A GENDERED INVESTIGATION ON THE CHALLENGES ASSOCIATED WITH FOOD INSECURITY. A CASE STUDY OF CHITANGA WARD ONE IN MWENEZI DISTRICT, UNDER MASVINGO PROVINCE.

RESEARCH PROJECT

BY

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A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF REQUIREMENTS FOR THE BACHELOR OF SOCIAL WORK (HONOURS) DEGREE OF BINDURA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE EDUCATION, FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES.

OCTOBER, 2014.
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The Department of Examiners is satisfied that this dissertation report meets the examination requirements and I therefore recommend to the Bindura University of Science Education to accept a research project by Terence Chauke titled A gendered investigation on the challenges associated with food insecurity. A case study of Chitanga ward one in Mwenezi district under Masvingo Province in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Bachelor of Social Work Honours Degree.

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DEDICATION

To my mother and father including my young brothers who tirelessly gave me the strength to soldier on despite the challenges I experienced during the writing stage. I also dedicate it to my nieces Mercy Muzenda and Vimbai Mamutse for providing a conducive environment for this thesis to be a success. I thank you very much. May Elshadai continue to give you glory.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My sincere appreciation goes my Lecturer Mr Maushe for guiding me through this research writing stage, and for being patient with me in spite of the challenges students in the art of research. My appreciation also goes to Mr Kumba and Bessel Tapesana who were also ready to help during the writing stage. I also wish to acknowledge my parents for the financial support and for giving the strength to soldier on. I would like also to thank all the respondents from Chitanga ward one and the technocrats operating in Mwenezi district from both government and non-governmental organisation for coming forward to give me information of food security issues. My sincere appreciation also goes to those who made this research possible.

May God Bless you all.
ABSTRACT

The focus of the study was to carry out a gendered investigation on the challenges associated with food insecurity in rural Zimbabwe using Chitanga ward one as a case study in Mwenezi district. The study also sought to establish the social protection systems in food insecure regions and to recommend strategies for sustainable livelihoods for rural women and reduce the donor dependency. Basically, the study was a descriptive thesis which utilised a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches. Data was collected in the form of focus group discussions, participant observation, questionnaires, and interviews with key informants and document reviews respectively. The methodology for sampling procedures was purposive and snow-ball sampling techniques and the respondents were above the age of 18. The major findings of the study was that the debilitating effects of food insecurity affects women and their Children than their male counterparts. The study also established that rural women bear the major brunt of single handedly raising the family while the majority of their husbands are in most cases based in South Africa where they will be doing menial jobs. The study also found that lack of market linkages, unavailability of loose credit systems, negative community attitude towards small grains yet is suitable for the study area and the donor dependency syndrome coupled with the unfavourable climatic conditions, mediocre legislative representation, the government’s shortcomings and the habit of letting women toil for the family alone while men seat back were found to be the major threat to food insecurity in Chitanga ward one. The key results of the study also revealed that the negative effects of food insecurity trap young girls into early childhood marriages which are in most cases pathetic and in worst cases some women in the ward are also forced to engage in nefarious activities like prostitution in an attempt to bring food on the table to feed the children especially in female –headed families. The paper concludes by emphasising that the condition of food insecurity can be best tackled by designing poverty reduction transformative measures that takes into account the urgent need for creating market linkages, promoting positive attitude towards small grains in the community, availing loose credit systems, and making effective use of extension services by villagers and, good networking between the state and non-state actors in responding to the needs of the incapacitated households. It also involves addressing the systemic barriers rooted in society by taking into account the gender needs and constrains especially that of women.
ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS  -  Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome.

ADB  -  African Development Bank.

ACWG-  Agriculture Cluster Working Group.

AFC  -  Agricultural Finance Co-operation.

BEAM  -  Basic Educational Assistance Module.

DPLP  -  Department of Livestock Production and Development.

DVS  -  Department of Veterinary Services.

DDC  -  District Drought Committee.

FAO  -  Food and Agriculture Organisation.

HIV  -  Human Immune Virus.

HDI  -  Human Development Index.

ILO  -  International Labour Organisation.

MDC  -  Movement Democratic Change.

MDGs  -  Millennium Development Goals.

NGOs  -  Non-Governmental Organisations.

NANGO  -  National Association of Non-Governmental Organisations.

NASSA  -  National Social Security Association.

PAC  -  Productive Asset Creation Programme.

VGF  -  Vulnerable Group Feeding Programme.

WFP  -  World Food Programme.

ZANU PF  -  Zimbabwe African National Unity Patriotic Front.

ZIMVAC-  Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee.
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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Food insecurity is a major concern at national, regional and global level. Hunger and poverty continue to afflict poor communities across the world, and Zimbabweans in the rural areas continue to suffer food insecurity due to different factors. These factors include low rainfall, poor soils and lack of financial resources and agricultural inputs. Of note, women in food insecure areas are more vulnerable to hunger and poverty than their male counterparts making it pertinent that links between gender food insecurity be explored.

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Food security is a basic human right enshrined under Chapter 2: 15 of the new Constitution of Zimbabwe Amendment number 20. The 55th of the United Nations General Assembly in September 2000 formulated Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), setting up development targets and indicators that include improving women empowerment and addressing food insecurity across the world. Targets were set over a 25 year period 1990-2015, and Zimbabwe is party to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) initiative. According to the Millennium Development Goals (2010) specific targets for Zimbabwe regarding food security are as follows:

Target 1:

(a) Halve, between 2002 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than the Total Consumption Poverty Line (TCPL).
(b) Halve, between 2002 and 2005, the proportion of people in human poverty, as measured by the Human Poverty Index (HPI).

Target 2:

(a) Halve, between 2002 and 2015, the proportion of the people suffering from hunger.
(b) Reduce by two-thirds, the proportion of Children under-five who are malnourished.


In regard to the above goals, the position of women in achieving sustainability in food security cannot be emphasised. Indeed the status of women is key in food security, poverty alleviation and sustainable development. In 1998, the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) put
women’s role in food production and food security at the heart of its awareness –raising campaigns. On international Women Day, March 8, the same year the organisation announced its theme for World Food Day, “Women Feed the World”. [www.FAO.org,1998]. Women come up with multiple livelihood strategies in an effort to ensure food security to the extent that they work everywhere, not by choice but to put food on the table to feed their families. They engage in petty trading in agricultural produce and wares of different kinds just to ensure that their families are fed. In areas where food security is under threat due to low productivity caused by poor climatic conditions, it is difficult for families to secure food. Under such conditions, males of productive age migrate to other countries in search of greener pastures, leaving women to bear the brunt of looking after families. In addition to this, the burden of care for HIV infected persons is mostly left to women who have to provide both care and food for HIV infected and friends. Some women in Zimbabwe are involved in crossborder trading, travelling as far as Botswana, Mozambique and South Africa to sell agricultural produce such as groundnuts and fruits to survive. Gladwin and Thomson (2001) observe that most of the food supplies in Malawi were obtained from off-farm activities so as to ensure food security. In food insecure areas, migrant labour, petty trading and informal labour provide sustenance for vulnerable communities. However, gender dynamics tend to tie women down to the home, preventing them from seeking sustainable sources of income to mitigate poverty and hunger. For these women that find the opportunity to engage in income-generating activities, the bulk of their earnings is spend on feeding their families when compared to their male counterparts. FAO Director, Sissel Ekans sums it as follows: ‘’ despite their overwhelming contribution to food security, women are often ‘’invisible’’ economically and statistically. There is a gender dimension to food insecurity in rural Zimbabwe, with women bearing the brunt of hunger and poverty much more than their counterparts.

The plight of women in food insecure regions of Zimbabwe is tied up to the history of colonisation. Upon colonisation in the 1890s, white settlers seized prime agricultural land from the indigenous black communities forcing them to resettle on poor soils in the communal reserves. These communal areas were tsetse-infested and also prone to poor climatic conditions thus affecting livestock and production. Further, the commercialisation of agriculture by the settler white farmers resulted in maize substituting traditional drought-tolerant crops such as sorghum and millet. This introduction of maize farming in communal areas has affected food security as maize production is heavily depended on good climatic conditions. The colonial
system discriminated against women in access to land, technology, credit and employment. Colonial political and economic processes widened gender inequality. Able-bodied migrant male labour was targeted. With the introduction of private property, more women than men lost their traditional land rights, and they were relegated to unpaid and ill-specified labour under systems of tenancy. The deterioration of traditional manufacturing impacted on women employment and income generation. Women had to cope with meagre resources to feed and care for their children, the aged and the infirm. In areas where slavery was rampant, racism added a third oppression to those of gender and class.

According to IFAD (1993) the colonial system differentiated people into rural and urban, with male labour being recruited in urban areas leading to the “ruralisation” of women. Uma and Nyako (1970) point out that in some countries such as Zimbabwe, Kenya, Mozambique and Malawi large-scale commercial farming and agro-processing was established, thereby creating wage labour leading to the exclusion and alienation of women. Colonial policies created differentiation and dualistic patterns of growth that led up to the impoverishment of the majority in the rural areas. Tinken (1990) postulates that intervention to improve food security and gender relations have to take into consideration then gender and historical links to food insecurity.

1.2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Food insecurity is a pertinent issue that continues to be a major cause of concern in drought-prone regions of Zimbabwe and in most cases rural women are the most vulnerable group as compared with their male counterparts. Recent years have witnessed increased food insecurity in Zimbabwe yet it was previously a major producer exporting to other countries. In Zimbabwe like in any other African societies, women are the main producers of subsistence crops while at the same time they take care of children, the sick and elderly. Based on ZIMSTAT Census (2012), women make up 52 per cent of the population and 70 per cent of them are poor. Gender dynamics makes women particularly vulnerable to food insecurity.

1.3. AIM

The overall aim of the study is to assess the food security situation in rural Zimbabwe using Chitanga ward 1 as a case study in Mwenezi district.
1.3.1 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- To identify challenges associated with food insecurity.
- To assess the gender dimension to food insecurity.
- To establish the existence of social protection systems in food insecure regions.
- To design or formulate strategies for sustainable livelihoods for rural women and reduce donor dependency.

1.3.2. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- What is the state of food security in Mwenezi district, using a case study of Chitanga ward 1?
- What challenges exist in attaining food security in rural Zimbabwe?
- What problems or rather challenges are rural women facing as a result of food insecurity?
- What can be done to empower rural women and improve livelihoods in their communities?

1.4. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study sought to provide an insight into the food security situation in Mwenezi district. It will also establish the link between gender inequality and food insecurity. The study was also expected to come up with recommendations to empower rural women and their communities through sustainable interventions.

The study was of theoretical importance to other researchers as it exposed the gap in the area of food insecurity. Basically, it enabled the researcher to apply models that have been developed into practice and measure their effectiveness in addressing the pertinent issue of food insecurity in Zimbabwe.

The research can also be of policy relevance to the policy makers in both state and non-state actors agencies so that they may come up with interventions that are critical to counter food insecurity. The study will also inform policy makers especially in the Ministry of Agriculture to focus their attention in the areas that require more attention and will subsequently broaden their scope in terms of their approach to food security.
The research was also of methodological importance to other social sciences researchers as the researchers utilised both qualitative and quantitative research designs to gather data. In most cases, social sciences researchers feel less comfortable to employ both qualitative and quantitative research designs in research. Statistical models were used in data analysis and interpretation in a systematic way. Triangulating two research designs was an effective way of ensuring the reliability and validity of the research findings.

1.4.1. DEFINITION OF TERMS

- **Gender**- is basically the cultural definition of what is male or female. Generally, it is the related behaviour and attributes that are linked to the social roles of men and women.

- **Food insecurity**- exists whenever food security is limited or uncertain.

- According to UN (1995) food security means availability at all times of adequate world supplies of basic food stuffs to sustain a steady expansion of food as assured national availability of food to meet current minimum requirements per capita during a period of at least three months.

- **Food aid** – Husband (1995) defined food aid as a specialised resource used to address hunger, malnutrition and other aspects of food insecurity.

- **Livelihoods** – It comprises of capabilities assets and entitlements and the activities required for a means of living. In other words, it denotes the activities, assets, and access that jointly determine the living standards gained by an individual household or community (UNDP, 1999). According to Dewer (2004), basically livelihood refers to the natural resource base that people had at their disposal and how they managed this resource base to achieve a certain standard of living.

- **Role** – According to Giddens (1996) a role refers to a social definition of the behaviour patterns, rights and those occupying a specific status.

- **Family**- According to Schaefer (2004) a family denotes an institution whose primary feature is core residence. It is assumed that people, who live within a single space, share the day to day tasks of servicing human beings including consumption and organise the reproduction of the next generation. It is known as “one pot one roof concept”.

- **Community** – These are people who live in an administrative unit.
• **Vulnerability** - Refers to the inability to withstand the effects of a hostile environment which in this case can be contextualised to mean the effects of food insecurity.

• **Beneficiary** – According to Rudava (2004) this is a targeted person eligible for food assistance.

• **Recipients** - This is a person who receives food at a distribution point.

• **ZIMVAC** – Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee is a gathering of state and non-state actors that periodically assess the food security situation in Zimbabwe.

**Keywords**

- Food Security, Social protection, Social security, Donor dependency syndrome, Food aid, Gender and Livelihoods.

1.5. **ASSUMPTIONS**

No single factor can explain the prevalence of food insecurity in Zimbabwe as a whole, but rather there is a positive correlation between limited access to loose-credit schemes, inputs, inconsistent land reform programme, donor dependency, lack of effective extension services and social protection programme is as far as food insecurity is concerned. It is also assumed that key informants will agree to provide official information on food security in the study area. Again, the existing socio-political environment permits the conduct of research and the target population is willing to participate in the study. There will be adequate resources to carry out the study such as transport, food, shelter and cell phones chances for communication to undertake the research.

1.5.1. **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.**

This is a descriptive study that combines qualitative and quantitative methods. Keith and Punch (2004: 62) define research methodology as basic plan for a piece of research. The methodology is basically that approach of research which links the research questions to the data that helped the researcher a lot to unearth the gendered nature of the challenges associated with food insecurity. According to Zikmund (1994), any research assignment and its conclusions are defined and judged by the particular combination of theoretical proximal factors that shape them because they are found in the researcher’s views, human values, theories and data gathering methods. In this regard, the initial and critical planning of a project forms the solid foundation of research methodology.
1.5.2. STUDY POPULATION

The study population includes key informants in positions of influence such as the Senator, Arex Officers, NGO staff, District Social Welfare Officer, Nutritionist and villagers based in ward 1 of Mwenezi District.

1.5.3. SAMPLE SIZE

According to Cohen and Manion (1987), a sample is defined as part of the population. Similarly, Best and Khan (1993:77) also define a sample as a small population selected for observation and analysis. By studying the characteristics of the sample, one can make inferences about the whole population from which it is drawn. In this study, the researcher selected about a fifth of the total population under study from one thousand and ten people in ward one. The researcher therefore collected data from about fifty three respondents and administered 30 individual questionnaires. He also conducted 7 interviews with key informants and two focus group discussions with 8 respondents each. It is from this sample that the researcher was able to make inferences about the state of affairs in relation to food security in ward one that can be generalised to other communal wards in Mwenezi district given nature of the sample size which is big.

1.5.4. SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

Both purposive and snow-balling sampling techniques were utilised in this study. The researcher used snow-balling sampling technique in carrying out focus group discussion where by the respondents possibly experiencing the same conditions related to poverty and interested in pertinent issue under investigation participated on voluntary basis and the researcher only served to inform them about the main agenda of the gathering. This enabled the respondents to feel that the problem under investigation is community based which eventually made it easier for the researcher to develop a good rapport with the respondents and motivated them to make constructive contributions during the discussion on how the problem of food insecurity can be solved. Basically snow-balling gave the researcher the chance have a better insight about some of the peculiar issues that exist in the community with regards to food insecurity. The main disadvantage of snow-balling sampling is that it is not systematic considering that respondents only participated out of their own choice for the study under investigation some without the inspiration to provide solutions to the challenges associated with food insecurity. As a result, the seriousness of some respondents engaged in the discussion was based on individual
interest with regards to the problem under investigation. To cater for these flaws, purposive sampling was utilised in conducting key informant interviews and distributing individual questionnaires. It involved the selection of the most accessible members of the study population and technocrats from both government as well non-governmental organisations operating in the district with sound knowledge about the food security issues. The purposive study involves the deliberate, organised effort by the researcher to engage variables that are a proto-type of the actual population with the required data for the pertinent issue under investigation. This enabled the researcher to draw inferences from the research findings basing on the key results from the selected few respondents and was easy to apply. According to Best (1970), its major setback is however that it is not systematic, and does not have specific sampling frames. As the researcher was aware that research findings based on purposive sampling have low generalisability, he combined both purposive and snow-balling sampling techniques so that they could complement each other and increase the levels of generalisability.

1.6. RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods were used in the study. Best (1970), states that many different tools have developed to aid the acquisition of data and these tools employ distinctive ways of describing and quantifying data. Thus, each tool has its own merits and demerits. These research tools fall under different specific paradigms and were discussed under their respective paradigms. In order to capture views of a wide spectrum of enumerators, the researcher used questionnaires, focus group discussions, key informant interviews, observation and document reviews respectively.

1.6.1. QUESTIONNAIRE

According to Hutton (1990) questionnaire research is the method of collecting information by asking a set of questions in a pre-determined sequence in a structural questionnaire to a sample of individuals drawn so as to be representative of a defined population. A self-completed questionnaire was developed and administered to 30 key respondents for the individual covering villagers in Chitanga ward 1. The questionnaire had 19 questions covering demographic information, food security situation and suggestion on empowering women to end food insecurity and improve livelihoods. Questionnaire research method is a very convenient means of conducting a research in that questions are designed so that answers from individual respondents can be added together to produce results which apply to the whole sample. Wimmer and Dominick (1994), claim that questionnaires are cheaper to conduct
considering the amount of information gathered and that large amounts of data can be collected with relative from a wide variety of people. Self-completed questionnaires are generally quick to complete, but their full completion is highly dependent on the participants literacy level. The other downside to self-completed questionnaires was that some participants chose not to return their questionnaires thus reducing the sample size. In some cases respondents could give false claims about the situation (Wimmer and Dominick 1994).

1.6.2. FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

Two focus group discussions, each with 8 participants were held with Chitanga ward 1. The researcher used snow-ballng focus group method of engaging people who mobilise themselves and the researcher only served to inform them the main agenda of the gathering. This was a very convenient method as it reduced the bias of the researcher to select the key respondents out of his value judgements and as a result, both the literate and semi-literate and all sexes were equally represented. This focus group discussion method was easy to apply by virtue of being a member of the community under study. According to Neuman (1999) Focus group discussions involve interviewing a set of people together. The researcher chose focus group discussions because they allow participants to share their thoughts and develop a group integrated perspective. In this way, they sparked new ideas and consider a range of views before answering questions and enabled the researcher to have a fair share of the gender dimensions on the factors influencing food insecurity in ward 1. The focus group discussions helped the respondents a lot to share their views and experiences with regards to the problem on food insecurity in the ward. Group interviews made an important contribution to the research study. According to Morgan (1998), the hallmark of focus group interaction is to produce data and insight that will be less accessible without interaction found in a group. Therefore, well organised and well facilitated group discussions gave the researcher an insight about the underlying peculiar issues that exist in the community influencing the condition of food insecurity in the ward and have a fair-share of how the key respondents think the problem should be solved. The findings were then instrumental to the villagers in other communal wards in the district facing the same problem and to both state as well as non-state actors operating in the area of food security.

Group interviews are not expensive; they are rich in data, flexible, stimulating, and cumulative and elaborative. The discussion allowed the interviewer to accumulate more questions during discussions. However, problems were encountered by using this instrument. Problems
associated with group culture and dynamics as some of the respondents especially women tended to be dominant in the discussions than men and men were not forthcoming. This scenario compromised the researcher in achieving balance in group interactions and the high turnout of women can be attributed to the fact that the majority single-handedly raise their families in the absence of male-resident heads of households.

1.6.3. INTERVIEWS

Key informant interviews were conducted with seven (7) authoritative sources that include development workers, government officers, the Senator from the ward and traditional leaders. The researcher developed semi-structured interview guide for the conduct of key informant interviews and the respondents were purposively selected following the realisation that there are the technocrats in the district who are resourceful people, whose input was relevant information to the study. According to Dooley (1995) an interview involves direct personal contact with the participant who is being asked. The researcher noted that the interview schedule was more accessible to literate and semi-literate people as key informants. Hence, the interview was utilised by the researcher for collecting data from both literate and semi-literate respondents. According Robson (1993), interviews offers the possibility of modifying one’s line of inquiry, following up interesting responses on investigating underlying motives that postal self-administered questionnaires cannot.

1.6.4. OBSERVATION

The researcher also used participant observation one of his data collection tool. This involved going around the ward taking pictures of irrigation schemes and water bodies and to ascertain the extent to which the communities in the ward were prone to food insecurity and to have first-hand information about their general lifestyle as well as the welfare situations in the study area. It is non-verbal way of collecting data. Observation involves looking at people and situation noting or recognising what is going on without asking questions those being observed. According to Saunders et al (2003) the researcher also shares experiences by not only observing what is happening but also feels it. In this case, observation helped the researcher a lot to view the day to day activities of men and women that occur in the ward in order to be able to identify some of the problems affecting the community and respective counterparts with regards to food security. However, observer effects or reactivity was the downside to observation, where the observer’s early impressions might influence the collection of information. It is not systematic and is simply based on the researcher’s intuition. There are ethical issues involved in participant
observation, but the researcher made an effort to seek permission to take photographs from relevant authorities about Chitanga irrigation scheme and Chitanga Dam which was washed away by floods early this year in 2014.

1.6.5. DOCUMENT REVIEWS

To compliment data collected in the field, the researcher utilised document reviews of Parliamentary Select Committee reports, NGO reports, and reports by various government departments like Social Services and Agritex.

1.7. ETHICAL ISSUES

All participants were informed about the purpose the study in order to willing participate or not because social science researchers are premised on ethical considerations. Hargreaves and Atkinson (1978) show that informed consent is a major requirement protecting the rights and interests of individuals. The researcher recognised that the respondents have the right to informed consent and enjoyed freedom from coercion. This became an important concept given the fact that information gathered could be potentially used or abused in ways that are very harmful to the subjects. In this research study, there was guarantee on the part of the researcher that:

- The rights and welfare of any subjects were adequately protected.
- Provisions addressing issues pertaining to informed consent, protection from physical, psychological harm, issues of privacy and confidentiality and conflicting roles of the researcher and respondents with respondents as the research subjects.
- The participants had a choice to participate or withdraw from the research study.
- The research study was for academic purposes only.

1.8. CONFIDENTIALITY

According to Borg and Gall (1989), the research has to protect the anonymity of the participants and the confidentiality of their disclosures. Participants valued the confidentiality of their disclosures. However, the researcher was cautious of the degree of confidentiality as anonymity is sometimes not measured. In this case, those who were willing to give their real names were free to do so but for those who were not comfortable remained anonymous.

1.8.1. FEASIBILITY OF THE STUDY.
The research was confined to Chitanga ward 1, in Mwenezi district only. It was assumed that key informants working in these areas and the local villagers would give a clear picture of the factors influencing the state of affairs with regards to food insecurity in the ward. In terms of geographical coverage, the study was based in Chitanga ward 1 in Mwenezi district and the constituency is subdivided into communal and resettlement areas and is vast. As such, the study could not cover all wards in the district, thus the findings could only be generalised to other communal wards in the district. The area was deemed representative in terms of core issues of the study.

1.8.2. POSSIBLE LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The research findings cannot be generalised to the district level as the constituency is subdivided into two sections that is communal and resettlement areas. Resettlement areas have virgin land which produces better yields in good seasons as compared with the communal areas. Hence, the research could be situational and can only be generalised within the communal wards in the district. Limited financial resources necessitated a relatively manageable sample size thus affecting the generalisability of the problem at district level across the study population. It was also not surprising to note the responses from interviews could possibly be negative, appalling, and inconsistent and at times respondents could give distorted impressions or notoriously misleading replies especially when they believe their replies may bring benefits. The technocrats in the district tended to be occupied with other activities such as attending the vulnerable people in Chingwizi displaced by floods early this year that needed urgent attention. This had implications on study’s intended duration as it tended to prolong. Intended phenomenon in which interviews could be fully gauged was adopted. Thus statistical tightness could not be wholly guaranteed.

The major obstacle encountered by the researcher during the course of the study was that of political fears and obligations to observe the provisions of the secrecy Act especially by the key informants in both state and non-state agencies. At first the majority of the respondents thought that the study was being conducted for the purpose of advancing political agendas of a certain political party. As a result some could possibly choose not to fully co-operate or divulge the necessary information since food insecurity is a very sensitive issue. This obstacle was however, overcome when the researcher revealed that the study was being undertaken as part of his academic advancement and it was only then that some of the respondents accepted questionnaires and the key informants co-operated.
1.9. ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY.

The study is composed of five Chapters namely Chapter one to five. Chapter one gives an introductory framework to the study. Chapter two reviews literature linked to the problem under investigation while Chapter three presents methodology that guides the study. Chapter four shall present, categorise, interpret and analyse the research findings. Ultimately Chapter five round off the study providing a summary, conclusions and recommendations.

1.9. 2. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter gives an introductory overview of the matter and brief background of the study, objectives, research questions, justification, and operational definition of key terms, assumptions, research instruments, ethical issues, feasibility and possible limitations of the study. The study was conducted in ward1, Mwenezi district with key informants and local villagers as respondents to the study. The next Chapter shall review related literature relevant to the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0. INTRODUCTION
This literature review covers scholarly work on gender and food insecurity and other related topics. Theoretical perspectives are used to give a theoretical grounding to the issues discussed under this study. All strands of feminism and the dependency paradigm are the theories discussed in this chapter. The chapter also includes a review of journals, newsletters, policy documents, newspaper reports and other relevant text. The literature review is organised under the following topics:

1. Theoretical Perspectives
3. Food Security Situation.
4. Mwenezi District Profile.
5. Food security as a constitutional issue
6. Gender and food security
7. Women and Land ownership
8. Land Reform, Poverty Eradication and Food Security in Zimbabwe
9. Social Security in Rural Zimbabwe
10. Access to Extension Services and Information.
11. Access to Credit.
12. Food Aid and Donor Dependency
13. Food Distribution and the Development Approach
14. Food Security Programme in Mwenezi District
15. Drought-resistant crops and food security in rural Zimbabwe.
17. Chapter Summary.

2.1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

All strands of feminism and the dependency paradigm shall inform the study as key theoretical perspectives. These theories complement each other in explaining the pertinent issues with regards to food insecurity in most developing countries.

2.1.2. FEMINISM

All strands of feminism acknowledge that the majority of women are meaningfully engaged in mainstream development benefits because of the way gender is defined in various societies.
However, although women are the primary subjects of investigation, feminism takes an advocacy position on behalf of all subordinates groups in society on the basis of age, ethnicity, race and class among other divisions. Feminism pays particular attention on the sociology of knowledge, micro social order and macro order, subjectivity and objectivity. Feminism links to the study makes a gendered investigation on the challenges associated with food insecurity and its debilitating effects on the respective counterparts. The study acknowledges that women have and are still relegated to positions of lesser authority, decision-making and have no much influence in private and public spheres despite that they are the primary actors in ensuring food security. Women’s productive and reproductive roles sustain families, households, and the national and global society.

2.1.3. RADICAL FEMINISM

According to Bryson (1982) radical feminism is a framework of and by women basing strongly on women’s perceptions and own experience and they feel there is no need to compromise with the existing political perspectives and agenda. Thus, it rejects other feminist ideas to address gender and inequalities, which this perspective addresses as oppression rather.

The radical feminist perceives that patriarchy dominates in all social ties and male superiority leads to suppression, degradation and trivialisation of women’s reproductive and productive contributions. Radical feminism condemns exploitation of women by men because it believes that it is men who primarily benefit from the subordination of women. Ritzer (1996) seems to be in agreement with Haralambos and Holborn (2004) when they say female species everywhere are oppressed by the system of patriarchy, patriarchy which is the rule and domination of males. To overcome patriarchy, therefore, is to start with a basic improved change of perception of either parties so that women recognise her potency, rejects herself as weak, dependant and second class and work with other women regardless of their differences among them, with a spirit of sisterhood, assertiveness, support, appreciation and mutual understanding.

2.1.4. MARXIST FEMINISM/SOCIALIST FEMINISM.

Haralambos and Holborn (1995) portrays that socialist feminism is a branch of feminism which recognises gender inequality through patriarchy and capitalism. It links Marxist ideas about women’s exploitation, oppression and labour. The framework proposes decolonisation
of practices and policies based on gender inequalities for equality and equity. Socialist feminism perceives women as being treated as the “mule” of the world as a result of their unequal standing in both work place and domestic sphere. Socialist Feminism pays particular attention on the broad change that affects the society as whole and not just men but all groups. They perceive the oppression of women as part of the largest pattern that affects everyone involved in the capitalist system. Establishing the relationship of the feminist framework to the study, it can be concluded that generally women bear the major brunt of feeding the family yet they are in most cases starved to have control over resources by their male counterparts. This alone demonstrate that men can be viewed as the super structure that controls the economic base in most cases in various households and as such women are more likely to be exploited by their male counterparts. Thus, the decolonisation of gender inequality rooted in the society can improve food security.

2.1.5. BLACK FEMINISM

Black feminism argues that there is need to take into account the problems of black women abused. Some feminist consciously felt that the black women are subjected to a different and more intense kind of oppression from that of white women. Most feminist have relegated black women’s ideas and have focused on the experiences and grievances of white and often middle class women. For instance, black women can take a strong position against the patriarchy ideology such as women are weak and fragile by making reference on their own experiences on physical demanding labour. For this reason, black women are placed at an uncompromising position because they are black, they are women and are a working class but their challenges are more than the sum of these parts. Linking the framework to the study, it can be surmised that there is an urgent need for the society to adjust their lenses of seeing things and perceive rural women as strong and assertive with the potential to improve the food security situation if given the chance.

2.1.6. DEPENDENCY THEORY

The paradigm was developed in the 1950s under the guidance of Raul Presbisch who was the Director of the United Nations Economic Development for Latin America. The then Director suggested that economic activities in richer countries often led to problems in the third world
countries (Dos Santos 1971). Bilton et al (1987) view dependency as a historical phenomenon which shapes a certain structure of the world economy such that favours some countries at the detriment of the others. This scenario has a negative bearing on the development possibilities of developing economies, a situation in which the economy of a certain group of countries places a strain on the development and expansion of another economy, to which their own is subjected to the bulky shipping of food aid from the metropolis to the satellite countries like Zimbabwe. To a critical mind, it is a clear testimony of over production in the first world states. Such economic activities as noted by Bilton et al (1987) becomes an undermining factor and disincentive to both policy makers and independent progression of developing countries. Therefore, the dependency syndrome becomes an on-going process. The above scenario can also be scaled down to a micro level and linked to the study to show that there is a relationship between the donor dependency of the recipient communities to food aid and food insecurity. According to Petras (2009) the gesture of charity as creates a ready market for over producing metropolitan states, thus widening the developed world’s economic activities at the expense of the livelihood security of the recipients especially in drought-prone areas. Capacity utilisation in the recipient community is reduced as food aid increases and the case under study is no exception as livelihoods security is undermined. The donor syndrome nurtures them to become dependants which eventually makes them less sustainable in the event that non-state actors pull out leading to burgeoning poverty and starvation especially in drought prone areas.

2.2. POPULATION AND POVERTY LEVELS

Courtesy of the 2010 revision of World Population Prospects, the population of Zimbabwe was estimated by the United Nations at 12,576,000 in 2010 with about 38.9% comprised youths under 15, while another 56.9% grouped persons aged between 15 and 65 years. Only around 4.2% of citizens were apparently over 65. According to the United Nations Development Programme Human Development Index (2012), Zimbabwe is a low-income, food-deficit country ranked as one of the world’s 15 least developed countries at 172 out of 186 states. Based on UNDP Human Development Index (2012), it is estimated that 72 per cent of Zimbabwe’s 12.9 million citizens live below the poverty line on less than US$1 a day. According to NAC (2011), Zimbabwe is one of the least developing countries in Southern Africa severely affected by HIV and AIDS, with a current HIV prevalence rate of 14.7%, and the prevalence of stunting for children less than five years of age is 32%. Despite that the end of hyperinflation in 2009 had positive outcomes on food
availability in the marketplace, Zimbabwe continues to battle poor liquidity crunch and high unemployment rates. While some developments has been noted, challenges remain in creating an enabling environment for large-scale investment.

2.3. FOOD SECURITY SITUATION

Zimbabwe experienced a series of consecutive severe droughts since 2000/01 season. In response to this, World Food Program organisation launched its initial appeal for international support and subsequently commenced emergency, general feeding program in February 2002 with implementing partners such as Plan Zimbabwe, Care International, World Vision, Christian Care, and Red Cross Society organisation since then, there have been persistent droughts. According to Bragg (2012), food insecurity remains a chronic problem in Zimbabwe. At the regional block, more than 5, 5 million people in eight countries face food shortages, 40% increase in the past year, due to rising food prices and recurrent natural disasters like droughts and floods. ZIMVAC (2012), noted that approximately 1.6 million people are estimated to be food insecure, and some families are selling their livestock to cope with the situation. This has debilitating effects on marginalised and vulnerable groups such as children in and out of school. UN agencies (WFP and the FAO) are responding to the immediate needs and helping people designing ways to cope with the crisis through food assistance and improved agricultural and livestock production. In and Malawi and Lesotho, WFP is reaching children with nutrition and school-feeding programmes, while in Zimbabwe, WFP has paid particular attention on food distribution, and FAO is promoting sustainable farming practices such as conservation farming and livestock vaccination campaigns.

According to Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee (ZIMVAC) rural livelihoods report (2013), it was estimated that about 2.2 million Zimbabweans will be unable to access sufficient food during the peak hunger period, January – March 2014. Based on this report, this is the highest level of food insecurity since 2009. As a result, non-governmental organisations like WFP are responding with a Seasonal Targeted Assistance programme to help food-insecure households especially in the worst-affected areas like Masvingo and Matabeleland south Provinces. The rising food insecurity levels are due to a combination of factors, including weather conditions, the high cost or lack of availability of fertilisers and seeds, and rising food prices due to another poor harvest (Rural Livelihoods Assessment report July 2011).
Hoddinot (1999) defines food security as adequate access to food at all times throughout the year for an active and healthy life. Access to adequate food is ensured when all individuals have sufficient resources to obtain appropriate food for a nutritious diet (Reilly et al, 1995). A nutritious diet is a balanced diet that contains all the basic nutrients that include proteins, carbohydrates, fats, minerals and vitamins in the right quantities and in the right proportions. The quality of food stuffs is as important as the quantity, and a proper balance should be kept between the consumption of carbohydrates, proteins and fats (Lowry 1998: 24). Rukuni (1991) shares the above view, defining food security as the availability of food supplies in adequate quantities to meet the nation’s food needs. To this end, food insecurity refers to the lack of food supplies to sustain the life of a given people. Food insecurity causes malnutrition or under nutrition in the affected communities.

The Hunger Project (1998:14) observed then that about forty percent (40%) of the world’s hungry population are children while women make the bulk of the food insecure people. Food insecurity affects women, children and vulnerable groups such as the aged and people with disabilities as these groups often lack the means to ensure reliable food supplies. The Hunger Project (1998: 18) also notes that rural communities are prone to food insecurity than their urban counterparts. A high proportion of the hungry are non-land owning rural poor. Their access to food supplies depends heavily on gaining access to ownership of the land on which food is produced. Drought, erratic rainfall patterns, lack of access to productive land, lack of access to inputs and credit finance as well as low or absent industrial activity make rural communities particularly vulnerable to food insecurity. In Zimbabwe, agro-ecological region( four) 4 and 5 (five) are prone to low rainfall and persistent drought periods .These drought prone areas include Matabeleland and Masvingo province , in which lies Chitanga ward one in Mwenezi district which is the case study area. Food security is a matter of national importance which needs to be addressed at policy level and on the ground.

2.3.1. MWENEZI DISTRICT PROFILE.

Mwenezi District is located in the southern part of Masvingo province in the ecological region 5. It lies about 110km of Masvingo City along the Masvingo-Beitbridge highway. The district
is made up of 18 wards and they are subdivided into two sections that is communal and resettlement areas with nine wards considered to be communal while the rest are resettlement areas. The Harare-Johannesburg highway cuts across the district. As a result, most of the inhabitants in the area find it easy to cross the Beitbridge border post to go and make ends in South Africa. In this regard, about 31, 10% of households in the district are female–headed as their husbands are mainly based in South Africa where they do menial jobs (ZIMVAC 2011). About 90 per cent of the inhabitants in the ward are the Shangaan speaking people and the remaining population covers both the Shona and other ethnic groups respectively. The district falls in natural region 5 characterised by low and erratic rainfall and high temperatures. Based on Mwenezi District five year plan (2014) report the annual minimum temperature recorded over a period 15 years is about 15 degrees Celsius and the mean maximum temperatures occur in July are usually about 6 degree Celsius. The maximum temperatures occur during the summer season and are occasionally above 30 degrees Celsius. Basically, the study area normally receives an average of not more than 200 mm per annum although the normal rainfall in natural region 5 is known to be 400 mm per annum (Mwenezi District five year plan 2014 report). It is suitable for semi-extensive farming as the rainfall is too low and erratic for the production of even drought resistant fodder and grain crops. In 2013 World Food Programme organisation carried out a pilot survey of the food security situation in the district and the findings revealed that about 33 225 people were prone to poverty related problems. This reflects that there is inadequate food supply to feed the population in the drought–prone constituency thus affecting production capacity. Following the observation that the study area including ward 2, 3 and 5 are subjected to periodic seasonal and severe drought spells during the rainy season were subsequently painted “red” in terms of urgent need of aid on almost annual basis especially during the lean season to reduce the alarming rates of hunger and starvation in the district.
2.4. FOOD SECURITY AS A CONSTITUTIONAL RIGHT

NGOs have relieved the state from part of its social responsibilities, especially in rural areas where they are highly active. The Government no longer feel highly burdened by the social responsibility especially the provision of food to the rural citizenry yet it is the state obligation to ensure food security. Food security should be perceived as a constitutional right but it seems the government is failing the people by relegating their responsibility on other interested partners like NGOs. It appears that the legal and legislative policies such as the Grain Marketing Act aligned to the constitutional provisions which focuses on issues of food security in line with the MDGS is falling short in terms of addressing the food insecurity related concerns of the rural citizenry. According to Pazvakarambwa (2009) the Zimbabwean government got it wrong when it made GMB the sole official trader in both the provision of grains and inputs. As a result, farmers have assumed over-reliance on GMB for input acquisition and crop sales and this means areas without GMB infrastructure like rural areas are placed at an uncompromising position yet it is a constitutional right for every Zimbabwean citizens to benefit. To make matters worse, the Government has adopted the residual welfare model and avoided the institutional welfare model because it only intervenes to assist vulnerable citizens when the nuclear and the extended family safety nets systems has become dysfunctional. The extended family that was traditionally recognised as the first port of call if the nuclear family fails to sustain itself has become outstretched due to increased patterns of economic hardships witnessed in the country in recent years and as such, it is no longer reliable. Therefore, adopting a residual welfare model given the economic hardships bedeliving the citizens, coupled with a series of consecutive years of droughts and hunger especially in natural ecological region five is a miscarriage of justice in that the provision of food is largely the responsibility of the state. Thus, the state should be responsive to the plight and needs of the citizens by operationalising policies that takes into account the relevance of a bottom up
approach in addressing food insecurity and should in a position to establish adequate traders of inputs and grains rather than making GMB the sole trader. If truth be told, GMB lacks the capacity to meet the food security supply needs of the citizens simply because its efforts remains relatively low. The new constitution of Zimbabwe (2013) Chapter 2 section 15 page 19 makes it clear that the state must:

(a) Encourage people to grow and store adequate food
(b) Secure the establishment of adequate food reserves and
(c) Encourage and promote adequate and proper nutrition through more education and appropriate means.

Therefore, the state and of course with the helping hand of non-state actors have the responsibility to address the challenges of food insecurity, especially in low rainfall areas. Food security is a constitutional right for all citizens of the country, and efforts should therefore be made to address food insecurity among vulnerable populations like the rural poor, women, children, people with disabilities and the elderly. However, it is ironic to note that the government is only providing lip services to interests of the rural citizens especially those living in drought-prone areas simply because it is not fully chipping in to compliment the efforts of non-governmental organisations in the provision of social services like ensuring food security in line with its constitutional obligations so that the vulnerable citizens are cushioned from hunger and starvation. It should also be noted with concern that there are no food reserves and empowerment education in rural areas is still relatively low. This state of affairs worsen the plight of rural households to food insecurity.

2.5. GENDER AND FOOD SECURITY

Gender mainstreaming in policy analysis is critical for the success of food security interventions. Barner (2003) argues that programmes that are intended to benefit men and women should actively involve both sexes in theory and practice. The continued subjugation and exclusion of women in development activities should be addressed, with special attention being given to the rural women. Women continue to suffer sustained subordination and inferiority, hence the need for food security interventions that reverse historical gender imbalances. It is thus, pertinent that women be actively engaged and involved in food security interventions. Tanribid (1994) observed that there are more unemployed women than there are
unemployed men, and also that there is a significant rise in the number of female-headed households. These female headed households face increased poverty as compared to male headed households. Female heads of households tend to work long hours than their male counter counterparts, and due to their low levels of education they mostly take up low-paying jobs or they are simply reduced into virtual dependants of a largely patriarchal system.

Women often lack title to the land in which they work, although they provide much of the labour. They often lack decision-making powers on the types of crops grown or how income generated from agricultural activities they engage in at household level is spend. According to Guyer (1980), numerous studies note that men and women in Africa frequently engages in different production activities and that in many cases they are not jointly managed. He also described men and women that may be involved in separate consumption activities that they often have separate pursues. This state of affairs portrays that the outcomes in decision-making is tied to the dynamics and distribution of resources and power within the household. More so, as economic hardships push men out of their villages to become migrant workers in towns and foreign countries, the burden of placing food on the table is largely borne by women in spite of their limited financial and food resources. According to Rukuni and Eicher cited in Doss (1999) indicated that migration especially the healthy adult men, results in fewer men available in rural areas for agricultural work. He also suggested that the shortage of male labour within the household reduces women to the “mule” of the family in ensuring single-handedly that the welfare of the family is well catered for. However, literature on this piece is too general considering that most of the researchers focused more on reviewing the gendered nature of the problem at regional and national level. Nonetheless, little attention has been made by scholars to make a ward specific analysis of gender dimension to food insecurity. Thus, this study seeks to make a ward specific analysis of the challenges associated with food insecurity.

2.5.1. WOMEN AND LAND OWNERSHIP

Land ownership is a crucial factor in ensuring food security for communities that lack access to adequate food resources. The patriarchal nature of the Zimbabwe society is skewed in favour of males in terms of land ownership. In the rural areas, the traditional leadership is responsible for passing out land to beneficiaries, and these beneficiaries tend to be males who inherit the land of the fathers and grandfathers leaving women out in terms of title to land. The traditional leadership in Zimbabwe is largely male and their decision tends to subjugate women and relegate them from meaningful participation in productive agriculture. In order to address racial
imbalance in land ownership, the Zimbabwean government embarked on a massive land reform programme to empower the previously marginalised landless blacks. The majority of the beneficiaries of this land reform programme are male, and women still lack title to the land on which they live and work. Gaidzanwa (2004) notes that ironically, elite, well-off women in the political circles were therefore the only women who benefited from the land reform programmes intended to help the disadvantaged. The fact that women are the most vulnerable group to food insecurity can be best traced in the set of the so-called “expected behaviour” that the societies adheres to which govern the gender roles of men and women respectively.

According to the Women and Land Lobby Group observed that over 50% of the married women did not have fields that are traditionally exclusive given to women for their use in rural households. Similarly, research that was conducted in 1993 by WILSA and ARA Techtop for the Land Tenure Commission in 1994 showed that there was wide variation in the devolution of land by gender in communal areas. This shows the inferiority complex that women are subjected to by the patriarchal system in Zimbabwe. The picture which emerges from ADB and FAO (2013)’s finding also portrays that closing the gender gap by adopting a new system of citizenship land ownership entitlements which pays particular attention to the interest of women will eliminate yield gaps of 20-30 per cent in developing countries. This outcome is also consistent with FAO (2011) which indicated that the gender gap in land ownership entitlements hinders productivity and reduces social development goals in the region. From this analysis, it is evident that many societies in the region with Zimbabwe included did not pause and reflect the negative effects of promoting skewedness in terms of land ownership in the best interests of men alone leaving out women yet they are the main actors in food production.

2.5.2. LAND REFORM, POVERTY ERADICATION AND FOOD SECURITY IN ZIMBABWE

The Hunger Project (1985) propounded that land reform is an effective strategy to end hunger and poverty especially among the poor and communities. The government of Zimbabwe undertook massive land reform to address colonial imbalances in land ownership and tenure where about 2000 farmers owned 85% of the prime agricultural land in a country with 8 million
people. Kaseke (1993) attribute food insecurity among Zimbabwe’s rural communities to historical factors where blacks were dispossessed of their land and resettled on unproductive land. The Land Appointment Act of 1930 was used to entrench further the policy of racial segregation. The best land was allocated to the white farmers whilst blacks were allocated land in areas that were dry and had poor soils.

Externally, some case study suggests that the land reform programme in fewer developing countries have produced mixed results in terms of its impact on poverty eradication and food insecurity. It apparently seems the majority of the developing countries in the region paid particular attention on the land distribution exercise alone and not much support was given to the beneficiaries of this programme (Chimhowu 2004, Moyo 2006, and SADC 2008). This in contrast to the land reform programmes in East Asia and Latin America, where additional support focused on individual farmers rather than collective production methods adopted in Africa (Salih 2009). Yet from another angle, MDC and a majority of NGOs including NANGO argue that the fast track land reform is the major cause of food insecurity in the country. Very few stakeholders acknowledge that the inconsistent rain seasons also contributed towards food insecurity in Zimbabwe (CRS 2008). Moyo (2004) questioned the manner in which it was conducted, arguing that it was marred by nepotism, violence and disregard of private ownership. He demonstrates that the outcomes of post 2000 land reform in Zimbabwe have been disastrous and left a lot to be desired. This is also supported by (Chimhowu 2004) who indicated that prior to this, white farmers utilised economies of scale to raise capital, borrow money when necessary to purchase modern mechanic farm equipment to increase productivity. NANGO (2007) also shares the same sentiment with Moyo (2006) that most of the beneficiaries of the land reform program had no expertise knowledge and the equipment, as a result the drop in farm output has been tremendous and produced wide–spread claims by aid agencies of famine and starvation especially in drought–prone areas.

However, ZANU PF lays the blame squarely on NGOs and a few of local NGOs agree with ZANU PF that the economically restrictive measures are being detrimental to food production. Chigwedere (2006) perceives Moyo and NANGO’s school of thought as simply anti-ZANU PF Government and celebrating the unjust ownership of economic resources and in the process gives adequate explanation of the persistent food insecurity. He cites sanctions as the main causes of food insecurity in Zimbabwe. Gaidzanwa (2004) however, takes the issue of the land reform from a feminist perspective and argues that the majority of women did not benefit from the land reform programme and only women who were in the political circles benefited. This
argument is also supported by Maringira and Charlotte (2005) who argued that only 26 percent of women benefited from the land reform and a significant number of the beneficiaries are in key decision-making positions in the civil and political arena. According to Maringira and Charlotte (2005), the plight of women in Zimbabwe and food insecurity was orchestrated by the political security based on political decisions. They also goes an extra mile to argue that the citizens especially in drought-prone areas did not benefit much from the programme given the prevalence of unfavourable climatic conditions that pervades natural region 4 and 5. These agro-ecological constrains impacted negatively in the productivity of African agriculture and were thus responsible for subsequent low incomes (Kaseke 1995). Generally, it is difficult to determine what contributed more than the other towards food insecurity between sanctions and land reform and possibly its skewedness in favour of men. Both perspectives contain grains of truth and of importance are the fact that Zimbabwe no longer produces adequate food to its own population. However, little attention in this debate has been paid on the effects changing climatic conditions at ward level especially in drought-stricken areas and the case study under investigation is no exception.

2.5.3. SOCIAL SECURITY AND PROTECTION IN RURAL ZIMBABWE.

Social security and protection in rural Zimbabwe is a great challenge due to a number of factors, chief among them the financial challenges faced by government in the multiple-currency era since 2009. The other challenges include urbanisation, breakdown of the extended family support system and economic hardships bedevilling the majority of Zimbabwe in both urban and rural areas. In order to mitigate the difficulties faced by rural communities in accessing basic life necessities, government has come up with various intervention programmes, notably the Drought Relief Programme, food for work programme, Public Works Programme and the Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) among others. Dhlembeu (in Kaseke 1998) chronicles the history of drought-relief programme which was introduced during the 1982-1983 droughts. Target beneficiaries of the programme were rural farmers who were facing food insecurity due to poor rains. Government provided free maize while NGOs distributed other food commodities like cooking oil, beans and groundnuts to mitigate the impact of drought on rural populations that largely depend on agriculture for livelihood and food security. The programme represents government’s response to drought-induced food shortages, and assists the victims of drought in communal, resettlement and small-scale farming areas (Dhlembeu, 1998: 28). In order to reduce dependency on aid from the state and NGOs, government came up with the Productive Asset Creation programme (PAC) previously known as food for work
programme in which villagers in drought-stricken areas provided labour in road construction, dam construction and building classroom blocks in return for cash or food assistance. The aim of this programme was to empower communities to develop their areas as well as reduce dependency on state and donor aid.

Social security mechanisms implemented by the government since independence include the Drought Levy, AIDS Levy and the National Social Security Authority (NASSA) pension scheme. The programmes benefit and cushion rural people in dire need of support especially in food insecure regions. A Grain Loan Scheme was launched to give inputs support to farmers who would then pay back the inputs upon successful harvest. The Zunde ra Mambo scheme is another social protection programme currently running in the rural areas. In this scheme, traditional leaders receive free agriculture inputs and communities provide voluntary labour on land allocated and managed by the traditional leaders. Agriculture produce from this scheme is then distributed to needy population in the rural areas who include widows, orphans and the destitute aged. Kaseke (1998) notes that social security provision in terms of health, education and food security is largely the responsibility of the state. Traditional forms of support have been eroded by financial challenges, the AIDS epidemic and rural–urban migration.

In Africa, the extended family was an important social security institution, providing support to its members based upon culturally-defined patterns of mutual assistance. Resources with the extended family were always mobilised in support of needy members and this served to strengthen cohesiveness (Kaseke 1998: viii). The extended family set up is giving away to a nuclear family due to urbanisation, industrialisation as a growing scale of needs”. However, the extended family system is still functional in some areas, with those in the diaspora and in the urban areas still managing to send remittances in cash and kind to their relatives in the rural areas. Mobile cash transfer platforms have also improved and helped in the remittance of cash to relatives in far-off rural areas. However, the majority of workers in Zimbabwe are facing financial challenges, such that they are not able to remit anything back to their folks in the rural areas. In a study of communal districts of Mudzi and Mutoko, it was shown that 67% of the small holder farmers did not produce any surplus for sale, (Kaseke 1993). Some of the constrains involves lack of credit, shortage of land, poor soils and erratic rainfall. The farmers did not have effective social protection. The impact of traditional support networks was declining not only as a result of the weakening of cohesiveness of the extended family but also because of the growing scale of needs (Kaseke 1993:13)
In the early 1980s, government set up the Agriculture Finance Co-operation (AFC) to provide credit lines to farmers in the rural areas. AFC was then commercialised and transformed into Agribank, thus rural farmer have limited or no access to credit facilities due to lack of collateral and high interest rates. According to Dhlembeu (1993 cited by Kaseke 1998), the unavailability of credit schemes for rural farmers has had a negative effect on the agricultural productivity, thereby negatively impacting on food security as well. While social security is enhancing social functioning in rural Zimbabwe, the scholarly work failed to expose that rural citizen who are HIV positive and the aged without man power to represent them in certain food for work programmes are not being registered. As a result, this bunch of people is left destitute and suffers more in conditions of food insecurity. In this regard, the relevance of the social security becomes questioned simply because the potential beneficiaries of the programmes are being neglected or rather stereotyped. Therefore, the study seeks to expose the strengths and set backs of social security mechanisms that exist in the rural Zimbabwe using Chitanga ward as a case study.

2.5.3. ACCESS TO EXTENSION SERVICES AND INFORMATION.

The relevance of extension and related information services has been stated as one of the development priority in ensuring food security to both small and large scale farmers. Access to appropriate information often have a positive impact on agricultural productivity and, its usefulness depends on its quality of services as well the attitude of the beneficiaries. According to Fortmann (1976), noted that in Tanzania the knowledge of maize recommendations correlated with the recommended maize practices. By the same token, Ongora (1990) also indicated that in Kenya the availability of extension services has a significant effect on output, productivity increases of 7.5 -18.8 percent. Nevertheless, in 1978, Moock (1976) explored the farmer efficiency in Kenya and established that the use of extension services resulted in higher yields for men but not for women. This scenario can be attributed to the idea that women are in most cases not reached by the extension services. The above analysis are also consistent with findings carried out in Malawi by Baser et al (1988) in the early 1980s and found that few women had ever had contact with extension officers and that in most cases they were a low turnout of women’s participation in agricultural training. However, there have been raging debates between Muchena (1994) and Mudukuti as well as Miller (2002) in making a critical analysis of the rate of utilisation of extension services and information by the rural households in Zimbabwe. With Muchena (1994) indicating that in Zimbabwe significant strides has been made to reach women through extension work with groups and as a result women constituted
the majority of the participants as compared with their male counterparts in such groups. While Mudukuti and Miller (2002) seems to have picked up from where Muchena (1994) has left in their findings in Shurugwi district which revealed that the participation of women in extension programmes were relatively low than men and the outstanding barriers for their limited participation was due to lack of transportation, lack of information and time constrains as they are in most cases occupied with many household chores at home. Fortmann (1976) also shared the same sentiment with Mudukuti and Miller (2002) as he concurred that in Zambia, even contract farmers did not think that extension agents provided them with the most useful information. In this regard it becomes imperative to consider this pertinent issue in a broadened scope given that access to information does not necessarily condemn the extension agencies on the reduced pattern of agricultural productivity but rather it also implicates the community attitudes towards extension services respectively as an important factor.

2.5.4. ACCESS TO CREDIT.

Numerous programmes facilitated by the governments for providing credit have been tried across the regional block (Africa), but most have proven to be disastrous as their efforts came to nothing. According to Dross (1999), the challenge for credit programmes is to provide credit that is appropriate for the client farmers and sustainable over a long term. She also cited that access to credit at times do not necessarily focus solely on legal rights as it may be tied to the lender’s perceptions of the farmer’s ability to repay the loan. Ultimately this makes it difficult for small-scale subsistence farmers who often do not produce surplus to have better access credit regardless of tenure status. A growing body of literature on credit systems indicated that in Zimbabwe during the first decade of independence, the extension of credit to small-scale farmers was cited as one of the driving vehicles for the successful expansion of subsistence farmers maize production. This is supported by Rohrbach (1989) who revealed that small-scale farmers were only eligible to receive credit after having produced valid documents demonstrating their ability to produce a marketable surplus, usually by receipts of past sales. He also indicated that in most cases farmers who had the likelihood of obtaining credit were from high –rainfall zones and had above –the par farm resources. The apparent bottle-neck system is accessing credit automatically exempted small-scale farmers from food insecure regions like Masvingo province from acquiring credit as they were possibly perceived as producing more for home consumption and less for the market. Now, to a critical mind it makes sense to logically conclude that in Zimbabwe ,access to loose credit systems has remained a growing challenge especially in food insecure areas like natural region five to which the case
study in question belongs. However, it should be noted that the rate of skewedness of these types of credit programmes on the basis of gender is blurred.

2.5.4. FOOD AID AND DONOR DEPENDENCY AMONG RECEIPENT COMMUNITY.

Crop failure and harsh economic conditions between 2002 and 2008 increased the vulnerability of the rural poor in Zimbabwe, thereby attracting massive intervention by NGOs as they almost took over the role of the state in social services provision. Food aid is a mitigating measure for food insecure populations but its downside is that it creates and perpetuates donor dependency among recipient community. Some schools of thought view food aid as a threat to local agriculture production in the food–insecure regions. Glennie (2008) posits that it does not make sense for the first world to watch television pictures of famine prevention systems in later years. He contends that food provision is a human rights issue, making NGO interventions necessary in critical situations.

However, despite portraying food aid as a laudable gesture of charity, NGOs have concentrated more on food provision at times shrinking the market of the producing farmers in recipient countries. Food aid thus becomes a disincentive to local food production. Current knowledge and experiences indicate that to produce positive outcomes, the use of food aid require that be programmed under certain conditions and with certain precautions, to do otherwise runs the risk that it becomes a costly and ineffective intervention that can create dependency and act as a disincentive to local food production. (The End Hunger Project 1995: 226). Foreign aid in the form of food for hunger-stricken nations in the third world has been readily available from first world countries propelled by pro-aid intellectuals. Glennie (2008) notes that excluding debt, foreign aid to Africa increased by 81% between 1999 and 2008. The Millennium Development Goals set at the UN Summit in 2008 called for the doubling of foreign aid to Africa by 2015. The above trend shows that giving aid is no longer in kind on the part of the developed countries like the Britain and USA but rather a habit motivated by self-interests under the pretext of providing food hand–outs. The donor community seems to be swept away by the ethical clamour to do something, whereas proper analysis of food aid shows that this can be harmful and ineffective (Glennie 2008). Moyo (2009) also shares the same sentiments with Glennie that foreign aid is subtly exploiting the third world countries by hiding behind the finger of food aid and is possibly one of the explanations why Moyo termed it “dead aid” in one of her scholarly work. The motive behind food aid provision can be understood in the
The context of international relations. Aid suits European and American farmers better as it widens their markets since they overproduce as a result of state subsidies availed by their governments. Thus farmers in recipient countries like Zimbabwe are disinscentive and discouraged from productive land usage through the wide availability of heavily subsidised food brought in by foreign NGOs.

Research by Gareth (cited by The End Hunger Project, 1995: 229) found no correlation between receiving food aid and becoming developed. The researcher compared the case of India and China, with the latter not having received foreign aid since 1956 due to ideological differences with the donor countries.

…”Foreign food aid did not rescue India from poverty; lack of aid did not handicap China. In fact, it may be that China did precisely so well because she was not helped by aid.’’ (Gareth, cited by The End Hunger Project, 1995: 229).

In light of Gareth’s observations on India and China as regards to food aid and development, it becomes questionable why developmental aid in Zimbabwe has been outweighed significantly by humanitarian assistance in the past decade. The same problem of starvation the NGOs are fighting against can be best solved through preventive measures. Yet few NGOs focus on preventing hunger and poverty in recipient countries. However, there are some NGOs in Zimbabwe that have deviated from focusing on remedial approach to address food insecurity through promotion of drought-mitigation among small –holder farmers. These NGOs include Christian Care, FAO, OXFAM, and Plan International organisation. Sustainable livelihoods programmes by the above NGOs promote land tillage as opposed to food packs imported from abroad. To illustrate the sustainable intentions of NGOs involved in food aid, The Hunger Project 1995: 226) outlines Care International’s food assistance policy principle below:

- Priority to low-income food deficits countries and most disadvantaged segments of society therein.

- Adherence to development criteria.

- Community participation.

- Inclusion of process and impart evaluation.

- Internal commitment to advocating food aid issues.
The positive impact of food aid in Zimbabwe cannot be underestimated. C-SAFE (2004) highlights the positive impact of food aid provision in 9 district of Zimbabwe serviced by its partner organisations, World Vision, Care and C-SAFE’s impact assessment reveals that recipients had their health improved as a result of food aid, especially school children of primary school going age and vulnerable populations like the orphans and the elderly were well taken care of. In spite of the positive outcomes of food relief, it is of concern that C-SAFE and W.F.P partner organisations have relief services consuming the biggest chunk of the budgets. Expenditure figures released by various NGOs show food aid as the major expenditure, indicating the donor world has been so generous. USAID (2009) reports that its humanitarian aid to Zimbabwe in 2009 was USD 201, 452,250 million. The report argues that in spite of a relatively good yield its food expenditure for 2007 in Zimbabwe was USD 3,434,000 million.

The above information shows that more money is being spent by NGOs on providing food relief in Zimbabwe, implying a growing market for agricultural produce from the donor countries local food production is threatened by subsidised food aid from the developed world. Land usage and agricultural productivity are undermined by the promotion and perpetuation of a culture of donor dependency through food relief services by NGOs that do not empower local communities to produce their own food for sustainable livelihoods. However, despite that food aid is promoting donor syndrome especially in the recipient communities, a lot has been left out by the scholars with regards to the idea that there is an apparently over concentration of NGOs and the Government to assist citizens who are deceased as their first priority in most cases. In this regard, they fail to realise that they are some citizens who are suffering more than single or double orphans despite that they are not deceased. Again, their analysis concentrated on the impact of aid at national and regional block. For this reason, this study seeks to make a ward specific analysis of the negative effects of food aid on the villagers in Chitanga ward one. Inferences can therefore, be drawn that the interventions of non-state actors still remain inadequate alternative in the face of persistent starvation.

2.6. FOOD DISTRIBUTION AND THE DEVELOPMENT APPROACH

Glennie (2008) looks for an explanation why part of the answer to long term problems like poverty and hunger continues to be measures that are so short-lived. Like food aid sustainable long term solutions to food insecurity need to be crafted and implemented. Renowned Economist and scholar, Jeffrey Sachs is a strong proponent of intensified food aid to needy regions. But Moyo (2009) questions the brains behind this and label this call for intensified aid as” dead aid”. Pro aid scholars might be right in that long term planning might be achieved in
the face of immediate needs like starvation. The donor world intervenes mostly to save lives. However, Bonds (2009) highlights that aid has become a foreign policy issue for donor countries.

Recently, newspaper reports indicated that the United State of America is scaling down its aid to Zimbabwe mostly likely as a result of strained relations between Harare and Washington. Petros argues that ultimately NGOs are an extension of foreign policy machinery of rich and powerful nations and fail to develop the lives of local people in this regard. Food hand-outs provided by non-state actors is not a panacea to food insecurity in Zimbabwe. The relevance of food aid to Zimbabwe can be best understood in the context of international relations. Frank’s dependency theory contends that it is the unfair economic activities of the metropolitan countries that hinder development of the Third World countries like Zimbabwe. Based on the Millennium Development Report 2010, agriculture is a major contributor to Gross Domestic Product (GDP), pegged at 7%, but extensive food aid does little to enhance agricultural value chains.

Agricultural produce from the developed countries is imported into Zimbabwe and are exempted from paying duty under the pretext of food aid, thereby sustaining agriculture and agro-industries in the donor countries. This turns out to be a hindrance to local agricultural and agro-processing initiatives. Nziramasanga cited in (Rukuni and Fisher, 1987) propounds that food aid should not generate long term structural imbalances in the production systems. Furthermore, food aid cannot be a panacea when the causes are far beyond the control of farmers for instance in Zimbabwe, such problems like political turmoil, ill-implemented land reform, changing climatic conditions and western sanctions have all contributed towards food insecurity. Therefore, food aid cannot be the ultimate solution to food insecurity in Zimbabwe.

Harrell (1989) argues that there is a lot of hypocrisy within the food aid agencies who call themselves development agencies yet their actions are harmful to the recipients in the long term. The supposed neutrality by these NGOs lends support in the status quo. If the status quo is the one generating food insecurity, political neutrality by NGOs sustains their mission and operations as their core business is based on responses to food insecurity situations whatever the causes for food security by metropolitan governments sustains the operations of food relief agencies. Harrell (1986) further asserts that political neutrality by these NGOs effectively lends leverage to the status quo. If the status quo is the one generating food insecurity, political neutrality by NGOs enhances food insecurity and is not the best option.
Besides this, food distribution by NGOs enables privileged countries to step in and take comfort in their charity work without questioning their motives. Such privileges are to a greater extent the brainchild of historical and contemporary political and economic injustices influenced by the metropolis on the developing countries. These injustices include slave trade, colonialism, and of late unjust trade laws, multi-national co-operation phenomenon, and other neo-liberal economic policies. Thus, NGOs seem to fail to make it explicit to the donor world that nobody has the right to make a living from other people’s underdevelopment and the use of aid is best described by the user rather than the giver.

In addition, Pedyo cited in the Financial Gazette (28 January -3 February 2010) argues that food aid will continuously fail to work in Africa because food is not purchased from within Africa, but from over subsidised American and European Farmers. It is not the whole of Africa that is starving. It would make more sense if NGOs purchase food from Africa that would have experienced good yields and give it to those countries experiencing food insecurity like Zimbabwe. In case of Zimbabwe food aid can be purchased locally from those regions that are more productive and then channel it to drought-prone areas in dire need of food hand-outs. This creates a market for Zimbabwe farmers who have been for long battling against expensive inputs and low markets for their produce. If not done this way, capital world always be remitted back to the European and American farmers as well as their shipping companies that are hired to transport food aid across the seas to Africa.

It is so baffling to the minds of the citizens to note that developed countries continue to give Zimbabwe aid worth billions of dollars, yet the country is failing to pay off its debts worth of billions of dollars. Pedyo (2010) notes that in total Zimbabwe’s foreign debts amounts to five billion American dollars. If western countries were charity-oriented in their dealings, they would scrape off Zimbabwe’s debt so that the country can mobilise resources towards agricultural development as a solution to food insecurity and to shun donor dependency. A conclusion can, therefore be drawn that, food aid is not a panacea to food insecurity. It actually undermines the initiative to adopt good food security policies. Food aid perpetuates donor dependency among food insecure communities, and creates a ready market for foreign NGOs and western farmers. Although there have been relatively good yields for the farming season of 2014 due to stable rainfall patterns nation-wide and with the cereal production having registered 46% this year, the state of affairs have not changed that much especially in drought-stricken areas (Ministry of Agriculture and Mechanisation second quarterly report 2014). However, despite that the negative effects of food aid on the recipient communities are fully
acknowledged, the above literature did not take into account the idea that the relationship between food aid and food insecurity especially in drought-prone areas cannot be easily separated unless these communities have been assisted in capacity building as part of shock absorbers to this phenomenon.

2.7. FOOD SECURITY PROGRAMME IN MWENEZI DISTRICT.

The developments are commensurate with priorities of the Government’s Short-Term Economic Recovery Programme and a major objective of the Consolidated Appeal Process 2010. The UN Agriculture Cluster Working Group (ACWG) recommended the promotion of small livestock, small grain multiplication, animal health and support of government extension services as priorities. The project paid particular attention the most food insecure households in 9 communal wards in the district especially ward one, two, three and ward five respectively. The district has been subject to chronic food shortages and WFP Vulnerable Group Feeding (VGF) programs have operated in the past five years. The intended primary beneficiaries comprised very food insecure households which were receiving food aid under the WFP/Plan VGF Program in 2009/10. These formed the initial primary list of beneficiaries for this initiative. It is noteworthy that over 35% of households are female headed and women and girls are more numerous than boys and girls in all age categories. All farming households have benefitted from community education, improved services (vaccination of poultry), and increased access to improved seeds and the boost to local economy.

Plan Zimbabwe and Plan Australia have been working together in VGF programs and the Australian Aid program. VGF studies and beneficiary data analysis have sought to better understand coping strategies and impacts of food insecurity on households. According to Bandawe (2014) household surveys on poultry keeping and crop assessments have been conducted this year. Consultations with target group members, project concept development meetings were also held with Plan Zimbabwe/Australia, AGRITEX, Department Livestock and Production Development (DLPD) and Department of Veterinary Services (DVS), the District Drought Committee and other collaborating organisations. Further project-related discussions were conducted with SNV and FAO. The initiative will provide opportunities for the most food insecure households – as well as other households in the target wards - to improve their livelihood strategies and build up their asset and income base over the next 18 months. Coordination with other organizations implementing similar initiatives will be important to build on successful approaches and experience. Consultations with stakeholders have identified opportunities to further these with SNV and
Protracted Relief Programme. Coordination with other concerned partners will be important to create synergies. The Plan initiative focuses on poultry production and will work closely with ICRISAT on planning for seed multiplication and garden activities.

This initiative will work closely with FAO to support DLPD/DVS to train community vaccinators, develop community based campaigns on the prevention and control of ND and in supporting contract/pro-market production of indigenous small poultry. This initiative will respond to the current gaps in availability of small grain and legume open pollinated varieties (OPVs) by expanding Plan’s seed multiplication program and linking with ICRISAT’s latest research and technical certification expertise. Using a pro-market approach, farmers will be contracted to supply the seed and vouchers used to facilitate purchase from the producers by targeted households in the project areas. Promotion of labour saving devices such as mobile threshers (from the Development Technology Centre) can address labour constraints in traditional methods of harvesting small grain. Facilitating linkages to potential markets for small grain seed can also be explored through coordination with GRM and PRP.

To supplement the basic rations provided by WFP, this initiative will provide improved access to sustainable supplies of nutritional food for some of the most food insecure households through the establishment of vegetable and herb gardens in 9 communal wards. This will build on APAC experience with gardens for HIV support groups, increasing diversity of vegetables and improved nutrition at household level.

2.8. DROUGHT –TOLERANT CROPS AND FOOD SECURITY IN RURAL ZIMBABWE.

Before the advent of colonisation in Zimbabwe, the indigenous people survived on a staple diet of sorghum and millet. This changed with the coming of commercial agriculture introduced by the white farmers. Maize was grown on a large scale and marketed intensely that it replaced sorghum and millet as the staple diet for indigenous people. The traditional crops, sorghum and millet, had the advantage of being drought tolerant thus food security was promoted through their cultivation.

Sorghum, pearl and finger millet are important drought-tolerant food grains in Zimbabwe (Mudimu et al, 1998). Although these crops are domesticated in Africa as staple grains before the commercialisation of maize by the settlers in the early 1980, they are currently planted on
less than 22 per cent of the total area by rural farmers compared with 59 per cent for maize (Rusike, cited by Kaseke, 2000: 30)

Sorghum and millet enhance food security in drought-prone regions, thereby reducing the vulnerability of the rural poor to hunger and poverty. The cultivation of drought-tolerant crops is being promoted in the drought-prone regions of Matabeleland and Masvingo. These crops are still being grown on a small-scale but more needs to be done to overcome food shortages using sorghum and millet.

2.9. SOCIAL PROTECTION INTERVENTIONS AND THE GOVERNMENT’S SHORT-COMINGS.

The gendered nature of poverty and vulnerability especially in the Sub-Saharan region has increasingly called the urgent need to take into cognisance that women’s empowerment and gender equality immensely contribute to the realisation of socio-economic development goals. According to Holmes and Jones (2010), social protection systems as programmes crafted to reduce poverty still fall short in terms of embracing gender-specific issues in their design and implementation of policies. Holmes and Jones (2010) also bemoans that failure to take gender sensitive issues on board in social protection mechanisms have deleterious effects on the outcomes of the intervention and implementation practices. Basically, social protection programmes have been used to address increasing patterns of poverty and vulnerability but the extent to which gender is taken on board in these policies remains an unfinished business. According to Chhachhi (2009) notes that addressing gender inequalities in social protection programmes is relevant because of the pivotal that women play in the family affairs specifically in enhancing the welfare of their households as compared with their male counterparts. Small-scale farming households especially in rural areas encounter an array of vulnerabilities such as loss of production due to droughts, floods and increasing prices for agricultural inputs, (Slater and Holmes 2008: 4).

Chhachhi (2009), has been noted with concern that social protection instruments as part of the life support systems puts more emphasis on tackling economic risks and vulnerabilities such as lack of income and consumption while neglecting social risks. This state of affairs has influenced increased patterns of poverty especially in female-headed households who are in most cases beneficiaries of these mechanisms (ibid: 3). As a result, the nexus between poverty and food insecurity comes to the surface as chronically poor people are more vulnerable to food insecurity often with limited coping capacities. Chhachhi (2009) also provides an
explanation that there are diverse conceptual underpinnings of social protection schemes with distinguishing factors mainly on the basis of goals to be attained and the criteria in which activities are planned and implemented. Based on this, Chhachhi (2009) explores the distinct trajectory of improving the social functioning of people from a gender perspective. These involves citizenship based entitlements, employment based-entitlements, community based entitlements and market based entitlements. The current raging debates on social protection as discussed in this section are inspired by one or more of these areas.

According to the United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, social protection is concerned with preventing, managing, and overcoming situations that adversely affect people’s well-being. The UNRSD also goes an extra mile to say social protection consists of policies and programs designed to reduce poverty and vulnerability by promoting efficient labour markets, diminishing people’s exposure to risks, and enhancing their capacity to manage economic and social risks, such as unemployment, exclusion, sickness, disability and old age. Social assistance schemes have something to do with programs designed to help the most vulnerable individual’s households and communities to meet some of their basic necessities and improve living standards. These programs consist of all forms of public action, government and non-government, which are designed to transfer resources, either cash or in-kind to eligible vulnerable and deprived persons. According to Chhachhi (2009) the market is the best solution and views the poor as the most susceptible group prone to risks and social protection measures as enabling people to graduate from the murky waters of poverty. The World Bank (2008) defines social protection as “a collection of measures to improve or protect human capital, ranging from labour market interventions, publicly mandated unemployment or old-age insurance to targeted income support. Social protection interventions assist individuals, households and communities to better manage the income risks that leave people vulnerable”, as cited in Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler (2004:3). This approach takes a myopic view of vulnerability and does not take on board responsibilities of the State to provide adequate services and safeguard basic human rights to ensure a humane standard of living. The State have the mandate to ensure that markets perform efficiently so that these in turn provide a comfort zone when negative changes in the environment prevails. Furthermore, recent recurring economic crises have demonstrated that markets are not the best solution in providing social security because of inherent instabilities.

The ILO’s approach towards social protection is that of ensuring wide coverage of social security to marginalised populations and promoting decent work more so in this era of
increased in formalisation of labour in formal and informal organisations. The focus of this approach is to ensure provision of basic income to poor men and women in need of protection, (Reynaud 2002:1). Van Ginneken from the ILO defines social protection as “the provision of benefits to households and individuals through public or collective arrangements to protect against low or declining living standards”, (1999:5). While this perspective may promote a minimum standard of living for poor people, the researcher argues that the capacity of the state to provide this depends largely on the country’s level of development and political will to provide resources in order to uphold basic rights.

The Asian Development Bank (2011) has advanced a broad definition of social protection which refers to “a set of policies and programs designed to reduce poverty and vulnerability by promoting efficient labour markets, diminishing people’s exposure to risks and enhancing their capacity to protect themselves against hazards and interruption/loss of income”. From this, five major elements are identified. Firstly are policies and programmes relating to the labour markets aimed at creating employment and advance efficient operation of the labour markets? The second aspect deals with social insurance programmes concerned with mitigating risks related to unemployment, disability, health, old age and injuries sustained while on duty. The third aspect is social assistance and welfare service programmes meant to target vulnerable groups of society lacking support by granting subsistence.

Finally, there is consideration for child protection by ensuring “a healthy and productive development of the future workforce of the Asian and Pacific region”, (Ortiz and Abada 2001:41).The researcher shares the same sentiment with Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler”s criticism of above perspectives on social protection. This is because of limitations based on three major areas. The first concerns the identification of issues to be addressed in which case such perceptions take a myopic view of economic and livelihood risks and exclude important social threats such as “child labour, domestic violence, armed conflict and ethnic discrimination”, (2004:4). The researcher agrees that risks are multidimensional and intertwined as such it is not enough to have interventions that address economic challenges and livelihoods while neglecting social risks. The second challenge is with prioritisation of problems as advanced in these definitions. Emphasis is placed on addressing either “low levels of income or living standards: or downward fluctuations in incomes and declining living standards”, (ibid). Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler advance that both aspects need to be addressed at the same time through social assistance and social insurance in addition to tackling social injustice resulting from structural inequalities and misuse of authority in order to
promote social equity. The last challenge presented by the above perspectives pertains to who is supposed to provide social protection. Apart from public agencies and other collective organisations, the duo suggests that providers should include formal institutions, public and private as well as informal organisations be they collective or community based. According to Devereux (2001) social assistance and social insurance serve as redistributive transfers to the poor and vulnerable. Social assistance facilitates reduction in the severity of chronic poverty whereas social insurance aims at evening consumption and avoidance of poverty. Social assistance mechanisms include social cash transfers, vouchers, food and agricultural inputs support to incapacitated and low-capacity households.

According to Schubert and Goldberg (2005:4), beneficiaries of social protection in Zambia are targeted depending on consumption related food poverty line and not income related absolute poverty line. The consumption based poverty line is deemed appropriate due to the understanding that firstly, real consumption is more likely to reflect one’s welfare than earnings. Secondly, a household’s capacity to fulfil basic requirements is reflected in consumption patterns and lastly, earnings are not better measured compared to consumption.

Based on the Millennium Development Goal Mid-Term Report, 2007 the rising incidence of poverty in Zimbabwe is also directly linked to the contraction in the government’s fiscal space. Severe budget constraints have had a debilitating effect on public expenditure on health and education and other social infrastructure. The national economy has lost its competitive edge and the on-going investment climate has not been conducive to attracting new capital and investment. According to Berazneva and Lee (2011), additional external shocks and other vulnerabilities in the form of the food and fuel crises experienced during 2007 and 2008, as well as the 2009 financial and economic crisis and the impact of periodic droughts and floods, further increased this economic vulnerability on the African continent. The report is also consistent with findings by ZIMVAC (2013) in Zimbabwe that poverty rates among women headed households are higher representing 58% in comparison to male headed households with 43%. This not only validates the feminine nature of poverty, which is built on the premise that female headed households have a likelihood of being extremely poor and suffer from food insecurity in vis-a-vis households headed by men but also indicates the need to develop poverty mitigating measures.

According to the Midterm Report (2007), the extent to which social protection systems as poverty reduction interventions have succeeded in lessening poverty is a matter of debate.
among development practitioners. This is attributed to structural weaknesses and implementation challenges such as reduced budgetary allocation translating into a reduction in the number of vulnerable poor to be supported. Reasons advanced for this include preference to increase investment in so-called “productive sectors” such as tourism and mining while neglecting the social sector. According to (Navid 1996, and Majid 2004;), that many studies have found that agriculture has much a greater impact on reducing poverty and improving food security than do other sectors of the economy. They also go an extra mile to suggest that in countries where agricultural productivity is large, the agriculture sector is unquestionably an important instrument to reduce poverty and malnutrition by taking advantage of untapped agricultural potential. Nevertheless, some scholars are of the view that the relegation of women’s potential also hinders the achievement of national food security goals and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Furthermore, despite clear evidence that tackling the gender gap can lead to improved food security and nutritional outcomes, many multilateral and bilateral donors are still failing to invest in gender sensitive interventions. According to the Gender Audit of the FAO (2011) the gender issues are explicitly incorporated into less than 10 per cent of official development assistance (ODA) that is directed toward agriculture; and found woefully meagre financial resources for, and time allocated to, gender mainstreaming. The Gender Audit (2011) also recommended that establishing a more enabling environment for women smallholders and improving food security outcomes requires agricultural and nutrition policies, resources and programmes that recognise the potential of women’s multiple roles as food producers and providers. With the G8 Summit and the EU 2014-2021 budget plans afoot and the MDGs deadline looming in 2015, the golden moment for change is now.

2.9.1 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This literature review focused on theoretical frameworks related to gender and food insecurity, and related topics were also reviewed. Related issues such as theoretical underpinnings, population and poverty levels in Zimbabwe, food security situation, food security as a constitutional right, gender and food security were explored. The Chapter also examined issues concerning women and land ownership, land reform programme, access to credit, extension services and information, social security in rural Zimbabwe, food aid and the donor dependency among the recipient community, food security programme in Mwenezi district, drought-tolerant crops and food security and ultimately the social protection interventions and the government’s short-comings respectively. The review findings of the study were discussed.
in the context of past and current research on gender and food insecurity. The next Chapter shall offer the methodology and procedures that govern the study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0. INTRODUCTION

This is a descriptive study combining both qualitative and quantitative methods. Triangulation is a process that combines multiple designs and uses multiple sources of information so that the generalizability of research result is achieved. Both qualitative and quantitative designs have their strengths and weaknesses. Qualitative research designs have rigorous statistical data analysis methods enabling quantification of relationships between variables, but there are some constructs in the social sciences that are not quantifiable. Thus, qualitative methods enable exploration of issues and experience, but they tend to be subjective and often lack systematic data analysis. As such both qualitative and quantitative designs were used in this study to complement each other through making up for the weaknesses of the other thus ensuring validity and reliability of the research findings.

3.1. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.

Both qualitative and quantitative research methodology were utilised in this study. Research methodology is a strategy of research and addresses methodology, measurement of variable and data analysis. The research methodology highlights the study population, study area,
sample size, sampling procedures, and data collection methods, reliability of the research findings, data analysis, interpretation and presentation respectively. The qualitative research methodology was used by the researcher to have a rich descriptive understanding of the underlying factors influencing the state of food insecurity in Chitanga ward one. It was also instrumental in providing the researcher with the lived responses of the community members in relation to the problem under investigation. Qualitative research methodology also provided the researcher a better insight about the gender dimensions of food security and identified peculiar issues that exist in the community. This research methodology also helped the researcher a lot to share thoughts and feelings of the community members. To solicit data, the researcher also utilised the qualitative methodology to engage key informants with a critical understanding of the implications of food insecurity in the ward and have a fairshare of the perceptions on how the problem could be solves. By utilising qualitative methodology, thematic areas and emerging issues were easily identified, categorised and coded for data analysis. However, its main disadvantage is that it is descriptive in nature simply because it is not concerned with quantifying the research findings and is prone to subjectivity by the researcher. As a result, this sometimes distorts the key results of the research findings. However, to cater for these flaws, the researcher complimented the above mentioned methodology with quantitative research methodology. The quantitative research methodology was used by the researcher for collecting data that could not be easily coded without numeric results. This was achieved through the use of questionnaires so that the rate of vulnerability of the community under investigation could be easily sought. The quantitative research methodology was then instrumental in providing relevant information in percentiles about the marital status of the respondents, level of education, occupational status, monthly household income, number of meals consumed per day and the productive assets owned by various households in the ward. Nevertheless, its main disadvantage is that it mainly concentrate on numeric figures and does not provide rich descriptive explanations about the state of affairs in the community.

3.2. STUDY POPULATION

The study population was drawn from Mwenezi District and all participants were adults above 18 years. Selected participants were ordinarily resident in the study area. These include villagers, but the population also included key informants such as a local Councillor, Senator, and Arex Officers, Development workers and Social Services Officer and a Nutritionist respectively. These people are knowledgeable about food security issues in Mwenezi district.
A population is a group of interest to the researcher to which the study findings will be
generalised. Population in research does not necessarily mean the number of people but it
involves all individuals from whom the researcher was interested in obtaining information
making inferences. The population can be in two categories, the target and the accessible
population. The target population was the actual population to which the researcher would was
able to generalise. However, this population was rarely available. Therefore, the population to
which the researcher was able to generalise was the accessible population.

3.3 STUDY AREA

The study was conducted in Chitanga Ward 1, Mwenezi District in the southern part of
Masvingo province in the ecological region 5. The Harare-Johannesburg cuts across the ward.
As result, most of the households in the area find it easy to cross the Beitbridge border post to
go and make ends in South Africa. The ward is dominated by the Shangaan speaking people
only 20 percent constitutes the Shona and other ethnic groups respectively. The study area falls
in natural region 5 characterised by low and erratic rainfall and high temperatures. The annual
minimum temperature recorded over a period 15 years is about 15 degrees Celsius and the
mean maximum temperatures occur in July are usually about 6 degree Celsius. The maximum
temperatures occur during the summer season and are occasionally above 30 degrees Celsius.
Basically, the study area normally receives an average of not more than 200 mm per annum
although the normal rainfall in natural region 5 is known to be 400 mm per annum. It is suitable
for semi extensive farming as the rainfall is too low and erratic for the production of even
drought resistant fodder and grain crops. Following the realisation that the study area is subject
to periodic seasonal and severe drought spells during the rainy season, has been painted “red”
in terms of urgent need of aid on almost annual basis especially during the lean season to
reduce the high levels of hunger and starvation of villagers.

3.4 SAMPLE SIZE

The study utilised multiple data collection instruments, with different sample sizes for each.
The researcher therefore, utilised multiple data collection tools to gather data from 53
respondents in Chitanga ward one and in the district in general. The researcher used a big
sample size so that the research findings can be generalised to other communal wards in the
district experiencing the same problem of food insecurity. Two focus group discussions
(FDGS), each with 8 participants were held in Chitanga ward one, Mwenezi district. Key
informants interviews were also conducted with 7 technocrats with some based in the ward
while others were found in district offices. The local Senator, Councillor, Arex officers, Programme officers from non-state actors and a Nutritionist based at a local district Hospital were among the key informant respondents interviewed by the researcher. The strong interface of key informant respondents were instrumental in providing valuable insight to the researcher about the plight of households in the district especially ward one to the conditions of food insecurity. Individual questionnaires were also developed and administered to 30 respondents in nine villages in the ward with the hope of getting a fair share of the community members in relation to the pertinent issue of food insecurity by paying particular attention to the relevance of gendered lens for the study area.

### 3.5. SAMPLING PROCEDURES

Both purposive and snow-balling sampling techniques were utilised in this study. The researcher used snow-balling sampling technique in carrying out focus group discussion where by the respondents possibly experiencing the same conditions related to poverty and interested in pertinent issue under investigation participated on voluntary basis and the researcher only served to inform them about the main agenda of the gathering. This enabled the respondents to feel that the problem under investigation is community based which eventually made it easier for the researcher to develop a good rapport with the respondents and motivated them to make constructive contributions during the discussion on how the problem of food insecurity can be solved. Basically snow-balling gave the researcher the chance have a better insight about some of the peculiar issues that exist in the community with regards to food insecurity. The main disadvantage of snow-balling sampling is that it is not systematic considering that the respondents only participated out of their own choice for the study under investigation, some without the inspiration to provide solutions to the challenges associated with food insecurity. As a result, the seriousness of some respondents engaged in the discussion was based on individual interest with regards to the problem under investigation. To cater for these flaws, purposive sampling was utilised in conducting key informant interviews and distributing individual questionnaires. It involved the selection of the most accessible members of the study population and technocrats from both government as well non-governmental organisations operating in the district with sound knowledge about the food security issues. The purposive study involves the deliberate, organised effort by the researcher to engage variables that are a proto-type of the actual population with the required data for the pertinent issue under investigation. This enabled the researcher to draw inferences from the research findings basing on the key results from the selected respondents and was easy to apply. However, its major
setback is that it is not systematic, and does not have specific sampling frames. As the researcher was aware that research findings based on purposive sampling have low generalizability, he combined both purposive and snow-balling sampling techniques so that they could complement each other and increase the levels of generalisability.

3.6. DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Both qualitative and quantitative collection methods were used in the study. Basically, a research methodology is a basic set of strategy which defines a piece of research that the researcher should take in order to collect data in a very efficient way. The designs basically connects the questions to the data that enabled the researcher to unearth the gendered nature of the challenges associated with food insecurity and quantify the research findings for reliability as well as validity purposes. Many different tools were developed to aid the acquisition of data and these tools employed distinctive ways of describing and quantifying data. Thus, each tool has its own merits and demerits.

The qualitative research paradigm allowed the voices of the researched to be heard only and sometimes could not measure the magnitude of the problem. These research instruments fall under different specific paradigms and were discussed under their respective paradigms. In order to capture views of the key respondents, the researcher used questionnaires, focus group discussions, key informant interviews, observation and document reviews to compliment the research findings. The importance of combining the two designs was that it enabled the researcher to shift focus from concentrating with the internal meanings, motives, feelings and emotions of individuals only when carrying out research. Therefore, it is against this background that the researcher utilised both qualitative and quantitative paradigms of collecting data in order to count sets of observable social facts and quantify the research the research findings.

3.6.1. QUESTIONNAIRE

Self-completed questionnaires were developed and purposively administered for 30 individuals covering nine villages in Chitanga ward 1. The questionnaire had 19 questions covering demographic information, food security situation and suggestion on empowering women to end food insecurity and improve livelihoods. The questionnaire is the method of collecting information by asking a set of questions in a well-organised sequence in a structural pattern to a sample of individuals drawn so as to be representative of a defined population. It
was a very convenient means of conducting a research in that the respondents had time to check the facts and give more accurate answers. The researcher personally observed that utilising a questionnaire was cheaper to conduct considering that large amounts of data was collected with relative- easy from a wide variety of people. However, self-completed questionnaires are generally quick to complete, but their full completion were highly dependent on the participant’s literacy level. The other downside to self-completed questionnaires was that some participants chose not to return their questionnaires thus reducing the sample size. In some cases, respondents were providing false claims about the situation. As a result, the questionnaire over simplified social reality and was therefore, at times inaccurate.

3.6.2. FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

Two focus group discussions, each with 8 participants were held with Chitanga ward 1. The researcher used snow-balling focus group method of engaging people who mobilise themselves and the researcher only served to inform them the main agenda of the gathering. This was a very convenient method as it reduced the bias of the researcher to select the key respondents out of his value judgements and as a result, both the literate and semi-literate and all sexes were equally represented. This focus group discussion method was easy to apply by virtue of being a member of the community under study. Focus group discussions involve interviewing a set of people together. The researcher chose focus group discussions because they allow participants to share their thoughts and develop a group integrated perspective. In this way, they sparked new ideas and consider a range of views before answering questions and enabled the researcher to have a fair share of the gender dimensions on the factors influencing food insecurity in ward 1. The focus group discussions helped the respondents a lot to share their views and experiences with regards to the problem on food insecurity in the ward. Group interviews made an important contribution to the research study. Therefore, well organised and well facilitated group discussions gave the researcher an insight about the underlying peculiar issues that exist in the community influencing the condition of food insecurity in the ward and have a fair-share of how the key respondents think the problem should be solved. The findings were then instrumental to the villagers in other communal wards in the district facing the same problem and to both state as well as non-state actors operating in the area of food security.

3.6.3. INTERVIEWS
Key informant interviews were conducted with 7 authoritative sources that include Programme Officers from non-state actors, Social welfare officer, Arex officer, local Councillor, the Senator from the ward, and a district Nutritionist respectively. A semi-structured discussion guide was developed for the conduct of key informant interviews (See Annexures). Key informant interviews involve direct personal contact with the participant who is being asked. The researcher noted that the interview schedule was more accessible to literate and semi-literate people as key informants. As such, the key informant interview guide was developed and used for collecting data from both literate and semi-literate respondents. Interviews with key informants enabled the researcher to be in a good position to judge the quality of responses of the subjects, to notice if a question has not been properly understood. It can be viewed as a convenient tool as it allowed a dialogue between the interviewer and the interviewee. The interviewee openly expressed their views with regards to the research problem under investigation. It is through interview with key informants that the researcher was able to probe responses which might be unclear and ambiguous.

3.6.4. OBSERVATION

The researcher also used participant observation as one of his data collection tool. This involved going around the ward taking pictures of irrigation schemes and water bodies and to ascertain the extent to which the communities in the ward was prone to food insecurity and to have first-hand information about their general lifestyle as well as the welfare situations in the study area. It is non-verbal way of collecting data. Observation involves looking at people and situation noting or recognising what is going on without asking questions to those being observed. Observation helped the researcher a lot to view the day to day activities of men and women that occur in the ward in order to be able to identify some of the problems affecting the community and respective counterparts with regards to food security. However, observer effects or reactivity was the downside to observation, where the researcher’s early impressions sought to influence the collection of information. It is not systematic and is simply based on the researcher’s intuition. There were ethical issues involved in participant observation, but the researcher made an efforts to seek permission to take photographs from relevant authorities.
about Chitanga irrigation scheme and Chitanga Dam which was washed away by floods early this year in 2014.

3.6.5. DOCUMENT REVIEWS

To compliment data collected in the field, the researcher utilised document reviews of Parliamentary Select Committee reports, NGO reports, and reports by various government departments like Social Services and Agritex. Document reviews enabled the researcher to have an appraisal of what has been done in the area of food security previously. This enabled the researcher to identify the gap or rather problems that are being faced by both the state and non-state actors as well as other interested partners with regards to the problem of food insecurity in the district especially in communal wards.

3.7. RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF FINDINGS.

The researcher utilised multiple designs like triangulating both qualitative and quantitative research designs in order to count sets of observable facts about the gendered nature of food insecurity in Chitanga ward 1 so that the statistical data could be produced and measure the levels of vulnerability of the community to the problem in question. The researcher has made significant strides to ensure that the objectives of the study are aligned to the data collection methods simply because the structure of the research questions determines the appropriate research tool for collecting data. A big sample size was administered by the researcher for validity and reliability purposes so that the research findings could be generalised to other communal wards in the district. The researcher also utilised both purposive and snow-ball sampling techniques as one of the most effective and efficient sampling procedures given that the study demanded more data collection approaches.

Basically, the rationale for using these two sampling techniques was that they provided relevant insights into poor people’s peculiar problems and forms of vulnerability from the gender lens’ point of reference including taking into account the perspectives of technocrats operating in the ward. At district level, key informant interviews were conducted with a panel of both state and non-state actors representatives. Interviews with key informants were significant in that the expertise of the members was critical in understanding the implications of food insecurity in the ward and their contributions in promoting the quality of life for the community. At village level, two focus group discussions with 8 each were observed with community members of ward 1 in order to have a fair-share of the problems associated with food insecurity from the
residents themselves and the local language was used to encourage open discussions. This means that there had to be translation from English to Shona or Shangaan so as to communicate with the respondents. The structure of the questionnaires were made up of both open-ended and closed ended questions. Open-ended questions allowed enumerators to obtain detailed information related to the research topic while giving respondents flexibility in terms of responses pertaining to household food security and assets. Closed –ended questions were used with the view of maintaining focus on the study topic. The research findings were also analysed using a computer software called the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel in order to generate bar graphs, tables and pie-charts with the view of reflecting the relevance of the variables under study.

3.8. DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND PRESENTATION

Qualitative data analysis methods were used mainly for the focus group discussions, key informant interviews and semi-structured parts of the questionnaires. The target was to capture wide views and perceptions of the participants. Thematic areas and emerging issues were easily identified, categorised and coded for data analysis. It was intended to use voice recording to aid qualitative data collection, but due to the sensitivity surrounding tape recording, the researcher decided to resort only to note-taking. Basically, data analysis is systematic process or way of researching and arranging the interview transcripts and other materials that the researcher obtained in the field to increase the understanding of the research findings and enable the researcher to present what has been discovered to others. In this research data, statistical analysis was done using computer software called Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel to analyse data and findings were presented as percentiles. Findings were also presented on pie-charts, bar-graphs and tables respectively. Qualitative data were categorised and presented through the use of emerging themes and interpretation and analysis was done in order to make sense out of the research findings. McLeod, (cited by Makore –Rukuni, 2000: 105) outlines the different phases used in qualitative data analysis:

Stage 1: Immersion: The researcher intensively reads or listens to material, assimilating as much as of the explicit and implicit meaning as possible.
Stage 2: Categorisation: Systematically working through the data, assigning coding categories or identifying meanings within the various segments / unit of the text.

Stage 3: Phenomological reduction: Questioning or interrogating the meaning or categories that have been developed. Are there any other ways of looking at the data?

Stage 4: Triangulation: Sorting through the categories. Deciding which categories are recurring and central and which are less significant or are invalid or mistaken.

Stage 5: Interpretation: Making sense of the data from a wider perspective. Constructing a model, or using an established theory to explicate the findings of the study.

A semi-structured guide was designed for the focus group discussion and for the key informant interviews. A write up guide was developed to assist in data collection and analysis. (See annexures). Qualitative data analysis was also observed on individual questionnaires.

3.8.1. ETHICAL SOUNDNESS

No person under the legal age of majority, 18 was recruited to take part in the study. Informed consent was sought from all participants, as well as permission from local and traditional authorities. No incentives were given or promised for participation in the study. Participation in the study was on a voluntary basis. To ensure confidentiality and privacy, no links were made between persons and their responses. Data collected during the study were kept under the lock and key pending disposal upon conferment of the degree in Social Work requirements for which this project sought to meet.

3.9. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter on methodology provided an outline of the study area, population, sample size and data collection instruments. The Chapter has also shown the strength and weaknesses of each research instruments chosen. The validity and reliability of the research findings have been discussed and justified by the researcher. Data analysis, Interpretation and Presentation including the ethical consideration that were utilised during the data collection period have been discussed at length. The next chapter shall focus on data presentation and analysis of the research findings.
CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.0. INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an analysis and interpretation of the research findings. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used in data presentation and analysis. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences and Microsoft Excel was used for statistical analysis of quantitative data. The Chapter also reviews findings from focus group discussions (FDGS), questionnaires, key informant interviews, participant observation and document reviews from official sources respectively.

4.1. DATA ANALYSIS

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel was used to analyse data. This is the best method to analyse qualitative data. Qualitative analysis was also used. The researcher opted for this method as it enabled the researcher to describe, organise and summarise what has been observed. Therefore, the researcher found it prudent to utilise this method in order to unravel the views of the respondents pertaining to the challenges associated with food insecurity in Chitanga ward one and of course from a gendered perspective. Both qualitative and quantitative research methodology takes an integrated approach of bringing out the underlying factors influencing the state of food insecurity in ward one as they allowed the researcher to probe and develop more questions by engaging respondents in focus group discussion, interviews and measure the vulnerability of the households to the pertinent issues under investigation.
4.1.1. RESPONSE RATE.

Fig 1.

Fig. 1 above shows the age characteristics of respondents from a total of 30 individual questionnaires that were purposively distributed to respondents drawn from nine villages in
Chitanga ward and all of them were responded, which is a 100 percent response. A 100 percent response rate is a sign of interest in the area of food insecurity under study as shown by the bar graph. The rate of appreciation of respondents is also attributed to the fact of the researcher being part of the community under investigation and the friendly atmosphere created by the mutual understanding between the community members and researcher such as sticking to the time availed to interview appointments. All interviews were successfully conducted at the scheduled time.

4.1.2. GROUP DYNAMICS

Below is an analysis of the respondents of a focus group discussion held in both Mukachana ground and Chitanga Dam on the basis of gender. Overall, there were 16 participants in two focus group discussions conducted in the ward, with women making up (11) 69 percent of the participants in total of all focus group discussions while men constituted (5)31 percent of the respondents respectively. The variance can be attributed to the fact that males in rural areas shun community or group activities while women are active participants in co-operative societies and community development initiatives. This high participation by women is a stark contrast to the questionnaires in which men constituted (20) 65 percent and men appeared to be disillusioned as some of them expected food hand-outs. This dependency syndrome was despite the fact that the researcher had taken time to explain that there were no monetary or material incentives for participating in the study. It is also worth noting that males were reluctant to mix with females during the group discussions, choosing instead to sit on one side whilst women sat on the other. Inferences can therefore be drawn that rural women are not regarded as equal partners in decision-making by their male counterparts. These findings are commensurate with the research on gender and livelihoods by Barner (2003) in the literature review on gender and livelihoods who indicated that women continue to suffer sustained subordination and inferiority as they often lack the decision-making powers in their lives. This negative attitude affects women’s participation in governance issues at household, community and national levels.

Table 1: Shows participants of Focus group discussion at Mukachana Ground by Gender.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>No of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary Data.

Table 2: Showing participants of Focus group discussion at Chitanga Dam by Gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>No of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary Data

4.2. EMERGING ISSUES AND RECURRENT THEMES.

Extreme poverty among the community was identified as an issue of major concern. Links were drawn between abject poverty and food insecurity, especially among female-headed households. The findings above are also in line with the research on gender and livelihoods as Tanribid (1994) in the literature observed that there are more unemployed women than their male counterparts and tend to be more vulnerable to poverty due to their low levels of education. Harsh economic conditions and lack of viable employment opportunities were cited as major drivers of prostitution and crime, particularly among the youths in the district. Literacy levels in the ward are generally low, and there are no formal jobs available as a significant number of households save for seasonal menial jobs on sugar plantation at Mwenezana Estate. Participants bemoaned the drying up of water bodies, and this in turn has affected livestock production and irrigation activities. Two dams used in irrigation were washed away by floods and these are still to be repaired. The photo narrations below are part of the participant observation by the researcher.
Plate A: Shows Chitanga irrigation scheme that has collapsed due to a dry water body.

Plate B: Also shows Chitanga Dam which was washed away by floods early this year in 2014

Source: July 27 Field Work 2014.

The above photo narrations (plate A and B) shows that the state of affairs in Chitanga ward one was so pathetic considering that the irrigation schemes have collapsed following the torrential rainfall early this year which eventually washed away Chitanga Dam. The above
scenario leaves a lot to be desired as villagers and live stocks have to travel long distances in search of better sources of water. It should be noted with concern that water carrying capacity of the dam is relatively below the average level given that it has become so sifted with sand and hard clay soils shown above. As a result, it can no longer sustain the community for more than 6 months which is a major setback for irrigation schemes considering that the villagers are halted to reserve water for livestock. This state of affairs makes it difficult for the community to engage in off-season farming activities that can generate income there by making them more vulnerable to poverty–related problems including food insecurity.

4.2.1. GENDER AND LIVELHOODS

The findings show that women are restricted to the home to fulfil their traditional nurturing and reproductive roles whilst most men migrate to South Africa in search of greener pastures. Women’s livelihoods activities revolve around subsistence farming and single-handedly raise the family as the economic hardships have pushed the majority of men abroad, a factor which makes them vulnerable to food insecurity. These observations are in agreement with Rukuni and Eicher cited in Doss (1999) in her case study on Twenty five years of Women Farmers in Africa in the related literature who indicated that migration especially the adult healthy men results in fewer men available for agricultural work and this scenario reduces women to the mule of the family by ensuring that the welfare of the family is well–catered for in the absence of their male counterparts especially in cases where the husband is not remitting much back home. According to Doss (1999) the absence of a male-resident in the household has a negative bearing on agricultural productivity. In the ward, of those men that have not migrated to South Africa or taken up seasonal jobs in sugar estates, the bulk of the men are engaged in gold panning activities along Runde River. These male gold panners squander their proceeds on beer and commercial sex, neglecting their responsibility of looking after their families at home. This is line with findings from Guyer (1980) in the related literature who demonstrated that numerous studies note that men and women in Africa frequently engages in different production activities and that in many cases they are not jointly managed. He also described men and women that may be involved in separate consumption activities that they often have separate purses. Ultimately the burden of placing food on the table is largely borne by women in spite of their limited resources.

4.2.2. POOR LEGISLATIVE REPRESENTATION
The researcher also established that there was poor communication between the legislature and the electorate through focus group discussions which hinders development in the community. This state of affairs places the community at an uncompromising position and is possibly one of the explanations why it is taking too long for the dams that was washed away by floods to be repaired due to mediocre legislative representation. The legislature have the duty and social responsibilities to ensure that all the concerns of the electorate are addressed but based on the research findings from the focus group discussions conducted in the ward, the situation is otherwise. One of the respondents said,

“Dambudziko ratirikuita nderekuti tinongoona ma M.P pavanenge vachida kuvhoterwa kuti vapinde mu office and izvozi so M.P wemuno mu Mwenezi takangomuona kamwe chete saka hatina kwatinokwanisa kupira zvichemo zvedu se ward one. (The problem we are experiencing in the ward is that in most cases MPs disillusion the people by giving them empty promises so that they get voted into office and once they are in, they turn their backs on the electorate. As a result, the community have no pillar of strength to turn to where they can present their concerns.)

It seems it is now common feature that in the district that legislatures only come to the electorate during the elections time when they want to be voted into office and once they have achieved that turn their backs on the villagers. The researcher also personally observed that the villagers in ward one are experiencing poor legislative representation given that there has been debates on whether the ward fall under Mwenezi district or Chivi south based on the new political boundaries established in Mwenezi constituency in the harmonised elections in 2013. It is pathetic to note that Chitanga was the only affected ward as it now being presided over by the Member of Parliament from Chivi-south. In this regard, the researcher established the link between poor legislative representation and under development in the community which in this case translate to food insecurity given that villagers have no arm of strength to present their concerns. It appears the concerns raised by the respondents in the focus group discussion are aligned with findings from Kaseke (1998) on social security in Rural Zimbabwe where he cited that provisions of social security in terms of health, education and food security is largely the responsibility of the state. In view of the above, it makes sense to argue that the legislature who serve as the delegate or rather arm of the state can no longer feel highly burdened by the social responsibility of assuming the over–sight role of addressing the quality of life of the villagers in the ward possibly through promoting community development in the constituency. Yet ensuring food security and community development is largely the
responsibility of government sometimes through its respective representatives like legislatures. Community development initiatives can go a long way in reducing hunger and starvation.

4.2.3. LACK OF MARKET LINKAGES

The findings from the two focus group discussions conducted by the researcher in the ward also revealed that livelihood of villagers in Chitanga ward one are being undermined by lack of market linkages. Recent years of drought and food insecurity have led to destocking as the households had to sell or barter trade their produce or cattle for cereal often in unfavourable terms. This is supported by one of the focus group discussion respondent who said,

“Dambudziko hombe ratiinara ririkukonzera nhamo uye hurombo zvakanyanya mudunhu redi inyaya yekuti hatina mukana kuma markets anobhadhara zvirinani saka naizvozvo tinopedzisira tavakubirwa nema middlemen anozoti linka na buyer kudhorobha”. (The challenges that we have in our community is lack of market linkages to sell our produce or assets and out of desperation we end up being manipulated by the middle-men who in most cases benefit more at the expense of the seller).

In yet another focus group discussion at Chitanga Dam, one of the respondents said,

“Makore apfuura aya pakanyanya kurova nzara zvikuru se 2010 vanhu vakawanda vai manikidzwa ne situation kuchinjisa mombe nezvi 50 kg zvitatu and zvose izvi zvaikonzerwa nekusavapo kwema markets ari readily available. (During the period of hunger and starvation especially 2010 many people in the community were compelled to barter trade a cattle with three 50kgs of maize and this was caused by the unavailability of markets.)

From the concerns raised above, it can be deduced that, lack of viable cattle dealing and output marketing involving the buying and selling of maize and other small grains is undermining individual small holder farmers in the ward who do not have any connections to the produce market and especially given the small quantities they normally supply. These findings are in agreement with Chhachhi (2009) in the literature review on social protection interventions and the government’s pitfalls who suggested that the market is the best solution for the rural folks and views such an initiative as some form of social protection measures of enabling people in rural areas to move out of poverty. The key results of the research findings are also in line with Pedyo (2010) in his scholarly work against food aid who indicated that creating a market for the Zimbabwean farmers who have been for long battling against low market for their produce is the only panacea for ensuring quality of life of rural citizenry. Likewise Mliswa a Legislative
representative of Hurungwe West rural constituency also demonstrated in Women Caucus Parliamentary workshop on Small to Medium enterprise and Co-operative Development on (3 April 2014), in the literature review on access to credit that if you look at food security, maize for example, 85% of maize comes from the rural folk and 70% of cotton is coming from the rural folk. He also expressed concern that the cotton that is leaving those areas but you do not see much coming back in terms of money for them to be better farmers even in terms of capacity building, so that the quality of agriculture improves. A conclusion can therefore, be drawn that, limited access to markets restrict household food availability and worsen the exploitation of rural folks by the buyers, resulting in major problems like depletion of assets by reducing family’s ability to respond to future shocks such as poor health and in extreme cases loss of life.

4.2.4. WOMEN AS ACTIVE PARTICIPANTS IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES VIS-AVIS THEIR MALE COUNTERPARTS

With regards to gender, data obtained from the Chairman of the PAC programme supported by W.F.P. organisation revealed that women constituted 99 (83%) respondents of the programme while males were relatively low about 21( 17%) out of a total of 120 beneficiaries in the ward. This gross margin possibly provides the explanation that women than men whether they come from male-headed households or female–headed households are active participants in community development programmes in the ward. In most cases, they only come to forcefully demand cash realised from the produce. The local Councillor for ward one had this to say,

"Vanhu vakawanda kunyanya- nyanya varume unovawona kunenge kuchi registwa chikafu, vakangoziva kuti kwavadeedzwa hakuna chavarikupiwa number inouya idiki zvikuru tichiva combeya nemadzimai. Varume vanongomukira ndhari( home–brewed beer) ( “the majority of households especially men take greater part in food aid programmes and in most cases they are only active during the registration process and are not forth-coming in community development programs as compared with their female counterparts. The majority are fond of home-brewed beer)"

From above inferences can therefore, be drawn that, it seems the understanding in this community is that women are the ones who should toil in the fields and community development programmes while men are busy drinking home-brewed beer. These findings are consistent with observation made by Bandawe (2014 ) in his scholarly work on gender and food security that the community development projects are designed to assist both men and
women but the majority of men are simply fond of drinking home-brewed beer. On the field work visit paid by the researcher to the Productive Asset Creation Programme sponsored by W.F.P. organisation observed that there was an overwhelming response on the part of women who were taking part in the programme. This becomes a setback in meeting the target because men are not forth-coming especially in programmes that demand technical expertise like repairing the dams. It appears the norm in Chitanga ward one is that when you help a women, you have assisted the whole family. As a result many programmes run by non-state actors are reluctant to assist men directly but are doing so through their wives as men tends to be passive participants. However, the other explanation could be that the most of the households are female-headed considering that most men are abroad where they are doing menial jobs.

4.2.5. UNDER –UTILISATION OF EXTENSION SERVICES.

It has also been noted with concern that under-utilisation of extension services and information has a negative bearing not only on cereal production but rather on food insecurity at large in Chitanga ward one. One of the respondents who is an extension worker in the ward had this to say in a focus group discussion,

“Ma villagers emu ward one havauye kuma master farmer training programmes uye kuma area and district shows nekuti vanenge vachiti anotipei. Uye vakadzi havaisi kunyanya ku participater. Madonor akatotikanganisira basa redu nekuti prior to that takanga tisina ma problems in terms of community mobilisation.( The villagers are not forthcoming in master farmer training programmes including area and district shows by arguing that what are they going to get in return and women are not effectively participating. Prior to donor funding activities like food hand –outs we had no problems in terms of community mobilisation.)

In support of the above scenario, the researcher got a fair- share of the outcomes of the results –based management quarterly report for the master farmer programme for the 2014 farming season in Chitanga ward one. Table 3 below shows the findings of the results –based management report

Table 3. Shows the rate of participants in Master farmer training programme in ward one

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Village</th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

61
A total of 12 villagers participated in the master farmer training programme based on the available results from the seven villages out of a total of 1010 households in Chitanga ward one which is a very gross margin. It appears the community members in the ward are taking comfort in hand outs that they are receiving from NGOs operating in the district considering that there was a maximum of 4 respondents in villages who participated actively in master farmer training programmes in 2014 farming season and the extension officer indicated this was not the case prior to the donor-funding activities. This demonstrate how the donor syndrome has affected the communities of ward one as they are not co-operating in activities that are tailor –made to benefit them. The findings are in line with one of the case study highlighted in the literature review on access to extension services and information by Fortmann (1976) who revealed that in Zambia contract farmers did not think that extension agents provided them with the most useful information. By the same token, literature reviewed on access to extension services and information Muchena (1994) also indicated that developing a better understanding of the barriers that extension officers experience such as under-utilisation of their services and the implications of these barriers to food security programming is essential. The findings are also in agreement with a survey carried out by Mudukuti and Miller (2002) in Shurugwi district on women’s educational needs with regards to extension programmes also revealed that the participation of women in extension programmes were relatively low than men and the outstanding barriers for their limited participation was due to lack of transportation, lack of information and time constrains. From the above, it makes sense to conclude that under –utilisation of extension services by the villagers in the ward have a significant effect on output productivity and it is possibly for this reason that Maranda ward nine is considered as one of the best communal ward in the district by virtue of making use of relevant information from the Arex officers evident in the type of grains they normally grow.

4.3. STUDY AREA PROFILE.
This study was done in ward one and the respondents were drawn from 9 villages, namely Chibaya, Chitanga, Chugela, Helani, Kutanga, Luhlamvu, Mathlelemu, Matsimbi and Mukachana respectively. Fig. 2 shows that (20%) of the respondents were from Chibaya village, (17%) from Chitanga while 7% was from Chugela. About (13%) came from Helani, 6% from Kutanga and again 6% from Luhlamvu. Only 10% of the respondents were from Mathlelemu, 15% are from Matsimbi and 6 percent from Mukachana village respectively. This alone demonstrate that all villages in the ward were equally represented which makes it equally important to generalise the state of affairs with regards to food insecurity in the ward.

4.3.1. MARITAL STATUS OF THE HEADS OF HOUSEHOLDS AND LIVELHOODS

Fig 3.
In Fig 3 above, inferences can be made that establishing the relationship between livelihoods house-hold heads on the basis on gender in this research was significant due to possible differences in house-hold lifestyles which directly influence food production and consumption. The results revealed that 14 respondents (45%) are married by while 10 respondents (30 %) are married women whose spouses are abroad. Only 2 respondents (2%) confirmed that they are single and only 2 (2%) were widows while another 2 (2%) are widowers respectively. A significant number of 30 percent (10) female respondents confirmed that they are married but living apart as most of them husbands are based in South Africa where they are contracted in menial jobs and remit back home to their wives to meet some of the family responsibilities. Of those who have remained, they survive on piece rate jobs to support their families but in most cases the proceeds are squandered on beer. Women in most cases brew home-made beer especially in off-farming seasons to help them source funds to feed families and counter their husbands who are not forth-coming. The explanation for a significant number of married women but living apart with their husbands can be attributed to consistent male migration to neighbouring countries especially South Africa due to economic hardships in search of greener pastures and HIV/AIDS related deaths. These findings are in line with findings from (Rukuni and Eicher cited in Doss 1999) in the literature review on gender and food security who highlighted it is imperative to note however, that men are more likely to migrate when the
expected returns from migrating are higher than their productivity on the farm. This state of affairs places a strain on women who have to bear the major brunt of raising the family single-handedly in the absence of a male head especially considering that 60 percent (18) of the respondents in the ward are unemployed. As a result, they suffer more in conditions of food insecurity.

4.3.2. HOUSEHOLD HEAD ON THE BASIS OF GENDER

The bar above demonstrate that 20 respondents (65%) of the individual questionnaires administered in 9 villages in Chitanga ward one were male household heads, whilst 10 respondents (35%) were female household heads. It can be noted that the number of female–headed households in ward one is significantly high, a fact which can be attributed to migrant male labour and AIDS-related deaths. The high number of female-headed households implies that the burden of sustaining livelihoods in such family is left entirely upon the females, and this places a gender dimension to food insecurity in Chitanga ward one. Disaggregate of
participants by marital status shows a correlation between marital status and the gender of the head of households.

4.3.3. EDUCATIONAL STATUS

In terms of education, only 3 respondents (10%) confirmed that they did not attend school at all. The levels of illiteracy are still high in the ward due to poverty and ignorance. About 13 respondents (43.3%) only completed or did some primary education, whilst 10 (33%) completed “O” level. Those who completed “A” level were only 2 (6.7%), while those with a post- A–level qualifications were again 2 respondents (6.7%) respectively. The lack of gainful employment opportunities in the ward accounts for the low numbers of those who have gone beyond “O” level. Persistent drought, harsh economic conditions and lack of employment have forced young educated adults to migrate to urban areas and foreign countries in search of greener pastures. In most cases they just ditch their wives and kids to swim in the murky waters of poverty. The research findings also reveals that the respondents are more likely to poor with limited opportunities in relation to earning income in formal and informal jobs due to low levels schooling. This is in agreement with findings by the ZIMVAC report (2012) that the state of food insecurity had pushed some families to the edge to the extent that they sold their livestock to cope up with the situation and this had negative effects on marginalised and vulnerable groups such as children in and out of school. In the same vein, literature on population and poverty levels based on the United Nations Development Programme Human Development Index (2012) also revealed that Zimbabwe has been ranked as one of the least
developed countries at 172 out of 186. From above, it can be deduced that there is a relationship between limited economic opportunities and the low rate of literacy. The high rate of illiteracy possibly accounts for the behaviour of the most men who often take a back seat when it comes to fending for the family by letting their wives toil alone evident in Chitanga one.

4.3.4. OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF THE HEADS OF HOUSE-HOLDS

Fig 6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational status</th>
<th>N= 30.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>formal</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>informal</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subsistence farmer</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unemployed</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary Data

The study revealed that there is a positive co-relationship between household income and the occupational status of households in Chitanga ward one. Not only does the occupational status of respondents translate to monthly house-hold income but rather corresponds to the daily food consumption of the villagers. The research findings established that 18 (60%) respondents of households are unemployed while 2(6%) respondents are formally employed. The remaining 8(27%) respondents are subsistence farmers and only (2) 6% engage in the informal sector. These findings are consistent with findings from the literature review by the Hunger Project (1985) which indicated the economic status of individuals in most cases determines the levels of vulnerability of individuals to poverty related problems including hunger and starvation. A number of factors may provide explanations on why women are prone to food insecurity and the reasons for the alarming rates of unemployed people in these units include but not limited to low levels of schooling that undermines their chances of entry into the formal sector. This also involves cultural factors like the high dependency ratio on men as the mere breadwinners.
of families and donor syndrome as the most of the villagers do not want to work by taking comfort in food aid. Over-arching factors like the economic hardships in the countries are also limiting the assimulation of the educated few in the formal sector. Subsistence farming has also turned out to be fruitless given the unfavourable climatic conditions that pervades the ward and district at large. All this factors makes villagers potentially vulnerable to poverty–related problems including hunger and starvation as they lack sustainable sources of livelihoods to ensure the stable flow of income to facilitate food consumption and other household requirements.

4.3.5. HOUSE-HOLD INCOME LEVELS

Fig 7.

Source: Primary Data July 2014.

N=30.

From the key findings from Fig 7 above, it can be inferred that there is link between house hold income levels and the number of meals that are more likely to be consumed by the villagers in the ward. The research findings have also revealed that the house-hold income levels of a significant number of the respondents are relatively far below the international average expected standards given that 13 respondents (50%) of the households survive on $20 per month while 8 (30%) spend $25 per month. Only 6 respondents (15%) afford $30 to meet the average international standards of spending a dollar per day while 3 respondents (5%) afford $50 per month. These findings are consistent with observations made by the UNDP
(2012) in the related literature review on World Population census and Poverty levels that approximately 72 percent of Zimbabwe’s 12.9 million citizens live below the poverty datum line on less than US$ 1 a day. These findings are consistent with the scholarly work of the Hunger Project (1998) which observed that about forty percent (40%) of the world’s hungry population are children while women make the bulk of the food insecure people. In addition, the monthly house-holds income demonstrate that most of the respondents in the ward are unemployed and otherwise chances are high that they draw their incomes from piece rate jobs and well as from petty farm produce. However, it is important to mention that no links were made between household size and monthly household incomes. But it can be inferred that the larger the family size, the more serious the poverty levels.

4.4. HOUSE-HOLD NUTRITION / ACCESS TO MEALS

Fig 8.

Source: Primary Data July 2014. N= 30

The study revealed that about 21 respondents (70% )of the households survive on just one meal a day while 5 respondents (17, 5% ) of the households afford two meals a day and only 4 participants (13%) of the households are the only exceptional group that afford three meals a day. Under normal circumstances it is anticipated that when household food security increases, the average number of three meals are expected to be consumed on daily basis. However, it should be noted with concern that the results of the number of meals consumed in a day by the respondents indicated a weak relation than the average standards of three meals.
required. It can however, be deduced from the research findings in the diagram above that generally the respondents only achieved an average of two meals per day. This may be an indication that food production does not automatically translate into improved consumption among household members.

In support of the research findings, NAC (2011) in the literature review also demonstrated that the prevalence of stunting for children less than five years of age was 32 percent. This is also in agreement with (Mason 1990 cited in Pazvakarambwa 2009) in the related literature who likewise indicated that malnutrition remained the biggest killer of Children between ages of 2-5. These findings are consistent with the data accessed by the researcher from one of the key informants working in the Ministry of Health in the district with regards to the levels of malnutrition for the Children under five years old and women. The results were based on a survey carried out in 2010 and 2012 at district level as shown on Table 4 below:

Table 4. Shows the rate of Malnutrition for the under five children and women in Mwenezi District in 2010 and 2012.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Health Problem</th>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Stunting</td>
<td>under five</td>
<td>31.9 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Underweight</td>
<td>under five</td>
<td>9.2 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wasting</td>
<td>under five</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Stunting</td>
<td>under five</td>
<td>32.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Underweight</td>
<td>under five</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wasting</td>
<td>under five</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Body Max Index in Women</td>
<td>15-49 years</td>
<td>5.3% thin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Secondary Data

From this analysis, it can be deduced that the relationship between households consumption and the rate malnutrition cannot be concealed following the revelations of stunting for children under five which was 31.9 percent in 2010 and rapidly increased to 32.4 percent in 2012 while the Body Max Index in women was 5.3 percent respectively. The findings from above also provides explanations why Mwenezi district has been painted “red “especially ward one
to five in terms of need of humanitarian relief on annually based on the Rural Assessment Livelihood report July 2011 for Mwenezi district. However, it should be noted that the researcher was not able to access the results of the levels of malnutrition specifically targeting the ward one due to the sensitivity of the issue in question and ethical consideration of the key informant. Generally, results are representative of the plight of children and women to the conditions of food insecurity.

4.4.1. HOUSE-HOLD PRODUCTIVE ASSETS

Livestock provides meat and milk to meet household nutritional requirements, and can as well be sold to meet the family’s financial requirements in times of need. Based on the research findings 13 respondents (43%) of the population own poultry only, whilst 8 respondents (27%) own poultry and goats. Only 7 respondents (23%) of the households own cattle, goats and poultry. The remaining 2 (7%) of the households confirmed that they own cattle, goats,poultry and other assets such as scotch-carts ,ploughs, generators, solar panels and cell phones. Generally, the study revealed that a significant of 43 (13) percent of the respondent do not own productive assets like cattle that accumulate wealth quickly and sustain them as shock absorbers in the event that hunger and starvation occur The lack of productive assets undermines subsistence rural farmers to access loose credit systems from the lending institutions. This is supported by Kaseke (1998) in his research on social security and protection in rural Zimbabwe who indicated that the in the early 1980s, the government set up the Agriculture Finance Co-operation which was now commercialised and transformed into Agribank and as a result, the rural farmers have limited or no access to credit facilities due to lack of collateral. Meaning to say, the lack of collateral security which is shown in the unavailability of productive assets has a negative effects in gaining better access to credit. This is consistent with findings from Doss (1999) on research on access to credit who indicated that farmers who subsequently obtained credit had above the range farm resources. However, the study limitation in this context is that assets were not disaggregated by gender, thus limiting the scope on which inferences can be drawn.

Table 5: Shows assets owned by respondents per household in Chitanga ward 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assets owned</th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poultry</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poultry and Goats</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4.2. SOCIAL PROTECTION MECHANISMS

Above is an analysis of the social support mechanisms that exist in Chitanga ward one to enhance the social functioning of the community members. The research findings revealed that the donor support is the only arm of social protection which is fully chipping in to promote the well-being of the vulnerable segment of the community. Findings from the 9 respondents obtained from questionnaires indicated that donor support constituted 30 percent while 2 (6.7%) confirmed that they were benefiting from both government and diaspora support, only
2 respondents (6.7%) indicated that they were accessing diaspora support per-se while a significant number of 14 respondents (46.7%) claimed that they were neither benefiting from the above-mentioned life support systems. While the efforts of these life support systems are commendable regarding improving the quality of life of some members of the community, it should be noted with concern that the government and diaspora support falls short in cushioning up incapacitated households from poverty.

The government fiscal budgetary constraints which seems to be reluctant to respond to the social services of the rural citizenry can be attributed to preference of the state to fund sectors like mining and tourism. The findings above are in agreement with Chhachhi (2009)’s observations on research on social protection interventions in the literature where he indicated that most developing countries are failing the people in social protection interventions considering that they pay particular attention to productive sectors like tourism and mining while neglecting the social services sector there by avoiding confronting the social risks more likely to affect the vulnerable groups. The MDG Midterm Report (2007) in the literature review on social protection interventions also notes that the extent to which social protection systems as poverty reduction interventions have succeeded in lessening poverty is a matter of debate among development practitioners. From the above, it can be deduced that the social protection mechanism have remained inadequate particularly in Mwenezi district and in Zimbabwe at large because the state is not fully chipping in to complement the activities of development partners and NGOs like CAMFED among others. However, the trend of diaspora support that is relatively low leaves most women in Chitanga ward one with no option but to single-handedly fend for the family despite limited resources at their disposal.

4.5.3. FOOD SECURITY SITUATION IN MWENEZI DISTRICT.

Basically, about 5 key informants were agreeable that the food security situation in Mwenezi district has improved vastly as compared to previous seasons. This is supported by one respondent who is a local Chief and Senator in Chitanga ward one who said,
“The last season was better and most households are better-off, except for those that did not plant at all as they did not anticipate a good season or they had no draught power and agricultural inputs” (Senator for Mwenezi district, personal interview).

It is worth noting that in spite of improvements in the food security situation in Mwenezi district according to the official sources, survey results shows that 70 percent of the households survive on one meal a day. Study by Bandawe (2014:42), in the literature reviewed by the researcher on gender and food security propounded that increased production does not necessarily imply or translate into increased food consumption by households. This is an interesting phenomenon which should attract further research.

4.4.3. SOCIAL PROTECTION PROGRAMMES RUN BY STATE AND NON-STATE ACTORS IN MWENEZI DISTRICT

Findings from the 5 key informants indicated that there are various social protection and support mechanisms available to the needy members in district. The local Chief confirmed that he co-ordinates the Zunde ra Mambo program which mobilises the community to grow crops communally to feed vulnerable members of the community like OVC, the elderly and those with disabilities. However, he expressed concern over the unfavourable climatic conditions that are a common feature in the ward as a major drawback for the failure of the programme to reach out to all vulnerable groups in need of help. On another note, NGOs like Plan International provide financial support for vulnerable children like orphans and those living in abject poverty to attend school. Nevertheless, one of the key informants expressed disappointed with the attitude of the beneficiary children who are in most cases not taking school seriously. In an interview, he said,

“while social protection mechanism like that of Plan are commendable, however it does not make sense to continue with this approach given that most of the beneficiaries of the educational assistance leave school at a tender age and go to South Africa to look for menial jobs. I don’t think may be 2 percent of the beneficiaries have reached A level or University level. This alone shows a waste of resources and in this regard I recommend teaching the beneficiaries of the programmes life skills training courses”.

This scenario shows the ineffectiveness of the educational assistance programme that is being sponsored by Plan International organisation. The problem seems to be tied to the community attitude towards sending children to school and this accounts for the high levels of illiteracy in
the ward which makes it difficult for the young generation to realise social mobility in life. As a result, this creates limited opportunities for the youths to gain entry into the formal sector and eventually promote the vicious cycle of poverty to the community.

The department of Social Welfare also runs the Harmonised Cash Transfer Programme which provides financial support to the elderly and other vulnerable members of the society getting a maximum amount of $50 dollars per month depending on the family size. The findings are also commensurate with findings from Dhlembeu (1998) on social protection who indicated that the programmes represents the government’s response to drought –induced food shortages and vulnerable sections of the population in communal areas. While the cash transfer programme is most welcome, one of the key informant from the Department of Social Welfare expressed concern over the coverage of the programme considering only a handful are benefiting when he said,

“The programme does not cover all vulnerable members of the society simply because the government cash transfers only cater for 4691 beneficiaries out of a total of 15091 dependants in the district”.

In the same vein, one respondent in a focus group discussion shared the same sentiment with one of the key informant from the Social Welfare division that the social support mechanisms are inadequate and also expressed concern over the criteria that is used for selecting the vulnerable group eligible for services following allegations of nepotism by the village head taking a toll in the ward. One respondent said,

“Chinonyanya kundishungurudza nechekuti isusu tinenge tichirara nenzara hatinyorwe asi ma nurse nema teacher unowana vachitambira mundende uyu we cash transfer” (what baffles me is that you find that the vulnerable members of the community are not benefiting while nurses and teachers from the local social amenities are beneficiaries of the harmonised cash transfer programme yet they are formally employed).

This state of affairs clearly shows that the government is failing the people in the community considering that those vulnerable members of the community who are supposed to be the beneficiaries of the problem are not being effectively means-tested for eligibility purposes for the services as there were rumours of nepotism and corruption by the Select Committee. These are in line with observations made by Devereux (2001) in one of his scholarly work on social protection interventions in the literature as he presented a critique of the perspectives of social
He argued that the limitations of the perspectives of social protection are based on one of the key issues and the first concerns the identification of issues in which case such perceptions takes a narrow view of the livelihood risks by excluding important social threats like compromising the welfare of the vulnerable section of the population whom the programmes are intended to target. As a result, those vulnerable groups who have no effective representatives or without a link with the Headman or Chairman suffer more in conditions of food insecurity.

### 4.4.4. DONOR SYNDROME AMONG RECIPIENT COMMUNITIES.

The District Social Welfare Officer concurred with other stakeholders that the food security has improved as most families had good yields last season, except for the few that lacked seeds and draught power. Whereas key informants reported improvements in yields harvested, findings from focus group discussions and the household questionnaires shows a different picture. There is a dependency syndrome among the recipient communities, who continue to wallow in poverty in spite of good rains. These findings is in agreement with the dependency framework relevant in the study which demonstrate that the dependency syndrome kills the capacity utilisation of the recipient community as food aid increases. This makes it difficult for them to survive in the event that those helping agencies pulls out. It appears that food aid takes priority over community development projects like expansion of dams for irrigation purposes.

Yet findings from many studies have established that agriculture has a much greater impact on reducing poverty and improving food security than humanitarian aid can do (Moyo 2006). The level of donor dependency of the villagers is supported by one of the key informant from Christian Care organisation who indicated that,

"The majority of households take greater part in food aid programmes and in most cases they are only active during the registration process but are not forth coming in community development programmes."

These findings are also in agreement with the local Chief who lamented the fact that villagers are reluctant to attend community development meeting, preferring instead to attend food aid distributions. Not only has the dependency syndrome affected the community initiatives but rather it has affected land tillage in ward one. From the focus group discussion conducted in Mukachana grounds, the respondents confirmed that they own land for tillage allocated to them through the customary law. Nevertheless, the researcher observed that the community was not making maximum utilisation of the land in their possession due to increased pattern of donor-
The respondents also testified through focus group discussions that they cannot
afford to waste their energy on land that is not producing good yields due to inconsistent rainfall
patterns. One of the respondents had this to say,

“Mudunhu medu kurima kutambisa nguva, tingarimirei iyo mvura ichirambira mudenga and
takambozviyedza zvekurima pakuru zvikaramba”. (Farming is just a waste of time. Why
should we bother ourselves when the rains are not falling. We have tried tilling large pieces
of land but our efforts came to nothing”)

In yet another focus group discussion conducted at Chitanga Dam, the other respondents
indicated that they had no adequate inputs. They said,

“Tinenge tisina mbeswa.Saka dai zvaibvira ma Donor vaticheukawo (In most cases we do not
have seeds, so we are kindly asking for the intervention of non-state actors to help us.)

All this is a clear testimony of the donor syndrome that pervades the community members of
ward one against the maximum utilisation of the available land so that they maximise the
security of their livelihoods. It seems the respondents are capitalising on climatic disorders and
agricultural inputs to justify their lack of agricultural activity. The scenario of community
members who are taking a greater part in food aid programmes than community development
programmes as echoed by key informant from Christian Care organisation also clearly shows
how the dependency syndrome has been entrenched by households in Chitanga ward one. The
research findings has also revealed that there has been noted gradual disintegration of villages
into smaller units so that they maximise individual benefits from organisations providing food
hand-outs. For instance, the local Councillor for ward one indicated that there is Mukachana
A and B, and Chibaya A and B in the ward because these two villages are too big so that all
stand a chance of getting food aid. This shows that the community is slowly taking comfort in
the actions by NGOs by employing artificial deprivation as a way through which they can
acquire food hand-outs. The scenario in the ward is consistent with findings from (Gareth cited
in by the End Hunger Project 1995) in the literature review who revealed that **there is no
correlation between receiving food aid and becoming developed.** He achieved this by
making a comparative analysis of India which has been a dependent of food aid since 1956 and
China which shunned the donor syndrome. The results were that China did precisely so well
because she was not helped than India. In this regard, the dependency syndrome is one of the
peculiar problems has crept the recipient community and is wantonly influencing the state of
food insecurity in various households by undermining capacity utilisation in Chitanga ward one.

4.4.5. GENDER AND DECISION-MAKING AT HOUSEHOLD AND COMMUNITY LEVEL.

Women shun decision-making roles at home and in the community due to gender stereotypes, illiteracy and inferiority complex. This is supported by one of the key informant from W.F.P organisation who indicated that,

“The chairmanship of Productive Asset Creation Programmes is mostly bestowed on males in spite of women being in the majority.”

Women lack the power to decide on issues that affect their well-being, for example the choice of crops to grow or even the size of family they intend to have. The findings from above are also in line with findings from Guyer (1980) in the related literature who indicated that a growing body of knowledge in economics has challenged the traditional models, emphasising the need to understand the dynamics within the household. These research findings demonstrates that the partrichical make up still dominate the gender dynamics at both house-hold and community level in Chitanga ward one. The researcher have also personally observed that most women in the ward are in polygamous marriages, with a lot of Children. This exerts a lot of pressure on women who have to fend for their children through subsistence farming and other informal channels of income –generation.

4.5. COMMUNITY ATTITUDE TOWARDS CROP DIVERSIFICATION.

Community attitudes towards small grains are reported to be negative. Farmers in drought-prone are encouraged to grow small grains which are drought-tolerant, but farmers in Mwenezi district prefer to grow maize instead. This is in spite the fact that maize is prone to bad weather conditions due to poor rainfall patterns and high temperatures. The researcher has gone an extra mile to make a comparative analysis of the ward under study with the best ward in Mwenezi district in order to determine whether there is an significant differences in terms of the cereal production. Below is an outline by Mwenezi District Agritex Department of the comparative analysis of cereal production in Chitanga ward one and Maranda ward nine based on a survey of 30 sampled farmers per ward for four season from 2008 up to 2014 farming season obtained by the researcher in through key informant interviews with the extension worker:
Table 6. Shows the rate of cereal production in Chitanga ward one

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chitanga ward one</th>
<th>Farming season</th>
<th>Type of cereal</th>
<th>Area/hectare</th>
<th>Yield/hectare</th>
<th>Production(Tonnes)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2008-2009</td>
<td>Maize</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>720</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sorghum</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>210</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pearl millet</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>141</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Finger millet</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>117.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010-2011</td>
<td>Maize</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sorghum/pear millet</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012/2013</td>
<td>Maize</td>
<td>465</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sorghum</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pearl millet</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013/2014</td>
<td>Maize</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sorghum</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pearl millet</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>2855</td>
<td></td>
<td>1219.25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Secondary Data July 2014. N= 30

Table 7. Shows the rate of cereal production with the best ward –Maranda ward nine in Mwenezi district.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maranda ward 9</th>
<th>Farming season type of cereal</th>
<th>Type of cereal</th>
<th>Area/hectare</th>
<th>Yield/hectare</th>
<th>Production</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2008-09</td>
<td>Maize</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sorghum</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>105</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pearl millet</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>160</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Finger millet</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maize</td>
<td>Sorghum</td>
<td>Pearl millet</td>
<td>Finger millet</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2009-10</strong></td>
<td>850</td>
<td>296.7</td>
<td>4663.4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2010-2011</strong></td>
<td>8.56</td>
<td>115.73</td>
<td>115.73</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2011-2012</strong></td>
<td>15.79</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2012-2013</strong></td>
<td>517</td>
<td>567</td>
<td>680</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2013-2014</strong></td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.76</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>8758</td>
<td>3157</td>
<td>8758</td>
<td>3157</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source: Secondary Data July 2014.**

The analysis above reveals that there are striking differences with regards to the rate of cereal production in Chitanga ward one and Maranda ward nine considering that the former fall far below the average based on a survey carried out by the Mwenezi Agritex Department for four farming seasons. The findings demonstrate that Chitanga ward one have managed to produce 1219.25 tonnes of cereal production from 2008 up to 2014 farming season as compared with Maranda ward 9 which produced 3157 tonnes of cereal production. This alone reflects that there are underlying significance on the variance of cereal production in Chitanga ward one and Maranda communal ward due to effective utilisation of information as well as advice from the extension agents. The trends of production on the type of cereal that is in most cases favoured by the community members of ward one and ward nine had a significant effect on the output produced in the respective wards. This supported by the results of yields per type of cereal grown on the surveyed wards showing poor production in small grains especially in Chitanga ward one as they put maize as their first priority in farming. On the
contrary, the community members of Maranda ward one rarely experience the state of food insecurity on almost annual basis considering that they take into account advise from the Arex Officers on the best varieties of cereal to grow given the unfavourable climatic conditions in the district. In presenting a critique about the attitude of villagers in Chitanga ward one on small grains, one of the Arex Officers based in Mwenezi district had this to say,

“Ward one should change its attitude towards small grains like what Maranda ward nine has done and shift their focus from maize production given that Mwenezi district is known to receive average rainfall patterns of less than 200 millimetres though the normal rainfall patterns in region 5 is known to be at least 400millimetres per annum. We have always stressed this in several times yet most of the subsistence farmers in ward one favour hybrid varieties which demands more rain and this ultimately exposes them to food insecurity especially in bad years”

Similarly, the data gathered from one of the key informant from Plan International organisation demonstrated that for many decades especially before independence or in the early 80s there were farming methods which were used more often by the community members before the advent of new farming methods like crop diversification especially small grains. These methods were intended to protect the rural population against hunger especially when the rains were poor. This seems to be in agreement with findings from Fortmann (1976) in the related literature on access to extension services and information who revealed that access to appropriate information often have a positive impact on agricultural productivity and, its usefulness depends on the quality of services as well the attitude of the beneficiaries that the programmes target. In light of the above, it makes sense to argue that besides maize, they would grow drought resistant crops like millet, sorghum and rapoko as a strategy of mitigating starvation in the event that drought occurs. Maize especially hybrid varieties are easily affected by unstable rainfall patterns. One of the Key informant respondents also said,

‘Mapfunde nezviyo hazvina basa nemvura yakawanda saka ndozvatarima kudhara kuitira chibage kana chikaramba (Millet and sorghum do not necessarily need much rain so we traditionally used to grow it in case maize fails to yield something.)

From the research findings it can be deduced, that starvation in ward one is artificial as it is deliberately created because of the negative community attitude towards small grains as they appear to turn a blind eye on the advice of extension workers regarding the effects of climatic conditions on hybrid maize in as far as cereal production is concerned. This ultimately provides
an explanation for the relevance of shocking differences on the rate of cereal production in
ward one and Maranda ward one yet they are all communal wards in one district receiving the
same rainfall patterns.

4.5.1. LACK OF ACCESS TO LOOSE CREDIT SYSTEMS

Access to loose credit systems without binding collateral security is viewed as a developmental
priority that can assist both various households in Chitanga ward one to improve their
productivity and even their start-up capital in whatever activities they may wish to get involved
in but the combined data obtained from both from respondents engaged in focus group
discussions, questionnaires and from key informants confirmed that the community members
have no access to loans as compared with urban folks. This scenario was also echoed by one
of the respondents in a focus group discussion when she said,

“The problems that we are facing as women is that we have no access to
loose credit systems that can enable us to start our own small business and in most cases we
are the most vulnerable group in the event when hunger occurs because it our responsibility to
check child welfare issue like what he or she has eaten. The majority of the villagers do not
even know where they can go when they want to apply for loans.”

The above scenario shows that the community members in ward one are not empowered to
benefit from accessing loans in making better projects to address food insecurity. This can be
attributed to high levels of poverty that dominate the majority of the population in the
community considering that they have no collateral security that can make them gain access to
loans as the lending institutions avoid the risks of incurring loss. This is consistent with the
findings made by Rohrbach (1989), in his research on access to credit in Zimbabwe in the
literature who revealed that small-scale farmers were only eligible to receive credit after having
produced valid documents demonstrating their ability to produce a marketable surplus, usually
by receipts of past sales. He also indicated that in most cases farmers who had the likelihood
of obtaining credit were from high—rainfall zones and had above—the average farm resources.
The apparent bottle-neck system is accessing credit automatically exempted small-scale
farmers from food insecure regions like Masvingo province from acquiring credit as they were
possibly perceived as producing more for home consumption and less for the market. Yet studies from other researchers revealed that the rural folks especially women are the most credible people in terms of having to pay back loans as compared with their urban counterparts. It is important that the rural folk who play such a major role in the Zimbabwean economy are looked at and capacitated because it is no secret that the urban way of life is sustained by the rural folk.

Likewise based on the documents reviewed by the researcher, observations has been made that generally these facilities tend to favour men who are in most cases not putting the loans to good use, leaving out women who are the major suppliers of home economics. This supported by document reviewed by the researcher on Women Caucus Parliamentary workshop on Small to Medium enterprise and Co-operative Development held in Harare on the (3rd of April 2014) where Mrs Khupe who is a member in the National Assembly revealed, that out of 5.7 million people in the informal sector, 60 percent are women and are getting a raw deal when they go to financial lending institutions to borrow money as start-up capital or to grow their business because they are told are not credit worth. These findings are also in agreement with Mliswa a Legislative representative of Hurungwe west rural constituency who also indicated in Women Caucus Parliamentary workshop on Small to Medium enterprise and Co-operative Development on (3 April 2014) in the literature review on access to credit that if you look at food security, maize for example, 85% of maize comes from the rural folk and 70% of cotton is coming from the rural folk. Mliswa also expressed concern that the cotton is leaving those areas but you do not see much coming back in terms of money for them to be better farmers even in terms of capacity building, so that the quality of agriculture improves. From the arguments above, it becomes logical to conclude that access to loose credit system has much to offer not only to rural women but to the entire community at large given that it can promote increased investment and rural development through the efficient utilisation of these incentives.

4.5.2. THE PLIGHT OF WOMEN AND PECULIAR ISSUES IN CHITANGA WARD ONE.

Childhood marriages were also prevalent as young girls drop—out of school to get married. These were identified as issues of concern by most key informants and by focus group discussions. One of the key informants based in the ward who is in the School Committee confirmed that there were 16 drop—outs due to early marriages at a local day Secondary school.
alone but it should be noted that some cases may go unreported. He also expressed concern over the issue of early “cat in bag girl – child marriages” when he said,

“Zvirikuita nguke varebekte vakawanda muwadhi one varikunyanya kukoshesa kuroodza vana kana kuvamanikidza kutizira vasati vasvika zera and naizvozvo havachakoshesa chikoro zvinokonzera kuti vakawanda vasaenderera kumberi nedzidzo. Asi pamberi apo muhupenyu unozoona kuti ndivo vanhu vanozotombura zvakanyanya vasiwa vega nevarume vaenda ku South Africa and dzimwe nguva havadzoke kana unozovaona pa kisimusi chete." (It seems parents attach importance to lobola at the expense of the girl – child’s education, which results in illiteracy and poverty among the affected girls. And in most cases they are left behind by their husbands and suffer more as they spouses might choose not to come back or return home only during the festive seasons)

This scenario demonstrates that the burden of looking after the family is mostly left up to women who have to single-handedly raise and feed families as men migrate to South Africa or seek seasonal jobs in sugar estate. It is pathetic to note that others choose to stay abroad for good due to second families which eventually makes it difficult for them to remit something back home. Nyangirai (2010) notes that the majority of Zimbabwean women play the role of a breadwinner because thousands of men have migrated to neighbouring countries in search of improved political and economic circumstances. Nyangirai (2010) also cited that in their absence, women have faced abundant food production and access problems and have thus started resorting to informal trade and risky behaviour including trading sex for aid. This means that the burden of placing food on the table is largely borne by women despite of their limited financial and food resources. The researcher has also observed that large section of the population in the ward are unemployed and as a result the society view plunging their children into early “cat in bag girl-child marriages” as the only best option available to wean themselves from parental responsibility and possibly rake money through lobola. As a result, the level of girl-child prostitution and early girl – child marriages is so alarming which is in most cases caused by poverty and hunger. This scenario shows that the state of food insecurity influences moral decadence especially on the part of female youths in the community who are in most cases compelled by the desperation of money and food to venture into commercial sex with truck drivers and local fuel dealers in strategic business centres like Lundi township.

4.6. CONCLUSION
Information gathered from individual questionnaires, participant observations, key informant interviews, focus group discussion and document reviews revealed that the population in Mwenezi district survives mainly on vending and subsistence farming. The fortunate few own livestock sales. The majority of men are seasonal workers in the sugar estates in Mwenezana or migrant workers in South Africa. This situation results in women being left alone to fend for the family. Most women in the district are not employed, and thus have to survive on cross-border trading, army worm harvesting and nutrition gardens supported by NGOs.

Prostitution is rife among women and young girls who are school drop-outs looking for means of survival. There is also a high prevalence of early childhood marriages, a factor which exposes young women to both poverty and possible HIV infections.

The youth in the ward are involved in illegal fuel deals along the Masvingo –Beitbridge highway especially at Lundi business centre. Gold panning along Runde River provides sustenance for some households, but the bulk of the panners squander the proceeds on beer and prostitutes, leaving women to take charge of family livelihoods. Alcohol and drug abuse are high among men, and women in focus group discussion also highlighted a high record of Gender-Based Violence, which they attributed to lack of awareness of women’s rights. Nutrition gardens run mostly by women provide vegetables and fruits for household consumption as well as for income generation. But still these nutritional gardens, do not provide staple food for families so they look up to donors for food support.

A government official lamented the plight of women in the ward,

“Women carry most burdens than their male counterparts. Their spouses seem to be ignorant and do not accept methods of family planning resulting in the women bearing many children whom they are not able to look after. Thus, there is a high incidence of Gender-Based violence.

In conclusion, women are particularly vulnerable to food insecurity than their male counterparts. Women bear the major brunt of food insecurity much more than their male counterparts as traditional and reproductive roles place the burden of caring for and feed the family on women who lack economic and productive means to sustain themselves and their families.

4.6.1. CHAPTER SUMMARY
This chapter discussed the tools that were used by the researcher to analyse the research findings. It has touched on key issues that are positively associated with the state of food insecurity from a wide spectrum of respondents that include key informants, individual questionnaires, participant observation and focus group discussions as well as document reviews. The research findings demonstrated that women and their children are the most vulnerable section of the population that seems to suffer more especially in conditions of food insecurity. The results of the research findings also demonstrated that there is a relationship on the gendered nature of the state of food insecurity as men and women experience the problem of hunger differently in the ward. In addition, this chapter has also identified new emerging themes that were associated with the state of food insecurity in Chitanga ward one and efforts have been made to show the relationship of the research findings and the literature review. The next chapter shall conclude the entire thesis.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0. INTRODUCTION, SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

5.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter is a conclusion of the study, and also provides an outline of recommendations emanating from the research findings. The chapter also identifies areas for further research, to guide future research.
5.2. SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS.

The study established that the challenges associated with food insecurity in Chitanga are varied and are not limited to lack of market linkages, lack of access to loose credit systems, underutilisation of extension services and information as well as the negative attitude of the community to small grains yet they are favourable given the climatic conditions that prevails in the district. Findings from the research study have also revealed that the community members of ward one have entrenched the donor dependency syndrome to an extent that there are fears that they are more potentially vulnerable to hunger and starvation in the event that non-governmental organisations providing food aid pulls out. This state of affairs have also killed the capacity utilisation and land tillage of the villagers in the ward as they seem to have taken comfort in food aid evident in the creation of artificial deprivation through the disintegration of villages into small units as an alternative to for them to benefit more from food hand outs. The key results of the study area have revealed that the sordid conditions of food insecurity trap women and young girls into prostitution and early childhood marriages which are in most cases so pathetic. Findings from the study have also demonstrated that women suffer more in conditions of food insecurity than their counterparts and bear the major brunt of single-handedly fending for the family while their husbands are in most cases based abroad where they do menial jobs. The study have also established that the government is not fully chipping in to compliment the activities of non-state actors in responding to the needs of incapacitated households especially in the provision of the needed social services.

5.2.1. CONCLUSION

Increased emphasis in the study to address the problem of food insecurity was placed on creating synergies for linking rural producers with viable markets and making effective utilisation of extension services and information from the Arex Officers. Crop diversification should be encouraged in the ward one to lessen over-dependence on maize which is the staple food to drought-resistant crops such as sorghum and pearl millet which are most preferable in seasons when there is inadequate rainfall in the district which is in most cases subjected to high temperatures. The negative attitude of community towards small had a significant effect on the rate of cereal production in the ward as compared with the high performance of scale of cereal production Maranda ward nine.

The study showed that the majority of the villagers have been crept by the donor syndrome as they continue to wallow in poverty despite the good rains early this year and it seems they are
taking comfort in food aid programmes. The level of donor syndrome is seen in the disintegration of villages into small units in order to benefit more from food hand outs and there are fears that they are more likely to be vulnerable to hunger and starvation considering that donor-funding is dwindling especially in the event that they pull out. The findings have proved that donor-funded activities is not only affecting capacity utilisation and land tillage by the recipients communities but rather it has been noted with concern that some of their programmes are compromising the operations of the extension agents in the community thereby affecting output production.

The challenges associated with food insecurity impact on men and women differently simply because the burden of ensuring that all the family and child welfare needs are met are often tied to women than their male counterparts. The explanation for this state of affairs is attributed to the fact that the large section of households have degenerated into female-households due consistent male migration abroad especially to South Africa with others choosing to stay in diaspora for good. The study also revealed that women faced an array of challenges that include labour constrains, decision-making powers in the community and little or no support in terms of money or goods provided by the husbands or relatives in South Africa due to low paying jobs and in some cases second families as well as limited practical assistance from their husbands.

Findings from the study have also revealed that the majority of households in Chitanga ward live under the poverty datum line as their incomes are relatively far below the international average expected standards of spending a dollar a day and this is due to the fact that most of them are unemployed. The levels of monthly households income translated to the number of meals that were consumed per day per household in the ward. The study revealed that women and children are the most vulnerable groups to food insecurity as shown by the trends of malnutrition that affect them. The explanation for this trend could be attributed to dependence ratio on men as the breadwinners of the family in male-headed households and the social responsibilities of raising a family alone especially in female-headed families yet they are unemployed.

The study showed that common assets among poor farming households in the ward are a few herds of cattle, poultry and goats. Rural poor male and female headed households undertake an array of livelihood activities but mainly depend on seasonality due to reliance on rain-fed agriculture and include vending, piece rate jobs in which they are given a wage or in-kind
payment, growing vegetables (gardening) and small livestock rearing. The study established that poor households did not pursue sustainable livelihood activities due to among others low levels of education and skills acquisition with limited income earning opportunities and lack of efficient productive assets such as modern farm implements like tractors.

While the helping hand of the government is fully acknowledged in responding to the needs of the selected few vulnerable groups like the elderly and those living in abject poverty, it is however, not fully chipping in to effectively compliment the efforts of non-state agencies in the delivery of social services. In the district, non-governmental organisations remains the only active arm of social support to cushion the vulnerable members of the society from vulnerabilities and social risks like hunger and starvation.

The state and non-state agencies involved in the provision of social protection to benefit poor people tend to neglect social risks and vulnerabilities in policy design given that emphasis is placed on tackling economic risks and vulnerabilities. These social risks include gender inequalities, poverty, power dynamics and inequalities in the distribution of resources within the household and community. The explanation for this is that they view social risks as an appendage of economic risks which eventually result in limited government fiscal budgets for the social services. These factors result in formulation and subsequent operationalisation of policies that fail to holistically address gendered poverty and inequalities. The paper explored the contribution of small grains, market linkages, access to loose credit systems, utilisation of extension service and developmental aid rather than food aid among other things to household food security with a gender perspective in Chitanga ward one.

The paper concludes by emphasising that the condition of food insecurity can be best tackled by designing poverty reduction transformative measures that takes into account all the concerns raised above including addressing the systemic barriers rooted in society like the gender needs and constrains especially that of women.
5.3. RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

5.3.1. MARKET LINKAGES FOR NUTRITION GARDENS PROJECTS

The study revealed that there is a shortage of markets for produce from community nutrition gardens, thus most of the produce is consumed with households and not much income can be generated from nutrition gardens due to lack of access to viable markets. There is need to facilitate or promote linkages with markets in the urban areas, particularly the chain
supermarkets in the urban areas can provide markets for vegetables grown in the study area. This can provide cash needed for livelihoods in study area.

5.3.2. IMPROVED MARKETING OF SMALL –GRAINS

Though small –grains remain unpopular as a staple food in the drought –prone areas of Masvingo Province , Mwenezi included ,it is vital to tap into commercial markets readily available .Small –grains are increasingly being used in beverage production ,especially in the production of traditional “markets” and beer brands. Even though the communities prefer maize for domestic consumption , the cultivation of small grains needs to be promoted and the produce then sold to the beverage industries .This can be a viable source of income for communities on drought-prone areas ,income which they can use for their livelihoods. The community should also be in a position to make appropriate use of extension services and information considering that their input have a significant effect on cereal production.

5.3.3. PROMOTING DEVELOPMENTAL AID RATHER THAN FOOD AID.

Promoting developmental aid rather than food aid is the only panacea to food insecurity particularly in Chitanga ward one and drought –prone regions in Zimbabwe considering that food aid programmes are wantonly killing the capacity utilisation of the recipients communities. It appears that the recipient communities of food hand-outs are taking comfort in donor-funded activities which have a negative bearing on land tillage and must be stopped given that the donor-funding is dwindling. As a result, there are fears that the situation will get worse if NGOs pulls out simply because the community have no shock absorbers to sustain themselves. Generally, the people should be weaned from donor-syndrome and do sustainable projects. Even donors themselves should give the community sustainable projects so that if they pull out the community can become self-reliant because they are not in the district for good. For example, stakeholders should partake developmental projects like conservative farming popularly known as Dhiga udye” in Shona supported by Christian Care organisation which is suitable in drought-prone areas and create synergies for seed multiplication programme in the district supported by Plan International organisations which also promotes crop diversification.

5.3.4. ALTERNATIVE LIVELHOODS STRATEGIES.

Organisations like OXFAM should forge partnerships with the Department of Livestock and Production Development(DLPD) and the Department of Veterinary Services (DVS) and take
an integrated approach in enhancing livestock development and this the only natural solution to the state of food insecurity prevalent in Mwenezi district. Livestock development is the only way to redress the situation in the district given the unfavourable climatic conditions that characterises the constituency. These agencies should effectively chip in and assist the communities in establishing feed lots for cattle –fattening for commercial purposes and link them with viable markets so that they generate more profits in cattle sales. Of note is the fact that villagers in the district should also be encouraged to raise suitable livestock varieties like the “Mashona type” which is far much better immune from unfavourable climatic conditions and gain access to livestock loans. The villagers in the ward should have access to livestock loans and this will empower them economically so that they are able to purchase farm implements. The problem is they do not have access to livestock loans, yet studies from other researchers revealed that the rural folks are the most credible people in terms of paying back loans as compared with their urban counterparts. The lending institutions should create more synergies for the rural farmers following the fact that they contribute 85 percent of maize cereal and 70 percent of cotton production in Zimbabwe respectively. It is also imperative to empower villagers in small-scale mining ventures especially those involved in gold panning so that shift their focus away from squandering the proceeds in unnecessary things.

5.3.5. ENHANCING SOCIAL PROTECTION MECHANISMS

Both state and non-state actors should expand their programmes so that they reach out to all vulnerable members of the community and this can be achieved by the ensuring that the beneficiaries are effectively means-tested. New NGOs that are chipping in have a tendency of targeting the traditionally so-called vulnerable groups of which they are some community members who are also living in poverty. In this way, they should be in a position to identify the gap that has been left out by other agencies operating in the district so that they do not hammer much on the repeatedly so-called vulnerable groups like orphans yet they are some.In addition, the government must effectively chip in with fertilizers and seed in the early stages of the planting season so that the villagers get the chance to till the land in time considering the fact that the rain-fall patterns in the district are so scanty. There is also a need to enable the flexible chipping in of the private sector as new emerging traders of inputs and grains to compliment the efforts of GMB that has remained the sole trader but failing meet the demands of the people.

5.4. GENDER EMPOWERMENT
It is imperative to promote youth education in the ward considering that there are alarming rates of school–drop outs recorded some due to early cat–in bag marriages affecting the girl–child while the boy child resort to go South Africa as migrant workers. This state of affairs translate to the high rate of illiteracy that characterises the community. As such, concerned partners take a holistic approach and intensify their programmes just like CAMFED organisation which is offering Girl–Child Education Support programme. This then reduces early childhood marriages and HIV/AIDS related infections. Both state and non-state actors must engage in workshops with villagers and provide counsel to them concerning gender issues and make women realise their full potential and capabilities in the decision-making in the civil as well as political arena. There is also need to conscientise males to be proactive in farming and other activities so that women do not single-handedly toil in meeting the family responsibilities like child-welfare.

5.4.1. LAND REFORM.

Since this community provides the bulk of the menial work in sugar estates, it is wise to relocate them and initiate sugarcane production. The land reform programme was a very empowering initiative considering that it has changed the lives of the people especially those living in the resettlement areas as compared with those in the communal wards in the district. Some relocated to the resettlement areas without even a cattle but are now in possession of many herds of productive assets. This alone demonstrate that the community members should make maximum utilisation of the virgin land in the resettlement areas by starting sugar-cane production so that they are empowered economically and desist from asking for food handouts on almost annual basis.

5.4.2. PROMOTING OFF-FARM SEASON ACTIVITIES.

The villagers are more vulnerable to hunger and starvation due to their over reliance on rain-fed agriculture, so the unfavourable climatic conditions that prevails in the district makes it difficult for them to sustain themselves from food insecurity. Against this background, NGOs must also help the community expand the dams first and provide water conveyer systems in order to make the watering of gardens an easier and desirable chore as part of the off-farm season activities. This will serve as shock absorbers in the event of famine and also helps to do away with prostitution if women become occupied as well reduce dependents on their better halves as the sole bread winner of the family.
5.4.3. AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Future research can focus on the following identified areas or knowledge gaps:

- Comparing of rural and urban poverty.
- Links between poverty and early marriages among young girls.
- Gender-based violence and food insecurity.
- Market linkages for rural income-generation projects.

5.4.4. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has finally concludes the research findings and has attempt to demonstrate some the peculiar issues that exist in Chitanga ward one that calls for the urgent attention of all stakeholders concerned in the area of food insecurity to join hands and solve the factors influencing the state of food insecurity in the ward. The study outlined the problems faced by communities in food insecure regions. Recommendations were also made in this chapter, on how to improve the livelihoods of rural communities, especially for women in droughts-prone regions. The researcher also identified areas for future research, which other researchers can pursue to build the knowledge base on gender and food insecurity.

REFERENCES


APPENDIX A.

PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION ANNEXTURES.

Plate A is a photo narration of participant observation by the researcher of Chitanga irrigation schemes that has come collapsed following the heavy rains which washed
away the dam early this year in 2014.

Source: 27 July Field work 2014.

APPENDIX B.

Plate B is a photo narration of Chitanga Dam in ward one which was washed away by heavy floods early this year in 2014
APPENDIX C.

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE.
The steps taken to conduct the focus group discussions by the researcher.

Create a rapport, say your name, where i come from, purpose and objective of the research and how they come in important to the participants. I also started by asking the respondents what they did yesterday as some form of an ice-breaker in order to make them feel comfortable before the core business of the gathering begins. I excuse myself for taking notes during the discussion.

Focus group discussion guiding questions:

1. What are your views with regards to food insecurity issues in Chitanga ward one?
   (Munofungawo kutii maringe nyenya yenzara mudhunhu menyu ma Chitanga)

2. What do you think are the major causes of food insecurity in ward one?
   (Munofungawo kuti chii chirikukonzera hurombo ne nzara munharaunda yenyu.)

3. Are there any major challenges that are being faced in attaining food in your community?
   (Pane matambudziko amurikusangana nawo here maringe nenzara.)

4. What is the local Legislature doing in promoting community development in the ward?
   (Ndeapi ma projects amurikurudzirwa na M.P. wemudunhu menyu.)

5. What survival strategies people are adopting in times of food insecurity.
   (Ndeapi mazano anowanzotora munguva dzenzara.).

6. How many acres of land do you own on average and what type of cereals do you often grow.
   (Minda yenyu yakakura seyi uye munowanzo kurima chii.)

7. What is the role being played by the state and non-state actors in addressing food insecurity?
   (Murikubatsirikana here kubva ku Hurumende ne madonor maringe nenzara mudunhu menyu)
8. What forms of support are available to vulnerable people in your area?

(Rubatsiro rwupi rwamunowana mudunhu menyu panevaya vanotambura kana vakaremara.)

9. Do you have any suggestions on how poverty and hunger can be eradicated in your district?

(Mune mazano api anga simudzira district yenyu maringe nekupedza nzara ne hurombo.)

Thank You.

(Maita basa.)

APPENDIX D.

GENDER AND FOOD INSECURITY.
DISCUSSION GUIDE - WRITE UP

Facilitator : ……………………………………………………………………………………

Recorder : ………………………………………………………………………………………

Date : ……………………………………………………………………………………………

Place : ……………………………………………………………………………………………

District : Mwenezi

Starting Time:

End Time :

1. Topic : Gender and Food Security in Mwenezi
   Number of Focus group participants : Females…………………………
   : Males………………………………

2. Comments on group members
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3. Comments on the location and sitting arrangements/ Group dynamics
4. Emerging Issues/ Recurrent Themes

5. Participant Profiles

(a) Lifestyle and livelihoods activities for women

(b) Lifestyle and livelihood activities for men

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APPENDIX E.

GENDER AND FOOD INSECURITY.

QUESTIONNAIRE GUIDE.
To be filled in by adults aged 18 and above (Mibunzo iyi inotarisirwa kupindura ne vanhu vanotangira pamakore Gumi nemasere zvichienda kumberi.)

1. District : Mwenezi
2. Ward:……………………………………………………………………………………………………
3. Village:……………………………………………………………………………………………………

4. Date of interview (Musika wetsvakurudzo)……………………………………
5. Date of Birth (Zuva rekuzvarwa)…………………………………………………………

6. Sex Male □ Female □
7. What is your current marital status?
   (Mune mudzimai kana murume here wamuno garanaye)
   (a) Single (Asina kuroora kana kurooronwa) □
   (b) Married ( makaroorwa kana kuroora ) □
   (c) Separated/ Divorce (Makarambana) □
   (d) Widow/Widower (chirikadzi kana kufirwa nemukadzi) □
   (e) Migrant spouse (mune murume kana mukadzi arikunze kwenyika) □

8. Are you the head of household? Yes □ No □
   (Ndimi musorowemba here mumhuri menyu

9. What is your highest level of education?
   ( Makagumira pachidanho chipi chechikoro?)
   (a) Never attended (haana kumbopinda chikoro) □
   (b) Primary (purai marai) □
   (c) “O” Level (secondari) □
   (d) “A” Level(fomusikisi) □
   (e) Diploma/ Degree.(ku college kana univhesity) □

10. What is your main occupation
       Munoitei mukarama, chinokupai chouviri?
       (a) Farmer(Murimi) □
       (b) Formal employment (kushanda mubazi re hurumende kana rinemapepa.) □
       (c) Informal emploment (kushanda basa rekuzviitira) □
       (d) Unemploment (Haushandi) □
11. How much does your household spend on food and other items per month? $………………
(Munoshandisa mari yakawanda zvakadii pamwedzi mumba menyu?) $………………

12. How many meals do you have per day?
(Munodya kanga pazuva?)
(a) One (kamwe)
(b) Two (kaviri)
(c) Three times (katatu)

13. Does your family own any of the following?
(Mumhuri menyu munezvinotevera here)
(a) Cattle (mombe)
(b) Goats (mbudzi)
(c) Poultry (huku kana hanga)
(d) Sheep (makwai)
(e) Scotch cart (Ngoro)
(f) Tractor (tarakita)
(g) Solar Panel (sola)
(h) Radio (redhiyo)
(i) Cellular Phone (foni)
(j) Television (terevhizheni)
(k) Refrigerator (firigi)
(l) None (hapana chatii nacho)

14. Besides your own income, do you receive any other material or financial support from elsewhere?
(Mune (rubatsiro rwemari kana zvekudya here zvamunopihwa ne:)
(a) None (hapana rubatsiro)
(b) Donor-support (madhona)
(c) Government welfare support (hurufeya)
(d) Diaspora/Relatives (hama dzirikunze kwenyika)
15. How many children aged below 16 live in this household?

(Mune vana vangani vamunogara navo varipasi pemakore gumi ne matanhatu?)

16. Are there any children of going age in your household who are not attending school?

(Mumhuri menyu mune vana vangani vezera rechikoro vasirikuenda kuchikoro)

(a) If yes why? (Sei vasirikuendaku chikoro?)

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(b) If No, proceed (pasina dambudziko enda kumberi)

17. Which of the following food did you have yesterday?

(Pane chikafu chinotevera pane chamakadya here nezuro?)

(a) Sadza

(b) Meat (nyama)

(c) Bread (chingwa)

(d) Sweet-potato (mbambaira)

(e) Fish (Hove)

(f) Beverages (doro)

(g) Other specify (Kana pane zvimwe taurai)………………………………..

(h) None (hapana chawakadya)

18. Are you facing many challenges in meeting your daily needs?

(Mune dambudziko here rekuwana cheuviri semhuri?)

(a) Yes

(b) No
19. Do you have any suggestions on ending hunger and poverty in your district?

(Munemazano here ekupedza hurombo nenzara mudunhu renyu?)

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Thank you.
(Maiita basa).

APPENDIX F.

KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEW GUIDE.
INTRODUCTION

My name is ……………….. I am a final year Bachelor of Science (BSC) Social Work student at Bindura University of Science Education. As part of my studies, I am carrying out a gendered research on the challenges associated with food insecurity in Mwenezi district by using Chitanga ward one as a case study. This research is expected to come up with recommendations to eradicate poverty and hunger in food insecure regions and also improve the livelihoods of women in general. There are no right or wrong answers, please feel free to answer the following questions.

Name of Agency ……………………………………………………………………………………..
Date of Interviews……………………………………………………………………………………
Position of Respondent………………………………………………………………………………

1. What is the current state of affairs with regards to food insecurity in your community?
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2. What are the main means of livelihood for people in your community?
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3. What social support mechanisms exist in your community for the sustenance of vulnerable members of the society like the poor, aged, disabled and children?

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4. Are these support mechanisms adequate? If not, in your opinion what can be done to improve the livelihoods in your district?

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5. Are there any peculiar problem in this district that you think need to be highlighted? Specify.

6. In your opinion what problems are women facing in terms of livelihoods and sustenance in your district.
7. Do you have recommendations to address the challenges faced by women in attaining sustainable livelihoods in your district?

Thank you.

(Maita basa)

APPENDIX G.

INFORMED CONSENT (English Version)
I introduce myself and give an overview of the research. I explain that they have the right to choose to participate or not. If they are willing, and they can read I give them the consent form to read and ask for clarification. If they cannot read I read to them if there is need.

The purpose of this study is to carry out a gendered investigation on the challenges associated with food insecurity in rural Zimbabwe using Chitanga ward one as a case study. As a resident of Chitanga ward one in Mwenezi district, your participation in this study will be helpful to bring out some of the challenges. In our discussion or findings will not make use of your name in sensitive issues unless the issue is not so touching. What it means is, what we discuss cannot be linked to your name.

You are not forced to participate but please note that whatever information you may have is very important for this study. Even if you choose to participate you may choose to withdraw without any loss.

There is no reward for participating except that the researcher will acknowledge you. Recommendations might influence changes here or there.

If you are willing to participate you can show by signing below.

Thank you.

Signed………………………………………………………………

Witness………………………………………………………………

Date………………………………………………………………

APPENDIX H.

INFORMED CONSENT (Shona Version).
(GWARO RETENDERANO)

Tsvagiridzo iyi iri pamusoro pekutsvaga kunzwisisa muudzamu zvikonzero maringe ne nzara ne hurombo mudunhu menyu.


Hapana chamunopihwa nekupinda muhurukuro iyi ,asi kutendwa mune zvinowanikwa mutsvakurudzo zvingangobatsira apo ne apo kuti nharaunda yenyu iitewo zvirinani uye nezvichakurudzirwa (Recommendations).

Kana muchida kukurukurwa nemi ,muratidze nekusaina pazasi apa.

Signed……………………………………………………………………..

Witness……………………………………………………………………..

Date………………………………………………………………………..