to prevent farmers selling food crops that they will have to buy back later.
5. Invest in the introduction and testing of “woman friendly” technologies that reduce burdens of water collection, irrigation, post harvest handling, processing (i.e., shelling groundnuts) and transport.
6. Redesign outreach to women farmers for accessing finance. Findings indicated that there is a gap in female farmers' desire for credit and loans and women's ability to access existing finance opportunities. Make the business case to the private sector that women's high repayment rates can be an alternative to their lack of collateral.

Regardless of the Intervention, Focus on Ensuring Women's Meaningful Participation

7. Focus on setting the training time, interval, and location to ensure that trainings are accessible to women.
8. Findings indicate that women are most effective in women-only or women-majority trainings. Determine what is most effective on a community-by-community basis.
9. Avoid targeting only one member of the household for trainings, as this will typically mean that only the men will attend.
10. Integrate more “soft” issues into training packages for women, including self-confidence, human rights, leadership, communication and negotiation. See examples from the Nepal WORTH program in Annex B.
11. Put women in leadership positions, such as Lead Farmers and committee chairperson roles, and support them in those roles through skill development, provision of adequate resources, and working with men so that they accept women in these roles. Re-evaluate qualifications so that leadership selection is not purely academically or technically based, but also recognizes that soft skills such as dedication, communication, and initiative are important qualifications.

Invest in Gender Mainstreaming of Organization Practices

12. Recognize that gender mainstreaming requires a “dual approach” of integrating women into current project activities *and* targeting women with specific empowerment activities to level the playing field.
13. Require organizations to develop a gender action plan that is linked with the project work plan. This is necessary to take a more strategic gender approach throughout the project life cycle.
14. Require that at least one key personnel in a senior level position demonstrates qualifications of commitment to gender equity in program implementation and/or gender expertise.
15. Support investments in staff capacity in gender expertise, sensitization and awareness because projects identified this as the biggest constraint.

16. Discourage the tendency of lumping gender focal point responsibilities to a “cross-cutting” position, and instead assign the role to the position where it is most relevant to the goals of the gender strategy.

Invest in Civil Society

17. Incentivize Economic Growth programs to work with women and gender-focused civil society and use them as resources (i.e., to provide training, develop a gender policy, mobilize community members and farmers), value chain partners and beneficiaries. Capacity building should focus on management, administration, business practices, communication and technical capacity. A strong, grassroots women-focused civil society is critical for attitudinal and behavior change regarding traditional gender practices in decision making and control of resources and benefits.

Invest in Learning

18. Future funding of gender-focused research should focus on comprehensive quantitative studies, qualitative studies on very specific topics, or rigorously tested pilot projects and innovations.
19. As technical advisors to GoZ surveys and studies, strongly encourage the disaggregation of data by sex in analysis and reporting. Encourage the studies to integrate gender expertise into the team composition.
20. Lead a mechanism for information sharing on findings and recommendations across government, donor and civil society stakeholders. Stakeholders thoroughly welcomed the workshop from this assessment, particularly the participatory components and opportunities for information sharing.

ANNEX B. BEST PRACTICES: INTERVENTIONS TO INTEGRATE GENDER EQUALITY INTO VALUE CHAINS

FACILITATING COMPETITIVE AND INCLUSIVE VALUE CHAINS

Financing Processing Technology: In Timbuktu, Mali, a program working with a producer organization that aggregated and marketed wheat did a value chain analysis and found that women played a significant role in the post-harvest processing of the crop, but did not play a role in the cooperative and were marginalized from that marketing channel. The gender analysis found that women were responsible for manual threshing, a very time consuming activity. The project worked to include women in value chain development by financing mechanical threshers. These women were the first to use mechanized technology in wheat threshing, and became innovation leaders in their community and the region. The wheat processed by women was purchased by the cooperative, and these women are now active members of the group and are represented on the board of directors.

Storage through Women’s Groups: A maize value chain program worked to create market and financing links that reduced inefficiencies in post harvest handling and storage. The interventions allowed farmers to sell their crop in periods of high market prices, rather than needing to sell immediately due to cash-flow problems or lack of access to storage facilities. However, a mid-project assessment found that women were experiencing “increased household conflict over income and food resources.” The project found that the shift to off-farm storage had “reduced women’s access to maize for household consumption and increased incentives for selling more maize in the market.” As a solution, the project sourced small-scale storage containers that women’s groups could use as village depositories to ensure food security. (Source: USAID, “A Guide to Integrating Gender into Agricultural Value Chains,” 2010.)

Linking Women’s Traditional Livelihoods to Markets: In Burkina Faso, the project UPA DI (l’Union des Producteurs Agricoles du Québec Développement International) assisted the creation of a cereal marketing system to link smallholder farmers to higher paying markets. The organization worked with maize, millet, and sorghum and helped form a new producers’ union called UGCPA. After two years, the project was asked to include women in this system, but found that women’s participation in those value chains was minimal. The grains that women produced were used as household food supply, rather than being brought to market. Instead of intervening in the current system of production, the project found a different marketing opportunity for women producers: organic hibiscus flowers. Women were active in the local “bisspa” value chain, dried hibiscus flowers sold locally for juice. UPA DI entered into negotiations with a German importer that was searching for a supplier of organic hibiscus and willing to pay premium price for the crop. Women were integrated into the cooperative through the marketing of the hibiscus flower, which reached exports valued at \$100,000 USD. Women not only increased their income levels, they also increased their public representation and now sit on the board of directors of the cooperative.

Contract Farming that Effectively Reaches Women: ACDI/VOCA’s Restoring Economic Agricultural Livelihoods in Zimbabwe (REALIZ) set an internal target for 60 percent women participation in training and contract schemes, despite that training programs traditionally targeted men. To reach this target, REALIZ made it clear during start-up that women were a target. They made women a point of discussion at community launches, meetings with the Ministry of Agriculture, conversations with buyers, and initial sessions with farmer

groups. They worked with project staff to help them understand not only the importance of the gender focus, but instill the belief that it was possible to accomplish their gender goals. REALIZ management rejected farmer registration from field agents when the 60 percent quota was not met. Staff would not start meetings until women arrived, and they deliberately sought out women's input at such meetings. Training schedules were designed so that women could participate. For example, where Farming as a Business (FaaB) workshops are normally given over four straight days of training, REALIZ designed FaaB trainings as five half-day sessions that took place over five weeks in order to fit in with women's demanding household and productive responsibilities. Once the project successfully engaged women through these strategies, program implementation did not differ from other, similar projects. The key to success in this case was during the start-up phase. As a result, REALIZ reached 9,530 farmers, 58 percent of whom were women. Of the 2,230 households involved in contract farming schemes where buyers guaranteed purchase of smallholders' crop, 56 percent were women. Overall, there was a 26 percent increase in income for women. (REALIZ, "Final Impact Evaluation," Zimbabwe, 2011.)

TRANSFORMING MARKET SPACES

Women are often discouraged from full participation in trading and marketing due to the harassment they encounter in public spaces or the lack of safety they experience in traveling to markets. Lack of gender sensitive infrastructure, such as toilet facilities, also discourages women's participation in marketing. Interventions that focus on reforming market spaces and public transport can have a positive impact on women's potential income earnings. Strategies include:

Improving Facilities. In India, improvements in basic facilities such as toilets and drinking water enabled market participation by women traders to increase by 18 percent (World Bank: 2006). In Durban, South Africa, the Warwick Avenue Triangle Project worked with the Self-Employed Women's Union, an international organization of street traders, to develop infrastructure for women traders that included child care and ablution facilities (Source: Commonwealth Secretariat Discussion Paper Number 7, "Gender in Planning and Urban Development," December 2009).

Safety Assessment. Urban planners can undertake a women's safety audit to map crime and insecurity and guide investment in improvements. For example, the Nairobi city council and UN-Habitat have engaged a range of stakeholders—police, city council, businesses, and women's groups—to conduct a Nairobi Safety Assessment Walk to determine which areas require improvement for the safety of women in public spaces. (Source: Commonwealth Secretariat Discussion Paper Number 7, "Gender in Planning and Urban Development," December 2009.)

Women's Zones: In Bangladesh, a World Bank funded infrastructure project included the creation of women's market sections where shops were operated exclusively by women. Women vendors felt safer in a collective and allowed women traders to better integrate into market operations and to be accepted by other male traders and by customers. (Source: "Integrating Gender into World Bank Financed Transport Programs, Third Rural Infrastructure Development Project." Prepared by Dr. Hafiza Khatun. 2003.)

PARTICIPATION AND LEADERSHIP IN CLUSTERS

Agriculture cooperatives and producer groups often exclude women because membership is determined on a household basis. Integration of women into these clusters as individual members is important. In some cases, women-majority clusters are useful for developing self-esteem and facilitating collective bargaining. Below are some best practices for successful integration of women into farmer-based organizations and clusters.

Women's Self Help Groups: The successful experience of Professional Assistance for Development Action (PRADAN), a rural livelihoods development NGO in India that has worked to organize over 80,000 women in self-help groups, has resulted in a series of recommendations:

- Set quotas to ensure that women are in leadership positions and participate as members
- Target specific resources and opportunities at the poorest women
- Share information to make sure women know about rights and opportunities
- Build leadership capacity of women
- Begin working with women in small groups to develop self-confidence and self-esteem

LINKING EMPOWERMENT WITH GROUP-BASED FINANCE

Village Banks: In Nepal, the USAID-funded WORTH program worked with hundreds of local NGOs to create savings groups and Village Banks that targeted women. In addition to increased access to micro-credit and savings mechanisms, the women who participated in the program built literacy skills. All savings group members contributed to the savings fund and also participated in either teaching reading and writing or receiving training from fellow members. Eventually, members build skills together and begin turning their savings fund into a mechanism to receive credit. The group lends to individual members and shares interest on the loans, thereby constituting a “Village Bank.” Interest is periodically distributed back to savings group members as dividends. Women are also encouraged to start new enterprises with the loans they receive from the Village Bank, which further increases income generation. Women reported earning 18-24 percent annual returns on their savings. (Source: Women Ending Poverty: “The WORTH Program in Nepal: Empowering Women Through Literacy, Banking and Business 1999-2007” by Valley Research Group Kathmandu, Nepal and Dr. Linda Mayoux. June 2008)

Access to Financial Services: Rural smallholders are often disenfranchised from traditional financial services, which is why village banking schemes can fill an important gap. The next step is designing financial products that are accessible to smallholders, and particularly women. Best practices for the financial sector include:

- Offer small loans that women can invest in small assets or in income-generating activities that yield quick returns because of women’s aversion to risk, inexperience with large-scale income generation, and time constraints
- Target loans to productive activity
- Initiate regular repayments as soon after loan disbursement as possible in order to instill financial discipline
- Relax collateral requirements to include social collateral or women’s property (jewelry) or identify other forms of collateral substitutes and allow cash-flow-based lending
- Make services accessible and locate them in places that women frequent
- Set interest rates high enough to cover costs. Such rates are still beneficial because they are lower than rates charged by moneylenders and by women’s savings and other groups

(Source: “Gender and Rural Microfinance: Reaching and Empowering Women. Guide for Practitioners,” IFAD 2009)

PROMOTING EQUITABLE LAND RIGHTS

The Hills Leasehold Forestry and Forage Development Project (HLFFDP), supported by IFAD, worked in Nepal to lease long-term (40 years) degraded forest land directly to groups of 5-10 poor households, which rehabilitated the land and used forest products for household income. The group added a gender equality component to its implementation plan, which was to encourage women’s participation in leasehold groups with a cadre of women promoters. These activities resulted in an increase of women’s participation to 25 percent of leaseholders. Specific strategy included:

- Conduct of gender leadership training to promoters
- Staff identified gender focal persons (mostly men) within land agencies who also received gender training

- Foster communication and networking among promoters through magazine publication
- When a household expressed interest in joining a group, trainings were given to both husbands and wives
- Technical training, including nursery management, targeted specifically at women

(Source: Agriculture and Rural Development, “Gender in Agriculture Sourcebook,” The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and The World Bank, Washington D.C., 2009)

ANNEX C. GENDER-FOCUSED CIVIL SOCIETY GROUPS

Women's Coalition of Zimbabwe

The Women's Coalition of Zimbabwe is an umbrella network that provides advocacy support for women and girls through collective activism and policy engagement. The Coalition has 63 registered member organizations, eight chapters, and 200 individual members. To maximize effectiveness, the Coalition organizes its members into thematic clusters with lead organizations in each cluster. The clusters are: economic empowerment; health; education; peacebuilding and conflict resolution; gender-based violence; legal and constitutional affairs; culture, media and information and telecommunications technology; politics and decision making; and environment. The coalition is active in advocacy and policy-reform efforts, and is playing an active role in the constitutional reform process and frequently engages women parliamentarians across parties. The Coalition also focuses on enforcement of the Domestic Violence Act, women's access to health services, land rights and media reform.

Zimbabwe Women's Resource Center and Network (ZWRCN)

ZWRCN works to create a safe space where women and men can both speak comfortably about gender issues. The organization hosts gender and development workshops on a range of topics. It is also working to build the gender mainstreaming capacity of all gender focal persons within ministries, with parliamentarians and other ministry representatives. ZWRCN carries out sensitizations on how to take gender considerations into account per sector and how to budget with gender sensitivity. ZWRCN is also a Harare-based documentation and resource center. In addition to its center in Harare, the organization has resource packets in over 100 libraries around the country, with materials on a range of topics translated into local languages and written to varying degrees of difficulty to increase accessibility.

Zimbabwe Women's Lawyer's Association (ZWLA)

Zimbabwe Women's Lawyer's Association is a membership organization established in 1995 with the purpose of providing free legal aid to women in response to legal gaps in justice for women. It has 75 members, all of whom are women. ZWLA is also active in community engagement on land rights issues. It has partnered with Women in Law in Southern Africa on the Peer Educator program discussed earlier in this report. Through this program they use a "training of trainers" method with community leaders on issues of land and inheritance rights, child marriage, and domestic violence. Training targets both male and females as Peer Educators, particularly traditional and religious leaders. In a given year, ZWLA supports approximately 18,000 clients through legal representation, training, and awareness sessions.

Self-Help Development Foundation

The Self-Help Development Foundation has 20,000 members, 97 percent of whom are women and 80 percent live in rural areas. The organization has created rural savings clubs and provides members with training in skills, business management, and marketing. In addition to savings clubs, the Self-Help Development Foundation also conducts farming as a business training designed to help women go beyond subsistence farming to running their farms as a business. It is also currently carrying out a gender pilot project in Midlands and Matabeleland that trains women in advocacy. They have conducted 144 workshops as of October 2011.

Women Farmer's Land and Agriculture Trust

The Women Farmer's Land and Agriculture Trust is a national farmers organization that caters for all categories of farmers, including A2 commercial farmers, A1 small-plot holder farmers, peri-urban farmers, and communal farmers. The Trust has a policy of only working with women farmers, with the belief that women are

most in need of support services. They provides trainings in farm management, poultry, feed processing, bee keeping, and mushroom and potato production. They are also highly active in women's land issues and is working with the Ministry of Agriculture to assist women in receiving 99-year leases.

Women and Land In Zimbabwe

This organization is involved in the areas of food security lobbying and advocacy, skill training, and improving income, access to land, productivity, use of sustainable agricultural methods, and market access for rural women farmers. Skill training programs include: farmer business management, leadership training, lobbying and advocacy training, food processing training, conservation farming training. On the policy side, Women and Land in Zimbabwe seeks to empower women through land rights and lobbies the government to make sure all policies are gender sensitive and specifically include women. To complement its lobbying efforts, the organization tries to increase women's awareness about existing laws.

Zimbabwe Women's Bureau

The Zimbabwe Women's Bureau provides socio-economic empowerment programs that specifically target women in both urban and rural locations. In terms of agriculture, the Bureau has a food security and livelihoods project that focuses on internal savings and credit schemes, bee keeping, and gardening. The project aims to teach the importance of learning to save and to adequately produce food for household consumption.

Padare/Ekudhleni Men's Gender Forum

Padare Men's Forum represents the main platform in Zimbabwe that is working towards the engagement of men and boys in gender issues. The organization challenges patriarchal attitudes, beliefs, and practices by mobilizing men in schools, rural communities and urban areas in a way that is empowering and non-alienating. Padare established 65 men's networks throughout the country. The organization specifically focuses on violence against women and girls, violence against men, irresponsible fatherhood, HIV/AIDS, and toxic masculinities.¹²⁷ Recognizing that different men should be engaged in different ways, the organization has developed a broad-based intervention model that covers different ages, educational backgrounds, locations, marital conditions, and socio-economic statuses to cater to a wide range of men. Padare has a positive working relationship with the Zimbabwe women's movement and all of the women-focused civil society groups described above. Padare has encountered some backlash as a result of its efforts to engage men. In particular, an organization called *Varume Svinurai* (translated to "Men Wake Up") was created at the beginning of 2011 with the expressed aim of encouraging men to reclaim their hold on privilege, dominance, and control within Zimbabwean society.

¹²⁷ Masculinities that verbally, physically and psychologically abuse women at all levels.

ANNEX D. SCOPE OF WORK

SECTION C – DESCRIPTION/SPECIFICATIONS/STATEMENT OF WORK

C.1 Goal/Purpose

The goal of this Gender-Focused Assessment is to provide an analysis of gender considerations in the value chain and policy components of Feed the Future (FtF) programming. In addition, specific recommendations will be provided to ensure women are targeted and fully engaged in field level operations. One of the key elements of USAID’s strategy for achieving food security is to “support women and families in agriculture.” The focus on women and families underlines the accepted knowledge of women’s critical contribution to rural household food security through agricultural production, household staple food availability and management, and child nutritional status. While the focus of this assessment is on inclusiveness of agricultural value chains (including livestock) and agricultural policy, poverty reduction and income generation is a key objective of FtF, and thus this assessment must also look at the gender considerations in poverty reduction and livelihood programming. The FtF Guidance on Gender is attached to the SOW.

Two important – and sometimes related – considerations require attention to gender in agriculture and rural development program analysis, planning, and implementation: a) inequities in the ability to participate in programs, participate in economic activities, and share in benefits from development; and b) inefficiencies and ineffectiveness of some developmental programs because of lack of understanding and adaptation to differing gender roles, capabilities, and opportunities.

USAID/Zimbabwe is committed to ensuring that women benefit equally from our interventions. Activities for review include:

1. The first activity focuses on supporting agricultural recovery and livelihood development of rural households in the wake of the economic and political crisis experienced in Zimbabwe which reached its peak in 2008. There were seven original Livelihood grants issued by USAID/Zimbabwe in 2009/2010 and four new grants issued in late 2010. Each of these grants has a gender component.
2. The second activity, Zim-AIED, targets value chains for which interventions are likely to benefit women in the current social framework. Gender criterion was included directly in the selection of priority subsectors.
3. The Agricultural Competitiveness Project (ACP) is working to ensuring gender balancing and integration in all policy reform, market institution support and business development service capacity building activities.
4. USAID is about to launch an agricultural finance supply-demand study. This will be comprehensive study, looking at full value chain finance, from microfinance needs and opportunities, up the chain to linkages with capital markets. The likelihood of rural households directly accessing finance and financial services is very low in Zimbabwe, with women consistently excluded.
5. A Promoting Recovery in Zimbabwe program is supported through the office of Food for Peace (FFP). While provides emergency food resources to vulnerable populations in eight highly food insecure districts, it is also programming agriculture and livelihood activities to reduce the need for humanitarian assistance.

6. USAID would also like this study to look at the Food for Assets approach performed by the World Food Program (WFP). USAID is the largest supporter of WFP in Zimbabwe and will support commodities for the creation of community assets to improve food security. These assets are linked to agriculture production and will include irrigation, dams, and environmental activities to reestablish the water table. This study should examine possible areas of intervention for women's participation in the design, construction and access to the asset created.

An illustrative list of questions to be addressed through this assessment is below:

To what extent do women have equal access to economic opportunity, specifically in the agricultural sector? Assess key indicators of women's socio-economic status in comparison to men's. Major issues often relate to:

- Land and resource tenure—current status of land ownership and access to land for women – legal, customary, regulator and other systems; access to water resources; access to pasture and forest resources.
- Extension and other service—ability of women to obtain extension and advisory services, veterinary services, business development services, market information, and other services – current levels, constraints to access.
- Capital—availability of credit and other financial services.
- Education—female enrolment in education and training programs by level and age group.
- Technology—that meets women's needs, often lacking because of limited input from women into research priority setting and limited appreciation of the production and processing tasks women perform.
- Employment—wage gaps and employment policies in agribusinesses and on farms, labor force participation.
- Institutional leadership and participation—firm ownership by women, representation of women in agricultural organizations and institutions in the country, e.g., research institutes, universities, agricultural finance institutions, government agriculture, food security, trade and rural development ministries, trade and labor unions, private sector trade associations and large companies, among others.
- Entrepreneurship – activities and scale in which women participate in the formal or informal markets. This should include some analysis of petty trade, sale of produce to the immediate market (neighbors) in rural areas and what key components prevent participation at a larger scale and in more formal markets.
- Policy formulation and decision-making processes—that determine budget allocations and influence agricultural and rural economies.
- Rural development programs—that affect rural services (water supply, sanitation, health, education, transportation) that are especially important to women due to their role in the household and family economy.
- Safety net programs—for food security and poverty alleviation important to women and children.

What current USAID, host government and other donor approaches are increasing the access of women to agricultural and related economic opportunities?

- What government policies and strategies constrain or promote women’s economic empowerment, such as increasing access to land, credit and capital? How have the Food and Nutrition Security Policy, Food Deficit Mitigation Strategy and other policy documents and analyses addressed women’s role in agriculture?
- Are there traditional or social institutions, attitudes, or practices promoting or restricting gender equity in agriculture and rural development? If so, what educational or promotional investments might help to address this situation?
- Are there USAID, government or other donor programs in place that address the role of women in the agricultural sector, or have had success in reaching women beneficiaries?
- What other organizations, private, public, or non-profit, are active in supporting or advocating for gender equality in the country?
- Are there any key information gaps relating to women’s empowerment and participation in rural economies and social systems?

What USAID investments might be appropriate to increase the access of women to economic opportunity in the agricultural sector?

- Are there important gender-relevant information or data gaps? When was a gender assessment last undertaken?
- What actions do USAID projects incorporate for appropriate attention to gender and engagement of women other than gender-disaggregated indicators? How are relevant monitoring and evaluation systems capturing this impact? What are the standard practices within USAID programming to engage women?
- Is there need for projects to specifically target women to address past inequities in agriculture and rural development?

Once this information is gathered, what resources are needed to accomplish the objectives of FtF programming- in terms of land, labor, capital, and information? What types of organizations are needed to accomplish the results?

- Who controls these resources? What determines access to and use of these resources? Is control or access likely to change during the course of activities?
- What tasks (formal and informal) are essential to accomplishing results?
- Which household, agricultural and agro-processing tasks do women perform and which do men perform? What intermediate steps need to be taken to reach the objective?
- How will the achievement of these results shift the balance of control of or access to resources between men and women? How will men and women be affected by these results, and what is the overall impact on the household? In turn, how are these shifts (or lack thereof) related to sustainability of the results?
- Assess the institutional capacity of integrating gender into current and proposed activities.
- Provide recommendations on monitoring and evaluations systems to track progress towards achieving gender objectives,

C.2 Activities

1. Work with the Economic Growth technical staff to examine the work being done in several value chains (up to six) to determine quantitatively and qualitatively the extent to which women are participating. This will include the domestic and export-focused sectors.
2. Assess agricultural policies and practices that are current impediments to fuller participation of women in the economy.
3. Assess and inventory other government policies that may affect gender relations, and empowerment.
4. Meet and discuss with other donors their activities and approaches being employed to enhance the role of women in the economy.
5. Conduct a desk review of existing gender assessments to clearly highlight their relevance to the FTF and provide recommendations on what new studies need to be made (if any) to fill in any gaps with the existing studies.

C.3. REPORTS AND DELIVERABLES

1. A written report that outlines the findings and recommendations on value chains, the desk review, gender-related policy issues, and other donor involvement on how they incorporate gender in agriculture sector programming. The findings should outline recommendations to improve policies, best practices and new initiatives that are current impediments to more increase involvement in women throughout the value chains. The report should also provide recommendations for improving current programming and considerations for new activity design.
2. An annex which provides a summary of the most applicable international best practices for incorporating gender components into programming for the Zimbabwean context.
3. An annex to summarize lessons learned from the assessment and recommendations for improved engagement of women and addressing gender issues in current and future programming.
4. A power point presentation of key findings and recommendations and presentation to the USAID/Zimbabwe Mission.

ANNEX E: FIELDWORK TOOLS

HARVARD METHOD OF GENDER PLANNING

1) Activity Profile:

- List men’s and women’s activities involved in the production of goods and services, detailing areas relating to the project.
- List men’s and women’s activities involved in the reproduction and maintenance of human resources (in particular, these activities affect women’s involvement in projects). Examples of productive services include: agriculture, employment, and income generating. Examples of reproductive services include: water-related, fuel-related, food preparation, child care, and health-related.
- Lists women and men’s community work (village associations, water associations, committees).
- Classify by gender and age.
- Specify time allocation and seasonality.
- Include where the activity takes place (activity “locus” – in particular, this reveals women’s mobility)
- Prepare a separate profile for distinct socioeconomic classes, ethnicity groupings, etc.

| Socioeconomic Activity | Gender/Age ¹²⁸ | | | | | | Time ¹²⁹ | Locus ¹³⁰ | Paid/ Unpaid |
|---|---------------------------|----|----|----|----|----|---------------------|----------------------|-----------------|
| | FA | MA | FC | MC | FE | ME | | | |
| 1. <i>Production of goods and services</i> | | | | | | | | | |
| a. | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. <i>Reproduction & Maintenance of Human Resources</i> | | | | | | | | | |
| b. | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. <i>Community Work</i> | | | | | | | | | |
| a. | | | | | | | | | |

Follow Up Questions:

How is work differentiated by gender? What tasks do women perform? What tasks men perform?

How do men and women’s work vary by season? What times of year are men more busy? Women?

What resources would assist women in reducing their workloads?

¹²⁸ FA = Female Adult; MA = Male Adult; FC = Female Child; MC = Male Child; FE = Female Elder; ME = Male Elder

¹²⁹ Percentage of time allocated to each activity; seasonal; daily

¹³⁰ Within home; family field or shop; local community; beyond community

2) Access and Control Profile:

- Assess access to/control over the resources necessary for the activities listed in Activity Profile.
- Assess access to and control over the benefits from the activities.
- Analyze by resource (land, education, labor, etc.) and benefit (income, in-kind goods, assets, prestige etc.)
- Define access and control clearly
- Access does not imply control, and control of resources does not imply control of benefits

| Resources (<i>these are examples only</i>) | Access (M/F) | Control (M/F) |
|---|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| | | |
| Benefits (<i>these are examples only</i>) | Access (M/F) | Control (M/F) |
| | | |

A. To what extent do women and men pass on the benefits to their families?

B. What are the expenditure patterns of women and men?

PRIORITY RANKING EXERCISE

Process:

- Ask participants to think about agricultural constraints they encounter and list four problems that are most significant to them in any order.
- Ask them to explain why each constraint is a challenge to them.
- Facilitator will fill in gaps with 2-4 additional constraints that were identified over the course of the Gender Assessment desk review and stakeholder analysis phase.
- Starting with the first listed problem, go through the list asking which problems are more important. Record their choice and ask them to explain their reason
- Repeat pair activity with all combinations of problems.
- Count up number of times each problem was selected and rank problems
- 3-4 problems selected the most are priority problems of the group.

| Women's Pair Ranking | | |
|-----------------------------|--|-----------------|
| Problems | Number of times Preferred/ RANK | Comments |
| 1. | | |
| 2. | | |
| 3. | | |
| 4. | | |
| 5. | | |
| 6. | | |
| 7. | | |
| 8. | | |

Follow Up Questions

What problems are shared by both women and men?

Do you think men would prioritize the same problems? Why? Why not?

What problems are unique to women or less of a challenge to men? Why?

Why do women experience different challenges in agriculture from men? What attributes to/causes these differences?

| Men's Pair Ranking | | |
|---------------------------|--|-----------------|
| Problems | Number of times Preferred/ RANK | Comments |
| 1. | | |
| 2. | | |
| 3. | | |
| 4. | | |
| 5. | | |
| 6. | | |
| 7. | | |
| 8. | | |

Follow Up Questions

What problems are shared by both women and men?

Do you think women would prioritize the same problems? Why? Why not?

What problems are unique to men or less of a challenge to women? Why?

Do women experience different agricultural challenges from men? What challenges would women list over the exercise that would not apply to men or be less of a problem to men? What attributes to/causes these differences?

Questionnaire Guidelines

Questions for Women-Owned Agri-Businesses

1. What is the biggest opportunity for growth in your business?
2. Is your business currently/still/or planning to invest in taking advantage of this opportunity?
 - a. Provide details on what the firm is doing? Is quality important, are varieties important?
 - b. Is your business expanding, holding constant/or contracting? ----why?
3. What is keeping your firm from taking advantage of/exploiting the opportunity?
 - a. What does the entrepreneur need to more effectively take advantage of the particular opportunity?
 - b. Do you think that female business owners have constraints that are different from those faced by male business owners? If so, what?
4. Who are the other actors along the value chain that affect your company's performance? Please elaborate. What activities are primarily performed by women and what activities are primarily performed by men?
5. What bank, microfinance institution or other financial institution do you use? What services do you access? Savings? Insurance? Short-term loans? Long-term loans? Financing for large investments (equipment, storage, infrastructure, etc). Do you face constraints accessing financing that you believe men do not face?
6. How do you finance purchase of product? Do you access credit? If yes, from where? If no, why not?
7. What are the financial skills gaps you see in your organization? What kind of training and technical assistance would help fill these gaps? Do these gaps differ for men and women?
8. In your view, what aspects of support are needed to empower women as leaders, as business owners and employees on type of business you are engaged with?

Questions for Buyers (including exporters, processors and cooperatives)

1. Considering all the people you work with – including buyers, suppliers, financiers and your own employees, what activities are primarily performed by women and what activities are primarily performed by men?
2. Do you see any opportunities for expanding your production or supply network to include more women? What about other vulnerable groups, such as people living with HIV? Why or why not? If yes, can you give some examples of how to do this? What constraints do you face that currently prevent you from doing this?
3. Do you have more men or more women (or men-owned or women-owned firms) as suppliers?
4. Do you believe that there are differences in the supply or quality of product or service that you receive from men or women? Why or why not? If yes, can you give an example?
5. Do you find that the female suppliers face any constraints or advantages because they are female? Please elaborate.
6. Do you find that the male suppliers face any constraints or advantages because they are male? Please elaborate.
7. Are there aspects of your business function that are believed to be more difficult for women than for men, or more difficult for men than women? Please elaborate.

8. Where and how do you pay your clients? Is it normally the head of household? Person whose name is on the contract? Male/female?

Questions for Cooperatives

1. What is the percentage of women members in the cooperative?
2. What is the percentage of women in leadership roles?
3. Do you include the spouse (male/female) in any contractual agreement?
4. Are there services you offer to non-member women? If so, what?
5. How do you get your product to your buyers? Who are your buyers?
6. Are there aspects of production that are considered more difficult for women than men? What are some examples? What about for men?
7. Are there aspects of production that women are typically discouraged from doing? What are some examples? What about for men?

Questions for Input Suppliers

1. Do you offer credit to your purchasers? Are more of them men or women?
2. Do you have more men or women as customers?
3. Are there differences in the purchases made by men and women producers? Are there differences in men's and women's preferences in purchasing inputs, e.g. timing, pricing, and size? Please elaborate.
4. Do you believe that men or women are better suited to particular jobs in your business?
5. Do you believe there is a difference in how men and women use inputs in their horticulture enterprises? Please elaborate.
6. In your opinion, are men or women more creditworthy?

ANNEX F: LIST OF INFORMANTS

Note: Each line represents a separate meeting or interview

| Name/Title | Organization |
|--|--|
| Government Departments | |
| Ms. Judith Mungofa – Deputy Director HR and Coordinator Gender/ HIV/AIDS and Gender Focal person | Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanization and Irrigation Development |
| Mr. Hache – Principle Agritex Officer | Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanization and Irrigation Development |
| Mr. W. R. Goba – Director Finance and Administration- Gender Focal Person | Ministry of Small and Medium Enterprises |
| Dr. Utete-Masango – Permanent Secretary | Ministry of Women’s Affairs, Gender, and Community Development |
| Ms. Jessie Majome – Deputy Minister | |
| Ms. Rita Mutinhiri – Director, Women’s Affairs | |
| Mr. W. R. Goba – Gender Focal Person and Director, Finance and Administration | Ministry of Small and Medium Enterprises and Cooperative Development |
| Kudzai Mukudoka – Inter-sectorial Programs Officer Yvonne Mavhungad – Data Analyst | Food Nutrition Council |
| AGRITEX Agents and Officials | |
| Herbert Gurupira - AGRITEX Extension Officer | Ministry Of Agriculture - Mudzi |
| Robben Makazhu - Community Development Officer | Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Dev - Mudzi |
| Mr Mboweni – AGRITEX Officer | Ministry Of Agriculture - Mudzi |
| Mr Mlambo- AGRITEX Supervisor | Ministry Of Agriculture - Mudzi |
| Mr Nyariri – District Administrator | Mudzi District Office |
| Mr S Tinaapi – Chief Executive Officer | Mudzi District Council |
| Wilfred Farai Bika –District Lands Officer | Ministry of Lands - Goromonzi |
| Mr Bokosho – District Livestock Officer | Ministry of Agriculture - Goromonzi |
| Mrs S Chitiyo - Provincial Administrator | District Office - Gweru |
| Deborah Nomvelo Ndebele - Agritex Office | Ministry Of Agriculture - Gweru |
| Cain Tembo Velasi - Village Head | Gweru |
| Mr Mutikizizi – District Administrator | District Office - Kwekwe |
| Mrs Mafukidze – Assistant District Administrator | District Office - Kwekwe |
| Ms J Tembo - Community Development Officer | Ministry Of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development - Kwekwe |
| Mukai Shoko – Principle AGRITEX Officer | Ministry of Agriculture - Kwekwe |
| Donors and U.N. Agencies | |
| Pete Spink – Livelihoods and Pro poor growth Advisor | DIFD |
| Barbara Vitoria – Market Analyst | ICC |
| Joost Bakkeren – Attache- Food Security | EU |

| Name/Title | Organization |
|---|---|
| Snodia Chikanza- Grants Manager Tina Dooley-Jones- Economic Growth Office Ephraim Chabayanzara- Senior Agronomist Thabisani Moyo – Food Security Specialist | USAID |
| Vera Musara – Democracy and Governance and Gender Focal Person | USAID |
| Mildred Mushunje – HIV & Livelihoods Officer Delilah Takawira – Nutrition Officer | FAO |
| Bettina Schoop- Project Coordinator Vivian Scherler – Gender Mainstreaming Advisor | GIZ |
| Mkhululi Nhwenya – National Program Officer for Food Security | Swiss Development Corporation (SDC) |
| Liljana Jovceva – Programme Officer Tafara Ndumiyana – Nutrition, HIV and Gender | WFP |
| Memory Zonde-Kachambwa – Programme Specialist, Adeline Sibanda – Consultant | UN Women |
| USAID/Economic Growth Implementing Partners | |
| Sekai Mudonhi – Chief of Party | ACDI/VOCA – REALIZ (Restoring Agriculture Livelihoods in Zimbabwe) |
| Jean Daniel – Chief of Party Mary Gokosa, Justice & Peace Desk Shepherd Muphumi, Capacity & Innovations Dorcus Mogugu – Nutritional & Health Worker & Regional Gender Focal Person | CRS- PRIZE (Promoting Recovery in Zimbabwe) |
| Sandra Roberts – Chief of Party Margaret Madura – Admin and Gender person Virginia – Programme Specialist, Head Office | Fintrac-STAMP (Smallholder Technology and Access to Markets Program) |
| Steve New – Program Director Cynthia Manjuro – Gender Person Virginia – Programme Specialist, Head Office | Fintrac ZIM-AIED (Zimbabwe Agriculture Income and Employment Development) |
| Joseph Burke – Chief of Party Personal Sithole – M&E Specialist 6 Trainers (2 female/4 male) | DAI ACP (Agriculture Competitiveness Program) |
| Sylvia Khumalo – Senior Agribusiness Advisor | CNFA ASP (Agrodealer Strengthening Project) |
| Paul Chimedza – Country Director Livelihoods Manager Director of USAID Livelihoods Generation project | Africare (APS Livelihoods Generation Project) |
| David Brigham – Country Director Jennifer Mayer – Deputy Country Director | Mercy Corps RAIN (Revitalizing Agriculture Incomes in New Markets) |
| Heather Van Sice- Assistant Country Director Programmes | CARE (Zimbabwe Restoring Livelihoods Program) |

| Name/Title | Organization |
|--|--|
| Thomas Gardiner – Chief of Party Witness Kozanayi – Community Liaison Business Advisor Dorcas Matangi – M&E Specialist and Gender Focal Point | CLUSA ZAPAD (Zimbabwe Agriculture Production and Agribusiness Development) |
| Themosis Ntasis – Country Director | IRD (ReVALUE) |
| David Harvey – Program Manager | Land O'Lakes |
| NGO Sector | |
| Emilia Muchawa – Director | Zimbabwe Women's Lawyers Association |
| Kelvin Hazangwi – Director | Padare Men's forum on Gender |
| Wadzanayi Vere – Director Zandy Muududu – Head of Gender Division Head of Training Unit | Self Help Development Foundation |
| Theresa Matururue – National Director Norman Munyikwa – Research and Document Officer Angiline Chikwanha – Lobbying and Advocacy Officer Gertrude Muza – Empowerment and Capacity Building Officer | Women and Land in Zimbabwe |
| Netsai Mushonga – National Coordinator Tafadzwa Muropa – Peacebuilding Officer Sandra Mazunga – Acting Director/Information Officer Gladys Chrowome – Policy and Advocacy Officer | Women's Coalition of Zimbabwe |
| Phides Mazhawidza – Executive President Marjorie Goche – National Secretary Mavis Kakora – Mashonaland Central Province Gertrude Chimankire – Mashonaland East Province Alice Masuka – Midlands Province Judith Mutamba – Mashonaland East Province | Women Farmer's Land & Agriculture Trust |
| Ronika Mumbire – Director | Zimbabwe Women's Bureau |
| Naomi Chimbetete – The Director | Zimbabwe Women's Resource Centre and Network |
| Dorcas Makaza – Legal Programs Officer | Women and Law in Southern Africa |
| Farmers/Farmer Organizations | |
| Lillian Kujek-Goliath, HIV, Gender & Youth Coordinator | Zimbabwe Farmer's Union |
| Chairperson (Female) | Mambeya Garden Project, Lower Gweru |
| Public /Private Sector | |
| Olam Marufu – Public Relations and Marketing Manager | Agribank |
| Francesca Nyabadza – Managing Director | Spread Valley |
| Herbert Chakanyuka – Marketing Manager | Windmill (Pvt) Ltd |
| Beatrice Machechera - | Zimbabwe Association of Microfinance Institutions (ZAMFI) |
| Tazvizi Masangudza – Agro -Dealer | Mudzi |
| Phillip Mapondera – Agro-Dealer | Mutoko |

| Name/Title | Organization |
|--|---|
| Miriam Chipuriro – Agro-Dealer | Mutoko |
| Mathew Ururu - Secretary | Chikwaka Small Holder Dairy Project - Goromonzi |
| David Ambsoni – Chairperson Cattle Bank | Chikwaka Dairy Project - Goromonzi |
| Mr Zonke – Production Manager | Pannar Seed Company - Gweru |
| Shirley Moyo - Vice Chairperson Horticulture Association | Gweru |
| Mrs Moyo - Bank Manager | Agri-Bank Gweru |
| | |

FIELD INTERVIEWEES WITH FARMERS

Key: F = Female

M = Male

| Occupation | | District |
|---|-----|---|
| Farmer | (M) | Nyamasvinga Village Mudzi |
| Farmer | (M) | Taphuma Village Mudzi |
| Farmer | (F) | Nyamasvinga Village Mudzi |
| Farmer | (F) | Taphuma Village Mudzi |
| Farmer (horticulture/ Cereal) | (F) | Goromonzi District |
| Farm Manager (poultry) | (M) | Goromonzi District |
| Farmer (dairy/horticulture) | (M) | Goromonzi District |
| Farm Manager | (M) | Gweru Rural, Ekhaya Farm |
| Farmer (poultry/dairy) | (F) | Gweru Rural |
| Farm Manager (poultry) | (M) | Gweru Rural |
| Farm Manager (dairy) | (M) | Gweru Rural |
| Farmer (horticulture/dairy) | (F) | Gweru |
| Farmer (tomatoes/cabbages) | (F) | Gweru Rural |
| Farmer (cereal-maize) | (F) | Gweru-Vungu |
| Village Head (cotton farmer) | (M) | Zhombe District; Village II Old Resettlements |
| Village Secretary (cotton farmer) | (M) | Zhombe District; Village II Old Resettlements |
| Cotton Farmer | (M) | Zhombe District; Village II Old Resettlements |
| Cotton Farmer | (M) | Zhombe District; Village II Old Resettlements |
| Cotton Farmer | (M) | Zhombe District; Village II Old Resettlements |
| Cotton Farmer | (M) | Zhombe District; Village II Old Resettlements |
| Cotton Farmer | (F) | Zhombe District; Village II Old Resettlements |
| Cotton Farmer | (F) | Zhombe District; Village II Old Resettlements |
| Cotton Farmer | (F) | Zhombe District; Village II Old Resettlements |
| Cotton/horticulture/maize Commercial Farmer | (F) | KweKwe Rural |

ANNEX G. FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION PARTICIPANTS

| KWEKWE – GOBO WARD - MEN | | |
|------------------------------------|------------|--|
| No. | AGE | OCCUPATION |
| 1 | 35 | Maize, groundnuts |
| 2 | 67 | Maize, groundnuts, cattle |
| 3 | 61 | Maize, groundnuts, goats, pigs |
| 4 | 38 | Maize, groundnuts |
| 5 | 66 | Cattle pigs |
| 6 | 68 | Small grains like rapoko |
| 7 | 40 | Goats, chickens, maize, cow peas |
| 8 | 89 | Maize, groundnuts, cattle |
| 9 | 51 | Maize, groundnuts, cattle |
| 10 | 52 | Maize, groundnuts, cattle |
| 11 | 34 | Maize, groundnuts, sunflower, chickens |
| KWEKWE – GOBO WARD - WOMEN | | |
| 1 | 32 | Farmer –Maize, groundnuts |
| 2 | 30 | Farmer –Maize, groundnuts, garden |
| 3 | 40 | Farmer –Maize, groundnuts, round nuts |
| 4 | 24 | Farmer –Maize, groundnuts, garden |
| 5 | 46 | Farmer –Maize, groundnuts, garden |
| 6 | 35 | Farmer –Maize, groundnuts, garden |
| 7 | 69 | Farmer –Maize, groundnuts, garden |
| 8 | 37 | Farmer –Maize, groundnuts, round nuts |
| 9 | 31 | Farmer –Maize, groundnuts, garden |
| 10 | 76 | Farmer –Maize, groundnuts, garden |
| 11 | 67 | Farmer –Maize, groundnuts, garden |
| GWERU - BAFANA WARD - MEN | | |
| No. | AGE | OCCUPATION |
| 1 | 67 | Maize, butternut |
| 2 | 59 | Maize, groundnuts, vegetables |
| 3 | 50 | Maize, groundnuts, cowpeas |
| 4 | 26 | Maize, butternut, vegetables |
| 5 | 77 | Horticulture farming |
| 6 | 54 | Horticulture farming |
| 7 | 27 | Maize, groundnuts, vegetables |
| 8 | 32 | Horticulture farming |
| 9 | 39 | Horticulture farming |
| 10 | 31 | Horticulture farming |
| GWERU – BAFANA WARD - WOMEN | | |
| 1 | 56 | Garden Committee member |

| | | |
|---|------------|---|
| 2 | 55 | Garden Committee member |
| 3 | 63 | Farmer, Gardening |
| 4 | 37 | Marketing Secretary, Gardening |
| 5 | 38 | Secretary, Gardening |
| 6 | 52 | Village Savings & Credit Secretary, Gardening |
| 7 | 27 | Marketing Treasurer, Gardening |
| 8 | 51 | Farmer, Gardening |
| 9 | 53 | Horticulture Committee, Gardening |
| 10 | 35 | Gardening |
| 11 | 53 | Nyalima Chairperson, Gardening |
| GOROMONZI – CHIKWAKA DAIRY CENTRE – GUTU WARD - MEN | | |
| No. | AGE | OCCUPATION |
| 1 | 52 | Dairy Farmer, maize |
| 2 | 70 | Committee member |
| 3 | 70 | Dairy Farmer, maize |
| 4 | 68 | Dairy Farmer, maize |
| 5 | 42 | Mechanic |
| 6 | 26 | Dairy Farmer, cattle ranching |
| 7 | 41 | Dairy Farmer, maize |
| 8 | 54 | Dairy Farmer, maize |
| 9 | 29 | Dairy Farmer, gardening |
| 10 | 74 | Dairy Farmer, maize |
| 11 | 64 | Dairy Farmer, chickens |
| GOROMONZI – CHIKWAKA DAIRY CENTRE – GUTU WARD- WOMEN | | |
| 1 | 50 | Dairy farmer, gardening |
| 2 | 63 | Dairy farmer, gardening |
| 3 | 56 | Dairy farmer, gardening |
| 4 | 46 | Dairy farmer, gardening |
| 5 | 59 | Dairy farmer, gardening, |
| 6 | 59 | Dairy farmer, gardening, |
| 7 | 55 | Dairy farmer, gardening |
| 8 | 20 | Dairy farmer, gardening |
| 9 | 46 | Dairy farmer, gardening |
| 10 | 62 | Dairy farmer, gardening |
| 11 | 46 | Dairy farmer, gardening |
| MUDZI – MASARAKUFA WARD - MEN | | |
| No. | AGE | OCCUPATION |
| 1 | 32 | Builder, farmer- groundnuts, vegetables |
| 2 | 28 | Youth officer, farmer-sorghum, cow peas |
| 3 | 36 | Builder, farmer- vegetables and tomatoes |
| 4 | 59 | Mechanic, builder |
| 5 | 20 | N/A |
| 6 | 36 | Farmer-groundnuts, sorghum |
| 7 | 29 | Farmer-groundnuts, vegetables |
| 8 | 27 | Builder, farmer- vegetables |
| 9 | 60 | Farmer – vegetables |

| | | |
|--|----|-------------------------------------|
| 10 | 31 | Farmer – maize, sorghum, vegetables |
| 11 | 40 | Farmer – maize, sorghum |
| 12 | 49 | Farmer – maize, sorghum |
| MUDZI – MASARAKUFA WARD - WOMEN | | |
| 1 | 36 | Farmer – Maize and groundnuts |
| 2 | 49 | Farmer - groundnuts |
| 3 | 27 | Farmer – groundnuts. Maize , millet |
| 4 | 39 | Farmer – maize, groundnuts |
| 5 | 38 | Farmer – maize, groundnuts |
| 6 | 37 | Farmer – maize, groundnuts |
| 7 | 49 | Farmer – maize, groundnuts |
| 8 | 23 | Farmer – maize, groundnuts |
| 9 | 60 | Home based care giver |
| 10 | 59 | Farmer – maize, groundnuts |
| 11 | 39 | Farmer – maize, groundnuts |
| 12 | 28 | Farmer – maize, groundnuts |

Marital Status of Female Fieldwork Focus Group Participants

| | Single | Divorced | Widowed | Total <i>de jure</i> head of household | Total <i>de facto</i> head of household | Total Married | Total Participants |
|-----------|--------|----------|---------|---|--|------------------|-----------------------|
| Gweru | n/a | 4 | 3 | 7 | 0 | 4 | 11 |
| Goromonzi | 1 | n/a | 4 | 5 | 1 | 4 | 9 |
| Kwekwe | n/a | n/a | 3 | 3 | 2 | 8 | 11 |
| Mudzi | 1 | 3 | 2 | 6 | 3 | 6 | 12 |