GENDER ASSESSMENT FOR USAID/ MOZAMBIQUE COUNTRY DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION STRATEGY

FINAL REPORT

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GENDER ASSESSMENT FOR USAID/MOZAMBIQUE COUNTRY DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION STRATEGY

Final Report

Mozambique Monitoring and Evaluation Mechanism and Services (MMEMS)
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We thank the staff of the Mozambique Monitoring and Evaluation Mechanism and Services (MMEMS) who held us to high standards and facilitated our research in a way that was conducive to quality work. Finally, we could not have carried out this assessment successfully without extensive support from Iris Group in Chapel Hill, NC, and recognize in particular the contributions of Aditi Krishna, Frances Houck, Mary Kincaid and Jessica Levy.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACRONYMS</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ADPP</td>
<td>Ajuda de Desenvolvimento de Povo para Povo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AEB</td>
<td>Agriculture, Environment and Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIDS</td>
<td>Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANAC</td>
<td>National Administration of Conservation Areas (Administração Nacional das Áreas de Conservação)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDCS</td>
<td>Country Development Cooperation Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNAM</td>
<td>National Council for Promoting Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSO</td>
<td>Civil Society Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR</td>
<td>Corporate Social Responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DNM</td>
<td>National Directorate for Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECOSMART</td>
<td>Ecosystem Conservation Systems, Markets, and Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRELIMO</td>
<td>Frente de Libertação de Moçambique - Mozambique Liberation Front</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GBV</td>
<td>Gender-Based Violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFP</td>
<td>Gender Focal Point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GCG</td>
<td>Gender Coordination Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEFE</td>
<td>Gender Equality and Female Empowerment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GRM</td>
<td>Government of the Republic of Mozambique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV</td>
<td>Human immunodeficiency virus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IGBZ</td>
<td>Integrated Gorongosa Park and Buffer Zone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMASIDA</td>
<td>National Immunization, Malaria and HIV Indicator Survey (Inquérito de Indicadores de Imunização, Malária y SIDA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPV</td>
<td>Intimate Partner Violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITC</td>
<td>Initiative for Community Land (Iniciativa para Terras Comunitárias)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IUCN</td>
<td>International Union for Conservation of Nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KII</td>
<td>Key Informant Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LGBT</td>
<td>Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEPT</td>
<td>Education for All Movement (Movimento de Educação para Todos)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MGCAS</td>
<td>Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MINEDH</td>
<td>Ministry of Education and Human Development (Ministério da Educação e Desenvolvimento Humano)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MINT</td>
<td>Ministry of the Interior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MISAU</td>
<td>Ministry of Health (Ministério da Saúde)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MMEMS</td>
<td>Mozambique Monitoring and Evaluation Mechanism and Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MMSA</td>
<td>Ministry of Women and Social Action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OMM</td>
<td>National Organization of Mozambican Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAGE-M</td>
<td>Promoting Advancement in Girls’ Education in Mozambique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEPFAR</td>
<td>President’s Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PGEI</td>
<td>National Gender and Policy Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNAM</td>
<td>National Plan for the Advancement of Women (Plano Nacional para o Avanço da Mulher)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PQG</td>
<td>National 5-Year Plan (Plano Quinquenal do Governo)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RENAMO</td>
<td>Resistência Nacional Moçambicana - Mozambique National Resistance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAAJ</td>
<td>Serviço Amigo do Adolescente e Jovem—Adolescent and Youth-Friendly Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPEED</td>
<td>Support Program for Economic and Enterprise Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRHR</td>
<td>Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WLSA</td>
<td>Women and Law in Southern Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNIFEM</td>
<td>United Nations Development Plan for Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USAID</td>
<td>United States Agency for International Development</td>
</tr>
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</table>
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Purpose, Methodology and Structure of Report
USAID/Mozambique commissioned Mozambique Monitoring and Evaluation Mechanism and Services (MMEMS) and their subcontractor Iris Group to conduct a mission-wide gender assessment in Mozambique from January to February 2019. The intention was to gather the necessary information to inform the Mission’s next Country Development Cooperation Strategy (CDCS) for 2020-2025.

This assessment examines recent gender equality and female empowerment advances and challenges, and how USAID and others have addressed them. The assessment concentrates on five key sectors: Education, Health, Economic Growth, Democracy and Governance, and Environment (with a focus on natural resources management and biodiversity). The analysis addresses USAID’s five domains of gender equality and women’s empowerment analysis:

- Laws, policies, regulations, and institutional practices that influence the context in which men and women act and make decisions
- Cultural norms and beliefs
- Gender roles, responsibilities, and time use
- Access to and control over assets and resources
- Patterns of power and decision-making

The benchmarks of the research process included: an extensive literature review; a review of quantitative data available on Mozambique; the development of the research tools and approval by an Institutional Review Board; key informant interviews with 102 respondents from the Government of the Republic of Mozambique, national and international civil society organizations, USAID, and implementing partners; a group discussion with USAID’s Gender Focal Points; and five validation workshops with USAID/Mozambique staff to share preliminary findings for each sector and seek input prior to drafting this report.

The analysis triangulated information from the Key Informant Interviews (KII)s, the literature review, and a study of the most recent data we were able to obtain for each sector. The team of consultants was engaged in the analysis in an ongoing way, identifying themes as individuals, confirming them as a group, and mapping them onto our research framework as we moved through the fieldwork process. The workshops with USAID staff served to validate and build on the initial recommendations that emerged from the analysis.

Section 1 provides an overview of the background, purpose and methodology of the assessment. Sections 2.0–6.0 describe the gender assessment findings by each of the five sectors, including: a brief overview of the gender equality conditions in each sector; advances in the policy framework; challenges to meeting gender equality objectives; and key recommendations for USAID’s gender equality and female empowerment programming in the next CDCS. Section 7 provides a case study that explores how USAID could, in the context of its separate funding streams, develop the kind of multisectoral
intervention appropriate for addressing gender inequality in the context of the massive coal and natural gas extraction operation emerging in Cabo Delgado. Section 8 concludes the gender assessment.

**Key Findings**

**Education.** Mozambique’s investments in education, including provision of free primary schooling starting in 2003-2004 and free textbooks for students, have resulted in progress toward gender parity in enrolled students at all levels. In spite of great improvements in enrollment, particularly at the primary level, poor learning achievements as measured by low primary school completion rates, decreasing pass rates in exams, and lower scores on standardized tests suggest that although girls may be going to school in greater numbers, they may not be advancing in terms of literacy or knowledge (1). Moreover, school attendance, which can lead to dropping out, remains an issue, especially for girls. Some of the most common reasons for lower school attendance for girls, even at the primary level, include poverty, higher domestic workloads for girls, the lack of female role models, sexual abuse, and unintended pregnancy (2).

**Health.** Indicators of gender equality, including maternal mortality and total fertility have declined substantially over the past two decades (3) (4) (5). HIV infection continues to be a major public health concern, however, and disproportionately affects women: HIV prevalence for women in Mozambique is 13.1% compared to men’s 9.2%, with pronounced variation at the provincial level (6). These health disparities are exacerbated by the imbalance in decision making power within the household that isolates women from health services, disempowers them from taking charge of their own health seeking behavior, and can increase their engagement in high risk behavior (7,8). Furthermore, access to quality health services is often impeded by healthcare providers prioritizing male clients or female clients who bring their male partners with them (Key Informant Interviews, civil society organizations and United States Agency for International Development [USAID]) and insisting on spousal or parental consent for services (9).

**Economic Growth.** Women in Mozambique are positioned below men, in terms of rights, resources, and opportunities; their gendered responsibilities as the primary caretakers for children and of the household translate into daily, often unpaid, responsibilities, such as the collection of firewood or preparation of food for household members. The Mozambican labor market is characterized by a high degree of informality, with more than 90% of workers being self-employed or unremunerated as family workers (10). As Mozambique is a largely agrarian society, women’s access to land, credit, and training remains crucial to achieving gender parity in economic development. Outside the agricultural sector, women are most active in the sales and services sector (11).

**Democracy and Governance.** Democracy and governance represent an overarching challenge in Mozambique and a lever for driving gender equality. Men hold positions of traditional power in Mozambican society, predominating as politicians, spiritual leaders, business leaders and school heads. Mozambique ranks 17th in the world with regard to the representation of women in parliament (39.6%) (12), but there is a large disparity in women’s and men’s representation in local institutions, authorities, and provincial assemblies (key informant interview, civil society organizations). The sector-specific gender strategies establish the need to promote the presence and participation of women in decision-making processes, however in general, these strategies fall short in not establishing objectives that they will work to achieve or indicators to monitor progress.
Environment. Mozambique is vulnerable to threats in climate change and conservation. Due to its geographical location and long coastline, Mozambique must contend with successive flooding and droughts. These environmental changes have increased men’s migration over the last two years, forcing women into the labor force (13). When asked, 70% of men and women state their migration is due to lack of food, drought conditions or lack of water (14). The extended drought has also meant women have had to spend in excess of six hours searching for and transporting water, increasing their exposure to violence and the likelihood that they will need to drop out of school to help (14). Climate change forces families to migrate (internally) to areas where there are not at risk of flooding or droughts. Women leave behind their allotted land where they grow crops for sustenance and business. This is what increases their vulnerability. Most of the threats to conservation, which is focused on law enforcement and poaching, are male driven, and most of the solutions are focused on them. Furthermore, women are generally left out of discussions related to the extractive industry, biodiversity efforts, and even ecotourism.

Key Recommendations

A central finding of this gender assessment was that gender inequality is undermining systems and processes in Mozambique, representing a broad challenge to democracy and governance across sectors. When health services do not respect the privacy of adolescents and young people, local resource management committees do not listen to women, or schools and communities tolerate the sexual assault of girls by their peers or by teachers, these institutions are not functioning as they should and capacity building should be provided to strengthen the education and Health systems (key informant interviews, civil society organizations).

USAID/Mozambique does not currently support the Ministry of Children, Gender, and Social Action. Given this ministry’s limited capacity for managing the integration of gender throughout the work of other ministries (Key informant interview, civil society organizations and former Ministry staff), the donor community should collaborate on how best to support the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Action (MGCAS) so that it is more effective in fulfilling its roles. One of these roles is to convene the Gender Coordination Group, a network of donors committed to supporting the Ministry’s work. A multisectoral technical working group (TWG) on Gender and Violence has just launched that is co-led by MOH and MGCAS that would also be another good entry point to support.

The assessment documented the need to build accountability in schools and public institutions through support for rights education and demand creation for the proper working of those institutions. Strengthening gender equality—by making implementation live up to the good laws on paper—is key to USAID/Mozambique’s longer-term goal of self-reliance. Citizens who have a strong sense of their rights and their entitlement to government services help hold the government accountable.

A core subset of issues and populations on which to focus came into sharp focus during this gender assessment. It highlighted the need to:

- Develop and protect the human capital of adolescent girls by:
  - Strengthening access to education and training;
  - Combating gender-based violence, including in schools;
• Preventing child marriage. While actions are being taken at the policy level, and the First Lady has been an advocate on this issue, Mozambique leads the Southern African region with its high rates, and the practice undermines girls’ schooling (KII, Civil Society Organizations or CSO).

• Promote women’s autonomy, participation and decision-making
  • Strengthen their earning power through training them and building their skills, and ensuring their fair remuneration;
  • Strengthen their decision-making power, especially in rural areas, by ensuring them access to the resources such as agricultural extension, access to finances and materials, information, and not just engaging them at the community level as matronas, activistas de nutrição, and members of child protection committees.
  • Remove the extra obstacles they face when they engage in trade and commerce and are penalized by having to provide bribes and sexual favors demanded in their encounters with male-dominated customs systems and other institutions with which they must work.

• Promote positive masculine norms among men to benefit their own health and wellbeing, and those of their families, and members of their communities. Mozambique has already done considerable work on male engagement.
  • Continue to support work that promotes positive masculinity done by organizations such as the Men for Change Network (HOPEM) and Fanelo Ya Mina, including social behavior change communication campaigns and community-based interventions that tackle the interlinked root causes of gender inequality.
  • Work with social marketing campaigns to address harmful aspects of dominant masculinity and positive shifts in knowledge, attitudes and behaviors.
  • Shift norms regarding gender-based violence.

• Support and encourage gender equitable models for men’s sexual partnerships and family roles

Across all these themes, it will be essential to work with adolescents and young adults to shift inequitable gender norms and positively encourage models of inclusive masculinity. Growing up from an early age in more gender equitable circumstances with positive examples reflected in media and TV programming can affect their entire lives and yield a lifetime of benefits.

New census data released in early 2019 show rapid population growth since the last census, and a very large youth population (15). Mozambique could follow the example of some other countries, particularly in Asia, who have been able to take advantage of the “demographic dividend,” the bump in development experienced when young people—assuming they are healthy and educated—reach their most productive years and drive the economy. Excluding half of the population—girls and women—from this opportunity will harm Mozambique as a nation.

Gender inequality is a challenging problem that requires working in a wide range of sectors. Over 65% of the USAID/Mozambique portfolio was dedicated to the health sector in 2017 (the latest detailed records the consulting team had access to). Given the entrenched cultural practices that counteract healthy attitudes and behavior, activities in this sector should continue to link with other sectors to maximize investments and increase efficiency. How can this be done, given distinct funding streams?
gender assessment offers a case study for how this could be achieved through the selection of specific, complementary and reinforcing activities among USAID’s investments and those of its donor partners.
I. ASSESSMENT PURPOSE, METHODOLOGY AND LIMITATIONS

Purpose of the USAID/Mozambique Gender Assessment

In mid-2019, the Mission will be developing its new strategic plan for FY 2020 - 2025. The Country Development and Cooperation Strategy (CDCS) is a USAID-wide strategic initiative that seeks to leverage long-term planning and careful analysis to maximize development resources.

The purpose of the gender assessment is to assess:

- Recent challenges in gender equality and female empowerment (GEFE) in each focus sector in Mozambique,
- How these challenges are addressed in current programming in Mozambique (funded by USAID and other donors), and
- The opportunities for USAID/Mozambique, in collaboration with the Government of the Republic of Mozambique (GRM), civil society organizations (CSOs, the private sector, and other donors, to advance GEFE, and fully reflect that within its strategic planning and program implementation plans.

Through the CDCS process, some significant changes may be made to the mission portfolio, though the overall areas of interest and investment will remain the same. The five sectors in which USAID is investing and on which the gender assessment focuses are:

- Democratic governance of Mozambican institutions
- Resilient, broad-based economic growth
- Education quality
- Health status of target populations
- Environment / natural resources management / biodiversity

The team followed USAID’s guidance (ADS 205.3.2) on conducting gender assessments, covering key conceptual areas in reviewing the literature and collecting and arraying quantitative and qualitative data collected by others. Across each of the five sectors referenced above, five gender domains were highlighted in the research process:

- Laws, policies, regulations, and institutional practices that influence the context in which men and women act and make decisions
- Cultural norms and beliefs
- Gender roles, responsibilities, and time use
- Access to and control over assets and resources
- Patterns of power and decision-making
Methodology and Tools

The Gender Assessment Team employed a four-part approach to addressing the assessment questions.

**Literature review:** Developed a profile of advances, challenges, and opportunities in GEWE in each of the identified sectors. This included a review of over 100 key documents, policies, strategies, and other relevant texts (see Annex A). The review also identified quantitative data that are presented through this report to support qualitative findings from the literature review and interviews.

**Interviews with 102 key stakeholders:** Conducted interviews with key informants from USAID, GRM, and USAID-supported and non-USAID-supported CSOs to further develop the profile of advances, challenges, and opportunities in GEWE in each of the identified sectors, as summarized in Table 1-1. The interview guide was prepared ahead of the mission and approved by an Institutional Review Board (see Annex B).

**Participatory validation workshop:** Validated and analyzed preliminary findings during a five participatory validation workshop for USAID/Mozambique staff. Over 50 staff members participated in the workshop on February 7, 2019.

**Group discussion with USAID Gender Focal Points.** Toward the end of the data collection period, the consultant team convened the majority of USAID’s gender focal points and tested out the emerging themes and recommendations.

The consultants conducted the interviews in three teams of two people each (the list of the consultants, four Mozambican and two international, can be found in Annex C). Table 1-1 shows how the interviews were distributed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of Respondent</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government representatives</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil society–national</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementing partners</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Donors</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USAID staff</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>77</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the end of each day, the team met to review and discuss what had learned from the interviews. The key observations extracted from each interview were written and posted on wall charts for each sector, giving team members the opportunity to contribute to each other’s findings in each sector across each of the five domains. The consultants coded their interview notes and posted their findings to flesh out the ADS Analysis Charts for each sector (see Table 1-2).

The information provided by the KIs was further validated by bringing it together with the literature review, which had also been organized according to the five sectors and five domains. The result was the braiding together of different kinds of information to produce a rigorous and credible analysis.
Table 1-2. Complete ADS-inspired analysis table for each sector

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Gender-based</th>
<th>Programmatic</th>
<th>Differential</th>
<th>Opportunity or comparative advantage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Laws and policies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norms and beliefs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access and control over resources</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patterns of power and decision-making</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

This gender assessment follows on several other assessments and analyses over the past five years (see Box 1-1). In developing this work, the team was conscious of the need to build on what had gone before and to be clear about the value added of this gender assessment. As one USAID staff member told us, the earlier assessments made the case that we needed to focus on gender inequality, but what we are aiming for now is how to go about it. It is our hope that this gender assessment points the way to specific actions that USAID can take across its portfolio to integrate this understanding.

Box 1-1. Recent gender assessments and analyses

- 2013 Gender Assessment for the USAID/Mozambique CDCS
- 2013 AgriFuturo Gender Assessment
- 2016 PEPFAR Mozambique Gender Analysis Country Operational Plan
- 2017 Gender Assessment of Monitoring, Evaluation, and Learning USAID/Mozambique
- 2018 Donor and Resource Mapping GEWE

Limitations of the Assessment

Before elaborating on the findings of the gender assessment, a few limitations bear mentioning.

Given the emphasis on conditions of gender equality and female empowerment throughout Maputo, and the reliance on data and KIIIs rather than program visits, all interviews for the gender assessment were conducted in Maputo. This decision was taken in collaboration with USAID staff during the very first days the research was underway.

Though the colleagues contacted by the Gender Assessment team were extremely generous with their time, USAID’s President’s Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR) office was undergoing an intensive Country Operational Planning process and those individuals were unavailable or had limited availability for interviews. This was a problem particularly because health—particularly HIV-related—funding makes up the lion’s share of USAID’s portfolio. The team was, however, able to interview several key USAID health staff and partners and appreciated the participation of a large number of the PEPFAR and other health staff in the interactive workshop that was designed to respond to this constraint.
Numerous gender assessments of various kinds have taken place over the past two years, and some civil society partners noted that this was yet another interview on more or less the same topic, though they had witnessed little response to the earlier work. It is important to clarify to partner organizations the differences between these assessments, and to make the most of each, building on those that have gone before.

In future it would be useful to have a repository of documentation related to gender and/or access to more critical documents already gathered and shared through earlier processes. Despite many previous assessments, the Gender Assessment team had to rely on its experience of working in Mozambique, Internet searches and requests from key stakeholders during interviews to assemble essential resources. A library of resources would support USAID’s work and that of its cooperating agencies.

**Gender Assessment Findings by Sector**

The findings of this gender assessment are organized by sector (see Table 1-3), with a focus on: a general descriptive analysis; a review of sector-level advances, i.e., in gender policies or action plans; gender-related challenges; and recommendations for future programming. Within each sector, data were gathered and analyzed by taking into consideration the five USAID gender domains.

**Table 1-3. USAID/Mozambique sector portfolio inventory**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>% of Portfolio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>65.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>15.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture &amp; Business</td>
<td>12.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governance</td>
<td>2.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Portfolio inventory, March 2017 (16)*

A high-level overview of the Mozambican policy context of the sort that appears in all gender assessments appears in Annex D.
2. EDUCATION

Description of Pertinent Data on Gender Inequality in Education

Mozambique’s investments in education, including girls’ education, have resulted in progress toward gender parity in enrolled students at all levels. Key initiatives have been provision of free primary schooling starting in 2003-2004 and free textbooks for students as well as infrastructural support for schools and teacher training (17). Girls’ net primary school enrollment in grades one through five has increased significantly, and some of the greatest advances have been seen among girls in the poorest quintile, rural areas, and central provinces (18).

There is significant variation in the ratio of girls’ and boys’ school enrollment across the provinces. Table 2-1 shows the number of girls divided by the number of boys at each of the two primary and two secondary levels, and how these figures have evolved from 2000 to 2014 to 2018.

Table 2-1. Gender parity in public enrollment across provinces by level of education, 2000-2018

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.84</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cabo Delgado</td>
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<td>0.49</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.82</td>
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<td>0.79</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.84</td>
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<td>0.85</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nampula</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.94</td>
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<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.80</td>
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<tr>
<td>Zambézia</td>
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<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.66</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.69</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tete</td>
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<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.78</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>0.87</td>
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<td>0.79</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.85</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inhambane</td>
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<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1.17</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.95</td>
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<td>1.23</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaza</td>
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<td>1.12</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>1.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maputo P</td>
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<td>1.07</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>1.10</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>1.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maputo C</td>
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<td>0.91</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>1.08</td>
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<td>1.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>1.49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Data tables obtained from MINEDH, calculations by authors

Where the figures exceed 1, this indicates that girls are attending school in greater numbers than boys. This occurrence is limited to the provinces of Inhambane, Gaza, Maputo Province and Maputo City in 2014 and 2018 and is most marked in higher secondary education. A number less than 1 shows that fewer girls are attending; for example, Zambézia lags behind the other provinces in the extent to which girls’ enrollment matches that of boys. Research shows that sociocultural values and traditions affect girls’ schooling in the North more than in the South (19). It is common to drop out of school after initiation rites in the North and Central part of the country. Early marriage for girls also affects school access and completion, and this practice is more common in rural areas and in the center and north of
the country (20). Child marriage (occurring before age 18) is especially high in the provinces of Niassa, Cabo Delgado and Manica. United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund’s (UNICEF) data shows that in Niassa, nearly a quarter of girls were married before the age of fifteen (20). An additional obstacle for children, especially for rural girls, is the official language of instruction, which they may not speak (21).

In spite of improving gender parity in enrollment, poor learning achievements as measured by low primary school completion rates, falling pass rates in exams, and lower scores on standardized tests suggest that although girls may be going to school in greater numbers, they may not be advancing in terms of literacy or knowledge (1).

**Review of the Government’s Sector-Level Advances and Legal and Policy Frameworks for Gender Quality in Education**

USAID has invested in promoting early grade reading through the Aprender a Ler and Vamos Ler! Programs as well as through partnerships with the Peace Corps and Mozambican NGOs, namely Eu Leio, UATAF-AFC (Associação de Fortalecimento Comunitário), and Ajuda de Desenvolvimento de Povo para Povo (ADPP) (22). ADPP focuses particularly on closing the gender gap in primary and secondary school attendance by training teachers, school council members, and community leaders in gender-responsive pedagogy, gender-based violence prevention, child protection, and mentoring as well as through improving school infrastructure and addressing enabling social conditions (22).

**Some progress: Moving toward greater gender integration in education policies**

In recognition of the particular challenges faced by girls in attending primary school and in making the transition to secondary school, Mozambique has passed quite a few pieces of legislation in the education sector (see Table 2-2).

---

**Table 2-2. Legal and policy framework for gender equality in education**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy or Law</th>
<th>Importance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Law nº 4/83</td>
<td>The passage of the law creating the National Education System had as its primary objective the education of the person in the context of the construction of a socialist society in Mozambique. Replaced by Law number 6/92, below.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law nº 6/92 de 6 de Maio–Law do Sistema Nacional de Educação</td>
<td>This law updated Mozambique’s educational system to address the supply of instructors, integrate schooling more effectively with opportunities for technical training, and align the national system more fully with international educational standards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Política Nacional de Educação 1995</td>
<td>Views education as a basic human right and a key instrument for improving living conditions and poverty reduction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreto Presidencial no. 7/2010</td>
<td>Defined the attributes and expectations of the Ministry of Education and opened up access to education for illiterate adults to through grade 5, or EP1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plano Estratégico da Educação 2012-2016</td>
<td>Defines as one of its objectives to reduce the gender gap in primary schooling and promote education as a human right.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Despacho Ministerial nº 39/GM/2003–Transferência da Rapariga Grávida para o Curso Nocturno (revoked 12/2018)</td>
<td>Article 2: Pregnant school girls and their partners, who are identified as attending the same school, are forbidden from day school and are requested to transfer to night course. However, Article 3 of Decreto Nº 12/2018 revoked this Dispatch with immediate effect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy or Law</td>
<td>Importance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plano para a Redução da Pobreza (PARPA)-2011-2014:</td>
<td>Calls for pre-school education, seven years of mandatory schooling for all, and a guarantee of technical-professional training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Código de Conduta do Professor de Moçambique</td>
<td>Lays out principles guiding the commitment and behavior of teachers, of which the principle of integrity refers to the necessity of the teacher “to abstain from charging students, parents and other instructors value in cash or sexual favors from the female students, many of whom end up getting pregnant early and are subject, also to contracting HIV.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estratégia de Género para o Sector da Educação e Desenvolvimento Humano, 2016-2020</td>
<td>Integrates equality and gender equity in all its initiatives with the strategic objective of eliminating gender disparities in education in all levels, of access, retention, completion and professional training and more.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estratégia de Género do Sector da Educação, 2020-2029</td>
<td>Currently under development.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: ROSC, 2015 (23) and updated with additional and more recent policies.

The legal and policy environment for girls’ education in Mozambique has improved considerably, with both government and civil society-led initiatives focused on reducing gendered inequalities and policy barriers to girls’ education. A key example of success in changing policy to improve girls’ access to education came in December 2018 when the Ministry of Education and Human Development committed itself to the revocation of Dispatch 39 of 2003 (24). Part of the decree had required pregnant girls to transfer to night school, which had contributed to girls dropping out of the formal education system. Civil society was united in opposing Decree 39 from the outset (25).

As civil society and government interviewees highlighted, new and newly revised policies have been passed in recent years to increase girls’ access to education, including an updated Gender Strategy (Estratégia de Género do Sector da Educação) currently being developed for 2020-2029. The previous gender strategy, which was under-supported and under-resourced, according to KIIIs with government representatives, is being reviewed and reframed in this update to reinforce more effectively the importance of girls’ equal access to education (KII, Government). As the new strategy moves toward finalization, it will be important to know more about how the government, civil society, and donors intend to ensure its institutionalization (linking or embedding it in line ministries) and the adequate allocation of financial and human resources.

**Gender Equality Challenges in Education**

Mozambique suffers from high levels of dropout and poor educational attainment overall, especially among girls. The persistent challenge is in retention of students, especially girls, and especially in retaining girls as they transition from primary to secondary education. More than half of enrolled girls drop out of school by the fifth grade, and among girls enrolled in primary school, only 11 percent continue to secondary school, and a mere one percent pursue their education through a tertiary, or college, level (26). UNESCO data show that while almost all boys and girls are enrolled in primary school, the gross enrollment ratio at the secondary level is 33% for girls and 37% for boys. (Those and other data can be found here: [http://uis.unesco.org/en/country/mz](http://uis.unesco.org/en/country/mz))

According to the Global Monitoring Report, some of the most common reasons for lower school attendance for girls, even at the primary level, in the central and northern parts of the country include poverty, higher domestic workloads for girls, the lack of female role models, sexual abuse, and
unintended pregnancy (27). Qualitative data affirm the link between sexual abuse and educational attainment, and UNICEF has established and supported initiatives to address sexual abuse to promote girls’ education (28,29).

Girls also frequently have fewer years available to complete their schooling because of a combination of an earlier average age of marriage than their male peers and a later start to their schooling in some areas, because of barriers related to distance, transportation, and safety (18). These challenges are reflected in institutional barriers that vary significantly by province, with poor performance on key indicators of education, such as enrolment, completion, and teacher qualification levels in the Northern and Central regions (30). In some cases, girls do go to school but the teachers do not show up and are not held accountable to provide quality education.

As in many sectors and countries, gaps remain between policy and implementation. The review of the Gender Strategy while updating it highlighted the lack of cross-sectoral and cross-ministry support, as well as the lack of resources allotted to implementation (KII, CSO). Many schools still lack the technical guidance to improve gender inequalities, and few school manuals directly address gender issues, according to contacts at Ministry of Education and Human Development (MINEDH) and the Education for All Movement (MEPT). Gaps also exist in the areas of violence, abuse, and transgression of the rules: laws and policies are irregularly applied and too often, those who fail to follow the law do so with impunity and without fear of legal retribution. Several informants familiar with the education sector described instances they knew of where male teachers implicated in the pregnancy of a student were simply moved to another school.

New efforts have emerged to prioritize and advance girls’ access to education, including a new Gender Unit within the Ministry of Education and Culture (31) and the Promoting Advancement in Girls’ Education in Mozambique (PAGE-M) partnership. PAGE-M is tackling the policy to implementation gap directly by working with the government to garner support for and scale up of best practices to reduce demand-side barriers, promote and improve girl-friendly schools, and increase the quality of education (32) In other work, MINEDH has produced radio campaigns and advertisements to encourage families to enlist their children in schools, with a focus on enrolling daughters and valuing girls’ education. It has adopted a “spokesperson” approach, which mobilizes national and regional celebrities and religious leaders of different faiths to rally grassroots and family support for school enrollment (33).

The challenges girls face in accessing school reflect and are reinforced by inequitable gender norms

Gaps in girls’ access to education exist against a backdrop of larger societal gender inequalities, including a lack of value placed on girls’ education and earning potential relative to their male siblings and peers, systemic and structural barriers to girls’ schooling, sexual abuse, gender-based violence (GBV), and harmful traditional practices affecting girls (34). Girls, especially in the Center and North, are often kept from school by their parents’ dismissal of the value of education (KII, Ministry), or concern about girls’ safety (35). The large populations living in Zambezia and Nampula also present the highest rates of child marriage so the largest absolute number of married girls live in these provinces (20). Many families in Mozambique move about in their search for fertile land for agriculture, resulting in an average of 15 to 20 kilometers walking distance between girls and the nearest school, as colleagues from the Ministry of Education and Human Development (MINEDH) noted. Lack of access to transportation, family fear of and risk for violence during transit to school, and the additional time and workload requirements in
domestic work for daughters and young wives all compound to reduce girls’ enrollment and retention (35).

Puberty and menstruation complicate girls’ schooling

Social customs combined with lack of sanitary supplies and limited access to water and hygiene in schools keep girls out of school during their monthly menstruation (KII, CSO). Menarche, and the onset of puberty, therefore coincides with frequent extended absence from school for girls and increase their risk for school drop-out as they fall behind their male peers (KII, CSO). The 2016 drought made access to sanitary supplies for menstrual hygiene a greater challenge: the traditionally used absorbent plant material is now scarcer, and as food and cash reserves in households have dwindled women’s ability to purchase menstrual rags has been limited (14). As a result, many girls and women have now resorted to using other, harsher, plant matter or packed sand to catch their menstrual blood.

Interviewees representing government, multilateral agencies and civil society highlighted that puberty and menarche also frequently coincide with increased risk for child, early and forced marriage, which in turn contributes to lower enrollment for girls (34). Once married, girls are expected to focus on their role in the household, and further schooling is seen as an unnecessary cost, or even a threat to the household hierarchy if girls are more educated than their spouses. Marriage also increases girls’ and young women’s risk for early or unintended pregnancy, which until recently resulted in their exclusion from formal schooling as a matter of practice.

Lack of women in leadership positions in schools and school management committees

KIIIs with representatives of MINEDH and CSOs highlighted the importance of the low numbers of women in positions of leadership on school management committees and other educational institutions. It should be noted that women in communities are often part of the selection of the community leadership, though they seldom elect other women to these positions because they are also influenced by patriarchal social norms. They observed that in schools that are not in urban or peri-urban areas, finding safe and appropriate housing can be difficult for women leaders and teachers. In addition, some female teachers are reluctant to take up positions such as school director, pedagogical director, and so on because of the frequent lack of support from the community.

Sexual violence in and around schools is a fear and a reality

Violence is also a factor in keeping girls from schools, as the risk of sexual abuse and GBV in and on the way to school is a key consideration for families. Four out of every five girls in Mozambique report that they have experienced some form of violence in the past 12 months (34), and there are no systemic mechanisms to combat physical violence in the school setting (KII, Ministry). Most schools have a gender focal point and a cantinho/corner where students can obtain assistance, but more research needs to be done to determine how effective these are in responding to sexual violence in schools. Sexual harassment and violence are rampant in schools, not only among students and peers but also frequently perpetrated by teachers and other authority figures, and long distances and use of public transportation early in the morning or late at night can also mean that girls face the risk of sexual harassment or assault on their way to or from school (Gender Links and other civil society). Addressing violence in schools can have immediate impact on girls access to education: the Stop Violence Against Girls in Schools (SVAGS) project has reported improved educational outcomes for girls as a result of their initiatives.
MINEDH and its partners developed a campaign called Zero Tolerance for Abuse and Sexual Harassment in Schools which raised community awareness of the issue.

A lack of accountability reinforces a sexual double standard and undermines school quality

Gender inequalities and social norms prize girls’ virginity and hold girls and young women responsible for sexual violence or other assaults they may experience (36,37). As a consequence, families often isolate daughters in order to “protect” them and preserve their social status and marriageability; and survivors of domestic or other sexual violence may refuse to report to police, families, health providers, and others, as several civil society KIIIs stated because they put more stock on their local authorities (i.e., elders, community tribunals) to solve the problem according to the community’s norms. For those who do report experience of sexual assault or other violence, victim-blaming and failure to maintain confidentiality remain a reality often at the hands of both men and women.

The conselhos de escola could play a much stronger role but need to be empowered

The conselhos de escola, or school councils, have enormous potential for improving school quality and mediating between social factors in the community and the schools themselves (38). Comprised of teachers, principals, parent representatives, school staff and students of both sexes, they could be an important accountability mechanism. As in other bodies where women are well represented, they may not participate fully without encouragement (38). Broader weaknesses in the councils include that while their membership is set by MINEDH, some members may be appointed, which violates the rules.

At the level of primary education, rural parents and community leaders are strongly involved in school affairs because the schools are nearby (19). Urban parents are more involved in school councils and even participate in decision-making (e.g., in Maputo City, Nampula and Quelimane), but they are not involved in monitoring the school administration. Rural parents are rarely active in secondary school councils since these schools are located in urban areas and are therefore far away. The relationships of parents and councils with teachers and school directors can be conflictual. Although community members are meant to participate, the school principals hold all the power, since they convene the meetings. The case study conducted by Basílio (2014) found that the principal in one school had not convened management nor the community for more than two years (38).

Recommendations for USAID/Mozambique’s Future Programming in Education

Many opportunities exist to integrate gender effectively into the education sector. The following are potential areas to explore for further investment of resources, given the existing mandates and commitments of the MINEDH and those of international donors in Mozambique (Inter-American Development Bank, European Union, World Bank, UNICEF, and USAID). Recommendations are organized according to the ecological model at the individual/household, community, institutional, and public policy levels.

Individual and household levels

- Promote the development of more educational community radio programs and edutainment relating to gender equality and girls’ schooling and disseminate key messages in local languages. The community radio programs that ICS and FORCOM have developed can serve as models or be
further disseminated. The UNICEF peer to peer shows along with their gender equality in the household radio spots are also good examples.

- Advocate to change perceptions and beliefs about child marriage and GBV.
- Highlight positive female role models who can serve as examples to young girls and demonstrate there are alternatives to early marriage they can strive for. These role models may be young women from local communities whose experiences demonstrate it is possible to overcome difficult circumstances; or they may be more prominent famous women who can illustrate different possibilities for successful women in Mozambique.

Community level

- Address safety of girls in getting to and from school through mobilizing communities to organize escorts and to create expectations for the respectful treatment of female students.
- Create opportunities for CSOs to provide sexual health education in coordination with school authorities.
- Work with conselhos and community groups to promote the importance of girls’ education and encourage mothers and fathers to keep girls in school.
- Map organizations program implementation and reorient support to areas of the country that do not receive as much support.
- Work with communities, Gabinetes/Postos de Atendimento, tribunals etc to encourage them to seek out the Procuradoria for all cases involving GBV (there is a tendency to force the young girl to marry her abuser as a way to preserve the family honor or provide for a child if the girl gets pregnant.
- Mobile brigades with edutainment can help disseminate informative behavior change activities with movie nights and dissemination of gender key messages.

Institutional level

- Provide appropriate sanitary facilities at schools and help girls access sanitary products so girls will not have to miss school while menstruating.
- Leverage female representation on school councils (i.e., 30% women) to advocate for gender training that builds the capacity of school councils to address gender inequality.
- Support recruitment and training of more female teachers, particularly in secondary schools.
- Train existing female teachers and staff and encourage them to apply for leadership positions in the education system.
- Incorporate gender and sexual and reproductive health and rights (SRHR) into teacher training programs so they will feel prepared to teach comprehensive sexuality education.
- Integrate critical assessment of gender-based stereotypes in teacher trainings so that inequitable gender norms are not reinforced in classrooms by male or female teachers.
- Provide training in bilingual education.
- Reinforce and organize girls’ clubs in schools, the “circulos de interesse”
• Monitor and sanction corporal punishment.
• Work with MINEDH to review and update curriculum content and Teacher Training Institutes so all learning materials are more gender sensitive.
• Include materials about gender equality, comprehensive sexual education/sexual reproductive health and rights (SRHR), and child marriage in standard curricula.
• Provide scholarships for girls where girls’ drop-out rates in primary education are very high in certain provinces (Zambézia, Nampula, Niassa and Cabo Delgado). Promote bilingual education.
• Create a platform with MINEDH on adolescent education that would serve as a central depository for curriculums, research dissemination, and successful case study approaches.
• Provide contraceptives and sexuality education in schools to reduce dropout.  
• Train teachers, school boards, midwives and community leaders about how to prevent adolescent pregnancies.
• Use the councils to create accountability for teachers who have been fired for sexual misconduct.
• Build the capacity of school boards and leadership to address GBV, sexual abuse, and unwanted pregnancy.
• Monitor the complaint boxes, have them be managed by the PTA or outside source so that no one is penalized when they bring in complaints
• In primary schools- school feeding programs are known for increasing the retention of girls in school, as well as help girls get better grades due to increased nutrition
• Encourage schools to provide unofficial education/professional education or night classes for girls that get pregnant, so that they can still get their education or professional skills that will help them in the job market
• After giving birth, allow girls to return to classes even if a year later so that they can continue education

Public policy level
• Develop a clear national policy to retain girls in school that identifies and focuses on geographic hotspots.
• Strengthen school curricula and develop separate professional training opportunities that are more practically focused on professional and technical skills. As it is, twelve years of studying prepare students for very little. With more practical skills, girls (and boys) would be better prepared to enter the professional realm. Making girls more employable will raise expectations about what the value of education and give parents more of an incentive to keep their girls in school.
• Boarding schools can be a useful strategy for preventing violence because they overcome the necessity for girls to travel long distances to attend school. The government should seek

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1 PSI was providing contraception in schools with much success; however, the MINED asked them to stop after a teenage girl’s hormonal arm implant got infected. Parental consent is not required to receive contraception in Mozambique but her parents got very upset when they found out (KII, CSO).
partnerships to support existing boarding schools and expand programs to create new ones as well as engage with Conselhos de Escola to make sure they are safe places for girls.

- Support the development and implementation of the Gender Strategic Plan and monitor outcomes.
- Foster collaboration and understanding between the Ministry of Health (MISAU), MINEDH, Ministry of the Interior (MINT), and the Ministries of Justice, Culture and Youth to reinforce the institutional capacity of the education sector.
- Share data and information between ministries to help reduce expenses and decrease duplicated efforts. For instance, the Ministry of Youth has some funds to support entrepreneurship among youth and similarly focused NGOs. These ministries should coordinate to create links between these youth entrepreneurship initiatives and education
3. HEALTH

Description of Pertinent Data on Gender Inequality in Health

Gender inequality has negative impacts on health and contributes to health disparities throughout Mozambique. Traditional gender norms play out in households, at the community level, and in public institutions that position men as the head of the household and institute gendered hierarchies for who can speak in decision-making (2). This gender disparity isolates women from health services, disempowers them from taking charge of their own health, and can increase their engagement in high risk behavior (7,8). Health providers often reinforce gender inequality by prioritizing male clients or female clients who bring their male partners with them (KII, CSO and USAID). In some cases, health care providers insist on spousal or parental consent for services, even if it is not required by law, making it harder for women and young people to access the information and services they need to protect their own health and well-being (9). Gender inequalities in health care settings must be addressed using initiatives that analyze and seek to counter the power imbalances between women and men.

Although gender inequality affects all aspects of health, decisions related to sexual behavior and fertility are often the most deeply rooted in gender norms that relegate access and control over female bodies (39). Mozambique has high rates of early pregnancy, poor indicators of maternal health and marked gender disparities in HIV/AIDS; in addition, USAID Mozambique is investing heavily in HIV. This analysis therefore emphasizes maternal health, SRHR and HIV for improving health in Mozambique. Adolescent pregnancy is still associated with child marriage, as the overwhelming majority of adolescent mothers were married in their teens. However, in urban areas and particularly in the south of the country, there has been a rise in adolescent pregnancies occurring outside of wedlock. (20) Rates of early pregnancy are more than three times higher in the northern provinces of Mozambique than they are in Maputo City (see Table 3-1) (5). This is due in part to initiation rituals that take place shortly after girls’ first menstruation, or as early as age 9, and sets them on a path of early marriage and pregnancy as demonstrated by the early start of pregnancy and childbearing. Increased access to education also helps to account for the lower levels of pregnancy among young women in Maputo and the southern region.

The use of contraception is an important determinant of the number of children women have over their reproductive lives and can prevent unwanted children. Levels of contraceptive use among married women vary considerably with Maputo Province (4.4%), Sofala (14%), Manica and Zambezia (18%) ranking the lowest and Maputo Cidade (47%), Gaza (42%) and Inhambane (34%) have the highest rates (40). Although a couple’s desire to use contraception is important, so are availability and easy access to services which is reflected by the levels of unsatisfied family planning needs of married women. Maputo Province (45%), Zambezia (30%) and Niassa (29%) have the highest rates of unmet family planning needs while the city of Maputo (17%), Nampula (19%) and Sofala (20%) have the lowest (5). Ensuring availability and access to family planning methods would help to decrease teenage pregnancy and lower total fertility rates among women across Mozambique. Women in the north and center start having children at an early age, and Table 3-2 shows how this childbearing accumulates over their lifetimes, adding up to the highest fertility rates in the north and central provinces.
Table 3-1. Percent of women aged 15-19 years who have had a pregnancy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cabo Delgado</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niassa</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nampula</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sofala</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambezia</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tete</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manica</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inhambane</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaza</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maputo Província</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maputo Cidade</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Inquérito de Imunização, Malária & HIV/SIDA (IMASIDA), 2015 (1)

Table 3-2. Total fertility rates among women ages 15-49 years by province

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Niassa</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambézia</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tete</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sofala</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manica</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cabo Delgado</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nampula</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaza</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inhambane</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maputo Província</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maputo Cidade</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IMASIDA, Inquérito de Imunização, Malária & HIV/SIDA, 2015 (1)

The National Plan and the Strategy for the Reduction of Maternal and Newborn Mortality (2000) has improved diagnosis and treatment of obstetric complications and has improved access to advanced health care services (41). The maternal mortality ratio has steadily declined over from 1,100 deaths per 100,000 live births in 1996 to 489 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2015 (3). However, Mozambique still has high rates of maternal mortality which are exacerbated by child marriage and teen pregnancy. Child marriage often leads to teen pregnancy, but pregnancy also occurs outside marriage. Girls between the ages of 15 and 19 are twice as likely to die in pregnancy and child birth as women ages 20 to 24 (42).
HIV infection continues to be a major public health concern in Mozambique, and one that disproportionately affects women. Women aged 15 to 49 have some general knowledge regarding HIV/AIDS, although with important regional variations: Inhambane (61%), Maputo Province (50%) and Tete (47%) lead the rankings, while women’s knowledge remains quite low in Cabo Delgado (17%), Nampula (18%) and Zambezia (20%) (5).

Women in Mozambique experience higher vulnerability to HIV than men, making up nearly 60% of individuals living with HIV in 2015 (43). Their prevalence has remained steady at 13.1% compared to men’s 9.2% since 2009 (6) demonstrating a plateau and long lasting sustenance of the epidemic drivers. The health system has recognized women’s heightened vulnerability in the 90-90-90 initiative, which has increased their use of services: 52% of women are aware of their HIV status compared to 35% of men; and 86% of those women testing positive are on ARVs compared to 82% of men. At the provincial level, differences in rates of infection between women and men can be quite pronounced in some locations: the highest gender gaps are seen in Gaza (13.1 points higher), Maputo Cidade (8.2 points higher) and Zambézia (6.4 points higher) (see Table 3-3, the Provinces with the highest gender gaps are highlighted by red text) (44).

Table 3-3. Prevalence of HIV among people 15-49, by sex and province (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Gender Gap</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gaza</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>25.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maputo Província</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maputo Cidade</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sofala</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manica</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambézia</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cabo Delgado</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>-0.3</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inhambane</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tete</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niassa</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nampula</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Plano Estratégico Nacional (PEN) IV, 2015-2019 (44)

Transactional sex and multiple concurrent partnerships (CP) places both women and men at greater risk of HIV and other STIs (45). Low condom use, low rates of male circumcision and having multiple sexual partners are key risk factors (7). Data reports from INS Mozambique suggested that in 2009, 16% of women and 53% of men have had more than one sexual partner (INS, 2010).

Given the generalized nature of the HIV epidemic in Mozambique, MISAU has taken measures to provide universal testing and treatment to people living with HIV in 2015, but the implementation of the so called World Health Organization-recommended “Option B+” strategy started even earlier in 2013, in which all newly diagnosed HIV-positive pregnant women are counseled to initiate combination anti-
retroviral therapy (ART) immediately upon diagnosis regardless of CD4 count and to continue treatment for life. However, treatment adherence rates are low in Mozambique. Table 3-4 details retention rates for ARV treatment at 12, 24, and 36 months. While the national average is 67% at 12 months, that drops down to 47% at 36 months and less than one third of HIV positive patients adhere to treatment at the 36 month mark (46). Barriers to treatment adherence include irregular usage because of sharing medication among families, distance to clinic where medication can be obtained, a preference for traditional medicine, and the belief that medicine is no longer necessary because the patient does not have any negative symptoms (47,48). Mobile health clinics have shown some promise in raising levels of treatment adherence, especially in rural areas where stigma is difficult to overcome (48).

Table 3-4. Retention rates of ARV patients at 12, 24, and 36 months, by province (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>12 Month Goal</th>
<th>12 Month Actual</th>
<th>24 Month Actual</th>
<th>36 Month Actual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Niassa</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cabo Delgado</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nampula</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambézia</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tete</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manica</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sofala</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inhambane</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaza</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maputo Province</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maputo City</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Total</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Table from MISAU 2018 compiled with data sourced from: 1-SAPR 2018, 2-APR 2017 (46)

A cross-sectional study of 1500 women in Maputo revealed that 70.2% of women had experienced some form of intimate partner violence (49). The study also found that higher levels of education were positively associated with violence, suggesting that empowering women through education does not do enough to counter traditional gender norms, potentially leading to greater conflict between partners (49). A 2015 National Immunization, Malaria and HIV Indicator Survey (IMASIDA) found that over half (54%) of women who had experienced physical or sexual violence did not seek help (5).

Review of the Government’s Sector-Level Advances and Legal and Policy Frameworks for Gender Quality in Health

The current portfolio includes programs that focus on nutrition, malaria, tuberculosis, integrated family planning, maternal and child health and survival, and HIV/AIDS. The programs USAID supports take the form of community health interventions, comprehensive and integrated care, procurement and supply management chain with a particular focus on orphans and vulnerable children (OVC), neonatal, early child, and child health. USAID has made some successful interventions across all of these areas (see Box 3-1) and is well positioned to continue to integrate norm change content with service delivery.
**Box 3-1. USAID Mozambique Health Sector Portfolio**

- Integrated Family Planning Program
- Vector Works
- World Food Program
- Maternal and Child Survival Program
- Support Ministry of Health to Strengthen Community Health Interventions to Address Neonatal and Child Health in Mozambique
- Comprehensive Care for Children
- Strengthening High Impact Interventions for an AIDS-free Generation Project
- Challenge TB
- HIV Community Based Services
- Procurement and Supply Management Project
- Strengthening Communities through Integrated Programming Zambézia
- Strengthen Family and Community Support to Orphan and Vulnerable Children Program
- Youth Power TO1
- Integrating Early Child Development Global Development Alliance
- Service Delivery and Support for Orphans and Vulnerable Children

*Source: Investment inventory, 2017*

**A strong legal framework for promoting gender equality in the health sector exists**

Mozambique has developed a strong law and policy environment for integrating gender equality into health systems in recent years, including guidance for comprehensive male involvement, a loosening of laws restricting abortion, decriminalization of homosexuality and a new Strategy for Gender Equality in the Health Sector currently being developed by MISAU. The GRM and civil society actors have advanced public health by the removal of homosexuality from the penal code, developing strategies addressing the specific communication and health needs of the gay and lesbian community, and for their progress improving access to safe and abortion for women, removing legal barriers to vital services for the most vulnerable and marginalized (see Table 3-5). Abortion is legal in Mozambique and available in health centres and hospitals along with post abortion treatment for women that went to non-medical sources to terminate and may present with an infection, hemorrhage, or other complications.

**Table 3-5. Legal and policy framework for gender equality in health**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy or Law</th>
<th>Implications for Gender Equality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Plano Estratégico do Sector da Saúde (2014-2019) | - Recognizes that differences in social relations based in gender and culturally constructed, especially access to resources, power and decision-making and gender roles and responsibilities affect the health of women.  
- Recognizes that gender has implications for the exposure to risk and vulnerability of women, access to services and quality of care and treatment.  
- Defines principle of equity that must be taken into account in allocation, delivery and use of services to ensure that gender and other factors do not pose barriers. |
| A Estratégia de Inclusão da Igualdade de Género no Sector da Saúde (2018-2023) | - Aims to guarantee that programs and policies relevant to health, at all stages, integrate the concerns of women, men and other gender identities so that all may benefit in an equal manner.  
- The involvement of men receives special attention, ensuring they receive services that respond to their specific needs and that promote their participation in family health. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy or Law</th>
<th>Implications for Gender Equality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Directriz para Integração dos Serviços de Prevenção, Cuidados e Tratamento em HIV e SIDA para as Populações-Chave (HSH, MTS, PJd, Reclusos) no Sector da Saúde | * Identifies structural factors based in sociocultural, political and economic conditions that affect vulnerability to HIV infection.  
* Identifies behavioral interventions that promote safe behaviors based in knowledge, attitudes, practices, abilities and beliefs.  
* Defines specific packages to be used for key populations and recognizes higher vulnerability to GBV in this group and guarantees availability of integrated package of services for survivors of GBV. |
| Plano Estratégico Nacional de Resposta ao HIV - PEN (2015-2019) | * Response centered in human rights and gender justice calls for inclusion of these questions in all strategic areas and responses to HIV/AIDS.  
* Refers to necessity of reaching 10-14 year-olds with primary prevention, taking into account social norms and cultural practices; promotes interventions that contribute to social and community change; focuses on gender equality, prevention of GBV including in indices of early marriage and pregnancy; highlights need to empower influential local leaders in the area of sexuality (especially counselors, madrinhas of initiation rites, etc.) and HIV prevention. |
| Despacho do MISAU Sobre Atendimento Integrado as Vítimas de Violência de Gênero | Establishes actions and procedures to be followed in health units and police stations when presented with women and girls who are victims of violence, including steps to reduce time and distance between services and avoidance of “revictimization”. |
| Estratégia Nacional de Prevenção e Combate dos Casamentos prematuros (2016-2019) | Discusses SRH problems that contribute to child marriage and vice versa, and integrates a perspective of girls’ empowerment so they can take decisions about their own lives. |
| Directriz para o engajamento do homem nos cuidados de saúde (2018) | * Analyzes ideas of power, gender inequality, sexual orientation, class, age, religion and so on to explain health among different groups of men.  
* It is a tool for mobilizing men and boys and making services more welcoming.  
* Aims to promote changes in gender norms that affect service use, influencing at the individual, community and health unit level with an emphasis on behavior change. |
| Política de Género e Estratégia de Implementação (2018) | * Will contribute to the development and implementation of strategies to prevent, eliminate and transform social and cultural practices that legitimize and tolerate GBV, sexual harassment, rape, child marriage and adolescent pregnancy.  
* Ensure the development of transformative strategies regarding gender that address the unequal status and vulnerabilities of women and girls, and harmful practices. Strengthen the participation of men and boys in SRHR programs, services and processes by transforming masculine social norms. |
| Política Nacional de Saúde Sexual e Reprodutiva (2001) | * Recognizes that masculine and feminine sexual behavior is determined by gender and sexuality, in turn constructed as a function of social, cultural and economic forces that affect the distribution of power.  
* The policy highlights the diverse experiences of adolescence. |
| Revisão do novo Código Penal (31/12/2014) | Decriminalized abortion provided by health professionals in health settings during the first 12 weeks, or during the first 24 weeks if a serious illness or deformation is detected. The law also permits abortion up to 16 weeks in case the pregnancy results from rape or incest. |

Source: Table compiled by Iris Group for this report.
Weaknesses in implementation of laws and policies in the health sector limit impact

The health sector lacks human resources and a solid infrastructure, particularly in rural areas (41). Furthermore, the promise of advances in gender equality from the strong legal and policy framework is left largely unfulfilled due to weak implementation. In theory men and women may be acculturated into protagonists of male-dominated power/controlling behaviors within highly rigid patriarchal societies to such extent that creates a gender-imbalanced social order that is not only socially accepted but also reinforced within the family/community and institutions (50). In the case of GBV for instance, a law exists (Law 29/September 29, 2009) that sets a legal precedent to denaturalize violence and problematize the practice through legal prohibition (36,51). The GRM has set up a dedicated mechanism to address GBV and established that the Ministry of Women Gender and Social Affairs should coordinate services provided by the MINT, Ministry of Justice, and MISAU to provide services for survivors of GBV. At the national level, 61 percent of the 299 staff at GBV response centers were women, and 39 percent were male (37). The number of cases responded to nationally by these centers between 2011 and 2015 were 65,463 women, 36,099 children, and 18,752 men, for a total of 120,314 (36). Overall, coordination has been challenging and there is a lack of communication between the implementing entities—police, health care workers, and the Institute for Legal Assistance and Representation—constrains GBV survivors’ access to services (37).

Gender Equality Challenges in Health

The different roles and responsibilities afforded to men and women in society often influence their health-related behaviors and use of services.

Differing expectations of women and men and girls and boys have implications for health

Health inequities in Mozambique are still heavily influenced by gender and social norms, particularly those related to sexuality and reproduction. Gendered double standards, which expect girls to be silent and chaste and boys to be aggressive and sexually skilled, place adolescents and young people of all genders at risk for violence, coercion, unintended pregnancy, and the transmission of sexually transmitted infections. Men are expected to be the household decision-maker on all matters, including health, yet the association of sexual and reproductive health and family health with women’s caretaking role means that men are often under-informed and over-empowered when it comes to making relationship decisions about sexual risk and protection. Avoiding pregnancy is considered a female responsibility (52) and men generally do not accompany their female partners to pre-natal, maternal health, or child health consultations (47).

Women and girls are often responsible for water collection and spend a significant portion of their day fetching water for their household (53). Maintaining good sanitation and hygiene practices can be a challenge for the entire household and lead to the spread of communicable diseases. Given the limited amount of water they are able to transport, women often cannot bathe in private spaces and their only option is to bathe in close proximity to the water points where they are more likely to be subjected to violence (14).
Given that sexual intercourse is the main route of HIV transmission in Mozambique, it is important to address gender gaps in several indicators of knowledge, attitudes, and practices related to HIV.

- Men aged 15-24 are far more knowledgeable than women in that age cohort about ways to prevent HIV and common misconceptions about HIV transmission and prevention (51.5% vs. 30.2%, still low).
- Women aged 15-24 are more likely than men to have been sexually active before age 15 (24.5% vs. 16.8%).
- Among those aged 15-49, nearly 30% of men had intercourse with more than one partner in the last 12 months compared to only 2.8% of women.
- Testing is more common for women aged 15-49 than men: 26% of women and 14% of men reported receiving an HIV test in the last 12 months (54).

Studies have found that traditional notions of masculinity are deeply linked with increased risky sexual behavior, increasing both boys and their partners’ vulnerability to HIV (55). The 2018 Comprehensive Male Involvement Guidance is primed to address neglected gender and social norms related to masculinity that keep men and boys from accessing health services. In Mozambique, boys and men are expected to perform a version of masculinity that prizes virility, violence, and stoicism: boys and men are therefore ashamed to access health services or report instances of violence because it is seen a sign of weakness and a source of shame. In a study examining the barriers to ART treatment in rural Mozambique, men indicated poor treatment by health care workers as a deterrent, whereas women did not (48).

Women also face challenges in raising discussions with their partners about sexual pleasure and sexual and reproductive health: too often, a woman is seen as unchaste or overly knowledgeable for raising the subject, risking the loss of her relationship or additional relationship violence. The social norms prizing female chastity are linked to increased risk for child, early, and forced marriage, where girls are married young to “protect” them from sexual activity outside of marriage. Girls in Mozambique aren’t considered “dignified” unless they are seen as marriageable (KII, CSO), or until someone agrees or offers to marry them, even though marriage is not a protection from intimate partner violence (57).

Willingness to use condoms is associated with emotional intimacy in contrast to typically using condoms with unfamiliar partners whose HIV status may be uncertain (8). Taking an HIV test is perceived by some women as a way to test the closeness of a partner’s emotional bond (8).

**Women lack decision-making power**

Women typically have little decision-making power in their households and this contributes to negative health outcomes in a variety of ways (8). When giving birth, often the husband or mother in law will make the decision about whether or not to deliver in a hospital and when it is appropriate to seek medical care (58). More recently, Matronas have been working with health centres and they manage the care of pregnant women and encourage them to deliver in maternity wards. If a home birth is inevitable, the Matrona can serve as a skilled birth attendant to mitigate hemorrhages and other complications and accompany the mother and child to the health centre post partum. When a woman or her child is sick, or sometimes even when she needs to attend well-baby visits, she often needs to wait for the husband or her in-laws to decide if it is serious enough to go and see a doctor (KII, USAID). This can be
especially problematic if the husband is away for days at a time due to work. Community workers, community radio and community leaders all reinforce the need for women to seek out services and to go to the maternity ward.

Gender norms and a lack of access to resources make women subordinate in their sexual relationships. Traditional notions of masculinity and femininity, and the associated restrictions and taboos on boys’ and girls’ behaviors are also linked to experiences of sexual violence and coercion and intimate partner violence. In one study, having children in the household led to increased incidence of intimate partner violence (IPV) while divorce or separation led to reductions in violence (49). This study also examined whether women exerting control over their male partners was associated with IPV perpetrated against women and found positive associations (49). Even when women are socially and economically self-reliant and are in a position to question rigid gender roles, that empowerment may not necessarily be sufficient to protect them from GBV and they may still have limited decision-making power regarding their own health (60–62).

Myths, fears, and a lack of information about sex and sexuality harm health

Misinformation about health and health services related to sexuality and reproduction, are rampant, particularly in highly patriarchal environments. These are compounded by the social taboos on discussing sex openly with families or partners, and the pervasive victim-blaming and shaming of people of all genders who have experienced sexual violence, harassment or assault. Within families, it is taboo to discuss sexual and domestic violence, and young people also fear misunderstandings and judgment if they discuss more ordinary matters related to dating, relationships, and sexual desire. Within relationships, gender norms restrict discussion of health and risk: girls frequently report that the fear of losing their boyfriend if they bring up sexual and reproductive health, contraception, or HIV risk outweighs the risks of not bringing it up (63). Sexually transmitted infections, including HIV/AIDS, are sometimes referred to as “women’s diseases” indicating not just a lack of knowledge but also placing the weight of the blame on women (64).

In addition, specific myths about family planning methods, HIV/AIDS, and fertility play on long-held gender norms. Both women and men report concerns about the long-term use of family planning methods and the expectation that they will affect future fertility, or damage women’s health; and the widespread misperception that condoms reduce sexual pleasure for both partners. Men avoid health services because “they are women’s services” and frequently fail to support their partners or wives during antenatal and delivery services because of a fear that they will be unable to satisfy their partners sexually in future after seeing them give birth (KII, CSO). Widespread misinformation about the relative risk and consequences of HIV infection lead people to think, “it’s not a problem; I can live a long time with treatment without people knowing (KII, CSO), and reduce demand for access HIV voluntary counseling and testing services. These myths and misconceptions, combined with a lack of accurate and comprehensive information about HIV and sexual and reproductive health, make it difficult to promote informed decision making and use of available services.

Lack of respectful SRH care from providers

It is also vital to note that health care providers, as members of the community, are frequently influenced by the same prevailing gender norms and biases, which can in turn affect their delivery of services. In particular, health care providers have been known to provide preferential treatment to
married women, older women, and women who bring their male partners to attend services with them, including allowing them to “skip” lines or wait times out of an assumption that men’s time is more valuable than women’s (KII, CSO). Other providers have been reported to deny care to women who do not bring their male partners to their appointments or who do not have a partner, or to require of young women that their parents accompany them to services or provide written consent for their access (KII, CSO). Even though restrictions against abortion were loosened in 2014, many people do not know they can access safe abortion services at health centers and hospitals. Likewise, many people may not be aware that a woman does not need consent from her husband or that a non-family adult can give consent for an underage girl to receive abortion services. These policies are undoubtedly positive, but there may still be a gap in their implementation that can be exacerbated by provider bias. Some providers or health professionals may turn away women who are single, seen as too young, or are otherwise stigmatized, such as sex workers, from services or refuse to provide certain services, like safe abortion care, on the basis of religious or conscience-related objections.

Efforts have been made to respond to GBV with integrated services and care (atendimento integrado in Portuguese) so that women can report violence at hospitals or police stations. Due to lack of safe houses women are usually encouraged to go to their family home (parents/sisters/brothers etc.) but the women fear that they will lose access to their children, property they have invested in, or that their family will be forced to repay the dowry because they left their marital home. Providers may also reflect the prevailing social norms about violence and victim-blaming and have been known to refuse to report violence or abuse, and even to counsel women to return to an abusive or violent partner or spouse. This is part of a larger problem of a lack of accountability in public institutions, as reported in many KIIIs.

**Exclusion of men from health services**

Men’s access to health services is also determined by gendered social norms and expectations: the vast majority of community, family, and sexual and reproductive health services are seen as “women’s” services, and men may face social disapproval or be denied access if they seek out services on their own. Youth-friendly health services such as the Friendly Services for Youth and Adolescents (SAAJ) centers in Beira, often cater to adolescent girls and may even exclude adolescent boys from accessing services (65). Public information and education campaigns on sexual and reproductive health, unintended pregnancy, and HIV and other STIs frequently focus on women to the exclusion of men’s health concerns, and place responsibility not only for pregnancy but for contraception and understanding of fertility with women.

Where HIV is seen as a priority for men, it is tied to homosexuality and the risks for men who have sex with men, as opposed to being treated as a community-wide issue. This approach both increases men’s risk for HIV transmission through lack of information on protection and undermines non-discrimination and anti-stigma campaigns on sexual orientation.

Nutrition, family health, immunization, and water, sanitation and health campaigns through community health and extension workers focus on women as the caretaker of the family without acknowledging the inherent gender inequalities in household decision-making. Increasingly, governments have focused on joint household decision-making and male engagement in sexual and reproductive health, programs that need to be scaled and applied across broader health issues in order to foster a truly family and community-centered health system.
Recommendations for USAID/Mozambique’s Future Programming in Health

The health sector has gone further than most others in recognizing the impact of gender inequality on a wide range of outcomes. The HIV epidemic has been credited with opening people’s eyes to the need for a gender perspective. Also helpful has been the social determinants of health framing in global discourse on health. Whatever the cause, there is considerable understanding of how gender inequality and restrictive gender norms play out in the lives of girls, boys, men, women and gender minorities. Still, this understanding could be more fully reflected in the activities designed to improve health across various areas. The clinical orientation of the health sector can be a handicap in this regard, because it prioritizes services and treatments over prevention messaging and behavior change.

Confirming the views of the donor review completed in 2018, this gender assessment found that activities in the health sector should make a special effort to:

- Reach out to adolescent girls, particularly those who are at the bottom of the societal hierarchy. Very few resources trickle down to young girls and it is essential to reach them between the ages of 9-12 to build their protective social assets so they will be able to stay on track.
- Address the prevention, care, and treatment components of GBV, a reflection of women’s limited power to make decisions in their lives.
- Engage men in challenging harmful and restrictive gender norms and becoming more involved in their own health and in the health and wellbeing of their family members.
- Below are further recommendations that address health obstacles at the individual/household, community, institutional, and public policy levels:

**Individual and household levels**

- Implement broader social communication and behavior change campaigns regarding child marriage, GBV and lesbian, gay, bisexual, and trans (LGBT) rights.
- Invest in the education of girls and boys, to fight against early marriages and pregnancies as well as to challenge the gender, social and cultural norms regarding sexual relationships and childbearing and rearing.
- Use rites of initiation as a cultural space to introduce new and more equitable power dynamics in the relationships between boys and girls and to promote their remaining in school until later in adolescence.
- Respond to the U.S. President’s Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR)’s shift from prevention to treatment with an overlay of gender-related investments in other areas that can deal with power dynamics in relationships and impact on retention to long-life treatment.

**Community level**

- Support ongoing community work in targeting parents/influential figures in the family and promote intergenerational dialogues on SRHR, building their skills as well as providing them with information.
- Mobilize communities to influence public opinion and attitude regarding gender issues in SRH and Communication for Behavior Change in Health.
• Involve and train community leaders, religious leaders and the women who lead initiation rites to address SRH issues, perceptions, beliefs and myths in their particular context (geographic, social, cultural and religious).

• Strengthen and expand the role of community health workers with whom USAID is already working and train them to be sensitive to gender inequalities and how they impact health.

• Strengthen the capacity of community agents/peer educators in the communities who can reach a different subset of the population and share essential health information (e.g., KPs, priority populations, people with disabilities).

• Use lifestyle marketing on masculinity to promote HIV treatment uptake and to encourage male solidarity with female partners for shared decision-making about health.

Institutional level

• Train district and provincial health officials to respond to demands for GBV services by adults and children.

• Building on some of PEPFAR and their Determined, Resilient, Empowered, AIDS-free, Mentored, and Safe women (DREAMS) work to reduce new HIV infections among adolescent girls and young women within an ecological approach, support programs to use a safe space model to empower girls to make decisions about their life, prepare to have some degree of independence in their future, and deliver economic empowerment.

• Support MISAU, MINEDH, MGCAS and the Ministry of Youth to integrate gender inequality and restrictive gender norms, gender identity, sexual orientation and pleasure into SRH training/modules.

• Introduce comprehensive sexual education in schools at an earlier age and adequately train teachers.

• Continue strong work in youth-friendly health services, including provided by programs such as SAAJ Rapariga Biz, and PSI, and build the capacity of health units to take this work forward.

• Develop more upstream gender transformative social and behavior change communication activities focused on masculinity.

• Integrate gender-transformative messages into male circumcision activities.

• Support programs that engage men, and provide opportunity to discuss men’s concerns, power relations, masculinity (roles, expectations, strength, pleasure, responsibility, etc.) and the negative impacts of toxic masculinity in boys’ and men’s lives.

• Fund and provide more capacity building for organizations to implement the national male involvement guidelines.

• Support the work done under the partnership between MISAU and Fanelo Ya Mina or Hopem, which are the organizations that are working on masculinities, male engagement in health, co-responsible fatherhood, as well as issues of gender-based violence.

Public policy level

• Support building mechanisms for implementation of the Strategy for Gender Equality in the Health Sector to be integrated into all health interventions.
• Support district health offices implementing Strategy for Gender Equality in the Health Sector.

• Advocate for a gender sensitive budget to ensure that adequate resources get allocated to implementing broad commitments to gender equality in health. Work on gender budgeting done by UN Women with the Ministry of Finance may provide some guidance.

• Strengthen Mozambique’s National AIDS Council’s capacity to lead and coordinate gender-sensitive HIV and AIDS response throughout the board of ministries, including MISAU, MINT, and MGCAS.
4. **ECONOMIC GROWTH**

Gender roles speak to a broader positioning of men and women in society, one within which the responsibilities of both play out on a daily basis. Women in Mozambique are often positioned below men, in terms of rights, resources, and opportunities; their gendered responsibilities as the primary caretakers for children and of the household translate into daily, often unpaid, responsibilities, such as the collection of firewood or preparation of food for household members. Girls are often responsible for majority of household labor, including fetching water, and often cook and clean for their younger siblings (KII, CSOs).

**Description of Pertinent Data on Gender Inequality in Economic Growth**

The situation of women in the labor market is not well understood. Our data tell us that the Mozambican labor market is characterized by a high degree of informality, with more than 90% of workers being self-employed or unremunerated as family workers (10). Outside the agricultural sector, women are most active in the sales and services sector (11). A study in Gaza shows a high percentage of households headed by women with access to remittances, which may indicate an increase in consumer power for women outside the agricultural sector. The data for Gaza reflect high levels of migration to mines and commercial farms in South Africa (over half of all households in the southern provinces report migration, in contrast with 12 percent in Zambezia and Cabo Delgado, and about 33 percent for the country as a whole) (66). There is also a greater opportunity to work in the informal sector in Maputo Cidade, and a higher level of schooling and literacy among women in Maputo City and Maputo Province. The proximity of the frontier favors trade across the border, despite the many challenges women face, including sexual harassment by customs staff and theft in Maputo City and Province.

The economically active population in Mozambique is approximately 11 million people, of whom 62.1% are self-employed, 24.6% work for family with no remuneration, and only 10.9% receive salaries. Of people who receive salaries, 4.1% work in the public sector and 6.9% work in the private sector (67). With the exception of the provinces of Gaza, Tete, Cidade de Maputo and Província de Maputo, the majority of women work in the agricultural sector, and most of them are own-account workers. It is estimated that about 300,000 young people enter the labor market each year, but there is an inadequate supply of jobs relative to the demand for work they represent (68). Table 4-1 shows the dramatic gender gap between men and women in the labor force in Mozambique. While 82.3% of men are employed, only 39.4% of women are. More than 80% of women living in rural areas work in the agricultural sector compared to 56.1% of men in rural areas.
Table 4-1. Labor force characteristics by sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>% of Women</th>
<th>% of Men</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employed, according to DHS data</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>82.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed at the time of DHS</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed in 12 months preceding DHS</td>
<td>53.3</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Occupation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>63.1</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>80.8</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional, technical, administrative</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales and services</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>42.2</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Unpaid or family employment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Un-remunerated employees (sector not specified in DHS 2011)</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-employed versus employed by other</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed by someone else: agriculture sector</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed: agriculture sector</td>
<td>82.4</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed by someone else: non-agriculture</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed: non-agriculture</td>
<td>59.3</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Perfil de Género em Moçambique, 2016 (11)

Agriculture is the sector that contributes the most to Mozambique’s economy, and extension workers play an important role in transferring technology for the improvement of quality and productivity in the sector (69). Somewhat more than 1,200 extension workers were registered as employees of the state in 2014, of whom approximately 85% were male and 15% female, for a parity index of approximately 0.17. The parity index reveals the gender disparity in the activity in favor of male employment, despite the fact that more than 80% of the country’s women are involved in agriculture.

Figure 4-1 shows the predominance of male extension workers, who number above 90% in Cabo Delgado, Nampula, and Sofala, and above 80% in Niassa, Zambezia, Tete, Manica, and Gaza. The provinces of the north stand out in this regard. Maputo City is the only province with approximately half of extension workers being female, likely because the city is different from the rest of the country in having higher levels of female education and autonomy.
USAID spends just about 13 percent of its investments in Mozambique on programs in business and agriculture, listed in Box 4-1.

Box 4-1. USAID/Mozambique Major Investments in the Economic Growth Sector

- Loan Portfolio Guarantee, DCA
- Feed the Future Mozambique Improved Seeds for Better Agriculture (SEMEAR)
- Supporting the Policy Environment for Economic Development (SPEED+)
- Viable Sweet potato Technologies in Africa (VISTA)

Source: Investment inventory, 2017 (16)

SPEED and SPEED+ provide a good example of how gender can be integrated into programs that address economic development (see Box 4-2).
Box 4-2. Support Program for Economic and Enterprise Development (SPEED) program (2014)

SPEED was designed to improve the business environment through better trade and investment policies. Below are key recommendations from a document exploring how gender equity could be achieved more fully in the SPEED project (70):

- Create highly targeted efforts (supported by budget and human resources) to identify and encourage new and existing women business associations.
- Support for women should be designed with longer time frames and include leadership skills training as well as business/technical assistance, coaching and mentoring.
- Develop communication campaigns to raise public awareness of women’s legal and financial rights and to change perception of women’s roles in business and in leadership.
- Impose affirmative action to hire and groom women for professional capacities.
- Modify contracts of implementing partners to reflect budget and targets for women as program beneficiaries.
- Contract primary research studies on women-owned businesses, agribusinesses and women’s economic empowerment to establish benchmarks and identify causal factors for success of policy implementation.

After this evaluation, the follow-on activity SPEED+ included an activity-level gender action plan with a specific “gender checklist” to address these issues. It is one of the two programs that has a gender action plan (the other one is Civic Participation for Good Governance or PCBG).

Room for improvement in gender equality framework for economic participation

Economic growth is a key area where gender equality has not kept pace with advancements in other sectors. One study found that female-headed households that depend on agricultural farming are on average about 20% less productive than male headed households in the central and northern regions of Mozambique (71). These households are less likely to use fertilizers and machinery which may be in part due their limited opportunities to connect with and learn from agricultural extension workers, the majority of whom are men.

As Figure 4-1 shows, even though most women work in the agricultural sector, they are underrepresented in the paid jobs of agricultural extension. This denies women the employment opportunity, and also prevents women access to the skills and knowledge extension workers provide, since it is frowned upon culturally for a woman to be seen talking with men who are not her family members, making it impossible for women to access that kind of knowledge from male extension workers (72).

Other parts of the economy reflect also limited opportunities for women’s advancement. Policy, practice, and social norms all continue to frame economic and entrepreneurship opportunities in ways that prioritize men’s participation and advancement, frequently at the direct expense or exploitation of women’s engagement and labor. Mozambique does not have a specific policy framework for women’s enterprise development, nor does the legal and regulatory framework for business in Mozambique contain any instruments that are specifically designed to respond to the barriers or constraints faced by women in business (73) though there is a tendency towards microfinance. The policy framework for entrepreneurship, shaped by the National Entrepreneurship Strategy, the Law of Small and Medium Enterprises, and the National Enterprisers Incubator Strategy, all contain significant gaps in gender integration (see Table 4-2). Among the programs financed by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry,
few are specifically directed to women, and no entrepreneurship promotion programs are targeted to women (73).

Table 4-2. Economic growth-related policies of relevance to gender quality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy or Law</th>
<th>Implications for gender equality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender Policy and Strategy for Implementation</td>
<td>Provides a gender statement for each sector including economic growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Establishes guidelines with a view to permitting decision-making and identifying actions to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elevate the status of women and promote gender equality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estratégia de Género do Sector de Agricultura e Segurança Alimentar</td>
<td>Guides gender integration in all the sub-sectors of agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estratégia de Género e Pescas de Pequena Escala</td>
<td>Guides gender integration in the subsector of small-scale fishing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estratégia de Género Ambiente e Mudanças Climáticas</td>
<td>Guides gender integration in all sectors related to environment and climate change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique Gender Profile</td>
<td>A relevant analysis of economic growth; provides information about formal and informal markets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Plan for Advancement of women</td>
<td>Has the main gender concerns, has indicators to measure the interventions and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>estimates the budget for Implementation, it gives the orientation for disaggregating the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>beneficiaries by sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic and Social Plan (PES 2019 and budget)</td>
<td>Based on the government’s five-year plan, the PES is written annually, and follows the same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>requirement—disaggregation of beneficiaries by sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balanço (report) of PES and report of Budget Execution</td>
<td>In the Budget Execution report, the same guidance is given regarding gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>disaggregation of data</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Table compiled by Iris Group for this report.

Gender Equality Challenges in Economic Growth

Traditional gender norms and the roles and responsibilities of women inhibit them from participating fully in economic opportunities. These realities are reflected across the challenges in this sector.

Women lack access to land and have limited decision-making regarding land use

As Mozambique is still a largely agrarian society, women’s access to land, credit, and training remains crucial to achieving gender parity in economic development. Although the 1997 Land Law establishes women’s right to access and own land, many women lack information about their land rights, and there has been no national-level effort to raise awareness (18). Since women are the least educated, they are less likely to find information about the procedures that allow them to claim ownership or inherit land on their own, and government institutions and civil servants also have limited knowledge of these regulations, so they cannot help. Gender inequalities in the inheritance of land are rampant, despite the legal framework which firmly guarantees equal inheritance rights. The revision of the Family Law of 2004 further secured equal rights for women/girls and men/boys within family spaces by resolving ambiguities regarding issues such as inheritance of property. Yet many rural women and men live in “common-law
unions” rather than in state-recognized marriages, which can make it more difficult for women to secure legal claims to their husbands’ land in the case of spousal death or divorce (74). While the Succession Law legally establishes the rights of people in de facto unions (informal unions or permanent cohabitation) to inherit property (75), customary practices stand in the way of women's holding, managing, transferring or inheriting land (76).

Some provisions of these laws have not been implemented and women continue to struggle with insecure and unequal ownership (18) in large part due to legal pluralism. The Constitution recognizes customary systems as long as they do not contradict constitutional values and principles (76). Customary law has a strong influence in Mozambique, especially in rural communities, and the majority of the population turns to customary law channels to resolve disputes (76). The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations recently reported that “Community lands are managed under customary tenure systems and there is much empirical evidence suggesting that under some customary tenure systems and within families, women do not have equal rights to hold, manage, transfer or inherit land” (76).

Women own 28% of privately-owned land in Mozambique compared to men who own 72% (KII, Ministry). In addition, a study using panel data found that women only manage 70% of those plots that they own (men are managing the rest), and that women are more likely to manage plots in households in which men have historically been engaged in external employment away from the home (77). Research shows that women’s autonomy increases when men are absent (78). Yet, single women struggle to access land, an issue that is compounded by increases in male migration for employment (74). When the men leave, it is hard for women to secure ownership to their husbands’ property, especially if they are in informal unions. In cases where women do manage women-owned plots of land, they typically do not grow the main cash crop for the household, and they do not use complicated or advanced production techniques (77). Where land is owned jointly, men are given decision-making authority over the land and its use, and polygamy further constrains individual women’s access to and control over resources (KII, economist).

**Women face financial constraints and a lack of financial literacy**

Further illustrating the need for attention to systemic gender inequalities in economic opportunities is the fact that often men are the primary beneficiaries of women’s economic activity (KII, CSO). Husbands are given decision-making authority over any income generated through the agricultural or business activities of their wives (KII, CSO), including from the sale of businesses or land to larger companies (KII, CSO). Some civil society groups have tracked cases of men using money made from the sale of land or payment for lost opportunity to migrate in search of other opportunities, find new wives, or make large purchases without consulting with their wives (KII, CSO). Others have explored the financial exploitation of poor or low-literacy people, with women facing special vulnerability, through dishonest sale of land or goods (79).

In cases where women have maintained control of their businesses or agricultural income, they still face enormous constraints, especially in trying to mobilize working capital for expanding or diversifying their business so they can access various markets in addition to their local community market (73). Women are also often exploited when negotiating prices in the extractive or agriculture industries because they don’t know the real value of their goods in the market and if they are the head of a single parent household may be desperate to provide food for their family immediately. Women lack access to
education and support to develop their financial literacy (KII, CSO), as well as being excluded from access to capital for new investments (18). A general lack of collateral leads to a situation where women are limited in gaining access to finance through savings and credit groups and group-based mutual guarantee micro-credit (73), two initiatives which, in other contexts, have been used to greatly expand women’s economic empowerment. Lack of access to capital and control over their own earnings instead means that many women may not even have the dues to join savings groups or cooperatives (KII, Donor), effectively shutting them out of economic development opportunities at all levels. It is especially difficult for women to accrue wealth when they are single providers with several children to care for and their husbands don’t help them financially.

**Women are not involved in community consultations regarding resources**

Women are also frequently excluded from community consultations: for example, in the consultations leading up to the 2009 national strategy to protect the land and resource rights of local people, women were entirely absent (80). Common barriers to women’s participation in consultation processes include: lack of advance notice for consultations, limited number of consultations (typically only one meeting), inadequate record keeping from consultations, vague commitments in meetings, and lack of consideration for future community needs (74). Social norms which insist on strict demarcations between the women’s role in the household and the men’s role to participate in public fora also keep women out of consultation and community decision-making (2). Even when women do attend consultation processes they are expected to yield their time to men and stay in the background (KII, CSO). Men’s domination of discussion within community fora frequently leads to an overemphasis on men’s concerns, such as employment opportunities and payments, while women’s concerns, such as childcare and access to education, water, and fuel are left behind (KIIs, CSOs). Occasionally, this inequality in access extends even to the language used in community consultations, such as in Cabo Delgado, where Kiswahili is the language of power, and spoken mainly by men (KII, CSO). Communities and leadership should make more of an effort to involve women in community consultations and discussions.

**Limited opportunities for women and participation of women in training programs**

Gendered social norms also interfere with women’s participation in training programs. Amongst the training sponsored by the Ministry of Commerce, there are no entrepreneurship promotion programs specifically targeted at women (73), leaving women to overcome the same gendered social norms around participation in public space and speaking up in gender-combined spaces in order to access the support programs that are offered. Training sessions may be inconveniently located relative to women’s homes (74), or may be held in public spaces that aren’t as open to women’s participation. In addition, women’s additional workload in the home and lack of free time compared to their male peers may make consistent attendance in training sessions more difficult (53) and KII, CSOs).

Most extension agents or workers responsible for local economic development trainings and processes are male, which can mean that they prefer to pass on information only to men due to conscious or unconscious gender bias (18,81,82); women’s husbands will often prevent them from participating in training sessions because of jealousy (Ministry of Agriculture). Offering female-only or female-led economic empowerment programs can overcome some of the inherent gender biases that limit women’s participation. For example, in a sustainable land management project, the use of female
representatives as trainers led to increases in women’s awareness of pit planting farming techniques and adoption of the technology (82).

Limited membership in professional associations and lack of leadership positions for women in these associations

The same social norms may limit women’s ability to participate in professional associations, despite a legal and policy environment designed to encourage their membership. The regulation of local bodies in Mozambique requires local councils to have at least 30% representation of women, and this regulation has been interpreted to apply to other associations as well. Despite this regulation, few associations have achieved this goal. Mozambique has various types of formal, semi-formal, and informal economic and social associations but many businesswomen are not aware of women’s entrepreneurship associations or of the benefits that come from membership (73). Those women who are members of professional associations typically do not occupy positions of power (KII, Ministry).

Greater opportunities are needed for adolescent girls and young women

As is frequently seen with intersecting vulnerabilities, adolescent women face multiple barriers to entry into the workforce and economic activity based not only on their gender, but also on their age. These barriers are compounded by the previously discussed gender inequalities in education and health care, as well as harmful traditional practices such as child, early, and forced marriage and by entrenched social and gender norms that undervalue the contributions of adolescents and young women to their communities and societies.

Multiple programs to engage and empower girls and young women are operational in Mozambique, including through the Ministry of Youth and Sport and the National Institute of Youth, as well as civil society led initiatives through Muva the Instituto de Emprego e Formação Profissional, and Forum Mulher. These programs focus on professional, financial literacy, workforce skills and entrepreneurship for adolescents and young women, aiming to prevent harm and empower them for future full participation in the economy and society (KII, CSO). In particular, the interlinkages between child, early, and forced marriage, school drop-out, early and unintended pregnancy, and lack of economic opportunities should drive further investment in creating alternative education, workforce skills development, and livelihood generation activities for young married women and young mothers.

Women lack wage employment opportunities, particularly in the formal sector.

Gender inequalities persist once women have entered the workforce. The labor law of Mozambique provides women with 60 days paid maternity leave at 100% of their wages, but as only 11% of women are part of the non-agricultural paid labor force in Mozambique it is unclear how many women benefit from this legislation (83). Women work primarily in the agricultural or in the informal sector in Mozambique where women make up 59% of informal workers in Mozambique (KII, Donor), (73). Formal or higher paid wage labor opportunities are often monopolized by men (18), while women are either pushed into lower wage-earning roles. For example, in cashew factories, research has found that women workers are perceived as being less skilled than their peers who are men and are consequently assigned to lower-paying tasks, despite working longer hours (84). Lower wages for women are justified by social perception that women are “secondary earners” (33). In times of economic hardship, as when cashew factories have been closed due to political instability or diseased cashew trees, job losses are
more pronounced among female workers, who have a harder time finding new employment, while men are prioritized for paid opportunities (81).

While Mozambique has made strides in laws and policies to protect women’s employment, sexual harassment in work settings, particularly in trans-border business contexts, remains a barrier to women’s full participation (2 KIl’s, CSOs). The Ministry of Justice has created cabinets to support women and families in police stations, but incidents of sexual harassment and violence remain under-reported, and victims are frequently blamed or stigmatized and risk losing their opportunity to continue working. Civil society groups have called for a public forum to address incidents of violence and harassment, in particular focused on what happens at the border (2 KIl’s, CSOs). Some evidence exists to show that investments in grassroots-led women’s economic cooperation programs like the Movimento Moçambicana de Mulheres Rurais (the Mozambican Movement of Rural Women), may improve women’s access to informal employment, but more research is needed on how community cooperatives can be supported and scaled up through government investment and legislation.

Migration of men for new economic opportunities has had both positive and negative implications

The increase in men’s migration for new economic opportunities in recent years has both positive and negative implications for women’s empowerment and economic engagement. Men’s migration history and current migration status are positively associated with women’s increased autonomy, and the effects on autonomy may persist even after the man’s return (78). Women’s autonomy increases in terms of their mobility, consumption, production, and even health when husbands migrate for employment (13), and some evidence shows improvements in women’s influence on their community and ability to take on community leadership during men’s absence. For example, in the Mapai-Ngale community, where migration is more frequent and intense than in most communities, the National Organization of Mozambican Women (OMM) has gained a better position in local decision-making structures (13). However, in studies from the opening of the ruby mines (garimpos) in 2012-2016, when Mozambique received large influxes of workers from Mali, Senegal, Tanzania, and Malawi, negative health and social effects were observed among women and girls in the communities receiving migrant workers. The larger concentration of “unattached” male workers who had money to spend in the community contributed to an increase in unintended pregnancies, child, early and forced marriage, and separations (KII, CSO). One CSO informant familiar with the mines said that when workers were returned to headquarters or to their home countries, communities were left with large concentrations of newly single mothers.

Recommendations for USAID/Mozambique’s Future Programming in Economic Growth

Mozambique is paying dearly for the high levels of gender inequality manifested in agriculture and employment. The systematic exclusion of women from the material, financial, knowledge and social resources necessary to be successful agriculturalists impedes the country’s economic potential and increases the country’s vulnerability to a variety of climatic and economic shocks. Further, the remarkable contributions to Mozambique’s economy made by informal traders—mukheristas—are held back by the lack of accountability among men in transport and customs through whose clutches these women must maneuver to carry out their business. Better public transportation in rural areas would help to improve accountability so that women would not be as vulnerable to the whims of Chapas owners. The formal sector, where comparatively few women are employed, is no better in terms of
attending to women’s advancement and gender equality. There is no question that gender inequality in agriculture and employment is profoundly costly to Mozambique’s economy.

Below are recommendations that address agriculture obstacles at the individual/household, community, institutional, and public policy levels.

**Individual and household levels**

- Train and support (with credit, information) women in the markets as entrepreneurs who would like to grow their businesses.
- Establish vocational training programs where girls who are not in school can receive education about entrepreneurship and financial literacy.
- Empower women through education and awareness building to have a voice in consultations to talk about water, health, and social issues, and men to think about the long-term benefits of women’s engagement.
- Develop alternative livelihood opportunities for GBV survivors and girls in child marriage.

**Community level**

- Support women’s economic empowerment programs to enable women to negotiate, make decisions about their lives and business.
- Increase women’s access to financial services via savings groups and cooperatives.
- Encourage more banks to create packages for women, like BIM, BCI, Standard Bank and Barclays have done.
- The UN Women WEE program organizes workshops and invites the BCI bank to talk to women about opening bank accounts and they come prepared to help women open accounts on the spot. This could be something USAID can also do as part of their GEFE programs.
- Provide more opportunities for women to access education in their local languages because rural women are less likely than men to speak Portuguese; ultimately, they should also learn Portuguese, but should be given some opportunity to learn in their mother tongue.
- Support technical assistance and training of women-run small and medium enterprises.
- Strengthen the export certification system so more women can qualify to export their products.
- Identify, strengthen and work with women’s associations and cooperatives as platforms to develop entrepreneurship skills and increase product diversification in the marketplace. Market linkages can only be made when women farmers produce in high volumes (as collectives when this is not possible individually) or if what they are selling is unique and thus has a high demand.
- Consider adapting a version of the Danida Business-to-Business Program (B2B) that would focus entirely on female entrepreneurs. In addition to training and capacity building, the program would pair female entrepreneurs with partners in the US who could help to build and connect with the markets to sell their goods.
- Develop and illustrate examples of what a successful woman looks like in Mozambique so that young women have role models who encourage them to fulfill their potential.
• Encourage conversation via call-in radio shows and larger social behavior change campaigns.

• Establish crèches or pre-schools to create jobs and free women up to work for money. USAID funded activities that involve women working outside of their home should provide a small fund to establish a simple day care facility that would create a safe space for women to leave their children while they work. Feed the Future could be a good platform for piloting this program.

**Institutional level**

• Reinforce “gender focal points,” individuals who are tasked with integrating gender into the work of their ministry, across the ministries to be able to create networks at the district level. Involve them in activities and capacity building and provide tools so they can promote gender equality such as a monthly gender digest.

• Share information about the procurement law and value chains with women’s organizations so they can train more women.

• Support professional technical institutes to have entry quotas for girls in non-traditional areas such as science, technology, engineering, and mathematics.

• Support the private sector to link youth to potential employers.

• Establish quotas in supply chains for goods and services purchased by implementing partners and private sector partners that mandates at least 30% of their supplies should come from organizations owned or led by women.

**Public policy level**

• Support the Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources to increase the number of Land Use Titles in the name of women. They need to raise awareness at the community level about how women can gain access to these land titles.

• Advocate for the integration of gender in the National Investment Plan, particularly in the Agricultural Sector.

• Reinforce the Workers Law that already has a chapter about gender equality.

• Integrate gender into the Mining Law and develop a gender strategy for the extractive industry. Establish best practices and regulations that protect women when selling their goods either by setting standard prices or making strong gender policies that will give women more leverage when bargaining with buyers so they will not be undercut when selling gold and semiprecious stones.

• Strengthen ties with UN Women and UNDP in creating equal job opportunities for women to participate in the extractive sectors in Mozambique.

• Institutionalize gender in the Ministry of Agriculture and Food Safety.

• Consider the demographic dividend in planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation to create policies that reduce the number of children.

• Create regulation that allows communities, civil society, and women to play a role in the monitoring of their communities especially in relation to the extractive industry.
• Support the development of a national strategy to promote small- and medium-sized businesses, entrepreneurship, and the incubation of start-ups.

• Establish a system to report sexual harassment in the workplace.

• Propose establishing a law that would support women owned companies. This could also be a vehicle for institutionalizing a quota policy that would require at least 30% of goods and services to be procured from organizations owned and led by women.
5. DEMOCRACY AND GOVERNANCE

Democracy and governance represent an overarching challenge in Mozambique, not just in politics, and gender inequality is a major democracy and governance problem. In general, the sector-specific gender strategies make mention of the need to incentivize and promote the presence and participation of women in decision-making processes. Also, in general, these strategies fall short in not establishing objectives or in not having their own indicators that they will work to achieve. Thus, they convey some political will, but lack mechanisms and instruments for how to achieve these desires and principles (see Annex D for policy context).

Description of Pertinent Data on Gender Inequality in Democracy and Governance

Men hold positions of traditional power in the Mozambican society, predominating as politicians, spiritual leaders, business leaders and school heads. The percentage of seats held by women in the Mozambican parliament increased significantly between 1997 and 2003, and reached 39.6% in 2017 (12). It is important to note that members of parliament are appointed and not elected. A number of parliamentary leadership positions are held by women, including the President of the Assembly of the Republic. Currently, women hold seven ministerial positions including the Minister of Justice, the Environment, Mineral Resources, Labor, and the Minister of Women and Coordination of Social Action, and three deputy ministerial positions. Over one-quarter of Provincial Governors are female, including the Governor of Maputo Province and Maputo City. Governors are also appointed by the President.

Despite the numbers of women in leadership positions at the federal and central levels, far fewer women are involved in leadership at the provincial and district levels (as demonstrated below in Box 5-1) (85). Fórum Mulher, a highly regarded civil society women’s rights organization, noted that Mozambique ranks 14th in the world with regard to the representation of women in parliament (39.6%), but called attention to the large disparity in women’s and men’s representation in local institutions, authorities, and provincial assemblies (85). Data from the most recent electoral results indicate that only five women are leaders in the 53 existing municipalities in the country. Changes in election legislation have created challenges for reaching gender parity in the current political system. One problematic example is the current law of local authorities. It uses the head-of-the-list system to guide elections, inherently biasing the voting process as men’s names are clustered at the top of the candidate lists. By convention, men’s names are listed first, followed by all women’s names, rather than the recommended “zebra” approach, which would alternate them (KII, CSO).

While Box 5-1 shows the overall level of women’s participation across levels of government in 2017, Table 5-1 shows the dramatic increase in women’s participation in provincial assemblies over the ten-year period between 2004-2009 and 2014-2019.
Box 5-1. Downward gradient in women’s political representation from central level to district level

- Executive level (president of the Republic, prime minister, ministers and vice ministers)—of the 42 positions, 15 are occupied by women (36%)
- Central departments (permanent secretaries, national directors, deputy national directors, heads of department, division heads, secretariat heads, and provincial service heads)—of the 2,364 positions, 948 are occupied by women (40%)
- At the level of provincial government (provincial directors, deputy provincial directors, heads of department, division heads, section heads, secretariat heads, and provincial service heads)—of the 3,175 positions, 1,047 are occupied by women (33%)
- At the level of district government (district directors, deputy district directors, department heads, division heads, secretariat heads, and heads of district services)—of the 1,782 positions, 380 are occupied by women (21%)
- At the level of municipalities:
  - Municipal presidents—of the 53 positions, only 5 are women (9.4%)
  - Municipal assemblies—of the 53 positions, only 5 are occupied by women (9.4%)
  - Members of municipal assemblies—of the 1,196 positions, 450 are occupied by women (37.6%)
- At the level of legislative powers: There are 250 representatives, of which 97 are women (38.8%)

Source: Ministério de Género, Criança e Acção Social, “Mulheres e homens nos órgãos de poder e tomada de decisão e noutras profissões em 2017” (86)

Table 5-1. Representation of women at various levels of the political system, 2004-2009 & 2014-2019

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No. of women</td>
<td>No. of men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National bodies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>President of the National Assembly</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deputy</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Majority leaders (chefes das bancadas)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permanent Commission</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presidents of the Provincial Assemblies</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Members of the Provincial Assemblies</td>
<td>801</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>801</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local authorities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipal presidents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presidents of municipal assemblies</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Members of municipal assemblies</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>746</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Fórum Mulher, 2015 (87)

Women are significantly less likely to register to vote than men in Mozambique but the gap goes away once we control for socioeconomic characteristics (88). Women are also less likely to participate in collective action or to contact politicians or political institutions; these differences likewise are no longer significant once socioeconomic characteristics are controlled for. In sum, women’s personal
socioeconomic conditions are sufficiently worse than men’s that they are expressed in their political engagement by various measures.

One theme that emerged from the KIIs on Democracy and Governance was the need to encourage political parties to integrate gender more effectively, since the core of politics and governance in Mozambique revolves around political parties. In this context, it is worth mentioning that two processes are currently underway that are extremely important and relevant: (1) the process of decentralization, and (2), the revision of the Electoral Law.

These two processes have resulted from discussions that were held between the President of the Republic, Filipe Nyusi, and the deceased leader of the Mozambique National Resistance (RENAMO), Afonso Dhlakama, in an effort to achieve peace. These processes have fallen short, however, in having involved only the two major parties, RENAMO and the Mozambique Liberation Front (FRELIMO).

In the view of our key informants, the peace process should involve all actors including other political parties, civil society, and the population more broadly.

As the decentralization process proceeds, the Law of Local Government Bodies has established the political guidance that all governance-related institutions at the local level must include at least 30% women (Law on Local State Bodies, nº 8/2003, Ministry of Gender). This is an important requirement since, as indicated above, the participation of women needs especially to be cultivated at the local level and in districts and municipalities. Regarding the Electoral Law, a recent study has proposed that a gender review be conducted of the lists of the political parties that are putting forward candidates in the next elections ((89) and KII, CSO).

The number of women in leadership positions is a useful indicator, though it does not reveal much about the decision-making process and how much women are able to influence and intervene in the political process. KIIs with representatives of four different CSOs mentioned the skepticism they observe about how women contribute to the political life of the country. In addition, issues of democracy and governance are not limited to the explicitly political institutions of the state. Women’s participation in associations, cooperatives churches and other groups provide additional opportunities for solidarity and voice (90).

**Review of Government Sector-Level Advances and Legal and Policy Frameworks for Gender Equality in Democracy and Governance**

Relevant policies and laws are summarized in Table 5-2.

**Table 5-2. Democracy and governance-related policies of relevance to gender equality**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy or Law</th>
<th>Implications for gender equality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Southern African Development Community Protocol on Gender and Development adopted by Mozambique</td>
<td>Article 12 stated that all member countries should guarantee, by 2015, that at least 50% of decision-making positions in public and private sectors would be occupied by women.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Gender Strategy and its Implementation Strategy, Area 2 on Governance        | Highlights the importance of:  
  - Building the capacity of male and especially female officials/leaders for an effective participation in decision-making processes |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy or Law</th>
<th>Implications for gender equality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| \(\text{Estratégia de Género da Função Pública 2009 - 2013 (not yet updated)}\) | \(
-\) Strengthening, through quotas, the proportional and equitable representation of women and men in all decision-making bodies of the government, especially at the local level  
- Introducing legislative means to ensure the equitable inclusion of women in top positions in the electoral lists of the political parties and groups of citizens and in decision-making bodies |
| \(\text{Lei Eleitoral}\) | \(
-\) Encourages the promotion of a more balanced participation of men and women in decision-making processes at all levels and recommends the development of information and sensitization campaigns that are targeted to officials and open to the public, with the purpose of changing attitudes and behaviors and of valuing a balanced participation in decision making  
- Highlights the need to adopt a quota for women in the Electoral Legislation and requirement by law that the political parties achieve a greater inclusion of women (e.g., “Zebra System” where names alternate by sex)  
- Adopt strategies that favor the recruitment of women for Polling Stations |
| \(\text{Plano Quinquenal do Governo (PQG), 2015-2019}\) | \(
-\) States that the government should:  
- Promote the empowerment of women, children and vulnerable groups; they deserve special attention so that the development of basic capacities for future generations can be secured  
- Give special attention to matters related to women and youth, especially having to do with access to shelter, employment, agriculture and industrialization |

Source: Table compiled by Iris Group for this report

Gender-related institutions exist to support women’s full participation in society

Multiple government bodies in Mozambique have been tasked with gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls. The Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Welfare (MGCAS) is the government body responsible for gender equality writ large (87), while the National Directorate for Women (DNM) is responsible for programs to support and empower women. Under MGCAS, the Directorate General for Women’s Affairs is the primary program implementer, and the National Council for Promoting Women (CNAM) is the mechanism for engagement with official organizations, NGOs, the private sector, and religious officials (33). CNAM promotes and monitors the implementation of the government’s gender policies—especially the National Plan for the Advancement of Women Plano Nacional para o Avanço da Mulher or PNAM) and the National Gender Strategy (PGEI) (33). DNM, which since 1999 has been largely financed by UNFPA (2), works through two departments: the Department for Women and Family and the Department for Gender and Development.

Overall, the institutional capabilities of MGCAS, DNM, and CNAM are not consistently solid, and there is a strong need for institutional support and capacity building, particularly at the provincial level (33). Recently, an additional office for the Care of Women and Children was also created in the Police Department to address ongoing violence and lack of support for victims of domestic and intimate partner violence (33).

On the civil society side, in addition to CNAM, Forum Mulher is the coordinating agency for CSOs dedicated to women’s rights and women’s economic and political empowerment (33). The Gender Coordination Group (GCG) collects and shares information about donor activities and funding to
support gender equality. Mozambique has a longstanding and active women’s movement, particularly organized around women’s economic and political empowerment, and the women’s wing of FRELIMO, the Organization of Mozambican Women (OMM), has also been active (33).

Laws promoting gender equality

Gender equity was established as a priority in Articles 36 and 122 of the 1990 Constitution (91). When the Constitution was revised in 2004, reinforcements were added for gender equality as it relates to other human rights and freedoms (92). In addition to the Constitution, Mozambique has reinforced gender equality in other laws, including the Family Law, Law on Violence against Women, Revision of the Penal Code, Law of Land Ownership, and the Decriminalization of Abortion, as KIs with representatives of CSOs stated. In addition, PGEI was approved by the Council of Ministers in 2006 and takes forward many of the critical concerns of the previous PNAM (33).

Many of the laws in Mozambique have explicitly codified gender equality, particularly equal standing in families and in marriage. In the Family Law of 2004, husbands and wives share equal standing as heads of households and as parents (33), while in the case of divorce, the law requires that husbands pay child support and allows for equal splitting of assets (91). In other provisions related to equality within marriages, the law established a legal minimum age of marriage of 18 for both men and women (91), and requires: (a) that customary or religious marriages must be registered with civil authorities; (b) that de facto marriages be recognized as legal; and (c) that all children have equal inheritance and legal rights (33). The law also codifies gender equality in property ownership, which directly influences land rights for rural women (91). In addition to the Family Law, the Domestic Violence Bill of 2009 banned violence against women and criminalized domestic violence and rape (91).

Gender Equality Challenges in Democracy and Governance

Discriminatory laws persist

Despite considerable progress in laws and policies supporting gender equality, discriminatory laws continue to persist, even amongst those targeted at equality. In general, laws seem to confer equal rights, but still privilege men’s ability to access and claim their rights: for example, despite the provisions in the family law that allow for equal inheritance, the Law of Succession and the Family Law still contain articles that disadvantage women compared to men. Women’s rights within marriage, especially when it comes to freedom from violence, still need better articulation. Despite the advances of the Domestic Violence Bill, Article 37 of the Mozambique constitution is unclear about spousal violence. Further, in the penal code, the punishment for rape within marriage is only two to six years, whereas it is two to eight years outside of marriage (93). There is also an ongoing lack of training and sensitivity on gender issues among the police that prevents the enforcement of penalties for domestic violence (93).

Outside marriage and family law, anti-discrimination and gender equality provisions are even weaker: while Article 3 of the Constitution prohibits discrimination, it fails to provide an operational definition for discrimination, rendering it effectively unenforceable (33). The government has failed to include provisions for equality and non-discrimination in other pieces of legislation, leading to ongoing and unprosecuted discrimination in access to public services (93). Laws and policies supporting women in balancing domestic and public responsibilities, and supporting women’s engagement in public life, are weak and unenforced (KII, CSO). Discriminatory laws and provisions in the area of sexual orientation,
access to services, and women’s economic participation are still found in the Constitution, the Family Law, and elsewhere (KII, Donor).

Weak implementation of laws that do promote gender equality

Even where laws do exist, their implementation has been challenging and inconsistent (93). In particular, laws are infrequently enforced in rural areas, as informants from six different civil society organizations highlighted, and many women lack awareness of their rights under the Mozambique Constitution and associated laws (33). Despite being a signatory to, and having ratified, multiple international agreements including the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women and the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People’s Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (Maputo Protocol), the government has not translated these commitments into national law and policies (93).

Traditional roles and responsibilities for women inhibit their political participation and leadership

One key barrier to women’s participation in public life and national decision-making is the traditional roles assigned to men and women by patriarchal social norms in Mozambique. Women continue to be relegated to the secondary and exclusive role of homemaker and caretaker in the domestic sphere (KII, CSO), while men continue to be seen as the provider of resources and the decision-makers, not only in the home but also in the community (KII, CSO). Social norms that only value women for their reproductive capacity and potential (KII, CSO) combine with negative cultural practices to inhibit the participation of women in public spaces (KII, Donor).

Advances in women’s participation are frequently met with backlash (two KII, CSOs) and resistance. The policy mandating 30% participation of women in local councils and associations has been met with resistance, in particular with respect to accepting young women into political life, public decision-making, and political parties (KII, CSO). Mozambique’s patriarchal culture inhibits the advancement of gender equality even though women occupy some political positions, which may also be affected by party loyalty and party resistance to women’s participation (94). Women who are engaged in public life have to be superstars, facing prejudices and unfavorable myths at every turn (KII, CSO).

Lack of leadership positions for women and poor linkages between female leaders and their constituents

Mozambique has one of the highest female parliamentary representations not only in Africa, but in the world, at 39.2% (95). As noted above, however, representation at the national level has not translated into local government (96). Despite the government commitment to 30% representation on local councils, women only make up 10% of community tribunals (33). In addition, women’s representation in politics has not been matched with similar advances in the private, media, and academic sectors, where women occupy only 17.8%, 19.1%, and 17.5% of leadership positions, respectively (95). CSOs seem to be the most promising force to overcome the existing gender inequalities and to improve the engagement of women in political decision-making positions, leading to greater empowerment of women as a whole (94).
Women who do run for political office or take part in political life frequently find themselves faced with prejudices and gender inequalities within decision-making bodies and political parties. The political system reinforces gender dynamics that revolve around machismo and male privilege, giving men more access to power and to leadership opportunities (KII, CSO). Women who do pursue leadership within political parties or decision-making bodies frequently do so by adopting patriarchal attitudes and political positions that sustain gender inequalities, rather than via feminist or women-centered platforms; this assertion was made in many KII meetings, including an event organized by the Canadian and French embassies on International Women’s Day 2019. Additionally, those women who do reach leadership positions are frequently beneficiaries of other forms of privilege, such as greater access to education, personal wealth, or relationships with powerful men, and can be disconnected from the needs and experiences of local or less advantaged women. Few or weak linkages exist between women in political leadership roles and other women’s and local women’s organizations (3 KIIs, CSOs).

**Women lack decision-making power at all levels**

Overall, women’s lack of decision-making power extends from the household to community to national level. And even when women are at the table, they may not have voice. Men are considered “household heads,” even in the articulation of the Lei das Autarquias, which makes it harder for women to exercise decision-making power at home (KII, CSO). Men’s decision-making also extends to the political process, as women in rural areas are afraid of voting differently from their husbands, restricting their free expression of and participation in democracy (KII, CSO). In community and political meetings, men are given the right to speak frequently at the expense of women’s time, and women and women’s concerns are set aside. Questions remain about the quality of women’s participation in decision-making roles, and the level of control exercised over their votes and speeches by their political parties and male colleagues (KII, CSO).

**Lack of knowledge and awareness of their rights and existing resources among women**

Access to information, education, and technology is core to women’s awareness and exercise of their rights, including the right to political participation. As discussed previously, women’s access to education still lags behind their male peers in Mozambique, in particular at higher levels of education. Women still have limited access to education, information, employment, and decision-making, and both men and women have limited awareness of the importance of gender equality (experts from two civil society organizations). In particular, women’s access to the Internet and new technologies is weak compared to men’s (KII, CSO). Information technologies are seen as something made for men, and the cost is frequently prohibitive for women who control few household or private resources. Without access to Internet and information technologies, rural and other women are dependent on what few gender equality messages they can access through traditional education and media outreach, which have been limited.

**Institutional barriers for women**

Systemic and institutional barriers to women’s participation are widespread in Mozambique. In the political sphere, political parties do not invest in developing deeper fields of female candidates (KII, CSO), leaving access limited to those women who are already entrenched in patriarchal systems of power or who have been coopted or corrupted by the system (KII, CSO). Women’s human rights are seen as controversial or unimportant and are silenced by systems of power (KII, CSO). Across both
political and other institutions, strong bureaucratic norms and hierarchies present barriers to women’s access (KII, CSO), and lack of linkages and integration between services across development sectors present a roadblock to women who have limited time and resources (KII, CSO). Access to funding is similarly complex, and donor approaches that favor elite women and established women’s institutions make it difficult for more localized and grassroots women’s movements to access resources (KII, CSO).

USAID’s investment in the Parceria Cívica Para Boa Governação (PCBG) project, being implemented by Counterpart International, runs from 2016 to 2020. As noted in the introduction to this section, the work in Democracy and Governance has important impacts on the functioning of government and public institutions across sectors. PCBG has built the capacity of 8 civil society organizations for conducting advocacy across the sectors of education, extractive industries, health, good governance, and biodiversity conservation—to advocate for their sector-specific advocacy needs.

**Recommendations for USAID/Mozambique’s Future Programming in Democracy and Governance**

Democracy and Governance has been treated as a separate sector in this Gender Assessment. Yet it is clear from speaking with donor, government and civil society representatives across all of the sectors that weak democracy and governance are fundamentally linked to gender inequality in Mozambique. Activities to increase women’s voice, representation, participation and contributions are sorely needed and could improve the quality of investments across the sectors. The marginalization of half of Mozambique’s population from full participation in dynamic national, provincial and local conversations about the future can only limit the country’s progress. Yes, women are most harmed by their exclusion from democratic processes and from demanding their rights, but the failure to include their perspectives is short-sighted and will have long-term consequences for Mozambique’s democracy and the health and wellbeing of its institutions across sectors.

Below are recommendations that address democracy and governance obstacles for women at the individual, community, institutional, and public policy levels:

**Individual level**

- Strengthen women’s awareness of good laws by supporting prosecution or highlighting cases where the punishment fits the crime and consequences occur.
- Support economic empowerment for women and girls who are victims of GBV, since their vulnerability derives in part from their economic dependence.
- Support civil registration and the vital statistics system as they form a core aspect of citizenship and identity as a full citizen. Other donors are working in this area, and it is key to democracy and governance and an important backdrop to USAID’s work in this sector.
- Promote individual women’s sense of self-worth to reduce feelings of helplessness and disempowerment. This sort of empowerment could be incorporated into programs in combination with larger campaigns that reinforce this message, as in the BHEARD/AWARD intervention in the agriculture sector.
Community level

- Support the training, mobilization and sensitization of Community Leaders (traditional and religious leaders, matronas) to shift the lessons delivered during the initiation rites for adolescent girls. Instead of focusing on what they need to do to please their future husbands, they could address how to build healthy and equitable relationships and avoid intimate partner violence.
- Provide training to the committees and councils on which women are represented to ensure women’s voice and participation, including local Management Committees and School Councils. Target mothers of children in school so they can become active and strong members of their local School Councils.
- Reach and engage rural women, through more partnerships with associations such as the Movimento Moçambicana de Mulheres Rurais.

Institutional level

- Support institutional gender mechanisms that move the State to greater accountability and monitoring of its work on gender.
- Promote forms of direct democracy and engagement of citizens—transforming hospitals, schools and other basic services into democratic spaces, to achieve excellence.
- Reinforce messaging to women that voting matters, their voice counts, and that their voting record will remain confidential.
- Promote the integration of gender equality into the School Curriculum and other school programs.
- Work on shifting specific aspects of culture and tradition within institutions, including:
  - Deconstructing the concepts of masculinity and femininity and supporting organizations that work on these themes.
  - Challenge harmful traditional practices with programs that work through schools and youth associations as well as with community leaders and parent groups.
- Reinforce investment in, particularly in rural areas, bringing female role models who can serve as good examples for other women in communities.

Public policy level

- Support the Government of Mozambique (through each of the specific relevant ministries) through funding and technical assistance with specialists who could define strategies, objectives and indicators in each of the sectoral gender policies, so that these can stop simply demonstrating will and principles but will be acted upon. Once planning and development starts for the government’s new Five-Year Plan, the moment will be right for this type of support, focusing on objectives and indicators for each sector.
- Support the finalization of revisions to the Family Law and Inheritance Law, both currently before the National Assembly.
- Through civil society advocacy and donor influence, encourage the GRM to review the “head-of-the-list” system in the Electoral Law, so that women’s names are put forward fairly with men’s.
• Design an action plan to implement the GRM’s Gender Policy and its Implementation Strategy. The plan requires funding, objectives and indicators as well as a monitoring plan for implementation, taking into account international and regional commitments to gender equality.

• Support revision of the Law against Domestic Violence and strengthen the respective mechanisms of implementing the law, working with the recently created Fórum dos Magistrados que Actuam no Âmbito da Violência Doméstica (FONAMAVID). This work should include building the health sector’s capacity to track implementation and to respond to GBV by establishing a database of perpetrators of GBV and homicide and training agents in the Gabinetes de Atendimento à Mulher e Criança and other units that assist women and girls who are victims of violence.

• Support the approval of the Law against Child Marriage recently brought before the National Assembly, and the implementation and monitoring of the National Strategy.
6. ENVIRONMENT, NATURAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AND BIODIVERSITY

Description of Pertinent Data on Gender Inequality in Environment, Natural Resource Management and Biodiversity

Mozambique is one of the countries in sub-Saharan Africa that is likely to be hardest hit by climate change due to its geographical location and configuration (13). With frequent storms and intense flooding, the country’s long coastline (2,700 km) makes Mozambique one of the two African countries most vulnerable to climate change, and one of the five most vulnerable in the world. Indeed, the Climate Change Vulnerability Index produced by Maplecroft in 2011 ranked Mozambique as the fifth most at-risk country in the world (97). It is the third most vulnerable country to disaster risks, according the 2013 Global Assessment Report on Disaster Risk Reduction (98). Indeed, since this document was first drafted, Beira and surrounding areas were severely damaged by Cyclone Idai, likely redirecting a portion of USAID investments to the humanitarian crisis that will continue to unfold over the coming years.

Over the past 15 years, a growing appreciation of poor women’s vulnerability to climate change and environmental fragility has emerged (13,99). Droughts have required men and women to work much harder in agriculture to produce the same amount of food and crops to sell (99). As a consequence, senior male members of the household (and not just young men) have increasingly been migrating within Mozambique or to South Africa (for those living in the south). One result of this is that women have been taking up male roles, engaging in income generation, and have less time for household tasks, leaving children more often on their own (100). Still, men’s absence makes women more active in local community structures, even though these tend to be male dominated. As Ribeiro and Chauque (2010) state, “Given the fact that women know environment’s state-of-the-art better than men (they know where to collect water, where to go when someone gets sick, the best places to cultivate and graze animals) stronger women position represent an advantage to cope with the effects of climate change.”

The gender assessment conducted for the CDCS process in 2013 observed that Mozambique is “about to experience a monumental economic transformation that will affect the country and its people in an unprecedented way” (101). In the North and West of Mozambique, large deposits of coal and natural gas were discovered a few years ago, and the institutions and mechanisms for extracting those resources are being established. Estimates suggest that Mozambique could earn revenues as much as $400 to $500 billion over the next twenty-five years.

Mozambique also has great potential for eco-tourism-driven economic activity (102,103). According to civil society KIIIs, however, poor governance, corruption and a weak commitment to solving the obstacles to eco-tourism mean that the country has not emerged as the destination that other countries in the region have (104). As these opportunities are explored, it is important to consider who will benefit and support efforts that will benefit communities (105).

Even as these economic opportunities expand, people’s—especially women’s—access to land is being restricted. Along the coast, applications for land rights are being requested for tourism; farmers’ fields are being invaded; the land law is not well known in communities (106,107).
Review of the Government’s Sector-Level Advances and Legal and Policy Frameworks for Gender Quality in Environment, Natural Resources Management, and Biodiversity

USAID’s investments in environment, climate change and biodiversity (totaling 4% of its portfolio in Mozambique) have focused on three projects in recent years, as the box below shows.

Box 6-1. Major USAID investments in environment, natural resources management, and biodiversity

- Integrated Gorongosa Park and Buffer Zone
- Ecosystem Conservation Systems, Markets, and Tourism (ECOSMART)
- Coastal City Adaptation Project

Source: Investment inventory, 2017 (16)

First, the Integrated Gorongosa Park and Buffer Zone has successfully worked to protect Gorongosa Park and engage people who live around it in environmentally sound livelihoods. USAID’s support for ECOSMART Project involves a partnership with Wildlife Conservation Society and the three tourism operators in Niassa Park to strengthen government planning, monitoring and law enforcement, and has also worked with the 40,000 people who live in the park to promote income generation and revenue sharing of the proceeds of tourism. USAID’s investment in Democracy and Governance through the Parceria Cívica Para Boa Governação (PCBG) project has provided support for two legislative processes of great relevance for this sector: one focused on regulating extractive industries, and the other, the biodiversity conservation act, that together could have important effects on livelihoods and the environment. The Coastal City Adaptation Project is working with two vulnerable cities along the coastline, Pemba and Quelimane, to improve municipal planning processes and adapt to climate change.

Mozambique created the first-ever Environment and Climate Change Strategy and Action plan in early 2010 with UNIFEM (now UN Women) (108). With a National Climate Change Adaptation and Mitigation Strategy (ENAMMC) produced in 2012, Mozambique’s Ministry for Coordination of Environmental Affairs invited IUCN to facilitate a process to update and enhance its gender-responsive climate action plan accordingly (108). These relevant policies and strategies are summarized in Table 6-1.

Table 6-1. Environment, NRM, and biodiversity-related policies of relevance to gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy or Law</th>
<th>Implications for Gender Equality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender Policy in the Environmental Sector</td>
<td>Recommends the participation, training and capacity building of women and the creation of conditions for the participation of women in community consultations, risk management committees, natural resource management committees, committees for natural disaster management and interest groups. The policy proposes increasing the number of women in the Environment sector from the central to the local level, and on natural resource management committees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Climate Change Adaptation and Mitigation Strategy (ENAMMC), 2012</td>
<td>This strategy was the impetus for Mozambique’s Ministry for Coordination of Environmental Affairs to work with International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) to facilitate the updating and enhancement of its gender-responsive action plan.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Table compiled by Iris Group for this report.
Gender Equality Challenges in Environment, Natural Resources Management, and Biodiversity

Environmental pressures have brought about gendered social change in Mozambique

Successive droughts and floods have increased men’s migration (109). As a consequence, women’s role in productive work has increased considerably in the last two years, shifting their time away from their more traditional roles within the household (13). For example, women’s participation in alcoholic drink brewing in Mapai-Ngale and fisheries-related work in Magondzwene has increased over the past two years (14). In Inhambane, during this drought cycle, many men have not returned to their household at the close of seasonal work nor sent remittances to cover household expenses (101). There is also a new trend for women to migrate, leaving behind children in the care of grandparents. When asked, 70% of men and women state their migration is due to lack of food, drought conditions or lack of water (14).

With the onset of the drought in 2018, many families have also used child marriage as a coping mechanism to raise income (through payment of a bride price) or to reduce the number of dependents per household (14). This increase in child marriage has left many girls at risk of sexual and physical abuse, poor nutrition and increased chance of maternal neonatal death (14).

During the onset of the 2016 drought, 91.9% of the female-headed households did not have adequate food provisions generated in the 4-month agricultural season to meet household consumption needs beyond 11 months (14). Within the drought-affected communities, most of the younger adolescent mothers interviewed were unable to identify short, medium or long-term strategies to address their basic needs. These women were fully focused on meeting consumption shortfalls within an immediate 24-hour window and had no contingencies in place to address longer-term shortfalls (14).

Before the drought, women spent up to two hours per day collecting water for household consumption. The extended drought has meant women have had to spend in excess of six hours searching for and transporting water (14). Younger girls are asked to drop out of school to help. During the water collection activities, girls are facing increased risk of confrontations with wild animals and GBV. Most girls interviewed in this study were no longer attending school due to work commitments and unplanned pregnancies (14).

Despite these impacts, gender is largely an afterthought in the environment sector

The Administração Nacional das Areas de Conservação (ANAC) has not explicitly addressed gender in its work. However, in 2010 the Ministry of Environment created the Strategy of Gender, Environment and Climate Change, which calls for integration of women in the management of natural resources (110). But as interviews with representatives of the Ministry of the Environment and civil society organizations highlighted, these activities need to be integrated into the National Plan, which would specify budget to pay for implementing them (111) (KII, CSO and Government). A representative from the Ministry of the Environment expressed appreciation for the Gender Policy for creating a mandate for this sector (and all others) to work on gender. The Policy is more general and doesn’t require sectoral strategies, but each sector has nonetheless been motivated to respond by addressing gender in their sector. Mining has enormous impact on environmental issues in Mozambique, but the Lei das Minas does not reference gender. Finally, a KII with an implementing partner reported that their monitoring
under USAID funding on the impact of a conservation investment was not disaggregating results by sex, which is an easy issue to address.

**Opportunity exists for economic benefit in this sector, but the challenges are formulated as male-driven, with male-focused solutions, sidelining women from benefits**

Most of the threats in conservation, which is focused on law enforcement and poaching, are male driven, and most of the solutions are focused on them. Civil society organizations work hard to get gender balance into training programs. Experienced civil society KIIIs observed that the short supply of women is a result of cultural factors, not because there are not enough educated women. The conservation organizations, the World Wildlife Fund and the Wildlife Conservation Society are working hard to create gender access to training; they seek to hire women as rangers, but women have to meet physical criteria and be ready to work in remote areas with men, a real challenge to hiring them.

Impact in the environment and biodiversity areas is seen as affecting “people,” and not gendered or otherwise differentiated (112). As a consequence, the statistics on subgroups, including women or men, are few and far between. Without data on specific groups, it is harder for the Ministry of Environment to respond to the needs of these groups. The Ministry of Environment is part of the Grupo Africano de Negociadoras em Genero e Mudanças Climaticas, which developed a strategy for gender and climate change in 2016 in response to the question of how environmental change could contribute to gender inequality. Still, responses to this question remain general and are not well reflected in activities aimed to respond to the challenge of climate change.

**Weak governance is a key issue in this sector, with implications for gender equity**

Governance is especially weak in the environmental sector, and all of the KIIIs conducted across civil society, government and donors pointed to governance as a weak link in the conservation chain (113). Safeguards are not in place at the district level where law enforcement happens. In Niassa, for example, an illegal gold mine employs 1,000 men, while the local jail capacity holds 12 people (KII, CSO). It would be impossible for local officials to arrest and process even a small proportion of the illegal miners; federal resources and or/military troops would need to be brought in to handle illegal activity of such a large scope. Despite high levels of prostitution and HIV around the mine, the area is not prioritized by PEPFAR because the population is low density (KII, CSO). Resistance to effective conservation goes up to the top because of corruption. People in government are largely seen as working to enrich themselves, and there is great uncertainty about what the government can actually deliver in this sector (114). The current corruption scandal with the former Minister of Finance has discouraged people greatly. In addition, a terrorist threat existed in Mozambique, because its governance makes it a weak link as a passage in Southern Africa, with trafficking, money laundering and investment by individuals on international watch lists.

**Between the extractive industry and biodiversity efforts, huge costs and benefits exist for communities, yet women are generally not included in discussions of these**

In the North, for example, relocation is taking place where the liquid natural gas lines are going to be put in and that is very disruptive to communities (115). In places where mining and other forms of extraction are taking place, the workforce is very male and their impact on communities can increase
vulnerability of women and girls in particular, with an increased presence and expansion of bars and prostitution (116).

The private sector needs to collaborate with communities to anticipate environmental impact and ensure benefits for women as well as men

Though there may be recognition that protection is needed, the private sector is highly influential and operates quite independently, according to CSO KII. The ruby mine in Montepuez is currently one of Mozambique’s largest taxpayers, and has hired the large French company Sodexo to build local food sources and hire local managers for cooking, catering, housekeeping and other services. Much of this labor is being sourced from the outside, but there are some opportunities to provide fresh produce, which opens up opportunities for women in the community. USAID’s Agriculture, Environment and Business (AEB) program is working to identify activities that are beneficial to both the company and to women in agriculture—making a productivity argument.

Women’s representation in local management committees is limited

Programs working in this sector tend to focus on men, who present themselves as the community decision-makers, according to representatives of CSOs and implementing partners. Yet as a representative from the Ministry of the Environment observed, when a meeting is called and only men come, how can people think this represents the population? It is important for all interventions to address women’s invisibility as citizens in local communities.

A Gender and Diversity Audit of the Iniciativa para Terras Comunitárias (ITC) program found that women experienced limited access to and control over land and natural resources, and lacked knowledge of their rights to these resources. Women were often excluded from household and community decision-making in resource management in both matrilineal and patrilineal communities (117). In response, NRI designed and supported the ITC’s Cascade Gender and Diversity Capacity Building Program, targeted at improving community engagement methods, promoting positive impact for women, girls and vulnerable groups, and developing local solutions to gender and diversity issues (117).

Women who are represented in local management committees often do not participate fully

Women have some limited access to land and other natural resources such as water, but although they can go and fetch water, they don’t participate in the management of the water through local management committees. Women on committees are reticent and tend not to speak up, so the Ministry of Environment focuses on cultivating women’s participation, encouraging joint discussions and activities in the community to promote joint decision-making. The response of the Ministry of Environment and one implementing partner (IP) has been to sensitize communities to promote the participation of women. It is unfortunately necessary to work hard to give women the access to the things they have rights to, indicated the Ministry of the Environment.

With their extensive agricultural roles, women could contribute more fully to stewardship in the sector

If women see the benefits of conservation, they can have an impact on the consumption and behavior of their households and economic activities. Informants working in the environment sector pointed to the
Gorongoza conservation effort and to MozBio as good models for integrated development and conservation that involved women. The first phase of MozBio (2015-2019) involved more than 20,000 beneficiaries in the Chimanimani, Maputo, Gilé and Quirimbas National Parks, almost half of whom are women, in alternative income-generating activities such as honey production and conservation agriculture and piloted the establishment of girls’ clubs and environmental education campaigns in schools. The purpose was to help the community plan for the future by raising environmental awareness. The second phase of the project will run through 2023 and is working to support rural communities with activities that generate employment and income opportunities that are sustainable and linked to conservation and biodiversity efforts. AEB’s INOVA project incorporated a gender action plan that looked at women as customers, working in agricultural input supply. There are opportunities to build on women’s service and agricultural roles in connection with the extractive industry.

Recommendations for USAID/Mozambique’s Future Programming in Environment, Natural Resource Management, and Biodiversity

The way that environment, natural resources management and biodiversity issues are formulated in Mozambique makes this among the most difficult sectors into which to integrate an understanding of gender equality. Natural resource management provides a strong opportunity to address gender, but understandings of the gendered impact of climate change are just emerging, and biodiversity as poaching-and-law-enforcement is another area where the connections are not immediately obvious. In the Mozambique context, however, sustainable agriculture and chances to provide input into community decisions about resources represent key opportunities to involve women.

Below are recommendations that address these obstacles for women at the individual/household, community, institutional, and public policy levels:

Individual and household levels

• Link conservation and development work more closely for alternative livelihoods and integrated and sustainable work on the land.

• Develop alternative livelihoods with options specifically for women (small livestock, alternative agriculture, wild honey, hives).

Community level

• Accompany environmental impact studies with social impact studies that purposefully draw on the experiences of a broad range of community members who have a stake in the coming changes.

• Promote education in the community for women and men on rights and governance, preparing the community to take advantage of coming opportunities.

• Support basic training on gender equality for Natural Resource Management Committees, whose leadership excludes women but needs encouragement and education to engage women more fully.

• Expand the female empowerment and community development work currently underway in Gorongosa for Niassa and other biodiversity reserves.

• Encourage implementing partners to employ the model used by OneHealth, which brings together human and veterinary medicine.
Institutional level

- Building on USAID HQ guidance on preventing and responding to child marriage, explore the connections between climate change (drought, floods) and child marriage.

- Encourage companies such as Montepuez to connect to local sources—many of whom will be women—when they must hire companies to obtain food and services.

- Convene structured meetings with Anadarko, Exxon, local committees and civil society organizations to create a real network to address all of the elements of change with the extractive work. Big companies often do not engage directly with civil society.

- Work with the GRM to anticipate the impact of mining and extraction industries on local communities and to support them in upholding their own rights and demanding accountability from the companies involved. The mining and extraction industries are powerful and mobilizing an adequate response to community needs and concerns requires the backing of many civil society organizations with varying capabilities.

- Explore Exxon Mobil’s interest in supporting gender equality through corporate social responsibility (CSR) and other grants and contracts. Exxon Mobil has a history of making investments in women’s economic empowerment.

- Ensure Implementing Partners (IPs) understand that everyone’s participation is important, and that full participation—of women and men—is a major programmatic accomplishment and will be measured.

- Pressure traditional leadership of Natural Resource Management Committees to be more deliberate in the ways they include women (WCS).

Public policy level

- Support the Ministry of Environment and ANAC to work more on gender, including in their hiring processes and through community programs that target women’s issues.

- Require that USAID grantees include activities that contribute to gender equality, and that at the very least, their work is monitored for its impact on women and on men with gender-disaggregated data.

- Advocate for gender and environment to be more fully integrated into the National Plan, which sets aside budget for concrete activities in different sectors.

- Support the Gender Coordination Group of the Ministry of Gender to integrate gender more fully into ministerial processes.

- Work with the GRM to address the absence of any reference to gender in the Lei das Minas.
7. CASE STUDY: RESPONDING TO EXTRAORDINARY CONDITIONS IN THE NORTH

The emerging extractive industry in Cabo Delgado is daunting, as discussed in the gender assessment conducted for the last CDCS concluded (101). Given USAID’s interest in developing an intervention in the North, and the way the range of sectors in which the Agency is invested map onto conditions in the North, the situation also offers an extraordinary opportunity to advance gender equality and address a host of economic, environmental and health issues with the community in an integrated way.

As virtually every person familiar with USAID’s work affirmed during the KIs conducted for this gender assessment, USAID’s work within silos sometimes limits its response to development challenges. For example, USAID’s massive health program and its investments in environment and biodiversity do not overlap for the most part. This case study explores bringing activities to the same place, which USAID is, of course, already doing in various locations around the country. But it also tries to offer a multisectoral model and an approach to narrating its activities going forward that could help USAID tell the complex story of its response to gender inequality in Mozambique. Box 7-1 describes the basic contours of this moment of change in Cabo Delgado, and potential responses.

Box 7-1. Case Study of a Plan for Cabo Delgado: Preventing the “Accident Waiting to Happen”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Situation</th>
<th>Potential Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>▪ Exploration of natural liquid gas, economic expansion.</td>
<td><strong>Individuals and families</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Exxon Mobil and Anadarko will be hiring thousands of men and bringing them in</td>
<td>▪ Work with female farmers and entrepreneurs to ensure their participation in supply chain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Concentration of wealth, male migration, demand for services, social impact on communities.</td>
<td>▪ Engage the local resource management committees to improve or increase child care so that women can be involved (and child labor is prevented)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Hotels and other service providers will be expanding and hiring. Companies will need to source food and lodging.</td>
<td><strong>Community engagement</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Local resource management committees and other bodies (in all of which women’s participation is key) will engage in an effort to protect community interests and benefit from the economic activity.</td>
<td>▪ Engage rural communities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Exxon Mobil earlier demonstrated a commitment to gender equality in its CSR.</td>
<td>▪ Collaborate with Aga Khan (working with youth) to engage young people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Work with local civil society to prepare communities for what is coming and how to engage with the companies, including building advocacy skills and gender equitable advocacy processes related to labor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Institutional</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Work with companies to develop code of conduct and ongoing gender equality training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Ensure that organizational policies around sexual harassment and abuse are monitored and enforced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Work with GRM and local health units to strengthen HIV and STI prevention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Work with local law enforcement to build skills and anticipate gender inequitable impact of expansion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Work with companies to prioritize hiring (and housing) of female technical staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Policy and infrastructure</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Engage the community in conversations about project impact. For example, how will the infrastructure or location of the expansion affect the local built environment/access to markets/etc.?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Engage transportation services to ensure safe access for women to get to work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This is not an inventory of responses by any means; many others are also possible. The point is that this situation calls for a multisectoral plan, and in USAID has the opportunity to bring together work across partners and sectors to create one.

Given the wide range of activities that need to take place for there to be any hope of influencing outcomes in Cabo Delgado, it will be necessary for USAID to look across sectors and specific local geographies to develop a more holistic narrative. Further, USAID could take this opportunity to look to its partnerships with other donors as a way of assembling the components of the full range of activities that should ideally be implemented to address a deep social problem such as gender inequality.

In addition to sector specific activities through which USAID can build on its existing portfolio, the full picture of the work can be filled in through collaboration with other donors. Indeed, during the research period, other donors (Global Affairs Canada, UNICEF, GRM) explicitly expressed their interest in closer collaboration with USAID in gender equality and other areas of shared interest.
8. CONCLUDING OBSERVATIONS

Numerous opportunities exist for USAID to address gender inequality in its investments. The institution has a high-level mandate and commitment, as indicated by the GEWE policy and the ADS guidance for implementing it. The five-year CDCS process aligns somewhat with the timing of the Plano Quinquenal do Governo. Many in management at USAID Mozambique seem convinced of the benefits of investing in gender equality throughout its investments. USAID has experience in addressing gender inequality in its work in other parts of the world and to a lesser extent in Mozambique. One of the key areas for work is to shift masculine gender norms, and USAID comes to this challenge with a great deal of experience across its global portfolio. The new emphasis on self-reliance is consonant with the need for greater accountability and the participation of all in democracy and governance. In the absence of donors, Mozambique needs its people to hold the government accountable and to participate in strengthening its institutions.

USAID also has the chance to take advantage of this moment in Mozambique’s history to engage in a multisectoral experiment. USAID’s desire to work in the North of Mozambique as the gas and coal extraction gets underway was expressed very clearly to the team. The potential work in Cabo Delgado provides an opportunity for multisectoral intervention. At the same time, Mozambique is undergoing a process of decentralization, which drives integration at the local level. These factors support each other to create an exciting opportunity to build a multisectoral model by piecing together investments by different programs at USAID and others supported by its donor partners.

Why address gender equality? Four compelling reasons call for addressing gender inequality throughout USAID Mozambique’s portfolio.

First, the pursuit of gender equality can contribute to achieving sectoral objectives like expanding access to schooling, increasing agricultural productivity, ensuring community engagement with environmental protection measures, engaging more people in the political process, or preventing HIV. In this sense, gender equality is located within all sectors rather than being something to be added from the outside.

Second, as has been established by considerable research, programs that work to transform gender norms can be understood to operate “upstream” of a host of health and development outcomes and can yield a wide range of benefits (80). In a context like Mozambique there is a powerful efficiency in finding some of these upstream factors that can reinforce sector-specific investments. Despite the synergistic effects of these factors across sectors, it can be difficult to get people to think outside their sectors. The rationale, therefore, must come from the top, from managers who have a panoramic view of USAID’s portfolio.

Third, during the process of conducting this gender assessment in Mozambique, Democracy and Governance emerged as a set of issues closely intertwined with the prospects for gender equality. As argued earlier in this report, how can the systematic exclusion of a large fraction of the population be good for the country, particularly when those very same people might strengthen calls for accountability of government, private sector, civil society and donor investments?

And finally, as the business-minded among those interviewed were quick to point out, investments in materials and technical solutions can be protected by ensuring a supportive social environment in which
people make healthful decisions on their own behalf and that of others. As the World Bank and other major institutions have argued, it makes good economic sense to invest in gender equality and in women.

Lest those committed to protecting investments in their sectors become concerned, working toward gender equality does not always require “gender funding.” The pursuit of gender equality does not have to move funds away from a specific sector. In fact, it is often an excellent way of making the most of existing sectoral investments.
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<td>Economic development</td>
<td>1997 Land Law establishes women’s right to access and own land, but provisions are not implemented and women continue to suffer from insecure ownership of land (18). There continue to be gender inequalities in inheritance of land despite the advocacy of civil society organizations to amend inheritance laws (18).</td>
<td>Maputo’s urban spaces have been historically gendered and dominated by men. Women were banned from urban spaces in the colonial era. Women who did move to urban spaces were thought of as violating gendered norms. They worked as sex workers or beer brewers. Many were single women or single mothers. They were excluded from any permanent dwellings made of cement, residing instead in more rudimentary structures. In the post-colonial era, some of the restrictions were lifted, allowing urban spaces to represent new economic opportunities for women (96). Women are often excluded from consultation processes for new agricultural initiatives, partially because traditional social norms ascribe women’s role within the household while men can participate in public fora (5).</td>
<td>Efforts to modernize or advance the agricultural sector e.g. through extension agents exclude women because most extension agents are men and pass information only onto men (18,81,82). An experimental study in which some communities were randomly chosen to train a female representative in sustainable land management found that women’s awareness of pit planting farming techniques increased by 9 percentage points and adoption of the technology by 5 percentage points in 2013 in selected communities (82). Restricted mobility for women complicates finding alternate employment (12). Mozambique has various types of formal, semi-formal and informal economic and social associations but many businesswomen are not aware of women’s entrepreneurship associations or of the</td>
<td>Many women lack information about their (land) rights; there has been no national-level effort to raise awareness (18). Many rural women and men live in “common unions” rather than in state-recognized marriages, which leaves women without legal claims to their husbands’ land in case of spousal death or divorce. Single women struggle to access land and claim ownership, which is an issue as male migration increases (74). Women also lack access to capital to invest in new agricultural technologies (18). Investments must consider the needs of all individuals; for example, increased production of cash crops (run by men) in the Maputo province increased household food insecurity and also displaced commercial banana production, which was run by women (74).</td>
<td>A study using panel data found that although women control about 30% of the plots in the study, they only manage 70% of them; women are more likely to manage plots in households in which the men have historically been engaged in economic opportunities away from their own land. When women do manage plots, they typically do not grow the main cash crop and they also do not use complicated production techniques (77). Men’s migration history and current migration status are positively associated with women’s autonomy, and that the effects on autonomy may persist even after the man’s return (78). Husbands’ migration increased women’s autonomy in terms of mobility, consumption, production, and health (13). In the Mapai-Ngale community where migration is more intense and as a consequence, the National Women Organization</td>
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<td>Mozambique does not have a specific policy framework for women’s enterprise development (73). The legal and regulatory framework for business in Mozambique does not contain any instruments that are specifically designed to respond to the barriers or constraints faced by women in business (73). Amongst the ones sponsored by the Ministry of Commerce, there are no entrepreneurship promotion programs specifically targeted at women (73).</td>
<td>Wage labor opportunities are often monopolized by men (11). It is important to consider that some of these dynamics are province-specific (8). In the matrilineal Nampula province in northern Mozambique, women inherit the land they cultivate and also have greater mobility in their marriage arrangements (in terms of choice of partner as well as in choosing where they live). An additional layer of complexity is that there may be spaces in male headed households in which women have greater autonomy and control of resources (8). Considering the non-agricultural sector, using cashew factories as an example, women workers are perceived to be less skilled and are assigned tasks that earn lower wages—even though they often work longer hours (8). Lower wages for women were justified by the perception that they are “secondary earners” (12).</td>
<td>benefits that come from membership (73). There are a number of challenges regarding the access businesswomen have to appropriate business premises. These include issues of proximity to profitable markets, poor and expensive transport systems, and inappropriate facilities in terms of hygiene and recreational needs for businesswomen with children (73)</td>
<td>Most factories lacked maternity benefits or provisions for child care; example factories supported by USAID to promote female entrepreneurship did greater social programs (trade unions, creches, food, etc.) (120). The closure of the cashew factories due to political instability and diseased cashew trees had a larger effect on women who had harder time finding new employment; in contrast, men were able to dominate paid employment opportunities (81). Overall 95 percent of economically active Mozambicans work in the informal economy and 59 percent of the informal workers are female (73). Women face enormous constraints, especially when trying to mobilise working capital for expanding or diversifying their business. A general lack of collateral leads to a situation where women are limited to gaining access to finance through savings and credit groups and group-based mutual guarantee micro-credit (73). (OMM) has gained better position in the decision-making structures (13). The 2007 Green Revolution strategy to promote increased productivity among smallholders and encourage investment into larger commercial ventures did not include any gender considerations. One key component of this strategy was increasing the number and activity of extension agents; women were not able to capitalize on this opportunity because they lacked the mobility to attend the training sessions (74). Other reasons for women’s exclusion are: lack of advance notice regarding consultations, limited number of consultations (typically only one meeting), inadequate records from consultations, vague commitments in meetings, and lack of consideration of future community needs (74). Women were also excluded from community consultations related to a 2009 national strategy to protect the land and...</td>
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### Education

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<td>Education</td>
<td>The Strategic Plan for the Education Sector (1999–2005) focused on expansion of access, improving quality and relevance of education, and strengthening capacity to manage and deliver appropriate educational services (31). The Strategic Plan for the Education and Culture Sector (2006–2010) maintains these priorities but also places greater emphasis on improving quality of education and measures to encourage pupils and students to continue beyond primary school (31). The Promoting Advancement in Girls’ Education in</td>
<td>The Global Monitoring Report cites some of the reasons for lower school attendance for girls as: domestic workload, poverty, the lack of female role models, sexual abuse and unwanted pregnancies are some of the causes for the gender gap (27). Girls also start school at a later age because of barriers relating to distance and transportation (18). Gender stereotypes are also reflected in the choice of study fields. Commercial Institutes offering secretarial, administrative and accounting courses registered 60% female</td>
<td>There is a Gender Unit within the Ministry of Education and Culture (31).</td>
<td>Limited gender disaggregated data and lack of coordination in research emerged are major gaps identified in the state of knowledge about women entrepreneurs in the Mozambique (73). Resource rights of local people (80). During consultations, only certain topics are discussed, many of which pertain only to men; the omission of certain topics e.g. environmental consequences of increasing biofuel production had gendered implications (i.e. climate change relating to biofuel production and use may lessen access to water, increasing women’s work)</td>
<td>Early marriage is also a reason for lower enrollment for girls, who are often pulled out of school at puberty; once married, girls and young women are prohibited from returning to school by their husbands (1). 80% of girls in Mozambique saying that they have experienced some forms of violence in the past 12 months. The Stop Violence Against Girls in School (SVAGS) project has improved educational outcomes for girls (34).</td>
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There is a Gender Unit within the Ministry of Education and Culture (31). More than half of girls drop out by the fifth grade, only 11 continue to secondary school, and only 1 percent continue to college (26).

Girls’ net primary school enrollment in grades 1–5 increased significantly, particularly for the poorest quintile, rural areas, and central provinces (18). In 2003, it almost equaled boys’ enrollment rates in most of the country, even surpassing them in the south, overcoming long-standing prejudices about the value of educating girls (18). In secondary education, however, where the gender gap is widening throughout.
### Sector

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<td>Mozambique (PAGE-M) is tackling demand-side barriers, making schools more girl-friendly, improving the quality of education, and garnering government support to scale-up best practices (32).</td>
<td>students, whereas industrial and agricultural training institutes have significantly lower numbers of female students (31).</td>
<td>the country and particularly in urban areas and among the rich (18). Quality of schooling is a major issue for both girls and boys and is greatly compromised by teacher absenteeism, overcrowded schools with growing student/teacher ratios, and limited instructional time (26). Many teachers are infected with HIV and it is thought that the sector will lose huge numbers of teachers. The pupil/class and pupil/teacher ratios are among the highest in SADC (31). The Education Ministry has produced radio advertisements to encourage families to enroll their children in school, especially their daughters. It has adopted a &quot;spokesperson&quot; approach, relying on national and regional celebrities and religious leaders of different beliefs to rally grassroots support for school enrollment (33).</td>
<td>Mozambique has one of the highest female parliamentary representations in Africa, and in the world. However, higher parity in political</td>
<td>Women were underrepresented in leadership positions. The Parliament had the largest proportion of women (39.2</td>
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<td>Democracy, human rights, and governance</td>
<td>Articles 36 and 122 of the 1990 Constitution established gender equity (91).</td>
<td>Mozambique’s patriarchal culture inhibits the advancement of gender equality even though women occupy political positions.</td>
<td>Justice system is inadequate in terms of the number and distribution of staff and legal institutions (33).</td>
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**Table Note:**
- **Norms, beliefs, and behaviors**
  - Mozambique (PAGE-M) is tackling demand-side barriers, making schools more girl-friendly, improving the quality of education, and garnering government support to scale-up best practices (32).
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- **Participation in the community and public life**
  - The country and particularly in urban areas and among the rich (18).
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- **Access and control over resources**
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- **Patterns of power and decision-making**
  - Women were underrepresented in leadership positions. The Parliament had the largest proportion of women (39.2
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<td>The Constitution was revised in 2004, further reinforcing human rights and freedoms including gender equality (92). Article 3 of the Constitution prohibits discrimination; however, it fails to operationalize discrimination (33). Additionally, provisions for equality and non-discrimination are not included in other pieces of legislation, leading to ongoing discrimination in access to public services (121). As per the Family Law of 2004: Husbands and wives share equal standing as heads of households and parents (33). In case of divorce, the law requires that husbands pay child support and allows for splitting of assets (91). The law also codifies gender equality in property ownership, directly influences land rights for rural women (91). The law also changes provision relating to marriage: (a) customary or religious marriages must be registered with civil authorities; (b) de facto marriages are recognized as legal; and (c) all children have equal inheritance and legal rights</td>
<td>Party loyalty may also explain the lack of progress (94).</td>
<td>representation has not translated to greater gender equality (94). Ministry of Women and Social Action (MMSA) is the government body responsible for gender equality (31). The National Directorate for Women (DNM) is responsible for programs to support and empower women. DNM is composed of two departments, namely the Department for Women and Family and the Department for Gender and Development. Since 1999 DNM has been largely financed by UNFPA and UNIFEM (2). DNM and MMSA still require institutional support and capacity building, especially at provincial level (31)</td>
<td>Only 10% of community tribunals are comprised of women (33).</td>
<td>%), then political parties with parliamentary seats (32.9%), and the Justice sector (24.7%). In the Private, Media and Academia sectors, women occupied only 17.8%, 19.1% and 17.5% of leadership positions, respectively (95). Civil society organizations seem to be the most promising force to overcome the existing gender inequalities and to improve the empowerment of women in political decision-making positions, leading to a greater empowerment of women as a whole (94).</td>
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|        | (33). This law also established the minimum age of marriage as 18 (91). Domestic Violence Bill of 2009 bans violence against women and criminalizes domestic violence and rape (91). Despite the advances of this bill, Article 37 is unclear about spousal violence. Further, in the Penal Code, the punishment for rape within marriage is only six months to two years whereas it is two to eight years outside of marriage (121). There is also a lack of sensitivity on gender issues among the police that prevents enforcement of the penalties for domestic violence (121). There is national gender policy and strategy (PGEI) which was approved by the Council of Ministers in 2006. The PGEI focuses on the same areas of critical concern as the PNAM (31). Despite legislation of these laws, implementation has been a real challenge (121). Many women lack awareness of their rights (33). Ratification of international agreements—CEDAW and CEDAW and CNAM’s core function is to promote and monitor the implementation of the government’s gender policies in all the government’s plans and programs, with particular reference to the National Plan for the Advancement of Women 2002–2006 (Plano Nacional para o Avanço da Mulher: PNAM) and national gender strategy (PGEI) (31). There is lack of clarity about the exact competencies of MMAS/DNM and the competencies of CNAM (31). A new office for the Care of Women and Children was also created in the Police Department (31). Forum Mulher coordinates CSOs dedicated to women’s rights, women’s economic and political empowerment nationwide (31). The women’s movement in Mozambique has long been associated with OMM, the women’s wing of FRELIMO (31). The Gender Coordination Group (GCG) coordinates and exchanges information about the respective donors’
The health sector lacks human and infrastructure resources, particularly in rural areas (41). The National Plan and the Strategy for the Reduction of Maternal and Newborn Mortality (2000) has improved diagnosis and treatment of obstetric complications and has improved access to advanced health care services (41).

Women in Mozambique experience higher vulnerability to HIV—in 2015, nearly 60% of individuals living with HIV were women (43). The prevalence among women is 13.1% compared to 9.2% among men (6). Among young people especially, there are pronounced differences in infection rates between men and women—though the gap has declined in recent years (see figure). A 2011 national survey found that a third of women experience physical violence and 12 percent of women.

There is also very low male involvement in sexual and reproductive health. Women are wary of accessing health services and are unlikely to do so because of the distance to facilities and challenges in obtaining transportation. Because of the 2016 drought, access to sanitary supplies for menstrual hygiene has also become a challenge. The traditionally used absorbent plant material is now scarcer, and as food and cash reserves in households have dwindled women’s ability to purchase menstrual rags has been problematic so that many women have now resorted

Willingness to use condoms is associated with emotional intimacy in contrast to typically using condoms with unfamiliar partners whose HIV status may be uncertain (23). Taking an HIV test is perceived by some women as a way to test the closeness of a partner’s emotional bond (23). With the onset of the drought, many families have used child marriage as a coping mechanism to raise income (through payment of a bride price) or to reduce the number of dependents per household. This increase

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<td>Activities to support gender equality (31). Greater representation of women is needed at lower levels of government and in community organizations (e.g. neighborhood heads, members of community courts and community police) (96). Other recommendations include: capacity building of CSOs for gender analysis and mainstreaming; and, greater linkages between Maputo and the provinces and also amongst provinces (31).</td>
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|        |                  | over age 15 experienced sexual violence (122). Studies have found that traditional notions of masculinity promote risky sexual behavior increasing vulnerability to HIV (55). Transactional sex also places both women and men at greater risk, alternately building on existing gender norms and challenging them (45). Low condom use and having multiple sexual partners are key risk factors (7). In terms of knowledge, attitudes, and practices related to HIV, men ages 15-24y are far more knowledgeable about ways to prevent HIV and common misconceptions about HIV transmission and prevention (51.5% vs. 30.2%). Women in the same age group are more likely to have been sexually active before age 15y (24.5% vs. 16.8%). In a broader age group 15-49y, nearly 30% of men had intercourse with more than one partner in the last 12 months compared to only 2.8% of women. 26% of women and 14% of men ages 15-49 reported receiving an
<p>|        |                  | to using other, harsher, plant matter or packed sand to catch their menstrual blood (14). Time requirements for water collection have also reduced the amount of water they are transporting home and limited the amount of water available for personal hygiene. This has forced many women to bath in close proximity to the water points and away from private spaces (14). |
|        |                  | in child marriage has left many girls at risk of sexual and physical abuse, poor nutrition and increased chance of maternal neonatal death (14). |</p>
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<td>Mozambique created the first-ever Environment and Climate Change Strategy and Action plan in early 2010 with UNIFEM (now UN Women) (108) With a National Climate Change Adaptation and Mitigation Strategy</td>
<td>HIV test in the last 12 months (54). A cross-sectional study of 1500 women in Maputo revealed that 70.2% of women experienced some type of IPV (49). This study also found that higher levels of education were positively associated with violence, suggesting that education may not counter traditional gender norms and may possibly lead to greater conflict between partners (49). In this study, divorce or separation led to reductions in violence. Having children in the household led to increased incidence of IPV. This study also examined whether women exerting control over their male partners was associated with IPV perpetrated against women and found positive associations (49).</td>
<td>Mozambique is considered one of the countries in sub-Saharan Africa that has been hard hit by climate change due to its geographical location - downstream of the main rivers in southern Africa and a long coastline of 2,700 km - and the weak</td>
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<td>Successive droughts have increased men’s migration. As a consequence, women’s role in productive work has increased considerably in the last two years. For example, women’s participation in alcoholic drink brewing in Mapai-Ngale and fisheries-related work in</td>
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A Gender and Diversity Audit of Iniciativa para Terras Comunitárias (ITC) program found that women experienced limited access to and control over land and natural resources, and lacked knowledge of their rights to these resources. Women were often
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<td>(ENAMMC) produced in 2012, Mozambique’s Ministry for Coordination of Environmental Affairs (MICOA) invited IUCN to facilitate a process to update and enhance its gender-responsive climate action plan accordingly (108)</td>
<td>Magondzwene has increased in the last two years. This imposes pressure on women who have to spend extra time for productive work in detriment of the reproductive jobs and time spent with kids (13).</td>
<td>Socioeconomic situation (13). During the onset of the 2016 drought, 91.9% of the female-headed households did not have adequate food provisions generated in the 4-month agricultural season to meet household consumption needs beyond 11 months (14). In drought-affected communities, most of the younger adolescent mothers interviewed were unable to identify short, medium or long-term strategies to address their basic needs. These women were fully focused on meeting consumption shortfalls within an immediate 24-hour window and had no contingencies in place to address longer-term shortfalls (14). Before the drought, women spent up to 2 hours per day collecting water for household consumption. The extended drought has meant women have had to spend in excess of 6 hours searching for and transporting water. Younger girls are asked to drop out of school to help. During the water collection activities,</td>
<td>Excluded from household and community decision-making in resource management in both matrilineal and patrilineal communities (117). In response, NRI designed and supported the ITC's Cascade Gender and Diversity Capacity Building Programme, targeted at improving community engagement methods, promoting positive impact for women, girls and vulnerable groups, and developing local solutions to gender and diversity issues (117)</td>
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<td>girls are facing increased risk of confrontations with wild animals and gender-based violence (14). Most girls interviewed were no longer attending school due to work commitments and unplanned pregnancies. (14) In Inhambane, during this drought cycle, many men have not returned to their household at the close of seasonal work nor sent remittances to cover household expenses. There is also a new trend for women to migrate, leaving behind children in the care of grandparents. When asked, 70% of men and women state their migration is due to lack of food, drought conditions or lack of water (14).</td>
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ANNEX B. INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR KEY STAKEHOLDERS

I. Guia para informante chave—Democracia e Governação

Introdução e consentimento verbal para entrevista—LER A AFIRMACAO OU FRASE

Esta análise de género esta sendo conduzida pelo IRIS Grupo como parte do Projecto MMEMS financiado pelo USAID. A entrevista vai levar entre 45-60 minutos durante a qual vamos pedir voce para comentar influência de género na experiência das pessoas na governação e democracia. Vamos também pedir para comentar sobre lacunas na corrente resposta ao género neste sector no e como a USAID pode reforçar seus esforços para lidar com inequidades de género e empoderamento da mulher no seu trabalho futuro.

Você pode parar a entrevista em qualquer tempo. Nos vamos tomar todas procedimentos recomendados para tornar sua informação pessoal confidencial. Sua identidade e sua afiliação organizacional vai permanecer confidencial. Apenas os pesquisadores vão ter acesso ao seu nome e a sua afiliação e os dados vão ficar armazenados com segurança. Em todo relatório e artigos acerca deste projecto de pesquisa, sua identidade será protegida o máximo possível.

Questões da Entrevista

Parte 1: Avanços recentes e desafios na igualdade de género e empoderamento da mulher (IGEM) na esfera pública e na governação em Moçambique

• Pode por favor descrever as diferenças entre homens e mulheres no e acesso a bens, recursos, oportunidades e participação na vida pública?

• Quais são as causas relacionadas com género que explicam a exclusão da vida pública e influência das mulheres, homens, raparigas e rapazes? das minorias de género?

• Quais são as normas sociais e institucionais que influenciam o seu acesso à saúde?
  • Existem diferenças geográficas nessas normas?
  • Como são as pessoas jovens (rapazes e raparigas), homens que fazem sexo com outros homens (HSH), trabalhadoras de sexo (TS) ou trans afectados na sua participação na vida pública?

• Voce tem alguma estatística nacional ou subnacional relevante para as questões que nos recomenda? Especifique exemplos de documentos, estudos?

Lacunas específicas ou assuntos (preferências, constrangimentos ou oportunidades) identificadas, peça para ter detalhes relacionados para os seguintes domínios de análise de géneros.

• Acceso e uso de tecnologias

• Tomada de decisao e poder nas actividades economicas e producao agricola [input nas decisões produtivas, autonomia e decisões produtivas]

• Controle sobre recursos produtivos [propriedade de bens, direitos, direitos sobre os bens, acesso e decissão sobre credito]
• Controle no uso dos rendimentos
• Capital social e liderança na comunidade [pertença aos grupos, falar em público]
• Capital Humano
• Uso do tempo/tempo proveza [satisfação e lazer]
• Conhecimento, crenças e percepções-normas
• Direitos e estatuto

Os primeiros sete domínios são para alimentar no futuro Quadro de Integração de género (com os subdomínios em parântesis) e os últimos dois são para USAID IGWG (2009).

Parte 2: Como estes avanços e lacunas são tratados na corrente programação em Moçambique

• Existem organizações, ministérios ou projectos que lidam com os obstáculos para igualdade de género e empoderamento da mulher na área social e participação política? que tipo de actividades e qual é o focus do programa nesta área?
• Como os papeis de género e normas influenciam a divisão de tempo entre trabalho pago e não pago (incluindo produção para subsistência e cuidados para com os membros da família) e actividades voluntárias, como isso influenciam a participação de mulheres e homens na vida social e política em Moçambique?
• A violência baseada no género joga um papel restingindo acesso a voz e participação para qualquer subpopulação? Para homens que fazem sexo com outros homens (HSH), trans, Trabalhadoras de sexo (TS), mulheres, Jovens? Como é que isto está sendo tratado? O que é que está faltando?
• O estigma e discriminação jogam um papel que restringem acesso a participação social e política para cada um destes grupos? Que mecanismos de reclamação existem? São eles usados? As reclamações são resolvidas?
• Você tem algum programa estatístico (nacional ou subnacional) relevante para as questões colocadas acima? Representação? Influência nos serviços públicos? Participação civil?
• Existem lições a serem aprendidas pela USAID e outros investimentos neste sector?

Parte 3: As oportunidades para USAID/ Moçambique, em colaboração com o GdM, OSCs, ONGs, sector privado e outros doadores para avançar Igualdade de género e empoderamento da Mulher e reflectir completamente nos seus planos estratégicos e implementação de programas e Planos

• Existem desafios específicos relacionados com género neste sector que a USAID/Moçambique tem vantagem comparativa para lidar com isso? Responder a esta questão vai ajudar a Missão da USAID a priorizar recursos e a maximizar o impacto.
• Você tem alguma recomendação para lidar com inequidades de género na democracia e governação que gostaria que USAID colocasse no seu plano na próxima Estratégia de Cooperação para o Desenvolvimento do País?
• Violência baseada no gênero joga um papel limitando o acesso a participação social e política para qualquer subpopulação? O que acerca de estigma e discriminação? Acesso a justiça? Que papel a USAIDe seus parceiros podem jogar lidando com esses desafios?

• Que tendências você vê que podem moldar a direcção futura da programação em Moçambique da democracia e governação que pode completamente avançar a igualdade de gênero e empoderamento da mulher?

Notas do entrevistador:

• Pode este informant providenciar alguma ajuda em organizar discussão de grupos focais com grupos chaves?
• Eles sugeriram algum relatório do programa ou documentos que nós Podemos rever?
• Ha alguém que eles acreditam que nos devemos falar com para ganhar um senso completodos desafios nexta area?

2. Guia para informantes chave—crescimento Economico

Introdução e consentimento verbal para intrevista—LER A AFIRMACAO OU FRASE

Esta análise de gênero esta sendo conduzida pelo IRIS Grupo como parte o ProjectoMMES financiado pelo USAID.

A entrevista vai levar entre 45-60 minutos durante a qual vamos pedir voce para comentar influência de género na experiência das pessoas no crecimento economicoe. Vamos também pedir para comentar sobre lacunas na corrente resposta ao género neste sector no e como a USAID pode reforçar seus esforços para lidar com inequidades de gênero e empoderamento da mulher no seu trabalho futuro.

Voce pode parar a entrevista em qualquer tempo. Nos vamos tomar todas procedimentos recomendados para tornar sua informação pessoal confidencial. Sua identidade e sua afiliação organizacional vai permanecer confidencial. Apenas os pesquisadores vao ter acesso ao seu nome e a sua afiliação e os dados vão ficar armazenados com segurança .Em todo relatorio e artigos acerca deste projecto de pesquisa ,sua identidade será protegida o máximo possivel.

Parte 1: avancos e desafios na igualdade the genero e empoderamento da mulher (IGEM) no sector de saude em Mozambique

• Pode po favor descrever o diferencial acesso a bens, recursos , oportunidades e servicos no emprego produtivo?
• Qual e as causas de exclusao vida economicar elacionadas com Género acerca mulher, homen,raparigas rapazes? Acerca de minorias de género?
• Quais sao as normas socais e institucionais que influenciam sua habilidade para participar na economia?
• Quais sao as normas e institucionais que influenciam sua habilidade para participar na ecvonomia?
• Existem importantes diferenças geograficas nessas normas?
• Existem normas de gênero que desporporcionalmente afecta jovens (rapazes e raparigas ou rapazes) Homens fazendo sexos com outros homens (HSH) trabalhadoras de sexo (TS) ou trans?
• Você tem estatísticas nacional e subnacional relevante para estas questões que nos podem direcionar? especifique exemplos de documentos e estudos?

*Basedo em lacunas ou assuntos específicos (preferências, constrangimentos ou oportunidades) identificadas, prova por detalhes relacionados relacionados com os seguintes domínios da análise de gêneros.*

- Acesso e uso de tecnologia
- Tomada de decisão e poder in atividade economica e producao Agricola (input nas decisões produtivas, autonomia nas decisoes produtivas
- Controle sobre recursos produtivos (propriedade de bens, direitos sobre os bens acesso e decisao sobre credito
- Controle sobre os rendimentos
- Capital social e lideranca na comunidade (membros do grupo, falar em publico)
- Capital humano
- Uso do tempo/tempo de pobreza (sobrecarga de trabalho, satsfacao e lazer)
- Conhecimento,crencas e percepcaoes- Normas
- Direitos e estatuto

*Os primeiros sete domínios são para alimentar no future Quadro de Integração de género(com os subdomínios em paranteis) e os ultimos dois são para USAID IGWG (2009).*

Parte 2: como estes avanços e lacunas são tratados na corrente programação em Mo;ambique

• Obstaculos para igualdade de genero empoderamento economico das mulheres na participação economica? Que tipo de actividades são focalizados na area do programa?
• Como é que os papeis de gênero e normas influenciam a divisao do tempo entre trabalho pago e trabalho não pago (incluindo producao de subsistencia e cuidados com os membros da familia) e actividades voluntarias, como é que isso influencia mulheres, homens nas oportunidades de emprego pago?
• Violencia baseada no gênero joga um papel restritivo no acesso nas oportunidades para qualquer subpopulacao? homens que tem sexo com homens (HSH) trans e trabalhadoras de sexo (TS) mulheres, jovens? Como e que se lida com isto?
• Estigma e discriminacao jogam um papel restringindo acesso aos serviços de saúde para qualquer desses subgrupos? Que mecanismos para lidar com reclamações existem? tem sido usado? Estas reclamações foram resolvidas?
• Você tem algum programa estatistico (nacional ou subnacional) relevante para questões acima? Ligações aos serviços financeiros? Acesso ao credito?treinamento? mentoria?
• Existem lições a serem aprendidas para USAID e outros investimentos neste sector?
Parte 3: Oportunidades para USAID/Moçambique, em colaboração com GdM, OSC, ONGs, sector Privado, e outros doadores para avançar Igualdade de gênero e empoderamento da Mulher (iGEM), e refletir completamente nos seus planos estratégicos e na implementação de programas e Planos.

- Existe desafios específicos de gênero no crescimento econômico que USAID/Moçambique tem e vantagens comparativas para lidar? responder a estas questões vai ajudar a Missão da USAID para priorizar recursos e maximizar o impacto.
- Você tem alguma recomendação para fazer a USAID em como lidar com inequidades de gênero nas oportunidades econômicas quando planejar o desenvolvimento da próxima Estratégia de Cooperação Para o Desenvolvimento do País?
- A violência baseada no gênero joga um papel limitando o acesso aos serviços financeiros ou oportunidades econômicas para qualquer subpopulação? Estigma e discriminação? Acesso a Justiça? Que papel pode a USAID e seus parceiros jogar Lidando com estes desafios?
- Que tendências você vê que podem moldar a direcção no futuro crescimento econômico programado em Mocambique de tal maneira que avança igualdade de Gênero e empoderamento da mulher?

Nota para o entrevistador:

- Pode este informante providenciar alguma ajuda organizando grupos focais de discussão com grupos chaves?
- Eles sugeriram algum relatório do programa ou documento que nos temos que rever?
- Há alguém que eles sugeriram que a gente fale com ela para obter o senso completo dos desafios na área?

3. Guia para informantes chave—Educação

Introdução e consentimento verbal para entrevista—LER A AFIRMAÇÃO OU FRASE

Esta análise de gênero esta sendo conduzida pelo IRIS Grupo como parte o Projecto MMES financiado pelo USAID.

A entrevista vai levar entre 45-60 minutos durante a qual vamos pedir voce para comentar influência de gênero na experiência das pessoas na educação. Vamos também pedir para comentar sobre lacunas na corrente resposta ao gênero neste sector no e como a USAID pode reforçar seus esforços para lidar com inequidades de gênero e empoderamento da mulher no seu trabalho futuro.

Você pode parar a entrevista em qualquer tempo. Nos vamos tomar todas procedimentos recomendados para tornar sua informação pessoal confidencial. Sua identidade e sua afiliação organizacional vai permanecer confidencial. Apenas os pesquisadores vão ter acesso ao seu nome e a sua afiliação e os dados vão ficar armazenados com segurança. Em todo relatório e artigos acerca deste projecto de pesquisa, sua identidade será protegida o máximo possível.
Questões para entrevistas

Parte 1: Avanços recentes e desafios na igualdade de Gênero e empoderamento da mulher

- Poderia por favor descrever as diferenças entre homens e mulheres no acesso aos bens, recursos, oportunidades e serviços no sector de educação?
- Como mulheres e homens estão tipicamente envolvidos neste sector? quais os papéis típicos?
- Quais são as normas sociais que influenciam como participar e beneficiar da educação?
  - Existem diferenças geográficas importantes nessas normas?
  - Existem algumas normas de gênero que afectam disproportionalmente jovens (rapazes e raparigas, homem praticando sexo com outros homens (HSH), trabalhadoras de sexo (TS) ou trans no sector de educação?
- Você tem alguma estatística (nacional ou subnacional) relevante para estas questões que você possa partilhar? especifique exemplos de documentos e estudos?

Basedo em lacunas ou assuntos específicos (preferencias, constrangimentos ou oportunidades) identificadas, prova de detalhes relacionados com os seguintes domínios da análise de géneros.

- Acesso e uso de tecnologia
- Tomada de decisão e poder em actividade economica e producao Agricola (input nas decisões produtivas, autonomia nas decisões produtivas)
- Controle sobre recursos produtivos (propriedade de bens, direitos sobre os bens acesso e decisão sobre credito
- Controle sobre os rendimentos
- Capital social e liderança na comunidade (membros do grupo, falar em publico)
- Capital humano
- Uso do tempo/tempo de pobreza (sobrecarga de trabalho, satisfação e lazer)
- Conhecimento, crenças e percepções- Normas
- Direitos e estatuto

Os primeiros sete domínios são para alimentar no futuro Quadro de Integração de Género (com os subdomínios em parântesis) e os últimos dois são para USAID IGWG (2009).

Parte 2: Como estes avanços e lacunas são tratados na programação corrente em Moçambique

- Há em Moçambique organizações, ministérios ou projectos trabalhando para lidar com os obstaculos na igualdade de genero e empoderamento das mulheres no sector de educação? Que tipos de actividades constituem o foco dos programas neste area?
- Normas do Genero ou a diferenca no acesso aos recursos e instituicoes afectam as matriculas, participacao e retencao da mulher, jovens, homens praticando sexo com outros homens, trabalhadoras do sexo ou pessoas trans na escola e treinamento? Quais sao as diferenças geograficas desses factores?
• Você tem alguma estatística de programas (nacional ou subnacional) relevante para estas intervenções na educação? Acesso ao treinamento, tutoria, segurança ou outro tipo de apoio?

• Existem lições aprendidas que podem servir de modelo para a USAID outros previos investimentos neste sector? Exemplos de documentos e estudos? Algumas boas práticas para partilhar?

Basedo em lacunas ou assuntos específicos (preferências, constraintamentos ou oportunidades) identificadas, prova por detalhes relacionados relacionados com os seguintes domínios da análise de géneros.

• Acesso e uso de tecnologia
• Poder de tomada de decisão nas actividades económicas e produção agrária (input para decisões produtivas, autonomia nas decisões produtivas)
• Controle sobre recursos produtivos (propriedade de bens, direitos sobre bens e decisões sobre crédito)
• Controle no uso dos rendimentos
• Capital social e liderança nos grupos comunitários (membros dos grupos, falar em público)
• Capital Humano
• Uso do tempo/tempo pobreza/ [sobrecarga de trabalho, satisfação e prazer]
• Conhecimento, crenças, e percepção - Normas
• Direitos e estatuto

Os primeiros sete domínios são para alimentar no futuro Quadro de Integração de género (com os subdomínios em parêntesis) e os últimos dois são para USAID /IGWG (2009).

Parte 3: As oportunidades para USAID/Moçambique, em colaboração com o GDM, OCSs, ONGs, sector privado, e outros doadores, para o avanço do género e empoderamento da mulher (IGEM), e reflitam totalmente nas estratégias de planificação programas de implementação de planos.

• Existem desafios relacionados com género na educação que a USAID/Moçambique possui vantagem comparativa para lidar com? Responder a esta questão vai ajudar a Missão da USAID a priorizar recursos dedicados a desafios específicos e a maximizar o seu impacto.

• Você tem alguma recomendação em como lidar com inequidades/desigualdades de género na educação que você gostaria de fazer com que a USAID colocasse na sua próxima estratégia de cooperação para o Desenvolvimento do país?

• Que papel você vê a USAID /Moçambique a jogar lidando com tipos de estigma e descriminação que impede mulheres e população jovem e minorias de género de beneficiar destas intervenções?

Notas do Entrevistador:

• Pode este informante providenciar alguma ajuda em organizar discussão de grupos focais com grupos-chave?

• Eles sugeriram algum relatório ou documento do programa que nos poderíamos rever?
Ha alguém que eles acreditam/confiam que tenhamos que falar, para ganhar um senso completo dos desafios na área?

4. Guião de informantes chaves—Ambiente

Introdução e consentimento verbal para intrevista—LER A AFIRMACAO OU FRASE

Esta análise de género esta sendo conduzida pelo IRIS Grupo como parte o Projecto MMES financiado pelo USAID.

A entrevista vai levar entre 45-60 minutos durante a qual vamos pedir voce para comentar influência de género na experiência das pessoas no ambiente e getão de recursos. Vamos também pedir para comentar sobre lacunas na corrente resposta ao género neste sector no e como a USAID pode reforcar seus esforços para lidar cominequidades de género e empoderamento da mulher no seu trabalho futuro.

Voce pode parar a entrevista em qualquer tempo. Nos vamos tomar todas procedimentos recomendados para tornar sua informação pessoal confidencial. Sua identidade e sua afiliação organizacional vai permanecer confidencial. Apenas os pesquisadores vao ter acesso ao seu nome e a sua afiliação e os dados vão ficar armazenados com segurança .Em todo relatorio e artigos acerca deste projecto de pesquisa ,sua identidade será protegida o máximo possivel.

Questões para Entrevistas

Parte 1: avanços e desafios recentes na igualdade de género e empoderamento da mulher (IGEM)em cada sector em Moçambique

- Podera por favor descrever o diferencial acesso a bens, recursos oportunitades e serviços no sector de gestão de recursos naturais (NRM)?
- Como é que tipicamente mulheres estão envolvidas neste sector? Pápeis típicos?
- Quais são as normas sociais e instituições que influenciam como elas participam e beneficiam da gestão dos recursos naturais (NRM)?
- Quais são as normas socias e instituições que influênciame como elas participam no beneficios da gestão de recursos naturais ?
  - Ha importantes diferenças geográficas nessas normas?
  - Ha algumas normas de género que afectam desporporcionalmente Jovens (rapazes e raparigas)
    Homens fazendo sexo com outros Homens (HSH) trabalhadoras de sexo (TS) ou trans?
- Voce tem alguma estatistica nacional ou subnacional relevante para estas questões que voce direcciona para nos?exemplos específicos de documentos e estudos?

Basedo em lacunas ou assuntos específicos (preferencias, constrangimentos ou oportunidades) identificadas , prova por detalhes relacionados relacionados com os seguintes domínios da análise de géneross.

- Acesso e uso de tecnologia
Tomada de decisao e poder in actividade economicae producao Agricola (input nas decisions produtivas, autonomianas decisoes produtivas
Controle sobre recursos produtivos (propriedade de bens, direitos sobre os bens acesso e decisao sobre credito
Controle sobre os rendimentosc
Capital social e lederanca na comunidade (membros do grupo, falar em publico)
Capital humano
Uso do tempo?tempo de pobreza (sobrecarga de trabalho, satisfacao e lazer)
Conhecimento,crencas e percepcaos- Normas
Direitos e estatuto

Os primeiros sete dominios sào para alimentar no future Quadro de Integração de gênero(com os subdominios em paranteis) e os ultimos dois sào para USAID IGWG (2009).

Part 2: Como estes avancos e lacunas sao tratados na corrente programação em Mocambique

Ha organizacoes, ministerios ou projectos trabalhanso para lidar com os obstaculos para a igualdade de gnero e empoderamento das mulheres no sector de Ambiente / Gestao de Recursos/Biodiversidade ?que tipo de actividades sao o focu do programa nesta area?

AS normas e o acesso deferencial de recursos e instituições afectam disproporcionalmente a participaçao e retencao de mulheres , pessoas jovens , homem que fazem sexo com outros homens (HSH)Trabalhadoras de sexo (TS)ou trans neste programa? ha alguma diferenca geografica neste factores?

Tem algum Estatistica de programa(or nacional/subnacional) relevant para intervençao neste sector? Acesso ao treinamentou outros serviços de apoio?

Existem liçoes que aprendidas para a USAIDe outros investimentos previus no sector? Alguma boa pratica a partilhar?

Part 3: Toportunidades para USAID /Mozambique ,na colaboraçao que in collaboration with the GOM, CSOs, NGOs, swctor privado ,e outros doadores spara o avanco da igualdade de Gênero e empoderamento da mulher, to advance GEWE, and fully reflect that within its strategic planning and program implementation plans.

Existem desafio sespecificos relacionados com gêneroneste sector que a USAID/Moçambique a vantage comparative para lidar com? Respondendo a esta questao,ajudaria a Missao Da USAID a priorizar recursos dedicados para os constrangimentos especificos de gênero e maximizar o seu impacto.

Tem algumaendaçao em como lidar com inequidades de gênero neste sector que gostaria de fazer para a proxima Estratégia de cooperaçao do Pais do USAID?

Que papel voce ve a USAID ?moçambique jogar para lidar com tipos de stigma e descriminaçao que impedem mulheres, jovens minorias de gênerom beneficiar dessas intervençoes?
Notas do Intervistador:

- Pode este informant providenciar alguma ajuda em organizar discussão de grupos focais com grupos chave?
- Eles sugeriram algum relatório ou documento do programa que nos poderíamos rever?
- Ha alguém que eles acreditam que tenhamos que falar, para ganhar um senso completo dos desafios na área?

5. Guia para informantes chave—Health

Introdução e consentimento verbal para intrevista—LER A AFIRMACAO OU FRASE

Esta análise de género está sendo conduzida pelo IRIS Grupo como parte o Projecto MMES financiado pelo USAID.

A entrevista vai levar entre 45-60 minutos durante a qual vamos pedir voce para comentar influência de género na experiência das pessoas n o ambiente e getão de recursos. Vamos também pedir para comentar sobre lacunas na corrente resposta ao género neste sector no e como a USAID pode reforçar seus esforços para lidar cominequidades de género e empoderamento da mulher no seu trabalho futuro.

Voce pode parar a entrevista em qualquer tempo. Nos vamos tomar todas procedimentos recomendados para tornar sua informação pessoal confidencial. Suaidentidade e sua afiliação organizacional vai permanecer confidencial. Apenas os pesquisadores vao ter acesso ao seu nome e a sua afiliação e os dados vão ficar armazenados com segurança .Em todo relatorio e artigos acerca deste projecto de pesquisa ,sua identidade será protegida o máximo possível.

Questões para Entrevistas

Parte 1: avanços e desafios recentes na igualdade de género e empoderamento da mulher em saúde

- Pode por favor descrever o diferenciar entre mulheres e homens no acesso a bens ,recursos ,oportunidades , servicos no sector de saúde?
- Como homens e mulheres estao tipicamente envolvidos no sectores? Papeis tipicos?
  - Sao importantes as diferenças geograficas dessas normas?
  - Existem algumas normas de genero que efectam desporporcionalmente afectam jovens (rapazes e raparigas), Homens fazendo sexo com outros homens (HSH) trabalhadoras de sexo (TS) ou trans no sector de Educacao?
- Voce tem alguma estatistica nacional ou subnacional relevante para estas questoes que voce nos orienta a usar? Exemplos de documentos e estudos?

Basedo em lacunas ou assuntos específicos (preferencias, constrangimentos ou oportunidades) identificadas , prova por detalhes relacionados com os seguintes domínios da analise de géneros.

- Acesso e uso de 9l produtivas
Controle sobre recursos produtivos (propriedade de bens, direitos sobre os bens acesso e decisao sobre credito)

Controle sobre os rendimentos

Capital social e liderança na comunidade (membros do grupo, falar em publico)

Capital humano

Uso do tempo?tempo de pobreza (sobrecarga de trabalho, satisfação e lazer)

Conhecimento, crenças e percepções - Normas

Direitos e estatuto

Os primeiros sete domínios são para alimentar no future Quadro de Integração de género (com os subdomínios em parêntesis) e os últimos dois são para USAID IGWG (2009).

Parte 2: Como estes avanços e lacunas são tratados na corrente programação em Mocambique

Existem organizações, ministerios ou projectos trabalhando direcionados aos obstaculos de género e empoderamento da mulher no sector de saúde? Que tipo de actividades são o foco do seu programa na area?

Comopapeis e normas de género influenciam a divisao do tempo entre trabalho pago e não pago (incluindo produção de subsistencia e cuidadados com os membros da familia) e actividades voluntárias , e como isso influencia a saúde de mulheres e homens?

A violencia baseada no género joga um papel restringindo o acesso aos servicos de saúde para qualquer subpopulação para homens que fazem sexo com outros homens (HSH) trans, Trabalhadoras de sexo (TS)? Como isso é tratado? O que esta faltando?

Estigma e descriminação jogam um papel restringindo acesso aos serviços de saúde para qualquer destes grupos? Que mecanismos de reclamação existem? Eles são usados? As reclamações são resolvidas?


Há lições a serem aprendidas pela USAIDe outros investimentos neste sector?

Parte 3: Oportunidades para USAID/Mozambique, na colaboração que in collaboration with the GOM, CSOs, NGOs, sector privado, e outros doadores para o avanço da igualdade de Género e empoderamento da mulher, to advance GEWE, and fully reflect that within its strategic planning and program implementation plans.

Ha desafios especificos relacionados com género neste sector que USAID/Moçambique possui vantage comparativa para lidar com? Responder a esta quesvai ajudar a Missão da USAID a priorizar recursos e a maximizar o impacto.

Voce tem alguma recomendacao para lidar com iniquidades de género no sector de saúde que gostaria de fazer para a USAID para proxima Estratégia de Desenvolvimento da Cooperação do Pais?
A violência baseada no gênero joga um papel na saúde e acesso aos serviços de qualquer subpopulação? O que acerca do stigma e discriminação? Acesso à justiça? Que papel pode a USAID e seus parceiros jogar Lidando com estes desafios?

Que tendências você vê que podem moldar a direção da futura programação de saúde em Moçambique para um completo avanço na igualdade de gênero e empoderamento da mulher?

**Notas do Intervistador:**

- Pode este informante providenciar alguma ajuda em organizar discussão de grupos focais com grupos chave?
- Eles sugeriram algum relatório ou documento do programa que nos poderíamos rever?
- Há alguém que eles acreditam que tenhamos que falar, para ganhar um senso completo dos desafios na área?
ANNEX C. GENDER ASSESSMENT KEY STAFF

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ANNEX D. BROAD POLICY CONTEXT

Mozambique is a signatory to all relevant international agreements on gender equality, and the empowerment of women is a key component of the country’s poverty reduction strategy. For example, Mozambique has ratified the U.N. Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and its Optional Protocol, as well as the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People’s Rights concerning the Rights of Women in Africa, and the Southern African Development Community’s (SADC) Protocol on Gender and Development. The ideal of gender equality is also enshrined in the national Constitution.

The following are the high-level policies that frame gender equality in Mozambique.

- Constituição da República
- Plano Quinquenal do Governo
- Política Nacional de Género e sua Estratégia de Implementação
- Políticas Sectoriais de Género:
  - Estratégia de Género do MISAU;
  - Estratégia de Género do Ministério da Educação;
  - Estratégia de Género da Função Pública;
  - Estratégia de Género da Agricultura;
  - Estratégia de Género do Meio Ambiente;
- Lei Modelo da SADC contra os Casamentos Prematuros
- Estratégia de Nacional de Prevenção e Combate aos Casamentos Prematuros
- Plano Estratégico Nacional de Combate ao SIDA
- Estratégia da Área dos Direitos Sexuais e Reprodutivos
- Análise estatística sobre Casamentos Prematuros
- Plano Nacional de Combate a Violência Contra a Mulher
- Plano Nacional para o Avanço da Mulher
- Perfil de Género
  - Lei do Trabalho

Overall, Mozambique has good legislation to promote gender equality, but room for improvement to bolster women’s participation, human capital, decision-making power, voice and entrepreneurship. Much more attention is needed to create systems of accountability to improve the implementation of the laws that already exist. Mozambique had a Gender Inequality Index score of .552 and a ranking of 138 (out of 187 countries) in 2017 (123).

The Government of the Republic of Mozambique (GRM) created a Ministry of Women and Social Action in 2000 and has assigned gender focal points in various ministries at national and provincial levels.
These gender focal points, however, are often ineffective and lack resources (2). A Directorate General for Women’s Affairs implements programs for the Ministry, and the National Council for Promoting Women includes official organizations, NGO representatives, private sector participants, and religious officials (124). A new office for the Care of Women and Children was also created in the Police Department (121).

The 2004 Family Law establishes gender equality in family law, marriage, divorce, raising children, and the sharing of assets within marriage and bans discrimination against women (124). Husbands and wives share equal standing—on paper—as heads of households and parents (124). In instances of divorce, the law requires that husbands pay child support and allows for splitting of assets (91). The law also codifies gender equality in property ownership, directly influences land rights for rural women (91,124). The law also changes in provisions relating to marriage: (a) customary or religious marriages must be registered with civil authorities to protect the rights of women and afford justice to women; (b) de facto marriages are recognized as legal; and (c) all children have equal inheritance and legal rights regardless of whether they are born within or outside of a marriage (124). This law also established the minimum age of marriage as 18 (91).

In 2009, the Domestic Violence Bill was passed, banning violence against women and criminalizing domestic violence (91,92). It also criminalizes rape and recognizes it as a “psychological, moral, and economic act of violence” (92). Despite the advances of this bill, Article 37 is unclear about spousal violence: “The Article is ambiguous on the issue of spousal violence in the home, which could be misconstrued to mean acceptance of the crime, which could be used to prevent women from defending themselves or reporting incidents of domestic violence. This could be used to allow husbands to hide behind this clause. However, efforts are in progress to have it amended (92).” Further, in the Penal Code, the punishment for rape within marriage is only six months to two years whereas it is two to eight years outside of marriage (121). There is also a lack of sensitivity on gender issues among the police that prevents enforcement of the penalties for domestic violence (121).

Despite the passage of these policy frameworks and laws, implementation has been a real challenge (91). Additionally, ratification of international agreements—CEDAW and the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights of Women in Africa—does not necessarily translate to similar commitments in national laws (121).