UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN AGRICULTURE: A CASE OF MASHONALAND WEST PROVINCE IN ZIMBABWE

By

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DECLARATION

I, Evelyn Derera declare that

i. The research reported in this thesis, except where otherwise indicated, is my original research.

ii. This thesis has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.

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Evelyn Derera January 2016

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This study is dedicated to my father, Willie Boniye Sigauke and my two boys, Euan and Ranga.

ABSTRACT

Gender equality and women's empowerment has been widely acknowledged as an important goal for international development, especially within the agricultural sector. The agricultural sector is a critical sector for many developing economies, particularly Zimbabwe which is agro based. Women are active players in agriculture and they make enormous contributions towards food production and income generating activities through entrepreneurship. This study combines three under researched contemporary discourses in research namely women's economic empowerment, women entrepreneurship and agriculture. The study explores the nexus between women's economic empowerment and entrepreneurship in agriculture in Mashonaland West province in Zimbabwe. In particular, the main aim of the study is to investigate whether economic empowerment of women through entrepreneurship in agriculture can lead to improved quality of lives for women. A mixed method approach was used to collect data from a sample of two hundred and forty eight (248) women involved in agricultural entrepreneurship. Two types of non-probability sampling techniques known as purposive and convenience sampling were used to identify the women. Data was collected in three phases. The first phase collected qualitative data using two focus groups involving fourteen (14) women entrepreneurs. The second phase used a questionnaire survey to collect quantitative data from two hundred and thirty four (234) women entrepreneurs. Data collection was wrapped up with in-depth interviews with ten (10) women who had also participated in the questionnaire survey. Content analysis was used to analyse qualitative data, while descriptive and inferential statistics such as Principal Component Analysis and ANOVA were used to analyse quantitative data. The results revealed that economic empowerment has indeed improved the lives of women and their families. The results also indicated that women are generally receiving support from the government in the form of agricultural inputs, training, agriculture equipment, with a few women receiving farming loans. The results also revealed that although the quality of women's livelihood has improved, lack of skills in agriculture and entrepreneurship is hampering the full potential of economic empowerment among women. In addition, the study revealed that the majority of women are involved in agriculture out of necessity to provide food for their families and as a result of poverty, rather than as an entrepreneurial venture. This has serious implications on economic development and food security in Zimbabwe, bearing in mind that the economy is mainly dependent on agriculture. Therefore, policy makers should find ways of changing the mindset of Zimbabweans and

encourage people, especially women and the youth to consider agriculture as a profitable business venture. In addition, more support is required to capacitate women with the necessary skills that would enable them to take agriculture entrepreneurship to a higher level that contributes significantly to the Zimbabwean economy. Future research should focus on finding ways to economically empower women in rural areas, especially in Zimbabwe where the majority of the population is living in poverty.

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INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Gender equality and women's empowerment has been widely acknowledged as an important goal for international development (Malhotra and Schuler, 2005; Malapit and Quisumbing, 2015). Its significance is emphasised by the inclusion of gender equality and women's empowerment in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (Malapit and Quisumbing, 2015). In particular, the third Millennium Development Goal highlights the importance of *"promoting gender equality and empowering women"* (United Nations, 2015: Online). This is necessary because women are generally marginalized in our societies as indicated by the following quote from United Nations Women that:

> *"women perform 66 percent of the world's work, produce 50 percent of the food, but earn 10 percent of the income and own 1 percent of the property"* (World Bank, 2012a:1).

Thus, despite the fact that women contribute more than 50 percent towards the world's labour and food production, they only earn a tenth of the income and own only one percent of property. This statement shows gender inequality that exists on the global level and why the majority of women are poor. Hence the notion that poverty is feminised because women constitute approximately 70% of the 1.3 billion people living in extreme poverty worldwide (i.e. those people living on less than $1 per day) (Women's Refugee Commission, 2015). Undoubtedly, poverty could be eradicated when women's contribution towards the world development is equated with the women's income and ownership of factors of production. Thus, it is important that the role of gender equality in reducing poverty, eradicating hunger, and improving food security is acknowledged (Malapit and Quisumbing, 2015). In order to achieve women's economic empowerment sound public policies, a holistic approach and long-term commitment and gender-specific interventions must be integrated at the design stage of policy and programming (OECD, 2012).

Women's empowerment occurs in different domains and these domains are: economic, socio-cultural, interpersonal, legal, political, and psychological (Malhotra, Schuler and Boender, 2002). Mosedale (2005:247) mentions that empowerment is a socio-political concept that includes cognitive, psychological, economic and political components. Even though empowerment in one domain may result in a positive change in another dimension, this is not always the case. Sometimes a woman can be empowered in one domain and disempowered in another domain. For example, literature suggests that an economically empowered woman may suffer from physical and psychological abuse from the spouse (e.g. Gilroy, Nava, Maddoux, McFarlane, Symes, Koci and Fredland, 2015; Hidrobo and Fernald, 2013; Hughes, Bolis, Fries and Finigan, 2015). Alkire (2008) gives another example whereby a woman may be very empowered as a mother but may be excluded from the labour force by social conventions. Previous research also suggest that women's economic empowerment is more likely to increase than decrease domestic violence especially in situations where women already have much less decision-making power than men prior to the commencement of women's economic empowerment interventions (Hidrobo and Fernald, 2013; Hughes, Bolis, Fries and Finigan, 2015). Despite all this debate on women's economic empowerment, a number of authors (e.g. Moyle, Dollard and Biswas, 2006; Batliwala, 2007) agree that the overall empowerment of women is crucially dependent on economic empowerment. Hence, the reason why the concept of promoting women's economic empowerment is gaining greater attention over the years (Mehra and Hill Rojas, 2008). This study partly focuses on women's economic empowerment.

The benefits of women's economic empowerment are well-known and documented in the development literature (Slegh, Barker, Kimonyo, Ndolimana and Bannerman, 2013). Investing in women's economic empowerment sets a direct path towards gender equality, poverty eradication and inclusive economic growth (United Nations Women, 2015). Women's economic empowerment is central to economic growth and development of any nation (UNIDO, 2010) and; is a prerequisite for sustainable development and pro-poor growth (OECD, 2012). Ghani, Kerr and O'Connell (2013) concur that women's economic empowerment has been a central driver of economic growth over the past century due to the increasing role of women's participation in the economy. In fact this is why the managing director for the International Monetary Fund argues that "when women do better, economies also do better" (Lagarde, 2013: Online). In a similar vein, there is also increasing recognition that women's economic empowerment is essential to realization of women's rights and achievement of broader development goals such as economic growth, poverty reduction,

health, education and welfare (Golla, Malhotra, Nanda, and Mehra, 2010). Thus, several researchers (e.g. Mayoux, 2000; Tucker and Boonabaana 2012) concur that economic empowerment of women is central to poverty alleviation, especially in developing countries where the majority of people are considered to be poor. The economic empowerment of women is fundamental in providing solutions for political and socio-economic challenges that are affecting many nations (Karlberg, 2008).

Investing in women can be viewed as a "smart move" that enables developing countries to break the poverty cycle (UNIDO, 2010). It is a win-win situation that benefits not only women, but the society more broadly (Golla, Malhotra, Nanda and Mehra, 2011). Income-generating activities empower not just an individual; but also benefits the entire family. According Mehra and Hill Rojas (2008), women are more likely than men to spend their income on the well-being of their families. Women are likely to spend their income on nutritious foods, school fees and health care for their children (Mehra and Hill Rojas, 2008). Investing in gender equality and women's economic empowerment results in the creation of more jobs and decent work for women and this promotes sustainable growth and development (United Nations, 2012). Further, "investing in women yields a significant gender dividend" (United Nations, 2012:9). Despite all these benefits, the progress of promoting gender equality and economic empowerment of women has been hampered by various constraints (Mehra and Hill Rojas, 2008).

Gender equality and women's economic empowerment is achieved in several ways. These include among others, reducing gender inequality in the labour market by offering decent employment opportunities for women (e.g. Khumalo and Freimund, 2014); proving women with equal opportunities to own strategic productive resources such as land (e.g. Doss, Kovarik, Peterman, Quisumbing and Van den Bold, 2013; Tripathi, Chung, Deering, Saracini, Willoughby, Wills, O and Churm, 2012; Doss, Bockius-Suwyn and D'Souza, 2012; Fabiyi and Akande, 2015); enhancing women's access to information (for example through access to technology) (e.g. Prasad and Sreedevi, 2013) and encouraging women entrepreneurship through provision of finance, training and a conducive environment where women businesses flourish.

Women entrepreneurship is one avenue which can be used to economically empower women (Nachimuthu and Gunatharan, 2012). Women entrepreneurship is central to economic

development of any nation (Mitchelmore and Rowley 2013; Still and Timms, 2000) and; it qualifies as a key topic of contemporary global political discourse (McMillan, O'Gorman and MacLaren, 2011). Since women entrepreneurship contributes immensely to economic development (Mitchelmore and Rowley 2013; Still and Timms 2000), a research study in this area signifies a key component of research on economic development (Garba, 2011; Todaro and Smith, 2011) which is currently dominating the research domains (Sullivan and Meek, 2012). In fact, research on economic growth is incomplete without recognising the contribution of women entrepreneurship (Todaro and Smith, 2011) because they (women) represent a large pool of untapped entrepreneurial talent (Carter, 2000; Carter and Shaw, 2006; Fielden and Dawe, 2004) that all nations could utilize to develop their economies (Manniti and Arenius, 2003). Some researchers consider the growth of women entrepreneurship as most significant, yet the quietest revolution of all time (Nelton, 1998; McClelland, Swail, Bell and Ibbotson, 2005; Sadi and Al-Ghazali, 2012).

Whilst the participation of women in the small business sector is growing rapidly (McGregor and Tweed, 2002), the majority of women owned small businesses dominate the informal sector in developing countries (Bertulfo, 2011), including Zimbabwe. According to the International Labour Organisation (2014), 65.9% of women participate in the informal sector in Zimbabwe. This is largely attributed to the fact that entrepreneurial efforts by women have gone unnoticed and their contributions have been under appreciated (Bhatt-Datta and Gailey, 2012). Importantly, undermining the contribution of women equates to exploiting less than half of the entrepreneurial talent and resources available to the country because women constitute approximately more than half of the world's population (World Bank, 2012a).

Most governments, the world over, have acknowledged the major role played by women in economic development. Further, most governments are cognizant of the fact that gender inequality exists and; that women's economic empowerment is fundamental to poverty alleviation. The Zimbabwe government is not spared. Despite the fact that the country is experiencing major economic hardships, it has made significant headway in addressing the gender inequality and women economic empowerment. The Government of Zimbabwe, like many others worldwide, has prioritized economic empowerment of women in order to achieve the objective of the third Millennium Development Goal and sustainable economic growth. Thus, the Government of Zimbabwe acknowledges the fact that sustainable economic growth cannot be achieved without promoting gender equality and women empowerment. In 2004, the

government formed the National Gender Policy of Zimbabwe, which represents the government's commitment to promote gender equality in the country (Government of Zimbabwe, 2012). This policy is the key reference point to achieving the first part of the third Millennium Development Goal of "*promoting gender equality…..*". Jones (2015) mention that some countries have complemented gender equality in resources ownership by passing legislation that recognises women's equal rights to land during marriage and dissolution of marriages and death of spouse by issuing land certificates which are held jointly in spouse names. Although, the government has made progress in passing legislation that fights against gender inequality in resource ownership, the complexity of the matter arises because the country has a dual legal system that allows for a bigamous or mixed marriage system (Izumi, 2006). There is the civil marriage (Marriage Act Chapter 5.11) that allows women to have joint ownership of assets with the spouse, and the customary marriage (Customary Marriage Act Chapter 5.07) which gives preference of assets to the adult male in the family (Izumi, 2006). Unfortunately, the majority of women in Zimbabwe are married under customary law which is imbedded in deeply rooted patriarchy (Gaidzanwa, 2011). In addition, the Zimbabwean government has a ministry dedicated to the economic empowerment of women and marginalised communities known as the Ministry of Women's Affairs Gender and Community Development (MWAGCD) (Government of Zimbabwe, 2012). The MWAGCD is the custodian of the framework (Government of Zimbabwe, 2012). As a result, the framework is aligned with the vision of the Ministry's Strategic Action Plan which is "to have prosperous and empowered women and communities who enjoy gender equality and equity" (Government of Zimbabwe, 2012)**.** Whether this ministry is achieving this intended mandate is debatable. This also signifies another significant area of future research.

The second part of the Millennium Development Goal which relates to "….women empowerment" was realized with the formation of the Broad Based Women's Economic Empowerment framework (BBWEEF) for Zimbabwe in July 2012, as vehicle for women empowerment. The overall objective of the framework is to ensure that women control an equal share of the economy and equally benefit from all economic opportunities presented to them especially in the key productive sectors of the economy such as agriculture, mining, tourism, manufacturing and construction" and that "in other productive sectors such as mining, tourism, manufacturing and construction (Government of Zimbabwe, 2012). This study focuses on the agricultural sector.

The framework provides guidelines for the implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the progress and impact of women's economic empowerment interventions with support from stakeholders and strategic partners (Government of Zimbabwe, 2012). The framework takes an integrated approach in that apart from being born from the Gender Policy, the framework also subscribes to the provisions of other key policies and various economic recovery initiatives by private and public sectors (e.g. the Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Policy; the Small and Medium Scale Enterprises Policy; the Short Term Economic Recovery Programme 2010-2012; the Medium Term Plan and the Youth Empowerment Policy) (Government of Zimbabwe, 2012). In other words, the BBWEE framework was developed in such a way that it is in sync with other key national policies that support sustainable economic growth.

The framework was developed by the Ministry of Women's Affairs Gender and Community Development (MWAGCD) with the support of the World Bank (Government of Zimbabwe, 2012). Although the formation of the BBWEE framework indicates the government's commitment towards economic empowerment of women in Zimbabwe, the impact of the policy framework in assisting women to achieve economic empowerment has not been evaluated. This however indicates a research gap for future research.

The framework has four key strategic interventions (also known as the four pillars) which are: (1) Women Business Ownership/ Entrepreneurship (which relates to this study); (2) Women in key Economic Decision Making Positions; (3) Employment Equity and; (4) women from disadvantaged backgrounds operating Viable Informal and Formal Livelihood Activities (Government of Zimbabwe, 2012). These principles of the framework are underpinned on four key areas of democracy, equity, self-sufficiency and the commitment by Government of Zimbabwe to enhance equal participation and representation of men and women in national development in a manner that commensurate with the numerical reality of the population (men and women approximately constitute 48% and 52% of the population respectively). Interestingly, the framework also mention that its goal is "to increase the level of women's participation in the mainstream economy to 50% in all sectors by 2015 (this is the year the data was collected for the study). Given this background, the purpose of this study is to explore the nexus between women's economic empowerment and women entrepreneurship in agriculture in Zimbabwe, in particular rural women in Mashonaland West province of the country.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT OF STUDY

Most developing countries are struggling with challenges of political instability, high levels of unemployment, high inflation rates, poverty, droughts and food shortages among other issues. The Zimbabwean situation is unique in the sense that since attaining its independence in 1980, the country has undergone a series of transition emanating from both internal and external business and political environments (Saungweme, 2013). According to Coltart (1992), the government made serious political and economic blunders during its first decade in power. Coltart (1992) refers to these blunders as "a severe political and economic mess". In addition, these economic and political disruptions continued during the last 20 years, and this had adverse consequences on the wellbeing of Zimbabweans. The pinnacle of the country's economic crisis was in 2008, also referred to as the "climax of Zimbabwean crisis" by the United Nations Zimbabwe (2015a), where the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) reached its lowest level of -17.7 percent (World Bank, 2012a). The official inflation rate reached 231 million percent (United Nations, 2014). Additionally, the melt down resulted in high levels of unemployment. In 2009, the unemployment rate was estimated at 80 percent (World Bank, 2012a). All key sectors of the Zimbabwean economy were crippled during this period (Makumbe, 2009; Mupedziswa, 2011; Mukuhlani, 2014). This period attracted a variety of names such as the "lost decade" (Sachikonye, 2011), "crisis decade" (Bratton and Masunungure, 2011; Mukuhlani, 2014) and the "lost decade crisis" (Makumbe, 2009; Mupedziswa, 2011; Mukuhlani, 2014).

Although the formation of the Coalition Government in February 2009 (which ended after the 2013 elections) led to improved economic prospects for the country, most Zimbabweans experienced high levels of poverty. In 2011, for example, the poverty headcount ratio at the national poverty line constituted 72.3% of the population (World Bank, 2014a). In Zimbabwe, poverty is more severe in rural areas. Females constitute the majority of people living in poverty, and they constitute approximately 51% of the population (World Bank, 2012a). The prevailing deteriorating socio- political and economic conditions forced many Zimbabweans to find alternative means for survival. A large number of skilled labour migrated to neighbouring countries and other parts of the world. Others were forced into entrepreneurship, mainly within the informal sector where micro enterprises play a significant role. Women are active participants in the informal sector. Some people migrated back to rural areas and were forced to depend on agriculture for survival as there were no jobs in urban areas.

Importantly, the Zimbabwean economy is largely dependent on agriculture (Food and Agriculture Organisation, Online; Ministry of Lands and Rural Resettlement, 2015). Approximately 70 percent of the people in Zimbabwe rely on agriculture for their livelihoods (Food and Agriculture Organisation, Online). According to the Ministry of Lands and Rural Resettlement (2015), the agricultural sector contributes about 33 percent of formal employment and accounts for over 40 percent of national exports. The agricultural sector is central to poverty alleviation in many developing countries, particularly in Zimbabwe where more than 70 percent are considered to be affected by poverty (World Bank, 2014b). Further, the majority of people are based in rural areas who derive their livelihood mainly from agriculture (World Food Programme, 2014; Ministry of Lands and Rural Resettlement, 2015). Women constitute a significant number of people living in rural areas where they are subsistence farmers who sell some of their agricultural produce to generate income.

Another significant event that took place in the history of Zimbabwe was the controversial land redistribution also known as the "fast track land reform" that started in 2000 (Chitsike, 2003). The fast track land reform resulted in the reconfiguration of the Zimbabwean economy which is an agro-based economy. The process negatively affected the growth of the agricultural sector such that the once called "bread basket of Africa" suddenly became the "basket case of Southern Africa" (Mupedziswa, 2011). According to Makumbe (2009) the fast track land reform resulted in a 50 percent reduction in agricultural production. Even the president of Zimbabwe (Mr RG Mugabe) in an interview with the BBC New admitted that the country's land reform was unsuccessful (BBC News, 2015). The president further mentioned that "I think the farms we gave to people are too large. They can't manage them….." (BBC News, 2015). This is a major shift from his comments from the past, where he blamed poor agricultural productivity on the weather and Western sanctions (BBC News, 2015). It is important to mention that in most developing countries including Zimbabwe, the weather plays a significant role in driving agricultural productivity.

While the fast track land reform negatively affected the country's economy, the Zimbabwean government still acknowledges the fact that agriculture is the back bone of the economy and women play a critical role in the Zimbabwean economy. Mauchi, Mutengezanwa and Damiyano (2014) mention that despite these economic hardships that the country is facing, women are still at the forefront of change and they contribute significantly towards economic growth and development of the country. Similarly, the President of Zimbabwe in his speech at

the launch of the BBWEE framework in 2012 acknowledged the significant contribution of women towards Zimbabwe's growth and sustenance during what he refers to as the "sanctions-induced economic downturn".

Although the land redistribution process was highly controversial, this process opened another important chapter in the history of women in Zimbabwe. Like many other developing countries, gender imbalances exist in many spheres of women's livelihood in Zimbabwe (i.e. economic, social and political spheres). Calkin (2012) concurs that "as long as such vast inequality exist among Zimbabweans, economic empowerment for women or men remains a distant reality". In this context, empowerment excludes males who generally occupy favourable positions in patriarchic contexts.Women gained access to land which ties in very well with the objective of promoting gender equality and empowering of women as enshrined in the National Gender Policy and the BBWEEF which was formulated in 2004 and 2012 respectively. Since women contribute significantly in food production worldwide, it tends to reason that empowerment of women within the agricultural sector must be high on the agenda of every government, particularly in Zimbabwe where the economy is agro based. When women receive holistic support in agriculture, where they are trained to understand that there is wealth in agriculture, economies will significantly do better and achieve more. Notably, Jacobs (2006) states that:

> *"...farming remains an attractive business sector for those who are willing to manage their farms on key business principles. ... Farming is a great means of wealth creation...*"

Further, the United Nations Women (2015), argues that in an analysis of Fortune 500 companies that was conducted, it was found that those companies with the greatest representation of women in management positions delivered a total return to shareholders that was 34 percent higher than for companies with the lowest representation. This suggests that women play a significant role in the advancement of economic growth of nations. Importantly, farming business is unique in that participants can contribute and control the value chain system and that is where wealth is created. This study therefore draws inspiration from the argument presented above and it combines three key issues, that is women's economic empowerment and women entrepreneurship and agriculture that is central to contemporary research discourse. It is against this background that this study explores the nexus between women's economic empowerment and women entrepreneurship in agriculture in Zimbabwe with specific reference

to Mashonaland West province. With regards to agricultural production in Zimbabwe, three provinces plays a key role as they are considered to be the richest because of the good rain they receive during the rainy season (Makumbe, 2009). These provinces are: Mashonaland East, Mashonaland Central and Mashonaland West. Mashonaland West province is unique because it is regarded as the bread basket of Zimbabwe (Sigauke and Katsaruware, 2014).

1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM STATEMENT AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.3.1 Problem Statement

This study explores the nexus between women's economic empowerment and women entrepreneurship in agriculture in Mashonaland West province in Zimbabwe. In particular, the main aim of the study is to investigate whether economic empowerment of women through entrepreneurship in agriculture can lead to improved quality of lives for women.

1.3.2 Research Objectives

In order to address the research problem of the study, the following specific research objectives have been generated. The research objectives are:

- to investigate how motivational factors into entrepreneurship influence women's economic empowerment in agriculture;
- to analyse the challenges affecting women's economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship;
- to evaluate how socio-cultural factors affect women' economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship;
- to investigate how support received influences women's economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship;
- to investigate how economic empowerment influences women's decision making role in agriculture entrepreneurship and;
- to examine the extent to which economic empowerment has changed women's lives in agriculture entrepreneurship.

1.3.3 Research Questions

The following research questions have been generated for the purpose of directing the research and addressing the research objectives:

- How do motivational factors into entrepreneurship influence women's economic empowerment in agriculture;
- What are the challenges affecting women's economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship?
- How do socio-cultural factors influence women' economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship?
- How does support received influences women's economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship;
- How does economic empowerment influence decision making roles for women participating in agriculture entrepreneurship?
- To what extent has economic empowerment changed women's lives in agriculture entrepreneurship?

1.4 RATIONALE OF STUDY

The study combines three contemporary discourses in research which are women's economic empowerment, women entrepreneurship and agriculture. As such the rationale of the study is presented according to these three themes. The rationale for women's economic empowerment is presented first. This is followed by the motivation for women entrepreneurship. Lastly the rationale for focusing on agriculture is discussed.

1.4.1 Research on Women's Economic Empowerment

Empowerment studies have generally focused on disadvantaged and vulnerable people such as women rather than men (Al-Dajani and Marlow, 2013). As a result, there is an increased proliferation of research studies focusing on women's economic empowerment over the years (Kabeer, 1999). Although this is the case, it should be noted that empowerment efforts for women should not disadvantage men in any case. Several authors investigated the concept of

women's economic empowerment from diverse angles. Previous research on women's economic empowerment has been explored the nexus between gender based violence or intimate partner violence (Dalal, 2011; Gupta, Falb, Lehmann, Kpebo, Xuan, Hossain and Annan, 2013; Schuler, Lenzi, Nazneen and Bates, 2013), entrepreneurship (e.g. Blattman, Green, Annan and Jamison, 2013; Fonjong, 2013; Torri and Martinez, 2014), information technology (e.g. Prasad and Sreedevi, 2013), economic development (e.g. Duflo, 2011; Kabeer 2012; Doepke and Tertilt, 2014), access to resources such as land in agriculture (e.g. Doss, Kovarik, Peterman, Quisumbing and Van den Bold, 2013; Tripathi, Chung, Deering, Saracini, Willoughby, Wills, O and Churm, 2012; Doss, Bockius-Suwyn and D'Souza, 2012; Fabiyi and Akande, 2015), employment choices (e.g. Khumalo and Freimund, 2014), micro finance (e.g. Belwal, Tamiru and Singh, 2012; Kato and Kratzer, 2013), health (e.g. De Coninck, Feyissa, Ekström and Marrone, 2014), measures of economic empowerment (Alkire, Meinzen-Dick, Peterman, Quisumbing, Seymour and Vaz, 2012; Malapit and Kovarik, 2013; Sraboni, Malapit, Quisumbing and Ahmed, 2013; Malapit, Sproule, Kovarik, Meinzen-Dick, Quisumbing, Ramzan, Hogue and Alkire, 2014); Markel, 2014); Peterman, 2015). Despite all these works, there is a dearth of research on the nexus between women's economic empowerment and women entrepreneurship within the agricultural sector, particularly in developing countries such as Zimbabwe.

Current empirical evidence from research conducted on the relationship between women's economic empowerment and gender based violence reveals that generally an economically empowered woman is likely to suffer from less gander violence as compared to a woman who is not economically empowered (Gupta et al., 2013; Schuler et al., 2013). In addition, economic empowered is not the sole protective factor that reduces the chances of gender violence, other factors such as education and modified cultural norms are important for the overall wellbeing of an individual (Dalal, 2011).

A recent research study by Doepke and Tertilt (2014) on women's economic empowerment and economic growth suggests that that money in the hands of mothers (as opposed to fathers) increases expenditures on children (Doepke and Tertilt, 2014). The authors' further argue that this, however does not necessarily mean that giving money to women is a good development policy (Doepke and Tertilt, 2014). Targeting transfers to women may be beneficial or harmful to growth depending on the nature of the production function (Doepke and Tertilt, 2014). Such transfers are more likely to be beneficial when human capital, rather than physical capital or

land, is the most important factor of production (Doepke and Tertilt, 2014). Empirical evidence from a study conducted by Kabeer's (2012) which focused on women in a post war status in Northern Uganda concluded that there is strong evidence that gender equity promotes economic growth. Women's access to employment and education opportunities reduces the likelihood of household poverty, and resources in women's hands have a range of positive outcomes for human capital and capabilities within the household (Kabeer's, 2012).

One of the key research findings of a study conducted by Blattman et al. (2013) highlighted the fact that entrepreneurial based training programmes should be tailored to meet the needs of women. In another study on the link between women's economic empowerment and economic development, the findings show that these two concepts are closely related (Duflo, 2011; Doepke and Tertilt, 2014). However, economic development alone is insufficient to ensure significant progress in important dimensions of women's empowerment (Duflo, 2011).

Most recent research on women's economic empowerment and how the concept of women's economic empowerment can be measured have suggested a model (e.g. Alkire et al., 2012; Malapit and Kovarik, 2013; Sraboni et al., 2013; Malapit et al., 2014; Markel, 2014; Peterman, 2015). In particular, the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) which is a new survey-based index designed to measure the level of empowerment and inclusion of women in the agricultural sector in 2012 (Alkire et al., 2013; Doss, Kovarik, Peterman, Quisumbing and Van den Bold, 2013). Another interesting study by Doss et al. (2013) interrogated the claim about a single statistic such as "women own less than 2 percent of the world's land" or "women own approximately 15 percent of land in Africa south of the Sahara". The authors further argued that such single statistics are problematic because they (1) are not substantiated by empirical evidence, (2) do not reflect variations in landownership across or within countries, (3) do not acknowledge differences in landownership regimes, nor address comparative ownership by men in the same contexts, and (4) do not address the difference between ownership and control of land (Doss et al., 2013). The lack of a clear understanding behind statistics on gender and land also leads to an inability to clearly articulate a policy response to the potential inequalities faced by women and men (Doss et al., 2013). Despite all these research studies, there are few studies on this subject in Zimbabwe.

Within the Zimbabwean context, most research studies focused on women's economic empowerment and gender based violence (e.g. Wekwete, Sanhokwe, Murenjekwa,

Takavarasha and Madzingira, 2014); micro enterprises (e.g. Mishi and Kapingura, 2012; Tshuma and Selome, 2014), gender implementation programmes (e.g. Mutanana and Bukaliya, 2015), health (e.g. Kevany, Murima, Singh, Hlubinka, Kulich, Morin and Sweat, 2012; Mutowo, Kasu and Mufunda, 2014), politics (e.g. Mudege and Kwangwari, 2013) and agriculture (Hadebe and Mpofu, 2013; Chazovachii, 2012; Fonjong, 2013).

Similar research results were noted in Zimbabwe on the relationship between on women's economic empowerment and gender based violence that women who did not participate in decision-making at household level were more likely to experience GBV than those who do (Wekwete, 2014). Women who have control over their spouses' earnings were less likely to suffer from GBV (Wekwete, 2014).

In a study conducted by Hadebe and Mpofu (2013) in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe, about women's economic empowerment and agriculture, the empirical findings revealed that women are major players' in urban agriculture and that urban agriculture is indeed empowering women in that they make decisions on what to grow, when and how to cultivate their plots, and also choose how to dispose of their produce (Hadebe and Mpofu, 2013). Whilst the results suggest that women are being empowered through urban agriculture, these women are facing a number of challenges that include lack of finance to buy inputs, limited land for use in agricultural activities and the problem of marketing their produce (Hadebe and Mpofu, 2013). In another study by Chazovachii (2012) conducted at an irrigation scheme in the rural areas of Bikita, the results suggests that the irrigation scheme has managed to improve the livelihoods of the people by offering them employment, income, supply them with water throughout the year. Further the people managed to acquire assets such as scotch carts, livestock and were able to pay school fees for their children (Chazovachii, 2012). It is important to mention that Chazovachii's (2012) study focused on both men and women. Although this study focused on people from both genders, the fact still remains that economic empowerment of women leads to improved lives of families. This is important because women spend a substantial budget of their income on catering for the needs of the family. According to the Managing Director, International Monetary Fund, Lagarde, women control 70 percent of global consumer spending (Lagarde, 2013). Therefore, any effort to address issues such as poverty must have a focus on women (Applefield and Jun, 2014). Importantly, women who are economically empowered in agriculture are likely to make significant investments in their farms (Applefield and Jun, 2014). Women who are empowered are likely to encourage their daughters to follow suit (Applefield

and Jun, 2014). This is a critical strategy by women in fighting gender inequality in our societies. As mothers pass on the battle stick to their daughters, more women will be economically empowered. It is no surprise then, that women have been a major focus of international development efforts in the past few years, especially with regard to agricultural development (Applefield and Jun, 2014). Whilst there are few research studies conducted on economic empowerment within the agriculture sector, there is indeed scarcity of research studies that focus on women. Therefore, this study focusses on the relationship between women's economic empowerment and women's entrepreneurship within the agricultural sector in Mashonaland West province in Zimbabwe.

1.4.2 Research on Women Entrepreneurship

The participation of women in the small business sector is growing rapidly (McGregor and Tweed 2002). However, despite the significant contribution to economic development, there is a dearth of research on this subject globally. Recent literature reviews suggest that studies on women entrepreneurs comprise less than 10% of all research in the field (Brush and Cooper, 2012). Interestingly, a larger percentage of these studies have explored women entrepreneurship in developed nations (Bhatt-Datta and Gailey, 2012; Cetindamar, Gupta, Karadeniz and Egrican, 2012). This signifies a dearth of research on this subject within developing countries (Roomi and Parrott 2008) as most studies have focused on women entrepreneurship in developed countries (Bhatt-Datta and Gaily 2012). This is largely attributed to the fact that entrepreneurial efforts by women have gone unnoticed and their contributions have been under appreciated (Bhatt-Datta and Gailey 2012) especially in societies where women are marginalised such as in most African countries. Little is known about women operating small businesses in developing nations (Roomi and Parrott 2008), particularly the link between entrepreneurship and agriculture in patriarchal society that subjugates the role of women in a capitalist economy in Zimbabwe (Moyo and Kawewe, 2002).

Previous research on a global perspective has addressed differences between female and male entrepreneurship (Galloway, Brown and Arenius, 2002; Verheul and Thurik, 2004); the challenges that women encounter in the small business sector (Woldie and Adersua, 2004; Mordi, Simpson, Singh and Okafor, 2010); and motivation for women entrepreneurship (Lee, 1996; Franck, 2012; Nnamdi and Gallant, 2012). More recently, research has been conducted

on the value of encouraging women entrepreneurship (Heilbrunn and Davidovitch, 2011; Madichie and Gallant, 2012); growth orientation in women small businesses (Manolova, Brush, Edelman and Shaver, 2012) and examining the relationship between poverty alleviation and women empowerment through entrepreneurship (Scott, Dolan, Johnstone-Louis, Sugden and Wu, 2012; Datta and Gailey, 2012). Despite these works, little is known about the value of indigenous women in developing countries, especially in Zimbabwe. This study seeks to counteract the dearth of academic research on women's entrepreneurial efforts by focusing attention on women entrepreneurship in agriculture and how these such activities empower women in rural Zimbabwe.

An extensive literature research conducted by the researcher indicated scarcity of research on women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe. For example, previous studies on women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe revealed high participation of women in micro and small businesses (McPherson, 1998). Similarly, a study by Mboko and Smith-Hunter (2009) confirmed McPherson's (1998) findings of high participation of women in entrepreneurial activities within the informal sector and that women's small business ventures perform far much worse compared to their male counterparts (Mboko and Smith-Hunter, 2009). More recent studies on women entrepreneurship were conducted by Nyamwanza, Mapetere, Mavhiki and Dzingirai (2012) and Nani (2011). Nani (2011) focused on challenges faced by women entrepreneurs in Zimbabwe. Her findings reveal that women encounter a multiplicity of challenges such as lack of collateral, difficulties in accessing networks, balancing work and family life, requiring spouse's consent on applying for loans, negative impact of the HIV pandemic among other issues. On the other hand, Nyamwanza, Mapetere, Mavhiki and Dzingirai (2012) researched on financial management of women operating small businesses in Gweru which is the third largest city of Zimbabwe. Despite all these works, research gaps on women entrepreneurship still exists in Zimbabwe. Although these studies provided an insight into the nature of women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe, a research study that reviewed the relationship between women's economic empowerment and women entrepreneurship in agriculture does not exist. More specifically, there is a dearth of research on women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe particularly on the relationship between women economic empowerment framework and women entrepreneurship. Therefore, what is required is developing a deeper understanding into the complexity of women's economic empowerment and women entrepreneurship within agriculture in Zimbabwe. In particular, the study explores the nexus between women's economic empowerment and women entrepreneurship within the

agriculture sector in rural areas in Zimbabwe (i.e. Mashonaland West province). Importantly, women in Zimbabwe are often marginalized and are existing at the peripheries of the country's mainstream labour market where they are experiencing extreme poverty and are deprived of their rightful place as income earners in society (Mboko and Smith-Hunter, 2009). Lewis (2004) concurs that women are poorer than men and are mostly responsible for family subsistence.

Importantly, Zimbabwe is a unique African country that is experiencing diverse structural economic changes since its independence in 1980. For example, during the early 1990s, Zimbabwe experienced the negative impact of the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP). More than a decade later, the country experienced the worse economic meltdown in this history. Therefore, the research landscape of Zimbabwe is ever changing. This calls for the need for continuous research that captures how these changes have affected the Zimbabwean people, especially women operating small businesses.

1.4.3 Research on Agriculture

The agricultural sector is a critical sector for all economies, in particular developing economies where these economies are largely dependent on this sector (Weng, Boedhihartono, Dirks, Dixon, Lubis, and Sayer, 2013). According to UNDP (2012), agriculture is the mainstay of 70 percent of the population in Africa. In Africa, the agricultural sector accounts for more than 30% of regional GDP and 60% of total employment (Weng et al., 2013). It is for this reason that there is renewed interest in the agricultural sector as an engine of growth and development (Alkire, Meinzen-Dick, Peterman, Quisumbing, Seymour and Vaz, 2013). The economy of Zimbabwe, like many developing nations, largely depends on agriculture (Food and Agriculture Organisation, Online; Ministry of Lands and Rural Resettlement, 2015). Seventy percent of the people rely on agriculture for their livelihoods (Food and Agriculture Organisation, Online). According to the Ministry of Lands and Rural Resettlement (2015), the agriculture sector contributes about 33 percent of formal employment and accounts for over 40 percent of national exports. Therefore research studies on agriculture connects to the heart beat of the Zimbabwean economy.

More importantly, the agricultural sector is central to poverty alleviation in developing countries, especially in Sub Saharan Africa, where Zimbabwe is situated. According to the United Nations (2013) the number of people living in extreme poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa is growing rapidly (United Nations, 2013). The number of extremely poor people rose steadily from 290 million in 1990 to 414 million in 2010, accounting for more than a third of destitute people in the region (United Nations, 2013). This increase is worrying considering the fact that poverty is feminized (Jaggar, 2013). Zimbabweans is experiencing high levels of poverty. For example, the poverty headcount ratio at the national poverty line constituted 72.3% of the population in 2011 (World Bank, 2014a). Females constitute the majority of people living in poverty in the country as they constitute approximately 51% of the population (World Bank, 2012a). Importantly, poverty is extreme in rural areas in Africa. According to Burney, Naylor and Postel (2013) approximately 70% of Africa's extremely poor populations live in rural areas and they depend primarily on agricultural production for their livelihoods. Extremely poor people in Africa survive under a per capita income of less than USD$1.25 per day (Burney et al., 2013).

In addition, women in sub-Saharan Africa who are mainly small-scale subsistence farmers are considered to be the poorest and the most food insecure (Mallick and Rafi, 2010; Tibesigwa, Visser, Hunter, Collinson and Twine, 2015). Mehra and Hill (2008) state that subsistence agriculture is the main source of food and income in many rural communities throughout the world, especially sub-Saharan Africa. In Malawi for example, staple crops comprise 60 percent of agricultural production; in Zambia and Kenya, it is 70 percent (Mehra and Hill, 2008). More than half of rural households in sub-Saharan Africa also are net food buyers (Mehra and Hill, 2008). Weng et al. (2013) concurs that many farmers have small (0.2 hacters) plots and do not produce enough to feed their families for the entire year and have to purchase their staple carbohydrate diets during periods of scarcity. Yet, rural women produce half of the world's food and, in developing countries, between 60 percent and 80 percent of food crops (Mehra and Hill, 2008). The authors further argue that whilst more women are subsistence farmers, there are also women who are commercial farmers (Mehra and Hill, 2008). Both smallholder and large-scale agriculture are necessary to boost productivity and produce enough food to feed the world's poor (World Bank, 2014b). The situation is similar in Zimbabwe, where the majority of people are based in rural areas who derive their livelihood mainly from agriculture and related activities (World Food Programme, 2014; Ministry of Lands and Rural Resettlement, 2015). Therefore, a research study within the agricultural sector is important

because agriculture development is a key strategy towards poverty alleviation and the overall economic development in many developing countries including Zimbabwe (Ministry of Lands and Rural Resettlement, 2015).

Further, women make enormous contributions to economies (United Nations women, 2015). Their contributions are in businesses, on farms either as entrepreneurs or employees, or by doing unpaid care work at home (FAO, 2011; United Nations women, 2015). Examples of women's domestic chores in Africa include fetching water and firewood, preparing food and caring for children and other family members (FAO, 2011). Consequently, women play a vital role in food production, food distribution, and food consumption worldwide (UNDP, 2012). According to the former President of the United States - Bill Clinton, women perform 66 percent of the world's work, and produce 50 percent of food, yet they earn only 10 percent of the income and only 1 percent of the property, worldwide (World Bank, 2012b). In developing countries, women comprise, on average, 43 percent of the agricultural labour force, ranging from 20 percent in Latin America to 50 percent in Eastern Asia and sub-Saharan Africa (FAO, 2011). Less than 2 percent of women own land in Africa (Applefield and Jun, 2014). The ratio of women's contribution, whether in labour force and food production compared to what they earn and property ownership depicts gender disparity across the entire globe. This gender inclusion according to Christine Lagarde (the Managing Director of the International Monetary Fund), is often neglected by policymakers (Lagarde, 2013). She further argues that in today's world, it is no longer acceptable to block women from achieving their potential (Lagarde, 2013). The gender gap in ownership of assets for example, imposes costs on the agriculture sector, the broader economy and society as well as on women (Food and Agriculture Organisation, 2011).

Within the African continent and other developing nations, women are making essential contributions to agriculture (FAO, 2011) and it's central to women's livelihoods (UNDP, 2012). More women than ever are managing family farms and businesses as opportunities are opening up for them due to the increasing number of men migrating to urban areas to look for better opportunities (Markel, 2014). However, their roles differ significantly across regions and are changing rapidly in some areas depending of specific crops (FAO, 2011). In sub-Saharan Africa, women are at the forefront of food production and they produce between 60 and 80

percent of the food consumed in the region (Applefield and Jun, 2014). However, agriculture is underperforming in many developing countries for a number of reasons (FAO. 2011). As a result, the majority of these women are operating as smallholder farmers or for subsistence using low-intensity methods (Weng et al., 2013), where they face numerous obstacles (Jayne et al., 2010; FAO, 2011; UNDP, 2012; Weng et al., 2013; Applefield and Jun, 2014). These obstacles include among others access to productive inputs, access to assets, access to services such as financial services and agricultural extension services, access to agricultural information and education, poor infrastructure, access to technology, access to reliable markets, and in most cases gender discrimination (Jayne et al., 2010; FAO, 2011; UNDP, 2012; Weng et al., 2013; Applefield and Jun, 2014; World Bank, 2014b). To illustrate some of these challenges, Applefield and Jun (2014) mention that only 10 percent of credit allowances are extended to women, while women just benefit from just 5 percent of agricultural extension services.

Further, climatic stresses on agricultural production make women vulnerable to food insecurity (Weng et al., 2013). These obstacles not only heighten their vulnerability to food insecurity, but also considerably reduce their contribution to overall agricultural production (UNDP, 2012). Providing women with essential tools and resources can have a significant impact on their agricultural productivity and it often does not require a major investment of resources to make a huge impact. These include among others, offering women micro-loans, training courses on better agricultural practices (Applefield and Jun, 2014), and small business skills training. Estimates indicate that if women are able to receive high quality extension services that provide technical training, productivity could increase by up to 4 percent (Applefield and Jun, 2014). This study contributes to extant literature on the nexus between women's economic empowerment and women entrepreneurship within agriculture from a developing country perspective.

In addition, with equal access to productive resources, women could increase their yields by 20 to 30 percent. In order to move from subsistence to commercial farming, 1.5 billion people who rely on small farms need access to knowledge, assets, credit, markets, and risk management that can come from larger-scale agricultural enterprises (World Bank, 2014b). These changes would have a major impact on the African continent's ability to feed itself (Applefield and Jun, 2014). It is for this reason that there has been greater recognition of the importance of women in agriculture (Alkire et al., 2013). Thus, research on rural women in the

agricultural sector is important for economic advancement of developing nations such as Zimbabwe.

Given this background, it is evident that women's economic empowerment and women entrepreneurship are under researched fields, in particular with specific reference to the agricultural sector in developing countries such as Zimbabwe. This study therefore, fills the research gap by focusing on women's economic empowerment and women entrepreneurship in agriculture in Mashonaland West province in Zimbabwe.

1.5 OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study adopted a mixed method research design to explore the nexus between women's economic empowerment and women entrepreneurship in agriculture in Mashonaland West province in Zimbabwe. Mixed method research designs are often associated with the feminist research methodology which enables researchers to understand complex matters that women encounter in their everyday lives (e.g. Mertens and Hesse-Biber, 2012). According to Creswell (2013), there are three types of mixed methods approach. These approaches are convergent parallel mixed methods, explanatory sequential mixed methods and exploratory sequential mixed methods. While the researcher draws from the last two approaches, the research method used for the study is more inclined towards the exploratory sequential mixed methods, where qualitative data was used to feed up into the second phase of data collection where quantitative data was gathered (Hamlin, 2015). The researcher went further to collect data qualitative data as a follow up to the second stage of data collection. In other words, data collection for the study was conducted in three phases using the following sequence: (1) focus group interviews (qualitative), (2) questionnaire survey (quantitative) and, (3) in-depth interviews (qualitative). The use of multiple data sources ensured triangulation (Mertens and Hesse-Biber, 2012; Creswell**,** 2013; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013).

A sample size of two hundred and forty eight (248) women participated in the research project. A breakdown of the sample size was as follows: fourteen (14) women who participated in focus group interviews; two hundred and thirty four (234) women who participated during the questionnaire survey and; ten (10) women who were involved in in-depth interviews. A sample of ten women was drawn from the two hundred and thirty four (234) women who participated

in the questionnaire survey. Two types of non-probability sampling techniques were used to identify the research participants. Convenience sampling was used to identify women who participated in the focus group discussions and questionnaire survey. Purposive sampling was used to identify women for the follow up in-depth interviews. Qualitative data was analysed using content analysis, while descriptive (e.g. tables, pie charts, histograms, bar charts) and inferential statistics (e.g. ANNOVA, principal component analysis, Pearson's correlations and T-tests) were used to analyse quantitative data.

1.6 STUDY LIMITATIONS

The research study has two key limitations. Firstly, the research study adopted a case study approach by focusing on women's economic empowerment and entrepreneurship in agriculture in a selected location in Zimbabwe known as Mashonaland West province. This study, therefore, excludes the views of other women involved in agriculture entrepreneurship in other parts of the country who are contributing significantly to economic development of the country. Further, non-random sampling techniques (convenience and purposive sampling) were used to identify the research participants. As a result, the research findings cannot be generalized to the entire population of women entrepreneurs participating within the agricultural sector in Zimbabwe. However, this study fills a research gap on women's economic empowerment and entrepreneurship within the agricultural sector in Zimbabwe. The study also lays the foundation for future research on the study area.

1.7 THESIS STRUCTURE

This section presents the structure of the thesis which is broken down into eight chapters.

Chapter 1: Chapter one introduces the study. In this chapter, the background and context of study is discussed. This is followed by an outline of the problem statement, research objectives and research questions. Thereafter, the rationale of study is presented, followed by a brief overview of the research methodology. Lastly, the study limitations and the structure of the thesis are presented.

Chapter 2: Chapter two highlights the dearth of literature on women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe. Although the chapter draws from global literature on women entrepreneurship, the themes identified in the chapter are based on research studies conducted in Zimbabwe. Some of the themes highlighted are feminism and women entrepreneurship, motivation for women entrepreneurship, challenges faced by women entrepreneurs and women informal cross-border trade.

Chapter 3: This chapter provides a theoretical framework for the study which is grounded in women's economic empowerment theory. The main topics discussed in the chapter include: the concept of women empowerment, the components of empowerment, domains of women's empowerment, women's economic empowerment, framework for understanding economic empowerment, and the measures of women's economic empowerment.

Chapter 4: Chapter four presents a background context of the study site which is Zimbabwe. Providing a background context of the study site is necessary as this explains the scene to the readers. This assists the readers in understanding the empirical findings of the study. Importantly, the understanding of women's economic empowerment is influenced by culture and are also context specific.

Chapter 5: The research methodology adopted for the study is discussed in detail in chapter five. The chapter also provide the theories underpinning the research methodology used and; the justification for using the chosen research method.

Chapter 6: Chapter six present and provides a discussion of the empirical findings of the study. This chapter combines both the qualitative and quantitative data sets gathered during the data collection phases.

Chapter 7: The empirical findings of the study were discussed in chapter 7.

Chapter 8: Chapter eight concludes the research study. The chapter also provided recommendations for the study based on the study conclusions. Area for further research are also presented.

1.8 CONCLUSION

The chapter has provided the introduction and background and context of the research study. The problem statement, research objectives and research questions were presented. The chapter also presented the rationale of the study highlighting the research gap that exists in the subject of women's economic empowerment and women entrepreneurship in agriculture in Mashonaland West province in Zimbabwe. The research methodology adopted for the study is summarized together with the justification for the research design chosen. Lastly, study limitations and the structure of the thesis is provided. The following chapter provides literature review on women entrepreneurship.

CHAPTER 2

WOMEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN ZIMBABWE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided an introduction to the study. This chapter reviews literature on women entrepreneurship with a specific reference to the Zimbabwean context. The objective of the chapter is to highlight the dearth of research on women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe. Although the focus of this chapter is mainly on research conducted on women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe, global literature on the subject was explored in order to see how women entrepreneurs in Zimbabwe relate to other women operating small businesses on the rest of the globe.

Women entrepreneurship is one of the fastest growing entrepreneurial populations worldwide (Brush and Cooper, 2012). Women owned businesses comprise of 38 percent of all registered small businesses worldwide (OECD, 2012) and they make significant contributions towards innovation, employment and wealth creation in all nations (Brush and Cooper, 2012). The development of women entrepreneurship is a vital component of a country's advancement, and it is regarded as one of the solutions to achieving sustainable economic growth of any country (Mboko and Smith-Hunter, 2009). This is of particular significance if a country wishes to operate effectively in the global marketplace. Storey and Greene (2010) concur that there is no greater initiative a country could take to accelerate the pace of entrepreneurial activity than to encourage more women to participate actively in the small business sector. By so doing, women's civil standing in civil society, their contributions to communities and to national development is significantly enhanced (Osirim, 2001). Despite all efforts to achieve gender equality in the economic dimension of women's livelihoods, gender-specific challenges in their entrepreneurial activities still persist (Kapitsa, 2008).

It is reported in the literature that women produce most of the food which is consumed worldwide (Davis, 2012). In Africa for example, women produce approximately 80% of food production in Sub-Saharan Africa (Davis, 2012); and contribute more than a third of household

income in Africa (Chirwa, 2008). In Malawi, women contribute more than 50% of household income from their micro enterprises (Chirwa, 2008). However, the majority of these women are operating in the informal sector. Zimbabwe is not an exception. Zimbabwe is a country that has been enmeshed in a major economic and political crisis since the late 1990's (Osirim, 2001), and this has adversely affected the wellbeing of the citizens. This economic and political upheaval has had a negative impact on the economic status of women in all spheres of life (Osirim, 2001). As a result, most women were forced to establish small businesses as a means for survival, where they have been experiencing a multiplicity of challenges which hamper small business growth and development. Despite this setback, women small business owners are at the forefront of economic and social change in Zimbabwe. Davis (2012) concurs that the contribution of women to global prosperity and development should not be underestimated. Therefore, the development of women entrepreneurship forms an integral part of women's economic empowerment.

Despite the significant contribution of women entrepreneurs and the fact that more women are participating in the small business sector, there is a dearth of research on this subject globally. According Brush and Cooper's (2012) recent literature reviews suggest that studies on women entrepreneurs comprise less than 10% of all research in the field. Interestingly, a larger percentage of these studies have explored women entrepreneurship within the context of developed nations (Cetindamar, Gupta, Karadeniz and Egrican, 2012). Little is known about women operating small businesses in developing nations, particularly in Zimbabwe, where a patriarchal society subjugates the role of women in a capitalist economy (Moyo and Kawewe, 2002). Additionally, women in Zimbabwe are often marginalised and are existing at the peripheries of the country's mainstream labour market where they are facing several obstacles such as poverty and are being deprived of their rightful place as income earners in society (Mboko and Smith-Hunter, 2009). Lewis (2004) concurs that women are poorer than men; and are mostly responsible for family subsistence.

Although women entrepreneurship has increased in Zimbabwe, due to harsh economic conditions, the majority of these women, like in most developing nations, are concentrated in the informal sector (the micro enterprise sector). The informal sector is also referred to as the "shadow economy or unregistered economic activities" by Schneider (2002), Schneider (2007) and Schneider and Buehn (2015). The informal economy has been fuelled by the deteriorating socio-economic and political landscape (Ndiweni and Verhoeven, 2013). In fact, Moyo and

Kawewe (2002) argue that the informal sector activities often arise out of misery and these activities often subject women to unacceptable oppression and inhumane working conditions. The fact that micro enterprises are attached to human suffering and ignominy is a cause for concern. What is required is to find ways of empowering women to earn good return from their investments and operate sustainable business ventures. They also need to be empowered to acquire ownership of factors of production (such as land in terms of mines, farms, etc.).

Surprisingly, most of the studies on women entrepreneurship within the Zimbabwean context were conducted in the informal sector (e.g. McPherson, 1991; Moyo and Kawewe, 2002; Mboko and Smith-Hunter, 2009). Consistent with these findings, the results of a country-wide study conducted by McPherson (1991) reveals that 67% of all micro enterprises were operated by females, whilst the remainder were run by males. Given this background, it is imperative that research on women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe is given high priority. This study fills in this research gap by reviewing extant literature on women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe to take stock of what has already been undertaken and to provide direction for further research. Directing research in this area is necessary because supporting women entrepreneurship results in poverty reduction which is in line with the Millennium Development Goals of reducing the number of people surviving on less than US$1 per day by 2015 (United Nations, 2013). Although progress has been made on a global level in this regard, the number of people living in extreme poverty in sub-Saharan Africa rose steadily from 290 million in 1990 to 414 million in 2010, accounting for more than a third of people who are destitute in the region (United Nations, 2013). Mapping the directions to unlock the potential of women entrepreneurs in Zimbabwe could contribute more towards economic growth and development.

The rest of the chapter is structured as follows. First, the methodology adopted for the literature review is discussed, followed by the discussion of the concept of entrepreneurship. An overview of the Zimbabwean economy is discussed next. This is followed by the presentation of a brief summary of research studies conducted on women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe. Thereafter, the key themes identified in the literature are presented and discussed. Lastly, recommendations and suggestions for further research on how women entrepreneurship could be unlocked and possibly taken to a higher level are presented.

2.2 METHODOLOGY USED FOR LITERATURE REVIEW

As mentioned before, the objective of this chapter is to highlight the dearth of research on women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe. As such, the literature search was conducted in a particular way that assisted the researcher to achieve the objectives of the chapter. A non-systematic literature review approach was adopted in order to search for research studies conducted specifically on women entrepreneurs in Zimbabwe between 1990 and July 2014. Analysing articles published before 1990 would shift the focus to dwell more on history. This is problematic especially considering the fact that the country has undergone different political dispensations which resulted in women operating small businesses under extremely difficult economic situations. Key words such as women entrepreneurs, women small business owners, Zimbabwe, women in informal sector, and Zimbabwe were jumbled together during the literature search. Twenty journal articles were identified which linked to the objective of the chapter. Only eight research articles focused specifically on women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe. The decision to either include or exclude an article was based on the review of the abstracts. The selected articles were critically analysed and key themes were extracted. These themes are discussed in relation to the broader literature on women entrepreneurship. Recommendations and suggestions for further research were based on the information gathered from the comprehensive literature survey.

2.3 THE CONCEPT OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Entrepreneurship is a multidimensional concept (Verheul, Wennekers, Audretsch and Thurik, 2001), and there is no generally accepted definition of this term (Storey and Greene, 2010; Westhead, Wright and McElwee, 2011). Ndiweni and Verhoeven (2013) posit that even in many African languages, there is no direct translation of this term. Researchers and policy makers define entrepreneurship in terms of who is an entrepreneur, what does the entrepreneur do and the outcome of the entrepreneurial process (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000). Regardless of the complexity of the entrepreneurial context, Venkataraman (1997) highlights the fact that entrepreneurship requires the existence of an entrepreneur and an opportunity. An entrepreneur is a person who sees opportunities that others do not (Schumpeter, 1934; 1942). The key role of the entrepreneur is to be innovative and to bear risk (Schumpeter, 1934; 1942).

Of importance is the fact that Barringer and Ireland (2010), define entrepreneurship as a process which entails a series of activities of transforming an idea into a fully functioning firm.

This study adopts a sociological approach to entrepreneurship which believes that social experiences and situational conditions explain the origin and success of entrepreneurs (Dorado, 2005; Ndiweni and Verhoeven, 2013). Within this school of thought, others (e.g. Hagen, 1957 cited Hindle and Lansdowne, 2005; Dana and Åge Riseth, 2011) postulate that entrepreneurship is associated with low status. This context relates well to the nature of women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe which is mostly operating at the micro enterprise level. Thus, most women in Zimbabwe see entrepreneurship only as a means for survival with no growth potential. Importantly Chitsike (2000) raised a critical issue about women's success in entrepreneurship. She argues that their success depends on how they view and understand entrepreneurship (Chitsike, 2000). A summary of research studies conducted on women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe is discussed next.

2.4 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH STUDIES ON WOMEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN ZIMBABWE

A summary of key themes extracted from the eight articles selected for this chapter is presented in table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Summary of research studies conducted on women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe (1990 – 2014)

Author(s)	Study Focus	Research Methodology
Chitsike (2000)	Chitsike explores why a gender analysis of *rural* women's context underpin attempts to promote women entrepreneurs in a cross sectional study analysis of three countries - Zambia, Zimbabwe and Uganda. The results reveal that training that concentrates on business training alone does not guarantee successful entrepreneurship. A gender analysis of the processes and behaviour of women is required in order to develop training materials that are tailored to meet their needs.	The author documented stories and experiences of women gathered through workshops in Zimbabwe. These workshops were conducted in different parts of Zimbabwe (e.g. Matabeleland North and Harare).
Moyo and Kawewe (2002)	Using the notion of a racialized society, the authors account for the workings of gender oppression within the historical context of Zimbabwe. The study showed how gender, race, ethnicity, and class operate intricately to relegate African women to the lowest socio-economic status in a racialised society. Even with policies to redress earlier imbalances, women endure all forms of injustices. The study focused on *urban* women entrepreneurs in the informal sector as illustrative of one sector where these injustices continue to occur.	Through literature review, the authors used the notion of a racialized society to account for the workings of gender oppression within the historical context of Zimbabwe.
Chamlee-Wright (2002)	The article addresses the question of whether *urban* female entrepreneurs are prepared to advance their own material conditions, constitute a commercial class, and contribute to overall economic development. The author explores the historical and cultural forces that shape the context in which female entrepreneurs operate and; the strategies that these females have developed to maintain the value of their capital, expand their economic interests, and resist both macroeconomic and family pressures that threaten their economic survival and wealth accumulation.	A sample of 150 women micro-business owners were interviewed in several high-density suburbs of Harare. These interviews were conducted between January and June in 1999.
Osirim (2003)	The author argues that globalization affects *urban* women microenterprises. Women owned businesses have suffered from increased costs, competition and bans on imported raw materials that are specifically related to the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) which was enacted in late 1990 at the request of the IMF and the World Bank.	Using intensive interviews, the author investigated the experiences of 39 hairdressers and seamstresses in Harare and Bulawayo. A few respondents were re-interviewed for additional information. Participant observation was also conducted at the respondents work sites.

Author(s)	Study Focus	Research Methodology
Mboko and Smith-Hunter (2009)	The authors explain how strategy processes are linked to firm outcome in *urban* women owned small businesses. The findings reveal that women have strong entrepreneurial competence. They are able to identify viable business opportunities but fail to adopt business management strategies that would result in significant firm growth.	The researcher used interviews to collect data from women entrepreneurs, using a case study method approach. The analysis focused on meanings and interpretations of the data collected.
Mboko and Smith-Hunter (2010)	The authors observed that female *urban* entrepreneurs are strong in entrepreneurial competence but are faced with obstacles that make it difficult for them to grow their businesses. The study also reveals that generally, female-owned businesses perform much worse compared to male-owned businesses.	Using case studies of seven entrepreneurs from clothing manufacturing firms in Zimbabwe, data was collected through in-depth interviews.
Nyamwanza et al. (2012)	The authors explored the financial management strategies used by *urban* women entrepreneurs and; the challenges they face in managing their business finances. The key finding is that women owned businesses are not generally well managed financially. This is evidenced by the manner in which business funds are used mostly for social causes rather than business.	Using questionnaires, a sample of 53 randomly selected female entrepreneurs were selected from Gweru, Data was analysed through regression analysis using Stata 11 statistical package.
Mauchi et al. (2014)	The study unravels the challenges faced by *urban* women entrepreneurs. The research concluded that women entrepreneurs face a multiplicity of obstacles in entrepreneurship.	The study focused on 50 randomly selected women entrepreneurs in Mashonaland Central Province of Zimbabwe. Data was collected in two phases. (1) A questionnaires survey with 50 women. (2) In-depth interviews with 15 respondents as a follow up process. Data collected was analysed using MS Excel graphs.

A summary of the research studies presented in table 2.1 reveals that the majority (87.5%) of the studies were conducted in urban areas, while only one (12.5%) study focused on rural women entrepreneurs. Additionally, all the studies highlight the notion of "informal sector". This is a cause for concern. The fact that the informal sector is mentioned in most studies implies that the majority of women in Zimbabwe are actively involved at the lowest end of entrepreneurship, i.e. microenterprises. Osirim (2003) defines microenterprises as firms that employ less than five workers. This shows that this sector is a critical component of women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe; hence this sector should never be ignored. The size of informal sector activities as a percentage of official GDP for Zimbabwe between 1999 and 2005 are: 59.4% (1999/2000); 61.0% (2001/2002); 63.2% (2002/2003); 63.9% (2003/2004) and 64.6% (2004/2005) (Schneider, 2007). These figures indicate that the informal sector is a critical

sector for the Zimbabwean economy. Peberdy (2000) concurs that it is difficult to disentangle the informal sector from the formal sector because these businesses interact regularly. She further posits that one critical role played by the informal sector is to supply goods and services to formal businesses (Peberdy, 2000). Therefore, policy makers should consider this critical role and empower women at the bottom of the pyramid so that they are engaged at a higher level of entrepreneurship (i.e. small, medium and even corporate level).

One of the major challenges of people operating in the informal sector is lack of skills and resources to grow their entities. For example, Nyamwanza et al's (2012) study reveals that most women owned small businesses are not well managed financially as evidenced by how they utilize the income generated from their businesses. Although this might be the case, it could be argued that most of these women are at the bottom of the pyramid where they are experiencing high levels of poverty. As such, they engage into entrepreneurship as a means of survival, with the objective of providing basic needs such as food. These women tend to use income generated from the business for social needs rather than for business purposes (Nyamwanza et al., 2012). Moyo and Kawewe (2002) concur that in most cases, the earnings generated from women entrepreneurial activities are often characterised by low marginal returns, and this income often goes towards household consumption. This has a negative impact on business performance and improving the status of women generally. Contrary to this, Osirim (2003) argues that women in the informal sector have an entrepreneurial mindset because they also reinvest their business profits, diversify their product range, expand their market, and also build their customer base. What is missing is the provision of adequate support and resources to enable these women to expand their entities. The fact that most women are at the bottom of the pyramid, implies that any assistance for women entrepreneurs should start from grassroots levels. This therefore calls for careful, well managed, informed and well thought-out policy formulation which emphasises the provision of two broad inputs - the hard and soft support. Hard support emphasises the provision of resources such as finance and soft support emphasises technical support that is given to entrepreneurs to enhance their skills or capabilities such as training (Westhead et al., 2003). Training programmes should be tailored to meet the needs of women (Chitsike, 2000). Key themes extracted from existing literature are presented next.

2.5 EMERGING THEMES ON WOMEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN ZIMBABWE

Five themes emerged from extant literature on women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe. These themes are: feminism and women entrepreneurship, motivation for women entrepreneurship, challenges faced by women entrepreneurs, women's informal cross-border trade, and strategies used by women to overcome some of their challenges.

2.5.1 Feminism and women entrepreneurship

This study is grounded in liberal and social feminism. Liberal feminist theory states that society has a false belief that women are by nature less intellectually and physically capable than men (Tong, 2013). Liberal feminism also argues that "female subordination is rooted in customary and legal systems that block women's entrance and/or success in the public world" (Tong, 2013:2). As a result, this mentality excludes women from various positions of influence in society (Tong, 2013). In order to achieve gender equality, the society must not only give women the same education but also provide them with the same civil liberties and economic opportunities that men are enjoying (Tong, 2013). Similarly, no woman is left out of social feminism (Garner and Enns, 2012). Socialist feminism is based on the assumption that gender status is imposed and defined by social relationships and is embedded in historical systems that organise social production (Garner and Enns, 2012). In summarising this literature, Garner and Enns (2012:115) state that "gender, class and ethnicity are intermeshed in such a way that we cannot see them as addictive or prioritize hypothetically any one of them". Further, socialist feminist theory states that gender is experienced differently by various groups of women, with some women viewing gender oppression as less salient than issues of racism and classism (Garner and Enns, 2012). Equally, gender differences in entrepreneurial performance and motivations may be due to either social feminism (i.e. socialization experiences that limit and disadvantage women) and/or liberal feminism (i.e. overt discrimination against women, such as less access to capital (DeMartino and Barbato, 2003). These feminist theories are applicable to the Zimbabwean context because the country is highly patriarchal and perceives females as less capable than males (Mboko and Smith-Hunter, 2009). In addition, the gender status of women in Zimbabwe is defined by social relationships which are embedded in historical systems that influence women's involvement in a capitalist economy.

Within the Zimbabwean context, the socio-economic status of women has been the subject of considerable academic and political debate. Feminist agendas have focused on improving women's economic conditions in a capitalist system and making their contributions more visible in the economy by showing how patriarchy intersects with other societal institutions to subjugate women (Moyo and Kawewe, 2002). Many feminist scholars of African development have paid attention to the roles of women as entrepreneurs in the microenterprise sector and their contributions to local economies in Zimbabwe (e.g. Moyo and Kawewe, 2002; Osirim, 2001, 2003; Mboko and Smith-Hunter, 2009; Spring and Rutashobya, 2009). Interestingly, some of the feminist researchers have substituted the term 'informal sector' with 'microenterprises' in an effort to remove the derogatory connotations associated with the former term (Moyo and Kawewe, 2002). Peberdy (2000) concurs that the term informal sector shows marginality, yet these traders are involved in the development of entrepreneurship. While microenterprise activities are unregulated and untaxed, feminist scholars have advocated for the abandonment of the 'dual economy' approach (Osirim, 2003) and consider women's ventures as more than survival activities that contribute to the economy. Interestingly, sometimes the end products of the informal sector activities end up influencing the economy in a substantial way. Here the authors are imagining a situation whereby children raised from the income generated from the informal sector occupy substantial and key positions in the economy.

In terms of economic contribution, the informal sector is the major source of economic activity in sub-Saharan Africa and; is the second largest income earner for women after agriculture (Osirim, 2003). In Zimbabwe, McPherson (1991) confirms that micro and small enterprises are an important part of the Zimbabwean economy; and a major generator of income for the country's citizens. For example, in 2000, the informal sector contributed 60% towards the nation's GDP and 50% of total employment (Coltart, 2008; Mudamburi, 2012). A further analysis of employment creation by the informal sector reveals that in 1980 this sector contributed 10% of the total labour force; the number doubled to 20% in 1986/87; 27% in 1991 (the year ESAP was adopted) and 40% in 2004 (Tibaijuka, 2005; Ndiweni and Verhoeven, 2013). By June 2005, approximately 3 million people out of a population of 11 million were involved in the informal economy (Coltart 2008; Ndiweni and Verhoeven, 2013). To the contrary, Ndiweni and Verhoeven (2013:1) argue that "the contribution of informal traders cannot result in sustainable development nor can it significantly increase economic growth in Zimbabwe". They further mention that the "rise of people participating in the informal sector

is rather indicative of a lack of accountability for the plunder of resources and its intended consequences and failure of government economic policies" (Ndiweni and Verhoeven, 2013:1). Despite this controversy in literature, this study argues that investing resources into developing the informal sector in Zimbabwe has far reaching benefits.

2.5.2 Motivation for women entrepreneurship

There are two main reasons why people venture into entrepreneurship. Expressions of being either pulled or pushed have been used to explain motivation for starting business ventures (Walker and Webster, 2004). Similarly, pull and push factors are used to justify why women start their own businesses (Orhan and Scott, 2001). The pull or positive factors are related to factors of choice and the desire for entrepreneurial aspirations (McClelland, Swail, Bell and Ibbotson, 2005). Pull factors are associated with the desire for independence, self-fulfilment, desire for wealth creation, social status and power, desire for a flexible lifestyle, personal challenge, and desire for personal development using creative skills (Orhan and Scott, 2001; Walker and Webster, 2004; McClelland et al., 2005). To the contrary push factors are elements of necessity (Orhan and Scott, 2001), and are related to strong desires that are based on external negative reasons (Walker and Webster, 2004). Examples of push factors are: insufficient family income, dissatisfaction with a salaried job, difficulties in finding work, desire for flexible work schedules due to family responsibilities, frustration, lack of control and perceived lack of opportunity for career advancement (Orhan and Scott, 2001; Walker and Webster, 2004; Warren-Smith and Jackson, 2004; McClelland et al., 2005).

While women in developed economies are most likely to be motivated to establish businesses by pull factors, those in developing economies are most likely to be motivated by push factors (Brush and Cooper, 2012). As a result, they establish business ventures out of necessity. In a similar vein, women in Zimbabwe are mostly driven into entrepreneurship due to harsh economic, political and personal circumstances, such as poverty and the necessity to provide for their children's future and livelihoods (Moyo and Kawewe, 2002; Wrigley-Asante, 2013). Osirim (2001) concurs that the economic status of Zimbabweans suffering is due to economic and political crises that the country is experiencing. To illustrate this, results from Osirim's (2003) study reveals that women who failed to acquire an academic qualification were forced to establish microenterprises due to limited employment opportunities. In another study, Chamlee-Wright (2002) observed that more than 25% of the women were forced to establish

income generating projects as a means for survival because of some financially devastating events (e.g. death or illness of a husband, divorce, a husband losing his job, a child's medical expenses, a sharp increase in rent, or other dramatic and unforeseen increases in expenses). Today, many women bear a disproportionate share of the burdens of economic and social deprivation both as breadwinners and caretakers (Moyo and Kawewe, 2002). The income generated by women from entrepreneurial activities not only contributes towards household resources but also raises their self-esteem (Chamlee-Wright, 2002).

2.5.3 Characteristics of women entrepreneurs in Zimbabwe

Studies have shown that both females and males possess the characteristics required for effective performance as managers in entrepreneurship (e.g. Sexton and Bowman-Upton, 1990). Yet, negative attitudes toward females still exist. DeMartino and Barbato (2003) concur that there are more similarities than differences between females and males in terms of personality traits. Although various personality traits have been attributed to entrepreneurs, there are several common characteristics that are associated with successful entrepreneurs (Barringer and Ireland, 2010). The four main characteristics of successful entrepreneurs are: passion for the business, product/customer focus, tenacity despite failure and execution intelligence (Barringer and Ireland, 2010). Women in Zimbabwe, like many across the globe share similar characteristics. In two research studies on women entrepreneurs in Zimbabwe, Mboko and Smith-Hunter (2009) and Osirim (2003) observed that women displayed a certain level of entrepreneurial competence. These women were hardworking, creative and had the ability to recognize viable business opportunities (Osirim, 2003; Mboko and Smith-Hunter, 2009). Additionally, these women were committed to see their ventures succeed (Osirim, 2003; Mboko and Smith-Hunter, 2009). To illustrate their level of perseverance and commitment, the women were fully involved in their businesses as they worked every day with the exception of those observing a day of rest as a matter of religious principles (Chamlee-Wright, 2002). Women traders would typically arrive at the market between 4am and 6am and knock off after 5pm (Chamlee-Wright, 2002). Similarly, women cross border traders spend long periods of time travelling. Drawing from the literature, it can be concluded that women in Zimbabwe share similar characteristics with other women worldwide. The fact that women are committed to seeing their business ventures succeed, implies that government policies should be inclusive and purposefully promote women.

2.5.4 Challenges faced by women entrepreneurs

Globally, women face many obstacles in entrepreneurship (Mattis, 2004; Singh and Belwal, 2008; Derera, Chitakunye and O'Neill, 2014; Mauchi et al., 2014). What differs from one woman to another is the intensity of the impact of these barriers in entrepreneurship. However, the challenges are more severe in developing economies such as Zimbabwe. Interestingly, Chitsike (2000) observes that the type of businesses that women engage in is influenced by the barriers they encounter in entrepreneurship. For example, enterprises that women operate are a reflection of their skills, availability of resources and cultural expectations (Chitsike, 2000). The challenges that women face are gender related (Henry and Treanor, 2010) and; are often underpinned by economic, social, cultural and religious factors (Mordi, Simpson, Singh and Okafor, 2010). The challenges could be explained in terms of barriers related to entry into entrepreneurship and challenges that women experience when operating their business enterprises. Several research studies have highlighted the following obstacles which include access to capital, access to networks and market information, limited access to technology, poor educational background, lack of business training, lack of affordable business premises, stringent regulatory framework, lack of industry and entrepreneurial experience, and challenges related to family responsibilities (Henry and Treanor, 2010; Mordi et al., 2010; Derera et al., 2014). Other challenges are political instability, poor infrastructure, high-production costs, poor linkage to support services, gaps between policy and implementation and unfavourable business environments. (Boohene, Sheridan and Kotey, 2008; Singh and Belwal, 2008).

In addition to the above mentioned obstacles, literature on women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe has documented adverse economic conditions as a major hindrance to the growth of women entrepreneurship. Some of the challenges related to adverse economic conditions are; devaluation of the currency and rampant inflation which negatively affects the cost of raw materials and business planning; government bans on certain imported products; increasing costs of imports, increasing competition and a declining customer base resulting from unemployment which affects individual buying power (Osirim, 2003). In a similar vein, Chitsike (2000) adds cultural barriers, lower levels of education, access to capital, lack of business skills, inability to own land and other key assets and family responsibilities to the list of challenges facing women entrepreneurs. Chamlee-Wright's (2002) study concluded that

most women owned businesses were not registered because of cumbersome licensing processes and failure to meet the licensing requirements. Nyamwanza et al. (2012) add lack of technical education and financial management skills among women entrepreneurs to the list of challenges that women encounter in entrepreneurship.

2.5.4.1 Socio-cultural challenges affecting women entrepreneurs

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor mentions that the participation of women in entrepreneurship varies around the world (Kelley, Singer and Herrington, 2012). Zimbabwe is a highly patriarchal society and places little value on women's participation in activities outside the home (Mboko and Smith-Hunter, 2009). The Zimbabwean culture is resistant to entrepreneurial and capitalist ethics, with even some religious and cultural beliefs fostering hand-to-mouth mentality among entrepreneurs which discourages them from developing sustainable businesses (Chamlee-Wright, 2002). The extent to which women are specifically supported as entrepreneurs varies widely within different cultural contexts in Zimbabwe and generally, the culture does support women wholeheartedly (Chamlee-Wright, 2002). In most cases, women are short changed in business deals with men asking for a large share of the business proceeds (Chitsike, 2000). To illustrate this, Chitsike (2000) mentions that women entrepreneurs sometimes receive comments like "*munoidii mari mune murume anokuchengetai kumba*" translated in English as "why would you need money when you have a husband who looks after you at home?" This reflects deep rooted socio-cultural imbalances that women face in entrepreneurship. The society expects a woman to be married and provided for by the husband. How this empowers women is questionable.

In a similar context, women are scorned for running successful businesses because money is often an expression of power, which goes against culture. The society uses degrading names to associate with successful women such as "*anoda mari sehure*" translated as "she loves money like a prostitute" (Chitsike, 2000), simply because a women is succeeding beyond societal norms and expectations. Chamlee-Wright (2002) observes that men find it far easier to monopolize the resources generated by women. At times these resources are squandered through disheartening means (e.g. men spending money partying and buying alcohol for friends or spending money supporting their "*small houses*" literally translated as "girlfriends" at the expense of the family. As a result, some women remain trapped in small-scale, low-investment

businesses, which do not provide liberating economic empowerment from men. While the Zimbabwean government attempted to promote gender equality during their first ten years of independence and significantly improved the quality of life for women and children compared to the colonial era, the state seriously digressed from its earlier position after the year 2000 (Osirim, 2003).

When studying gender relations in Zimbabwe, it is important to acknowledge differences and diversity among women, with class, race and ethnicity being important factors that influence the circumstances of women (Mboko and Smith-Hunter, 2009). Furthermore, most women are still operating businesses linked to their domestic roles. Popular entrepreneurial activities among women include sewing, crocheting, knitting and street hawking (Mboko and Smith-Hunter, 2009). For example, Mauchi et al's (2014) study reveal that the majority of women entrepreneurs were operating hairdressing, retailing, catering, livestock and poultry, cross border, and transport businesses. None of the women were involved in non-traditional areas such as manufacturing, engineering or science related businesses. In two other separate studies, all women were operating small businesses related to their domestic roles; and these businesses were making significantly low levels of profits (Mboko and Smith-Hunter, 2009; 2010). This calls for an urgent need to revisit the plight of women in Zimbabwe; and find ways of economically empowering them to establishing sustainable small business ventures. More support is required too for women to venture into nontraditional areas that are often dominated by men.

2.5.5 Women informal cross-border trade

The discussion of women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe is incomplete without mentioning informal cross-border trade (ICBT). The informal cross-border trade constitutes a significant part of the informal sector business activities in the SADC region (Peberdy and Rogerson, 2000). The majority of informal boarder traders are women (Afrika and Ajumbo, 2012). With SADC regional trade, women constitute about 70 percent of the informal cross border traders (Afrika and Ajumbo, 2012). This type of trading plays a crucial role in poverty alleviation and, enhances regional food security (Afrika and Ajumbo, 2012). Informal cross border traders play a significant role in regional trade relationships (Peberdy, 2000).

There is no agreed definition of the term "informal cross-border trade". Informal cross border trade refers to unrecorded business transactions undertaken across borders (Wanjiku, Ogada and Guthiga, 2015). Afrika and Ajumbo (2012) define informal cross border trade as illegal commercialisation of cross border activities. Ogalo (2010) defines informal cross border trade as imports and exports of legitimately produced goods and services which are directly or indirectly excluded from the regulatory framework for taxation and other procedures set by the government. These illegal activities include among others, under-invoicing of cargo (i.e. reporting lower quantity, weight or value of goods) and misclassification of goods (i.e. falsifying the description of products) (Ogalo, 2010; Wanjiku, Ogada and Guthiga, 2015). Despite the illegal nature of informal cross boarder activities, these actitities contribute between 30-40 percent of total intra-SADC trade (Afrika and Ajumbo, 2012). In Southern Africa, maize trade is the most informally traded foodstuff, averaging approximately 80 percent of the total recorded informal cross border trade in foodstuff between 2005 and 2012 (Afrika and Ajumbo, 2012). The fact that maize, which is more or less the staple food in SADC, constitutes approximately 80 percent of the total recorded informal cross border trade in foodstuff between 2005 and 2012 is a cause for concern which points back to the issue of food security in the region. According to the World Food Programme (2014) women have a crucial responsibility for the food value chain to the dinner table. The informal cross-border trade show the extent to which women can go in their quest to put food on the table, considering its illegal nature. This situation is reversible if women are fully supported to reach their full potential in agriculture.

In Zimbabwe, cross-border trading is a significant part of the informal sector and is central to women entrepreneurship and is highly gendered (Muzvidziwa, 2010; Ndiweni and Verhoeven, 2013). Cross border trading has been extensively researched in Southern Africa including Zimbabwe (Peberdy, 2000; Peberdy and Rogerson, 2000; Muzvidziwa, 2001; 2005; 2010; Chiliya, Masocha and Zindiye, 2012). Cross-border trading provides an opportunity for women to expand their micro businesses to neighbouring countries such as South Africa, Botswana, Mozambique, Tanzania, Zambia, etc. (Chitsike, 2000). While cross border trading brought many benefits for traders, it is not without challenges. Some of the challenges are; crime, harassment due to xenophobia, accommodation problems, extortion, bribery by police and delays at the border post during peak periods (Chiliya et al., 2012).

Soon after independence, cross-border trading emerged as a popular activity for women of all classes, ethnicity, and ages (Moyo and Kawewe, 2002). Cross-border trading activities

increased significantly as the economic conditions continued to worsen in Zimbabwe. The cross-border movements between South Africa and Zimbabwe increased sharply from 377 415 in 1992 to more than 1 000 000 in 1993 (Muzvidziwa, 2010). More than 66% of women are actively involved in cross-border trading (Peberdy and Rogerson, 2000).

In Zimbabwe, cross-border trading had an impact on the socio-culture of people. Cross-border trade gave rise to the image of a strong and independent class of women who are determined to improve their lives from poverty (Muzvidziwa, 2010). Instead of women waiting for their husbands to provide for them, some women engage in cross-border activities as a means of social and economic empowerment. Cross-border trade challenged the traditional female role of subservience to men (Muzvidziwa, 2010). This is illustrated by the following extract from some women who participated in a research study conducted by Muzvidziwa (2005):

> "*mukuwasha tikagara takatarisana pamba tinodyana here*?", translated as "if we stay at home, just enjoying each other's company, will that bring us food?".

This portrays a new family setup which emerged due to economic hardships. This setup defies the traditional family which required the women to stay at home and look after the family. As a result, nuclear family relations were negatively affected due to new patterns of commuter type of marriages where women are away from the family for extended periods every month (Muzvidziwa, 2005). There are also cases of stigmatisation associated with cross border trading whereby traders are referred to as "prostitutes" or "smugglers" (Chiliya et al., 2013). These scenarios often surface when women engage in activities which contradict societal norms such as situations whereby women are able to capture a niche market beyond the reach of men (Muzvidziwa, 2010).

Drawing from the literature, it can be argued that policy initiatives must pay attention to cross border entrepreneurial activities because of their contribution to the economy, despite discouraging experiences of hardships by women at border posts. Peberdy and Rogerson (2000) argue that cross border traders are relatively significant suppliers of goods and services to the formal sector and; if properly managed, this sector could be a source of revenue for the countries involved. For policy implications, governments involved need to develop an understanding of the cross border trading and how countries could take advantage and benefit more from such activities.

2.5.6 Strategies used by women entrepreneurs

Generally people develop coping strategies for dealing with their challenges. These strategies are shaped by the environment in which people find themselves in and; these challenges are unique to the individuals. Developing survival tactics depends on one's ability to build self-confidence from within. Globally, women are developing diverse strategies for coping with their challenges. Similarly, women entrepreneurs in Zimbabwe have developed coping mechanisms over the years to survive in entrepreneurship (Moyo and Kawewe, 2002; Muzvidziwa, 2005). Some of the mostly used strategies include lending each other business capital, investing more resources into the business, business diversification, maintaining total business control and saving clubs (known as *"ma rounds"*)(Chamlee-Wright, 2002). *"Ma rounds"* involve each member of a group saving a specific amount of money over a specific time frame, with the accumulated lump sum being given to each member in turns (Chamlee-Wright, 2002). These accumulated savings are used for diverse purposes (Chamlee-Wright, 2002). Savings clubs also demonstrate a type of social network (Muzvidziwa, 2005).

In the Zimbabwean context, a husband often plays a key role in a woman's decision to start a small business and frequently assists in providing start-up capital (Osirim, 2003). This act ensures that the wife remains geographically closer to home and fulfills her domestic responsibilities (Osirim, 2003). The informal sector is segregated by gender and assisting a wife to start a firm is likely to limit her from interacting with other men (Osirim, 2003). As a coping strategy, some women would rather not use the husband's resources. This way it limits or excludes the husband from interfering with the business dealings. Another strategy used a lot is establishing a joint venture with their husbands while at the same time maintaining a clear domain of autonomy (Chamlee-Wright, 2002).

Maintaining control over business resources is another coping strategy used by some women to counter socio-cultural values that are enmeshed in Zimbabwean society (Moyo and Kawewe, 2002). Zimbabwean culture portrays the man as the head of the family and; all family assets are under his control. Even when a wife contributes income to the household, her contribution is usually under the husband's control. Thus, the male as husband and father has absolute authority. Even in the precolonial context, the woman would only exercise control over the granary and other food supplies (Chamlee-Wright, 2002). The security of the family,

particularly the children, is often dependent on women controlling the distribution of the household resources, and usually a husband represents a principal threat to that control" (Horn, 1986). In the business context, maintaining significant control over businesses resources would entail a woman making most business decisions. This empowers women to influence significant household decisions (Osirim, 2003). Thus, a woman's success in business can reduce the man's level of responsibility for financial support and; is likely to upset patriarchal control (Osirim, 2003). Horn (1986) also found out that unmarried women were more likely to run profitable businesses than married women, as husbands are no longer a threat to controlling business resources. Remaining single or seeking divorce was one strategy that women use to maintain control over their resources but this is by no means the most successful strategy as other factors play a role in single parenthood (Horn, 1986). Sometimes women keep the business financial status confidential and at times misrepresent the information (Moyo and Kawewe, 2002). Muzvidziwa (2010) notes that cross-border traders developed coping strategies such as sharing of business operating costs.

Moyo and Kawewe (2002) posit that central to developing strategies is an empowering prefix "self" (e.g. self -provisioning and self-employment). The moment women realize they are doing something for themselves, they are motivated to achieve more. While women acknowledge societal attitudes towards them, they do not allow these perceptions to negatively affect their businesses (Mboko and Smith-Hunter, 2009). In fact, they take it as an opportunity to prove that they are capable (Mboko and Smith-Hunter, 2009). Overall, these afore mentioned strategies symbolise "ways in which so many women have "beaten the system", taken charge of their own destinies and encourage each other to live, love, laugh and be happy as women" (Tong, 2013:1/2).

2.6 THE WAY FORWARD

Supporting women entrepreneurs is not just a matter of gender, but it makes economic sense. Women owned businesses play a crucial role in society and economic development of any nation, including Zimbabwe. Therefore, within the context of the chapter, the Zimbabwean government, in liaison with the private sector and non-governmental organisations, should find ways of unlocking the potential of women entrepreneurs. It is also important to develop and implement policies that support sustainable small business development among women that

contributes meaningfully to economic development. Some of the recommendations are highlighted below.

- Policies promoting women's roles in economic production need to be formulated with the understanding of what women actually do, what they are capable of, and how they see themselves in their social setting. In other words, the development of these policies requires a feminist approach that allows women to actively take part in developing their own solutions.
- Due to the fact that most women are operating in the informal sector, more support is required for women to venture into other categories of small business development (e.g. small and medium enterprises).
- Extant literature reveals that most studies focused on urban enterprises. Therefore, more research is required on rural entrepreneurship and this assists in promoting empowerment at grass root levels. Rural entrepreneurship is important because it has its roots in mainly agriculture, and it speaks to issues of poverty alleviation and food security within the SADC region.
- The education system should develop and encourage a culture of entrepreneurship among the youth, especially the girl child who will grow up to be an economically independent woman.
- Given the availability of resources, a country-wide study is required in order to understand the nature of small business development in the country as a point of departure.
- Since the savings clubs are a common activity for women, the government should consider the possibility of institutionalizing this activity to enable women to access funding.
- More social entrepreneurial activities could go a long way in dealing with social ills such as poverty.

2.7 CONCLUSION

The chapter provided a literature review on women entrepreneurship with a specific reference to the Zimbabwean context. The dearth of research on women entrepreneurship, particularly in Zimbabwe is also highlighted. Some of the key themes extracted from the literature search are motivational factors, characteristics and challenges faced by women entrepreneurs; women's

informal cross-border trade and; the strategies used by women entrepreneurs in dealing with some of the identified challenges. The themes were discussed in relation to how they are applicable to the Zimbabwean context. Lastly, recommendations were presented.

CHAPTER 3

WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT: A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter reviewed literature on women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe. Chapter 3 discusses the theory of women's economic empowerment and how gender influences women's participation in agriculture entrepreneurship. To best situate this chapter within the broader literature of empowerment in line with the main objective of the research study, this chapter begins by discussing the concept of women's empowerment. Under women's empowerment, extant literature on the definition, components, dimensions, preconditions and domains of empowerment are explored in depth. This is used as a build up to the discussion of women's economic empowerment. Under the discussion of the concept of women's economic empowerment, the definition and the components are presented. The framework for understanding women's economic empowerment and the significance of economic empowerment to economic development are discussed. Lastly, the chapter explores literature on how economic empowerment is measured and how these measurements were adapted for the current study.

3.2 THE CONCEPT OF WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

In academia, the first article to discuss empowerment was published in 1975 by John Conyers Jr. in an article entitled "Toward Black Political Empowerment - Can the System Be Transformed" (Conyers, 1975). Thereafter, several theories have been propounded on empowerment (UNIDO, 2010). Batliwala (2007:557) states that "empowerment" is probably the most widely used and abused term, due to the fact that people's understanding of the term varies across cultures. Varekamp et al. (2009) concur that empowerment is a multileveled construct that is defined in various ways; and the meaning and terms used to describe empowerment varies considerably across socio-economic contexts (Malholtra and Schuler, 2005; Kabeer, 2011). Due to the fact that the term empowerment has diverse meanings, some researchers (e.g. Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007) have explored the definition of the term

empowerment drawing from diverse meanings proposed by different authors. Ibrahim and Alkire (2007) explored the definition of "empowerment" in detail by analysing more than twenty definitions from the literature.

Empowerment in the broadest sense refers to "the expansion of freedom of choice and actions" (Malholtra and Schuler, 2005:71). These choices are expressed as increased ability to: hold and express opinions; learn, analyse and act; organize own time; obtain and control resources (Mosedale, 2005). Empowerment can also be defined as the process of enhancing an individual's or a group's capacity to make choices; and having the ability to transform these choices into desired actions and outcomes (Kabeer, 2001; World Bank 2002; Ismail, Rasdi and Jamal, 2011). A similar definition is proposed by Alsop et al. (2006:10), but the authors emphasise on the process of enhancing an individual's or group's capacity to make "effective choices". The adjective "effective" is used to describe the choices and is critical because it relates to producing desired and successful results which is fundamental to achieving empowerment. Thus, empowerment can be viewed as a process and not a goal (Al-Dajani and Marlow, 2013)

In a similar vein, Kabeer (2005:13) defines empowerment as "the process which entails the expansion in people's ability to make strategic life choices in a context where this ability was previously denied to them". Here the author adds on three critical dimensions to the definition of empowerment. She points out the issues of (1) "process", (2) "strategic life choices" and (3) "context where this ability was previously denied to them". Regarding "process" Kabeer (1999) argues that empowerment is generally conceptualized as a process, where, over time, an individual moves from a lesser state to a higher one. This process entails change in peoples' lives (Kabeer, 2005). Malholtra and Schuler (2005) concur that these "processes" are the methods used to achieve greater freedom of choice and equality. Strategic life choices refer to those choices that influence an individual's long term goals or plans, and having the ability to plan your life is fundamental to achieving empowerment. These strategic life choices according to Kabeer (2005:14) include among others, the choice of "where to live, whether and whom to marry, whether to have children, how many children to have, who has custody over children, freedom of movement and association". Thus, "empowerment include an element of people making decisions on matters which are important in their lives and being able to carry them out" (Mosedale, 2005: 244). Lastly, for one to be empowered, s/he has to be disempowered. According to Kabeer (2005:13) empowerment is the "process" of enabling those who have

been denied the ability to make choices acquire such ability". She further mention that to "be disempowered means that an individual has been denied choice" (Kabeer, 2005:13).

Bartlett (2004:54) views empowerment as the process of enhancing people's ability to make their "own" decisions, rather than being passive objects of choices made on their behalf. The word "own" emphasises the notion that empowerment is self-driven and it emanates from within. In order for the process of empowerment to take place, self-motivation, self-determination and self-confidence are central for an individual to be empowered. While women's struggles for empowerment have tended to be collective efforts; empowerment-orientated development interventions often focus more on an individual level (Mosedale, 2005: 244). This is because empowerment is experienced at an individual level and it emanates from within. Hence, Mosedale (2005: 244) argues that "empowerment cannot be bestowed on a third party……., those who would like to be empowered must claim it".

According to Mosedale (2005) the process of empowerment begins with women recognising the ideology that legitimises male domination and understanding how it (male domination) perpetuates women oppression. Mosedale (2014: 1119) further argues that:

> *"experiencing oppression has the potential to produce valuable knowledge; different experiences of oppression produce different knowledge; not all knowledge is equal; through exploring differently situated knowledge, we can better understand and so challenge our own and others' subordination; developing such knowledge is a collective activity and is not painless".*

From the quote above, it can be argued that only the oppressed people are able to understand what it means to be oppressed and marginalised. It is through these experiences that oppressed people are able to create knowledge about oppression depending on their unique experiences of challenging their own as well as other's situations as a group. The authors also acknowledge that this process of challenging oppression is not without pain. This could also be interpreted as that the oppressed must be at the forefront of challenging oppression, and not the unoppressed, because they have experienced the difficult life. More often than not, oppressed individuals (especially women) are led by the unoppressed in the process of fighting against oppression, which is not correct.

Lastly, because the focus of this study is Zimbabwe, it is important to look at the definition of empowerment from the government's perspective. The BBWEE framework defines

empowerment as the "process of change that gives individuals greater freedom of choice and action. The outcome of the process is an enhanced ability of an individual or a community to make strategic life choices in a context that was previously denied; enhanced analytical skills and self-confidence" (Government of Zimbabwe, 2012). This definition is important because the government's understanding of the term empowerment influences how it champions programmes that are designed to empower disempowered people (especially women) in that country.

Table 3.1 summarises some of the definitions of empowerment extracted from the literature.

Table 3.1: Definitions of Empowerment

Author(s)	Definition of Empowerment
Chambers (1993)	Empowerment means that people, especially the poor, are enabled to take more control over their lives, and secure a better livelihood with ownership and control of productive assets as one key element.
Rowlands (1995)	"Empowerment is the process by which people, organizations or groups who are powerless: (a) become aware of the power dynamics at work in their life context; (b) develop the skills and capacity for gaining some reasonable control over their lives; (c) exercise their control without infringing upon the right of others; and (d) support the empowerment of others in the community. Empowerment is more than participation in decision-making; it must also include the processes that lead people to perceive themselves as able and entitled to make decisions" (Rowlands, 1995:15).
Oxaal & Baden (1997)	Empowerment cannot be defined in terms of specific activities or end results because it involves a process whereby people (in particular, women) can freely analyse, develop and voice their needs and interests, without them being pre-defined, or imposed from above, by planners or other social actors.

Author(s)	Definition of Empowerment
Albertyn (2001)	Effective empowerment must occur at each of three levels: micro (attitude, feelings and skills), interface (participation and action immediately around the individual) and macro (beliefs, action and effects).
Kabeer (2005)	Empowerment is the process of enabling those who have been denied the ability to make choices to acquire such ability and, this process entails change in peoples' lives. Empowerment is the expansion in people's ability to make strategic life choices in a context where this ability was previously denied to them. These strategic life choices include among others, the choice of "where to live, whether and whom to marry, whether to have children, how many children to have, who has custody over children, freedom of movement and association". To be disempowered means that an individual has been denied choice" (Kabeer, 2005: 13-14).
Oakley (2001)	Empowerment is an intentional and ongoing dynamic process centred on the local community, involving mutual dignity, critical reflection, caring and group participation, through which people lacking a valid share of resources gain greater access to and control over those resources, though the exercise of an increased leverage of power.
Moser (2003)	Empowerment is the expansion of assets and capabilities of poor people to participate in, negotiate with, influence, control and hold accountable institutions that affect their lives.
Bartlett (2004)	Empowerment enhances people's ability to make their "own" decisions, rather than being passive objects of choices made on their behalf.
Malholtra and Schuler (2005)	Empowerment in the broadest sense refers to the expansion of freedom of choice and action (Malholtra and Schuler, 2005). These choices are expressed as increased ability to: hold and express opinions; learn, analyse and act; organize own time and obtain and control resources (Mosedale, 2005).
Narayan-Parker (2005)	"Empowerment is viewed broadly as increasing poor people's freedom of choice and action to shape their own lives" (Narayan-Parker, 2005: 4).
Mosedale (2005)	"Empowerment include a sense of people making decisions on matters which are important in their lives and being able to carry them out" (Mosedale, 2005: 244).
Alsop et al. (2006)	Empowerment is defined as a group's or individual's capacity to make effective choices and being able to transform those choices into desired actions and outcomes (Alsop et al., 2006:10).

Author(s)	Definition of Empowerment
Ibrahim and Alkire (2007)	Empowerment is about "the extent to which some categories of people are able to control their own destinies, even when their interests are opposed by those of the other people with whom they interact with" (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007:384).
Ismail, Rasdi and Jamal (2011).	Empowerment can also be defined as the process of enhancing an individual's or a group's capacity to make choices; and to transform those choices into desired actions and outcomes.
Government of Zimbabwe (2012).	The BBWEE framework defines empowerment as the "process of change that gives individuals greater freedom of choice and action. The outcome of the process is an enhanced ability of an individual or a community to make strategic life choices in a context that was previously denied; enhanced analytical skills and self-confidence" (Government of Zimbabwe, 2012:20).
Alkire (2013)	Empowerment is "the expansion of assets and capabilities of poor people to participate in, negotiate with, influence, control, and hold accountable the institutions that influence their lives" (Alkire, 2013:4).

Source: Authors compilation

Although diverse literature has emerged on the conceptualization of empowerment, there is a common thread that runs through the various definitions of empowerment (Malholtra and Schuler, 2005). There is mutual understanding among scholars that empowerment operates at the individual, group and community levels (Varekemp et al. 2009). The concept of empowerment is personal, as a result, each person has a unique definition of what it means to be empowered based on their life experiences, personality, and aspirations (Alkire, Meinzen-Dick, Peterman, Quisumbing, Seymour and Vaz, 2013). One shapes one's own definition of empowerment (Alkire et al., 2013). In addition, Mosedale (2005) states that empowerment is an ongoing process rather than an end product. The concept of empowerment relates to terms like agency, autonomy, self-direction, self-determination, liberation, participation, mobilization and self-confidence (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007).

In summary, the afore mentioned definitions suggest that empowerment is related to the concepts of power (Chambers,1993; Rowlands, 1995; Ismail et al., 2011) which is linked to a person's ability to make choices (Kabeer, 2005; Mosedale, 2005; Narayan, 2005; Alsop et al., 2006; Ismail et al., 2011; Government of Zimbabwe, 2012), democracy (Oxaal and Baden, 1997; Malholtra and Schuler, 2005), control (Chambers, 1993; Moser, 2003; Kabeer, 2005;

Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007; Alkire, 2013), autonomy (Bartlett, 2004; Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007; Government of Zimbabwe, 2012), authority and responsibility (Bartlett, 2004; Mosedale, 2005; Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007; Government of Zimbabwe, 2012) command over own rights (Mosedale, 2005; Narayan-Parker , 2005), and mobilisation of vulnerable groups (Chambers,1993; Moser, 2003; Bartlett, 2004; Narayan-Parker , 2005; Government of Zimbabwe, 2012; Alkire, 2013). These components of empowerment are discussed next.

3.3 COMPONENTS OF EMPOWERMENT

In an endeavor to conceptualise the term empowerment, researchers have come up with key components that are crucial for comprehending the empowerment process. A number of researchers (e.g. Kabeer, 1999; 2005; Grabe, 2012; Wiig, 2013) argue that one's ability to exercise choice is made up of three interrelated and indivisible elements which are agency, resources, and achievements. Wiig (2013: 106) interprets these three elements as "the resources to perform a certain action (resources); the ability to perform the action (agency); and whether the desired outcome is really in one's own interest (achievements)". Other researchers (e.g. Alsop et al., 2006; Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007; Alkire, 2008; Samman and Santos, 2009) posit that empowerment has two key components - agency and opportunity structure. The "process of increasing power is conceived as the result of the interaction between two building blocks which are agency and opportunity structure" (Samman and Santos, 2009:3). These components relate to Amartya Sen's (1989) concept of agency, and the institutional environment (Alsop et al., 2006; Ibrahim and Alkire 2007; Alkire 2008; 2013). The institutional environment is also referred to as opportunity structure (Alkire 2008; 2013; Samman and Santos, 2009). All elements need attention before assertions about empowerment can be made (Kabeer, 2005:14). These elements are discussed below.

3.3.1 Agency

An agent is an individual who acts and brings about change (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007). Ibrahim and Alkire (2007) further argue that an agent is also responsible for advancing goals that people value and have reason to value. Similarly, agency is defined as "what an individual is free to do and achieve in pursuit of whatever goals or values they regard as important" (Sen, 1985: 203). Kabeer (1999) describes agency as the ability of an individual to set their own

goals and act upon them. Agency also represents the processes by which choices are made and put into effect (Kabeer, 2005). Agency relates to decision-making, and it involves bargaining and negotiation, deception and manipulation, subversion and resistance (Kabeer, 1999: 438). In a similar vein, Alsop and Heinsohn (2005) state that agency is an actor's ability (capacity) to make meaningful choices; that is, the actor is able to envisage options and make a choice. Here, the authors highlight a critical point which relates to one's ability to picture alternatives, i.e. "envisage options". This is vital for making strategic life choices. Importantly, exercising one's sense of agency indicates the power within. The opposite of a person with agency is someone who is "coerced, oppressed or passive" (Alkire, 2007:9).

In a nut shell, agency entails a process of achieving freedom (Sen, 1985; Kabeer, 2005; Alsop and Heinsohn, 2005) and, it is intrinsically valued (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007). The freedom and the ability to choose are directly conducive to well-being (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007) as opposed to being poor. Being able to exercise choice is an important requirement of freedom (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007). Expanding one's agency in one domain may have positive "spillover" effects on agency in other domains, and perhaps also on other aspects of wellbeing, but it also may not (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007). To the contrary, Sen (1999:191) argues that "the agency of women has been shown to affect positively the wellbeing of all those around them".

3.3.2 Resources

Resources are the medium through which agency or the ability to exercise choice, is carried out (Kabeer, 2005; Grabe, 2012). Resources can also be referred to as building blocks that women can draw on in order for them to succeed economically or to exercise power and agency (Markel, 2014). These resources can be accessed at an individual or community level (Markel, 2014). Resources are identified as not only material but also human and social and; they also include future claims and expectations as well as actual allocations (Grabe, 2012; Markel, 2014). Markel (2014) attests that resources are more than financial or monetary in nature. Examples of resources that enable economic advancement of women include: human capital (e.g. education, skills, training); financial capital (e.g. loans, savings); social capital (e.g. networks, mentors) and physical capital (e.g. land, machinery) (Markel, 2014).

Mahmud, Shah and Becker (2012) note that one crucial element of empowerment relates to access to and control of material, human, and social resources. Thus, access to resources without the power to control the resources defeats the purpose and process of empowerment. Access to resources reflects the rules and norms which govern the distribution and exchange of these resources in different institutional areas (Kabeer, 1999: 437). While external conditions are necessary for empowerment, material resources alone do not inevitably lead to the process of empowerment if people do not have internal feelings of competence (Grabe, 2012). Thus, distributing resources to people without the necessary competencies of utilising these resources slows down the process of empowerment.

A number of authors (e.g. Kabeer, 1999; 2005; Grabe, 2012) conceptualize empowerment as an increase in power, which relates to control or a real ability to effect change. Power is defined by Max Weber as "(1) the probability that (2) someone in a social relationship (3) will be able to achieve his or her will, that is, whatever is desired, (4) despite resistance, and (5) regardless of the bases upon which this probability rests" (cited in Uphoff, 2005: 221). Uphoff (2005) distinguishes two types of power which are power resources and power results. Power resources relate to accumulated, invested and exchanged assets; whereas, power results are the activities that are achieved by using these resources (Uphoff, 2005; Grabe, 2012). The authors further argue that an empowerment process needs to not only provide access to the resources, but also allow people to use them effectively to gain more "power" (Uphoff, 2005; Grabe, 2012). In this regard, two types of power are identified: power to cause radical change and, power which relates to one's ability to gain control of the resources (Uphoff, 2005; Grabe, 2012).

Empowerment is a relational concept, and does not occur in a vacuum (Samman and Santos, 2009). Thus, people are empowered or disempowered in relation to others with whom they interact with (Mosedale, 2005; Samman and Santos, 2009) or importantly, relative to themselves at a previous time (Mosedale, 2005). Hence Uphoff (2005) argues that power can either be "variable-sum" or "zero-sum". Variable-sum refers to a process through which the powerless can be empowered without altering the nature and the levels of power which is already held by existing powerful groups which results in mutual gains of power (Uphoff, 2005; Read, 2012). On the other hand, "zero-sum" power is any gain in power by one group which inevitably results in a reduction of the power exercised by others (i.e. gains for some entailing equivalent losses for others) (Uphoff, 2005; Read, 2012).

In a similar vein, Rowlands (1995:13) introduced four categorisations of power. These are:

(1) power over (i.e. controlling power which leads to the ability to resist manipulation);
(2) power to (power that results in creation of new possibilities and actions without domination);
(3) power with (a sense of the whole being greater than the sum of individuals and is achieved when people are acting in a group); and
(4) power from within (i.e. the spiritual and uniqueness that resides in each individual that makes us truly human). This type of power enhances self-respect and self-acceptance within one's self and in others (Rowlands, 1995:13).

Importantly, Ibrahim and Alkire (2007) distinguish between the concept of real and pure power. They argue that real and pure power is the kind of power that is socially beneficial rather than socially harmful; and that the empowered individuals co-operate to achieve joint aims (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007). Real and pure "power" is also manifested in situations where empowered people may be unable to attain certain goals (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007). Put differently, real power entails a situation whereby an empowered individual can either succeed or fail to achieve their goals – which is normal. It only becomes problematic when an empowered individual always gets things their own way, which may reflect abuse of power.

Grabe (2012) also highlights another type of power which is one of the major contributors to social inequalities. This power is known as structural power, and is manifested when dominant individuals have more control over resources than subordinates. She further argues that institutionalised inequities in the distribution of resources contribute to power imbalances and gender-based norms that create an environment that legitimizes and perpetuates women's subordinate status (Grabe, 2012). Institutionalised inequities exist in many developing countries where women's roles and abilities are limited by the existence of gender inequalities. Gender inequities have been visible within the area of property rights and land ownership, in particular, being recognized as a violation of women's human rights (Deere and Leon, 2001; Pena, Maiques and Castillo, 2008).

3.3.3 Opportunity Structure

Agency, resources, and achievements depend on institutional structure (also referred to as opportunity structure) which influences the opportunities that are available to people. According to Samman and Santos (2009:3), opportunity structure refers to "the broader institutional, social, and political context of formal and informal rules and norms within which actors pursue their interests". It is also referred to as the "rules of the game" or the organizational and social systems that govern activities and mediate relations between individuals and their social and economic environment (Markel, 2014). Similarly, opportunity structure is also defined as the formal and informal contexts within which actors operate (Alsop and Heinsohn, 2005).

Agency, which is a kind of process freedom, is concerned with processes (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007). These processes are shaped by institutions in which people live (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007). The formal and informal laws, regulations, norms, and customs determine whether individuals and groups have access to assets, and whether these people can use the assets to achieve desired outcomes (Alsop and Heinsohn, 2005; Markel, 2014). Norms include gender defined roles, taboos, prohibitions and expectations such as whether or not it is appropriate for women to be in public spaces, hold certain types of jobs, or manage money (Markel, 2014). Institutional climate include legal and policy structures, economic systems, market structures, marriage, inheritance and education systems (Markel, 2014). The institutional climate also include access to information, inclusion/participation, accountability, and local organizational capacity, and this defines and shape empowerment of people (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007). Thus, people's agency can be constrained by the opportunity structure which includes the social and political structures in which people live (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007). Opportunity structure offers people the ability to exert agency fruitfully (Alsop and Heinsohn, 2005; Alsop et al., 2006; Ibrahim and Alkire 2007; Alkire 2008). Put differently, "the opportunity structure is what enables (or not) agents to become effective" (Samman and Santos, 2009:3).

The opportunity structure is affected by three main influences: the permeability of the state; the extent of elite fragmentation; and the state's implementation capacity (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007). An effective exercise of agency entails the overcoming of significant institutional and informal obstacles, as well as the domination of existing elite groups or of unresponsive public

programmes (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007). The exercise of human agency therefore requires a "change in the rules of the game", i.e. the formal and informal institutions that condition the effectiveness of human agency (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007).

3.3.4 Achievements

Although empowerment is theorised as an iterative process whereby relationships between components are likely to be reciprocal; there is also evidence that suggests that changes in resources and agency may lead to positive outcomes (Grabe, 2012). Put simply, achievements refer to the outcomes of agency (Kabeer, 2005; Grabe, 2012). Individuals' beliefs in their abilities to exercise control over events that affect their lives is related to human achievements and well-being outcomes, especially, one's experience of self-worth (Grabe, 2012). In contrast, it is also possible that a woman may be empowered, but choose not to participate in the domains that are typically assessed as empowerment outcomes (e.g. political) (Grabe, 2012).

3.4 DIMENSIONS OF EMPOWERMENT

According to Rowlands (1995), empowerment operates within three dimensions. These dimensions are: personal, relational, and collective. The dimensions are depicted in figure 3.1.

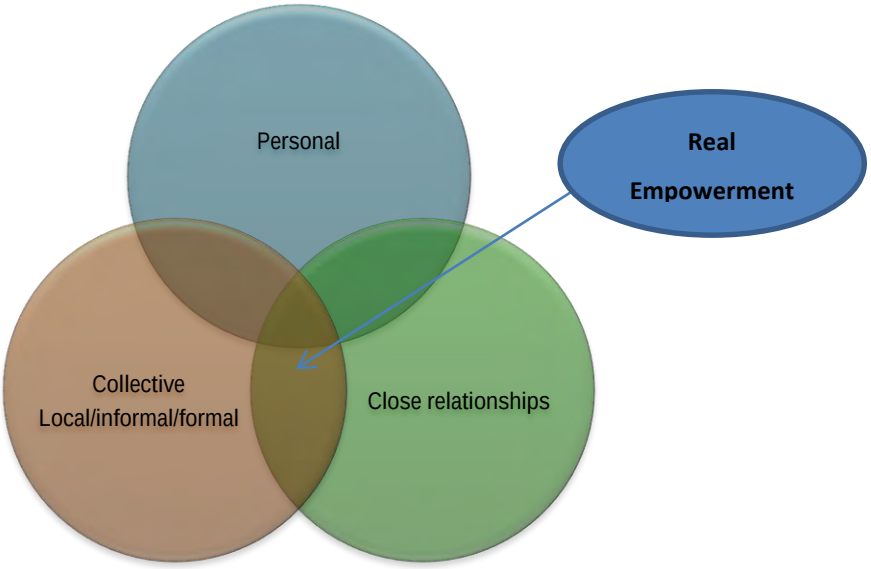

Figure 3.1: The three dimensions of Empowerment
(Source: Rowlands, 1995:143)

Personal: Within the personal dimensions, individuals develop a sense of self, individual confidence, capacity, and also entails undoing the effects of internalised oppression (Rowlands, 1995).

Close Relationships (Relational): Within the relational space, individuals develop the ability to negotiate, and influence the nature of relationships and decisions made within it (Rowlands, 1995).

Collective: The collective dimension entail individuals working together to achieve a more extensive impact than each could have done on their own (Rowlands, 1995).

Real empowerment happens at the intersection of the three dimensions of empowerment (depicted by the intersection of the three circles). Thus an empowered person is able to function effectively within the three dimensions of empowerment and be able to negotiate and influence the nature of relations and decisions that are made within the different spaces. The preconditions to which agency is exerted is discussed next.

3.5 PRECONDITIONS TO EXERT AGENCY

Several authors (e.g. Narayan-Parker, 2002; Kabeer, 2005; Khwaja, 2005; Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007) have discussed the important elements that are vital for effective empowerment to take place. For example, Kabeer (2005) mentions that in order for people to be able to make real choices in their lives, there are certain conditions that must be fulfilled. These conditions are that:

(1) there must be alternatives which relates to one's ability to have chosen differently;
(2) these alternatives must not only exist, they must also be seen to exist; and
(3) the capacity to exercise strategic choices should not violate other people's capacity (Kabeer, 2005:14).

In addition, Khwaja (2005) argues that any "workable" definition of empowerment needs to include two main aspects which are influence and information, which allow people to express their preferences and have an effective impact on particular decisions. The other four main elements that are fundamental to the empowerment process are: access to information,

inclusion and participation, accountability and local organizational capacity (Narayan-Parker, 2002; Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007).

3.6 DOMAINS OF WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT

Malhotra et al. (2002) suggest that women's empowerment occurs within the following domains: economic, socio-cultural, interpersonal, legal, political, and psychological. Mosedale (2005:247) concurs that empowerment is a socio-political concept that includes cognitive, psychological, economic and political components. "These domains are very broad in scope, as within each domain, there is a range of sub-domains within which women may be empowered" (Malhotra et al., 2002:13). Even though empowerment in one domain may result in a positive change in another dimension, this is not always the case. For example, a woman may be economically empowered, but suffers from physical and psychological abuse from the spouse. In another example by Alkire (2008), the author states that a woman may be very empowered as a mother but she may be excluded from the labour force by social conventions. However, a number of authors (e.g. Moyle, Dollard and Biswas, 2006; Batliwala, 2007) believe that the overall empowerment of women is crucially dependent on economic empowerment. Thus, the ability of having economic strength is the basis of social, political and psychological power in society (Mayoux 2000; Moyle et al., 2006). Therefore, women with a low economic status would benefit both socially and psychologically from economic strength (Moyle et al., 2006). The concept of women's economic empowerment is discussed next.

3.7 WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

In the same way that there is no generally agreed definition of empowerment, there is no standard definition of women's economic empowerment and the term is often used loosely (GSDRS, 2010). Several researchers have propounded different definitions. For example, Moyle et al. (2006) define economic empowerment as the ability to generate income which promotes independent decision-making in spending income. Kabeer (2012) concurs that economic empowerment is about making markets work for women at the policy level; and empowering women to compete in these markets (at the agency level). Economic empowerment can also be defined as increasing women's capacity to participate in, contribute to and benefit from growth processes in ways that recognize the value of their contributions,

respect their dignity and make it possible to negotiate a fairer distribution of the benefits of growth (OECD, 2011). Similarly, women's economic empowerment can be defined as having access to and control over the means to make a living on a sustainable and long term basis, and receiving the material benefits of this access and control (Mosedale, 2005; Choudhury, 2009). The definition of economic empowerment "goes beyond short-term goals of increasing women's access to income and looks for long term sustainable benefits, not only in terms of changes to laws and policies that constrain women's participation in and benefits from development, but also in terms of power relationships at the household, community and market levels" (Mosedale, 2005: 247). In the context of Zimbabwe, the BBWEE framework defines women's economic empowerment as the "process which increases women's real power over economic decisions that influence their lives and priorities in society (Government of Zimbabwe, 2012). This can be achieved through equal access to and control over critical economic resources and opportunities, and the elimination of structural gender inequalities in the market" (Tornqvist and Schmitz, 2009; Kabeer, 2012; Government of Zimbabwe, 2012), including a better sharing of unpaid care work (Tornqvist and Schmitz, 2009; Kabeer, 2012). Although the sharing of unpaid care work is a critical aspect of achieving economic empowerment, it would take a long way before the majority of African women achieve this.

Women's economic empowerment happens when people are able to imagine the world's current economic arrangements differently (UNIDO, 2010). Thus, a woman is economically empowered when she has both the ability to succeed and advance economically and has the power to make and act on economic decisions (Malhotra and Schuler, 2005). Economic empowerment increases women's access to economic resources and opportunities including jobs, financial services, property and other productive assets, skills development and market information (OECD, 2011).

3.8 COMPONENTS OF ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

Similar to the components of empowerment, the components of economic empowerment revolves around the same themes of agency, access to resources and opportunity structure. These components have been discussed earlier in section 3.3. Figure 3.1 depicts the components of economic empowerment and how these themes are related.

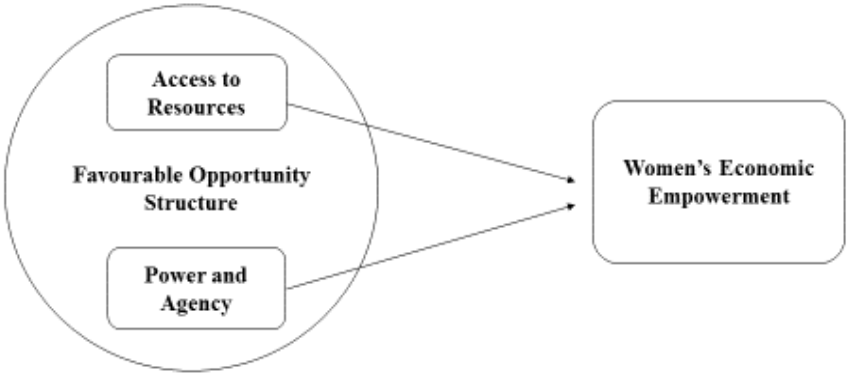

Figure 3.1: Women's economic empowerment
Source: Author's compilation

Figure 3.1 indicates that access to resources, power and agency and a favourable opportunity structure are necessary for achieving women's economic empowerment.

3.9 A FRAMEWORK OF UNDERSTANDING ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

Markel (2014) proposes a framework of understanding economic empowerment. The framework is based on the themes of access to resources, power and agency. Although the framework does not show the component of opportunity structure, it is crucial to mention that a favourable opportunity structure is essential for achieving women's economic empowerment. In other words, without a conducive environment that fosters women to achieve economic independence, women's economic empowerment will always be a distant reality. As a result, Markel's framework has been adjusted to include opportunity structure. The adapted framework is presented in figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2: A framework for understanding women's economic empowerment
Adapted from Markel (2014)

According to the framework presented above, economic empowerment is comprised of two inter-related components. These components are economic advancement and; power and agency. Both components are necessary to achieve better lives for women and their families. Economic gain and success (i.e. economic advancement) promote women's power and agency. Similarly, when women are able to own and control resources (power) and are also able to define and make choices (agency), they will be able to advance economically. In order to achieve women's economic empowerment, a favourable political and socio economic environment must exist (i.e. opportunity structure). Thus, governments should endeavour to address the underlying factors that contribute and favour women's economic empowerment.

According to Markel (2014), the outcome of women's economic empowerment are that when women have access to resources, training is necessary for them to fully utilise the provided resources, women will have alternative work options and they are able to generate income (i.e. money). Similarly, when women exercise their power and agency, they are able to control their time, they are able to make strategic decisions about their lives and this improves their self-confidence.

3.10 SIGNIFICANCE OF WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

Women's economic empowerment cannot be divorced from economic growth and development of any nation (UNIDO, 2010). This is why the managing director for the International Monetary Fund states that "when women do better, economies do better" (Lagarde, 2013). This is due to the fact that economic empowerment of women is central to poverty alleviation (Mayoux, 2000). Investing in women can be viewed as a "smart move" that enables developing countries to break the poverty cycle (UNIDO, 2010). It is a win-win situation that benefits not only women, but the society more broadly (Golla et al., 2011). Income-generating activities empower not just an individual; but also benefits the entire family" (Mayoux, 2000; Alkire et al., 2013). An empowered woman is able to ensure that her children's well-being is given high priority because she is able to take care of her own physical and mental well-being (Alkire et al., 2012). Economic empowerment enables women to increase expenditure on their well-being and their children which is in fact the main concern in the poverty alleviation paradigm. Women's control over decision-making is also beneficial to men through preventing leakage of household income to unproductive and harmful activities (Mayoux, 2000).

Investing in gender equality and women's economic empowerment results in the creation of more jobs and decent work for women and this promotes sustainable growth and development (UN, 2012). Thus, investing in women yields a significant gender dividend (UN, 2011:9). When women are economically empowered, they become self-sufficient and they are able to provide their families with better opportunities which ultimately contribute to the development of the community (UNIDO, 2010). A growing body of literature research shows that women invest extra income in their children thereby providing a route to sustainable development (Golla, et al., 2011). Women's economic empowerment also reduces women's vulnerability to domestic violence and HIV infection (ICRW, 2015). Importantly, investing in women enables them to play a critical role at each stage of the value chain; from production of raw materials to marketing, distribution and support to the final consumer (Bachelet, 2011).

3.11 MEASURING WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

According to Peterman (2015), there is no "right" measure for economic empowerment. There are multiple measures that are used to measure economic empowerment (Peterman, 2015). The measures used depends on the research objective, the sample used and the setting or cultural norms of the study context (Peterman, 2015). The setting or cultural norms of the study context is necessary because the meaning and terms used to describe empowerment varies considerably across socio-economic contexts (Malholtra and Schuler, 2005; Kabeer, 2011).

Importantly qualitative and quantitative and or mixed research methods are used to measure women's economic empowerment depending on the research objectives of the study. Although both methods are used, the majority of efforts to measure women's economic empowerment primarily focus on quantitative outcomes, while a few studied have adopted qualitative measures. Examples of more qualitative approaches include appreciative enquiry and qualitative self-assessment enquiry (Jupp, Ali and Barahona, 2010). Quantitative measures have used aspects such as increased access to credit or increased business revenue to measure economic empowerment (GSDRS, 2010). Whilst some evaluations include variables to show that women have been empowered, a few evaluations have succeeded in proving that specific aspects of women's power have actually increased (e.g. more household resources dedicated to women's consumption and personal time, increased women's decision making and control over household resources, and increased autonomy). It have also been acknowledged in the literature that positive outcomes in financial terms do not necessarily equate to empowerment (Kabeer, 2005). At times positive outcomes in financial terms can even have disempowering effects (Martinez, 2006).

Since there is no prescribed measure of economic empowerment, this section draws from the works of several researchers such as Markel (2014) and organisations that support research and programmes on women's economic empowerment (e.g. Donor Committee for Enterprise Development (DCED) and United States Agency for International Development (USAID). Since the focus of this study is based on women's economic empowerment through agriculture entrepreneurship, the measurement indicators are drawn from a basket of indicators which measure women's economic empowerment at household-level dynamics and indicators for measuring women's economic empowerment in agriculture known as the Women's Empowerment Agricultural Index (WEAI).

A basket of indicators to measure women's economic empowerment at household-level dynamics proposed by Markel (2014) is presented first. Thereafter, indicators for measuring women's economic empowerment in agriculture known as the Women's Empowerment Agricultural Index (WEAI) is discussed.

3.11.1 Indicators for measuring women's economic empowerment at household level

According to Markel (2014), there are five categories of measuring economic empowerment. These are (1) access to income, (2) decision making regarding income, productive assets, investments, and expenditures, (3) division of labour, time, responsibilities, (4) freedom/restriction of mobility, and (5) changes in domestic violence and household conflict/tension. Table 3.2 presents a detailed basket of indicators which are used to measure women's economic empowerment at household level.

Table 3.2 Basket of indicators to measure women's economic empowerment at household-level Dynamics

Category	Indicator	Research methods	Indicator Reference	Rationale for use
1. Access to income	Additional net income accrued to an individual as a result of the programme per annum.	Quantitative	Revised Donor Committee for Enterprise Development (DCED) Standard Universal Indicator for individual unit of analysis	Measuring access to income is important for measuring the impact of economic empowerment programmes in alleviating poverty. Numeric increases are assumed to be associated with reduction in poverty
	Perception of increase in income of the programme per year.	Qualitative	Markel, 2014	
2. Decision making regarding income, productive assets, investments, and expenditures.	% of recent household expenditure decisions in which women have participated over the previous X weeks.	Quantitative	USAID Women's Empowerment Agricultural Index (WEAI); World Bank, Gender in Agriculture	Women's input in financial decision-making strongly correlates with their level of employment, relative to their husband's, and women's ability to maintain control over their income is closely linked to their empowerment. The most frequently used individual and household-level indicators of empowerment to include domestic decision-making, which covers finances, resource allocation, spending, and expenditures; access to or control of resources, such as cash, household income, and assets; and mobility or freedom of movement.
	Ability to make decisions regarding programme-relevant household expenditures.	Qualitative	USAID Women's Empowerment Agricultural Index (WEAI)	

Category	Indicator	Research methods	Indicator Reference	Rationale for use
3. Division of labour, time, responsibilities	Number of hours per day saved due to intervention. Number of hours spent on domestic chores per day	Quantitative	Women's Empowerment Agricultural Index (WEAI)	Economic empowerment programmes must carefully consider programme impacts on time poverty. Time-use surveys are used to examine gendered divisions of labour and potential trade-offs between time spent on market, non-market, and leisure activities. The information can increase a programme's understanding of women's time poverty and linkages with their economic empowerment.
	Ability to make decisions regarding use of time.	Qualitative	Markel, 2014	
4. Freedom/restriction of mobility.	Access to programme-relevant services, within and outside their residential locality, as compared to community norms.	Quantitative or Qualitative	Gender Sensitive Indicator Guide; Markel, 2014	Freedom of movement or mobility is particularly useful in areas where women's presence in public spheres is constrained. At the household level, a woman may or may not have freedom of movement due to her agency or lack thereof within her home.
	Changes in attitudes towards women and their mobility	Qualitative	International Center for Research on Women (ICRW)	
5. Changes in domestic violence and household conflict/tension.	Number of known incidences of domestic violence in the community. Changes in attitudes towards violence against women.	Qualitative	World Health Organization WHO; ICRW	Gender-based violence (GBV) disproportionately affects women. Studies find GBV and threats of abandonment to be central elements in processes that shape women's disempowerment. Other studies show that household violence can be the unintended consequence of a woman's increased access to income and key resources.

Source: Markel (2014:19-21)

Apart from the categories of measuring women's economic empowerment, the table also depicts the indicators, the type of research method, the source of the indicator and the reasoning behind the use of the indicator.

3.11.2 Measuring empowerment using the Agricultural Index

The Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) is a new survey-based index designed to measure the level of empowerment and inclusion of women in the agricultural sector (Alkire et al., 2013). The WEAI was launched in February 2012, and is widely used by various organisations and individuals for assessing the empowerment of women in agriculture (Malapit, Sproule, Kovarik, Meinzen-Dick, Quisumbing, Ramzan, Hogue and Alkire, 2014). The index was developed jointly by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI), and the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) (Malapit et al., 2014).

The WEAI builds upon previous research (e.g. Narayan-Parker, 2005; Alsop et al. 2006; Ibrahim and Alkire 2007) which debated on how to measure women's empowerment in agriculture (Alkire et al., 2013). The WEAI was developed because most indexes and indicators that were previously used to monitor progress on gender equity were gender-blind and had little emphasise on the agricultural sector (Malhotra and Schuler 2005; Alkire, Meinzen-Dick, Peterman, Quisumbing, Seymour and Vaz, 2012; Alkire et al., 2013). In addition, the WEAI puts more emphasis on those aspects of empowerment that relate directly to agriculture, which is crucial because women's empowerment is a multidimensional process that draws from and affects many aspects of life, including family relationships, social standing, physical and emotional health, and economic power (Alkire et al., 2013). Due to the fact that women's ability to generate income within the agricultural sector is severely inhibited by several factors such as land ownership and control of productive physical and human capital, establishing the level of empowerment also requires measuring women's ability to make decisions (Alkire et al., 2013). Apart from evaluating women's decision making roles, it is important to consider the material and social resources that are needed to carry out those decisions (Alkire et al., 2012).

The WEAI is a diagnostic tool that can be utilised in various ways. It can be used (1) to assess the state of empowerment and gender parity in agriculture, (2) to identify key areas in which empowerment needs to be strengthened, and (3) to track progress of empowerment over time in a particular geographical region (Alkire et al., 2012). This is important because it enables policy makers to design policies and programmes that can be used to solve problems in a specific geographic area (Malapit et al., 2014). For example, where women are disempowered due to lack of credit facilities in agriculture, policy makers and practitioners could find ways of assisting women by providing such credit (Malapit et al., 2014). Similarly, where women are disempowered because of lack of land ownership rights, then decision makers could put in place policies that enable women to own land.

The WEAI is made up of two sub-indices (Alkire et al., 2012). These sub-indices are (1) the five domains of empowerment (also known as the 5DE) in agriculture and (2) the Gender Parity Index (GPI) (Alkire et al., 2012). Figure 3.3 depicts a diagrammatic expression of how the WEAI is constructed and the two sub-indices are explained after the diagram.

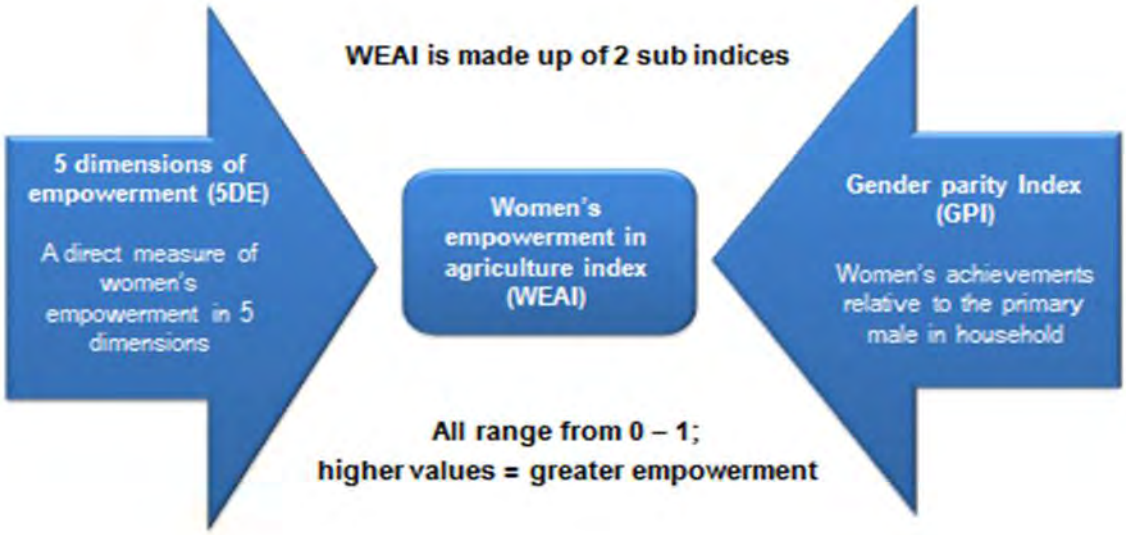

Figure 3.3: The WEAI index

Source: Malapit and Kovarik (2013)

3.11.2.1 The Five Domains (5DE) of empowerment in agriculture sub-index

This sub index reflects the percentage and degree to which women are empowered in the five domains of empowerment in agriculture. Domains (or dimensions) refer to the multiple areas of life in which a person may exercise agency and empowerment (Samman and Santos, 2009; Alkire et al., 2012; Alkire et al., 2013). In agricultural research, there are five domains that reflect priorities of empowerment emanating from the USAID based agricultural programs (Alkire et al., 2012; Alkire et al., 2013). These five domains are (1) decisions about agricultural production, (2) access to and decision making power about productive resources, (3) control of use of income, (4) leadership in the community, and (5) time allocation (Alkire et al., 2012; Alkire et al., 2013; Malapit, Kadiyala, Quisumbing, Cunningham and Tyagi, 2013). These five domains are explained in detail in the discussion below.

1. **Production:** This dimension measure decisions about agricultural production and refers to sole or joint decision making about food and cash crop farming, livestock and

fisheries, and autonomy in agricultural production, with no judgment on whether sole or joint decision making is better or reflects greater empowerment (Alkire et al., 2013).

2. **Resources:** This dimension concerns ownership of, access to, and decision making power about productive resources such as land, livestock, agricultural equipment, consumer durables, and credit (Alkire et al., 2013). The resource domain reflects control over assets that enable one to make further key operational decisions concerning agricultural production (Alkire et al., 2013). Thus, the resource domain focuses on whether the woman can potentially make decisions over the asset as in most cases, the asset is owned by her household and whether she makes decisions on how to utilise the asset (Alkire et al., 2013).

3. **Income:** This dimension concerns sole or joint control over the use of income and expenditures (Alkire et al., 2013). Control over income is a key domain for exercising choice, and it reflects whether a person is able to benefit from her or his efforts (Alkire et al., 2013). This is especially important in agriculture because, in many cases, even where women produce crops or livestock, they are marketed by men who then keep most of the income (Alkire et al., 2013).

4. **Leadership:** This dimension concerns leadership in the community. In this case, it is measured by membership in economic or social groups and comfort speaking in public (Alkire et al., 2013). The leadership domain captures key aspects of inclusion and participation, accountability, and local organizational capacity, which Narayan-Parker (2002) cites as key elements of empowerment (Alkire et al., 2013).

5. **Time:** This dimension concerns the allocation of time to productive and domestic tasks and satisfaction with the time available for leisure activities (Alkire et al., 2013). Time, like income, reflects the ability of women to enjoy the benefits from agricultural production (Alkire et al., 2013). Women's time constraints not only are a burden on women themselves but can negatively affect the care and welfare of children and other family members as well (Alkire et al., 2013).

3.11.2.2 The Gender Parity Index (GPI) sub-index

The Gender Parity Index (GPI) measures gender parity. Gender parity gap is defined as the difference in the male and female empowerment scores for households (Sraboni, Malapit, Quisumbing and Ahmed, 2014). The GPI reflects the percentage of women who are empowered or whose empowerment score meets or exceeds that of the men in their households (Alkire et al., 2012). The gender parity gap is zero if the woman is empowered or her empowerment score is greater than or equal to that of the male in her household (Sraboni et al., 2014). For those households that have not achieved gender parity, the GPI shows the empowerment gap that needs to be closed for women to reach the same level of empowerment as men (Alkire et al., 2012).

3.11.2.3 Indicators for Measuring Empowerment Using WEAI Index

Direct or Indirect

Direct measures of empowerment focus on the expansion of an individual's ability to advance their goals that they value in life without fear of social condemnation (Alkire et al, 2013). On the other hand, the indirect measures (or proxy indicators) of empowerment emphasise on the possession of resources necessary for empowerment such as education or asset ownership (Alkire et al., 2013). Several studies use both the direct and indirect measures of empowerment (Alkire et al., 2013). The WEAI put more emphasis on direct measures of empowerment (such as decision making power over assets) (Alkire et al., 2013). Although the emphasis is on direct measures of empowerment, data is also collected on indirect measures (such as the size of the asset) (Alkire et al., 2013). Information on indirect measures of empowerment is crucial for policymakers to examine how direct measures are affected by various determinants (Alkire et al., 2013). This study captures both aspects of the measure.

Intrinsic or Extrinsic

Here the critical issue is whether to measure the empowerment that people value or the powers that they have even if they do not value it? (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007; Alkire et al., 2013). The WEAI relates to the power that an individual possess, such as personal decision making about agricultural production assets and use of discretionary income (Alkire et al., 2013). However, the WEAI also captures relative autonomy in production, which is patterned after Ryan and

Deci (2000, 2011) (Alkire et al., 2013). Relative autonomy relates to the agency that the individual values (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007; Alkire et al., 2013). The current study emphasises on measuring empowerment that people values, which is critical effective empowerment to take place.

Universal or Context-Specific

Empowerment is fundamentally context-specific and it is shaped by socio-economic, cultural, and political conditions of the country (Malhotra and Schuler 2005). Empowerment and agency are highly cultural concepts, which relate to system of norms, values and beliefs of a society (Samman and Santos, 2009). The construction of the WEAI has enabled comparison of indicators across different contexts (Alkire et al., 2013). The WEAI uses a general list of assets, agricultural activities, and expenditure categories, and this list is modified to suit the local context of the specific country (Alkire et al., 2013). For this study, the general list of assets, agricultural activities and expenditure categories has been adapted to suit the Zimbabwean context.

Level of Application

The indicators of empowerment could be measured at different levels (Alkire et al., 2013). Levels are administrative boundaries and they are common in most countries (Alsop and Heinsohn, 2005; Alkire et al., 2013). Alsop and Heinsohn (2005) propose three levels of measuring empowerment and these are: local, intermediary and macro. The local level of empowerment comprise of the immediate vicinity of a person's everyday life which is an area contiguous with their residence (Alsop and Heinsohn, 2005). The intermediary level comprises of vicinity which is familiar but which is not encroached upon on an everyday basis. This level is between the residential and national level (Alsop and Heinsohn, 2005). Lastly, the macro level comprises vicinity which is the furthest away from the individual and is likely to be the national level (Alsop and Heinsohn, 2005). In a similar vein Alkire et al. (2013) and Ibrahim and Alkire (2007) expand the measures of empowerment to four levels which are: household, group, community, and national. Importantly, a certain degree of empowerment at one level does not necessarily reflect the same degree of empowerment at other levels (Alsop and Heinsohn, 2005). For example, individuals or communities empowered at the local level are not necessarily empowered at the intermediary or macro level (Alsop and Heinsohn, 2005). This study focuses on measuring empowerment at the local or household level, particularly on women's everyday lives.

Individual or Collective

In this study, the measures of empowerment captures the individual agency, although group agency can be inferred using individual data (Alkire et al., 2013). Importantly, primary data collection using WEAI is obtained by interviewing men and women within the same households to ascertain the level of agency and empowerment of women (Alkire-Foster, 2011; Alkire et al., 2013). Since the objective of this study is not to measure the gender parity index, primary data for this study was collected from women only.

Who Assesses: Self or Others?

Empowerment has objective and subjective dimensions (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007). As a result, some researchers have queried the validity of self-reported indicators because they are influenced by bias due to adaptive preferences, frame of reference, mood, the sequence of the questionnaire, and the presence of other household members during the interview or information available to the respondent (Alkire et al., 2013). At the same time, leaving out the self-reported indicators undermines the entire measurement exercise due to the fact that empowerment is an individually located concept (Alkire et al., 2013).

Subjective wellbeing has a clear and instrumental value and is a key component of the other dimensions of empowerment, and the achievement of the final result (Alkire, 2007). Subjective wellbeing contributes a richer perspective to the understanding of human experience and values, and particularly the importance of its non-material components (Alkire, 2007). Samman (2007) advocates a two-pronged approach to psychological wellbeing based on:

1) perceptions of *meaning in life*, defined by the respondent based on his/her own unique potential; and
2) the ability to strive towards excellence in fulfilling this idea.

In order to capture *subjective wellbeing*, measurement of life satisfaction and happiness namely, material wellbeing (food, income, housing); health, work, physical safety, relations with friends and with family, education, one's neighbourhood, the ability to actively help others, and wellbeing from spiritual/religious/philosophical beliefs is undertaken (Alkire, 2007; Samman, 2007). For completeness, the WEAI survey includes both objective and self-reported indicators (Alkire et al., 2013). This study utilises both objective and self-reported indicators. Additionally, subjective wellbeing indicators were drawn from the interviews which highlights improvement in quality of life.

Quantitative or Qualitative

Although, the WEAI is constructed using quantitative data, the survey instruments and overall WEAI analysis is usually validated and contextualized using qualitative case studies to explore the concepts of empowerment, particularly about the five domains (also known as the 5DE) (Alkire et al., 2013). Qualitative case studies are important in capturing people's everyday experience using their own words and this assist in understanding what empowerment means within different contexts (Alkire et al., 2013). Using quantitative and qualitative data is not a trade-off: rather, the quantitative data is complimented with qualitative methods for meaning and interpretation (Alkire et al., 2013). This study adopts a mixed methods approach which utilises both the quantitative and qualitative research approaches. This approach is necessary for triangulation and it allows for a deeper analysis to take place.

3.12 ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT INDICATORS ADOPTED FOR THIS STUDY

The economic empowerment indicators used in this study were selected from the basket of indicators proposed by Markel (2014) and the Women's Empowerment Agricultural Index (WEAI). Using Markel (2014), the selected economic empowerment indicators are: (1) access to income, (2) decision making regarding income, productive assets, investments, and expenditures. From the WEAI, the domain of (1) decisions about agricultural production, (2) access to and decision making power about productive resources, (3) control of use of income (Alkire et al., 2012; Alkire et al., 2013). These indicators were selected in line with the objectives of the study and were adopted to suit the study context.

Importantly, the researcher also used subjective wellbeing to indicate level of empowerment in particular for improvement in quality of life (Alkire, 2007). Subjective wellbeing contributes a richer perspective to the understanding of human experiences and values, and particularly the importance of its non-material components (Alkire, 2007).

3.13 CONCLUSION

This chapter reviewed literature on women's empowerment and in particular women's economic empowerment. The chapter began by reviewing literature on women's empowerment as a build-up to understanding the concept of women's economic empowerment.

Issues discussed under women's empowerment include the definition of empowerment and the components of empowerment. The dimensions and domains of women's empowerment were also presented. From there, the chapter focused on women's economic empowerment. Here, the concept of women's economic empowerment was defined together with its components. Thereafter, the framework for understanding women's economic empowerment and the significance of women's economic empowerment to economic development was discussed. The chapter wraps up with a discussion on how women's economic empowerment is measured and how these measures were adapted for the study. The following chapter gives an overview of the Zimbabwe, in particular the study site.

CHAPTER 4

OVERVIEW OF ZIMBABWE AND THE STUDY SITE

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on the theoretical framework of the study. Chapter 4 provides an overview of the political, economic and social status of the country since its independence from the British government in 1980. A brief overview of Mashonaland West Province which is the study site is presented. The objective of the chapter is to position the country of Zimbabwe into the minds of the readers to enable them to understand the context of the empirical findings. The study site for the research project is Mashonaland West province in Zimbabwe. The chapter begins by giving a brief background of the country from 1980 to mid-year of 2015. Under the brief background, issues such as the population size, language, religion, literacy levels and climate are discussed. This is followed by the presentation of the political landscape, the economic and social overview of the country. Lastly, a brief overview of Mashonaland West province is outlined.

4.2 BRIEF BACKGROUND OF ZIMBABWE

Zimbabwe (pronounced as /zɪmˈbɑːbweɪ/) officially known as the Republic of Zimbabwe is a landlocked country located in Southern Africa (www.mapsofworld.com). It is situated between the Zambezi and Limpopo Rivers (United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015a; www.mapsofworld.com). Zimbabwe has four neighbouring countries. It borders South Africa to the south, Botswana to the west, Zambia to the northwest, and Mozambique to the east (United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015; www.mapsofworld.com). Zimbabwe covers a total area of 150,871 square miles (which is approximately 390,757 square kilometers) (United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015a; www.mapsofworld.com), with one percent is covered by water (www.africaw.com). Figure 4.1 shows the map of Zimbabwe and the map of Africa.

Figure 4.1: Map of Zimbabwe including the map of Africa

Source: African Development Bank Group (2015)

Capital City: The capital and largest city of Zimbabwe is Harare and other major cities include Bulawayo, Gweru, Kadoma, Kwekwe, Masvingo and Mutare (United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015a). The country is divided into ten administrative provinces (as demarcated by the different shades of green and grey) and sixty two districts (United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015). The provinces are: Harare, Bulawayo, Manicaland, Masvingo, Midlands, Matabeleland North, Matabeleland South, Mashonaland East and Mashonaland Central and Mashonaland West. Mashonaland West province is the study site for the project.

Population: According to the country's population estimates of 2012, Zimbabwe has a population of approximately 13 061 239 people with 52% being females and 48% males (Zim Stats, 2012; United Nations, 2014). Thirty eight (38) percent of the population lives in urban areas, while the majority lives in rural areas where they are mostly peasant farmers who grow

crops and rear animals mainly for personal consumption (www.africaw.com). Harare is the most populous city in Zimbabwe with an estimated population of 2 123 132 people (Zim Stats, 2012).

Ethnicity: Zimbabwe is multi ethnic (Boyle and Sheen, 1997). The ethnic groups are approximately 71% Shona, 16% Ndebele, 11% other African, 1% white, and 1% mixed and Asian (www.nationsonline.org).

Languages: English is the official language of Zimbabwe. There are sixteen other recognised languages in Zimbabwe (worldpopulationreview.com), but the main local languages are Shona and Ndebele (www.nationsonline.org). The other languages include Chewa, Chibarwe, Kalanga, Koisan, Nambya, Ndau, Shangani, Tonga, Tswana, Venda and sign language (www.nationsonline.org).

Literacy: Zimbabwe has the highest literacy rate in Africa (Hanlon, Majengwa and Smart, 2013). On average, the majority (90%) of the population are literate (www.nationsonline.org). Similarly, Hanlon et al. (2013) mention that 93% of adults are literate, and even at independence in 1978, the literacy rate was 78% which was also the highest in Africa during that period. According to United Nations (2014) the literacy rate of Zimbabwe rose from 85% in 1994 to 99% in 2011 amongst 15-24 year olds.

Religion: Zimbabwe is a multi-religious society (Boyle and Sheen, 1997). It is estimated that between 60 and 70 percent of Zimbabweans belong to mainstream Western Christian denominations such as Roman Catholicism, Anglicanism, and Methodism (www.best-country.com/). Nonetheless, over the years a variety of indigenous churches and groups have emerged from these mainstream denominations (www.state.gov). These indigenous churches groups mainly fall under Charismatic Evangelical denominations, primarily known as Pentecostal churches and apostolic groups (www.state.gov). Apparently, the Charismatic Evangelical denominations were the fastest growing religious classifications in the years 2000 to 2009. While Zimbabwe is to a larger extent a Christian state, a significant number of the population believe to a varying degree in indigenous religion (www.best-country.com/). According to Boyle and Sheen (1997) traditional religion is practiced by approximately 40 percent of the population. Islam accounts for approximately one percent of the population

(www.state.gov). The other religious groups include, Orthodox Christianity, Judaism, Hinduism and Buddhism (www.state.gov).

Climate: The climate of Zimbabwe is tropical and is markedly moderated by altitude (Jingura, Matengaifa, Musademba and Musiyiwa, 2011). The warm rainy season starts in mid-November and ends in April (Marufu, Chanayiwa, Chimonyo and Bhebhe, 2008). The rainy season is typically a time of heavy rainfall from November to March (Tuan, Hilger, MacDonald, Clemens, Shiraishi, Vien and Cadisch, 2014). Rainfall is highly variable in Zimbabwe, from one year to another and between different parts of the country (Hanlon et al., 2013). Hanlon et al. (2013) further state that since independence in 1980, the country received below average rainfall. This implies that farmers in Zimbabwe can expect a drought once every three years. The cool dry season starts from April to mid-November (Marufu et al., 2008).

Environment: Deforestation remains a problem, as the majority of Zimbabweans continue to harvest natural resources such as firewood without the enforcement of any prohibitive regulations (Gwate, 2015; United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b) This highlights the fact that poverty, which can lead individuals to rely on resources such as firewood to sustain themselves, is intimately connected with environmental sustainability (United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b; UNDP, 2012).

4.3 POLITICAL CONTEXT

The president of the Republic of Zimbabwe is Robert Mugabe and has been at the realm since 1987 (www.nationsonline.org). President Mugabe has dominated the country's political system since independence in 1980 (www.nationsonline.org). Between 1980 and 2013 nineteen amendments were effected to the Lancaster House Constitution, including the Constitutional Amendment Number 18, of December 2007 which ushered in a new era of harmonised elections (Makumbe, 2009; United Nation Zimbabwe, 2014). The March 2008 harmonised elections simultaneously covered local government, parliamentary, senatorial and presidential elections (Makumbe, 2009; United Nation Zimbabwe, 2014). However, results were disputed and failed to produce a peaceful political and economic environment in the country (Makumbe, 2009; United Nation Zimbabwe, 2014). This led to the Southern Africa Development

Community (SADC) mediation, under the facilitation of the South African President at the time, Mr Thabo Mbeki (Mukuhlani, 2014; United Nation Zimbabwe, 2014).

The mediation negotiations culminated in a power sharing agreement in an effort to end the resulting stalemate (Mukuhlani, 2014). The three political parties that were involved in the negotiations were Zimbabwe African National Union-Patriotic Front [ZANU (PF)] led by President Robert Mugabe, Movement for Democratic Change (Tsvangirai) led by Morgan Tsvangirai, Movement for Democratic Change (Mutambara) led by Professor Arthur Mutambara (Mukuhlani, 2014). On 15 September, 2008 the three major political parties from the March 2008 harmonized elections signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) and the Global Political Agreement, which formed the basis for the formation of an Inclusive Government that governed the country between 13 February 2009 and 31 July 2013. Some researchers (e.g. Mukuhlani, 2014) argued that the Inclusive Government was a "marriage of convenience" which was forced by circumstances on the ground, i.e. the turbulent political and economic environment. Zimbabwe experienced some level of political and economic stability under the leadership of the Government of National Unity (GNU) (United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015a). The elections that followed in 2013, saw the end of the Government of National Unity (GNU) at the end of June 2013 (African Development Bank Group, 2013). ZANU (PF) won the majority vote under severe allegations of vote rigging and political violence (Ncube, 2013; Raftopoulos, 2013). Post 2013 elections, the economic stability that was experienced during the GNU era is deteriorating (Ncube, 2013; Raftopoulos, 2013).

4.4 ECONOMIC CONTEXT

At independence in 1980, Zimbabwe inherited one of the most structurally developed economies and effective state systems in Africa (Brett, 2005; Chiripanhura and Makwavarara, 2000). Oshikoya (1994) concurs that Zimbabwe inherited a well-diversified economy and a well-developed physical infrastructure, with good potential for significant economic growth. However, Boyle and Sheen (1997) state that by the end of British colonialization in 1980, the bulk of the economy was left in the hand of a small white minority.

The Zimbabwean economy has, since independence in 1980, undergone a series of transition emanating from both internal and external business and political environments (Saungweme,

2013). The serious political and economic blunders made by the Government during its first decade into power led to what Coltart (1992) refers to as "a severe political and economic mess". Due to the political crisis that was looming in the country, the government in early 1991 announced the Framework for Economic Reform (1991-95), which set out a time frame for reducing support to parastatals. The objective was the implementation of programmes for improving efficiency and management, as well as commercialisation and privatisation of public enterprises (Sichone, 2003). The announcement of the Framework for Economic Reform saw the birth of ESAP in 1990 (Saunders, 1996; Sichone, 2003). The objective of the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) was meant to herald a new era of modernised, competitive, export-led industrialisation (Saunders, 1996).

Unfortunately, ESAP resulted in disastrous consequences to what Mswelanto (2013) refers to as an "infant economy which was not ready to compete in a global market place". ESAP stifled the development and growth of infant indigenous industries, while a protracted gross exploitation of labor ensued which resulted in an erosion of the working class buying power (Mswelanto, 2013). The extensive cuts in government expenditure led to reduced investment in social infrastructure (Mswelanto, 2013) amid a pattern of spiralling government deficit and debt. The effects of ESAP was also exacerbated by the severe drought in Zimbabwe in 1992 such that by the end of the drought in November 1992, more than half the population of the country was receiving some form of drought relief assistance from government (Saunders, 1996).

Further, in 1998, the Zimbabwe government launched the second stage of its economic structural adjustment programme known as the Zimbabwe Programme for Economic and Social Transformation (ZIMPREST) (Sichone, 2003). ZIMPREST outlined macro-economic reforms through to the year 2000 (Sichone, 2003). During the period 2000-2008, Zimbabwe plunged into severe economic doldrums (Makumbe, 2009; United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015a). The same period is dubbed by Sachikonye (2009) as a "lost decade", while other researchers (such as Bratton and Masunungure, 2011; Mukuhlani, 2014) refer to the same period as the "crisis decade". The United Nations Zimbabwe (2015a) view the same period as the "climax of Zimbabwean crisis".

The country that was previously known as the "bread basket of Africa" suddenly became the "basket case of Southern Africa" (Mupedziswa, 2011). The prices of most goods increased

rapidly for no apparent reason, resulting in the widespread impoverishment of the majority of the people while a few got richer. By the end of 2001, the inflation rate had reached a double figure (Sichone, 2003). In 2001, the inflation rate rose to over 100 per cent (Sichone, 2003). The situation kept on deteriorating. For instance, a civil servants salary in October 2008 was approximately 24 billion Zimbabwean dollars which could not buy even two litres cooking oil (Mukuhlani, 2014). The economic decline was exacerbated by the breakdown in the rule of law, as demonstrated by the ZANU-PF militants' occupation of white-owned commercial farms, the granting of four billion dollars to the former combatants (also known as war veterans) in the form of gratuities, and the costly military intervention in the Democratic Republic of Congo (Sichone, 2003).

The key sectors of the Zimbabwean economy were crippled during the "lost decade crisis" (Makumbe, 2009; Mupedziswa, 2011; Mukuhlani, 2014). Yet, the agricultural sector is the backbone of the economy (The Herald, 2015). Zimbabwe's economy was purely anchored on farming and agricultural based industries (The Herald, 2015). Most of the companies which closed had a direct link with agriculture and a downfall in agriculture also meant their closure. (The Herald, 2015). The agricultural sector nearly collapsed, such that there was a chronic food crisis (Makumbe, 2009). Kapuya, Meyer and Kirsten (2013) concur that between 2000 and 2008 Zimbabwe faced acute and persistent maize shortages. According to Makumbe (2009) the fast track land reform resulted in a 50 per cent reduction in agricultural production. The fast track land reform is also referred to as the controversial land reform programme or "*Jambanja"* in the vernacular language. During this period, between 5.2 million and 7.2 million people in Zimbabwe were in either chronic or transient food insecurity, or both (Kapuya et al., 2013). The so called fast- track land reform process, which began in 2000, caused the eviction of experienced and committed white commercial farmers from the land (Makumbe, 2009). Most of that land was allocated to inexperienced indigenous farmers (Makumbe, 2009). Another challenge relating to land redistribution is that land tenure insecurity is extremely high in Zimbabwe (USAID, Online). Indigenous farmers who have been resettled on the land, remain uncertain about the strength of their property rights (USAID, Online). A situation that could have been avoided if the land redistribution was extensively planned. For example, the indigenous farmers had to be trained and equipped with resources to be able to produce at a level that would sustain food security in the country. Besides, this process was supposed to be gradual.

The manufacturing sector suffered extensively during the same period, to the extent that approximately 80 per cent of the nation's manufacturing companies had witnessed declining output volumes (Makumbe, 2009). Most multinational companies such as Lever Brothers scaled down and the majority of the companies relocated (Mukuhlani, 2014). The mining sector also experienced serious problems, resulting in a decline in production of nearly 50 per cent (Makumbe, 2009). The severe shortage of foreign currency exacerbated the situation because most companies within the mining sector were unable to import the spare parts and other related inputs that was necessary for them to stay afloat (Makumbe, 2009).

During the same period, there were severe fuel shortages that have been ongoing for several years (Makumbe, 2009). In the health sector, there were serious shortages of medical drugs, a brain drain of both nurses and doctors, and malfunctioning medical equipment (Makumbe, 2009). Medical fees become prohibitive, to the extent that many poor people were now resorting to traditional medicines, such as herbs, for their treatment of most illnesses (Makumbe, 2009). All this happened during the period when the nation was facing a very high rate of HIV/AIDS infections (Makumbe, 2009). Many people especially the poor lost their lives due to the malfunctioning and crippled health care system (Saunders, 1996; Mlambo, 2014). Some researchers such as Saunders (1996) refers to these death as "the ESAP deaths".

Disastrous economic policy reforms also resulted in declining employment opportunities (Sichone, 2003; Makumbe, 2009). Consequently, there was an exodus of young skilled professionals to the diaspora continued with South Africa, Britain, North America and even Australia being the preferred destinations (Sichone, 2003).

By July 2008, the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was estimated to have contracted by a cumulative 50.3 percent; official inflation peaked at 231 million percent; capacity utilisation in industry fell below 10 percent by January 2009; poverty remained widespread; infrastructure had deteriorated; the economy had become more informalised; and severe food and foreign currency shortages were experienced (United Nations, 2014; United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015a). The country also faced sanctions from some western countries (United Nations, 2014; United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015a), and these economic sanctions are hampering economic growth in Zimbabwe.

Consequently, socio-economic crisis resulted in widespread political discontent and disaffection with the ZANU PF regime (Makumbe, 2009). The results of the March 2008 elections is alleged to have proved the populace's dissatisfaction with the ZANU (PF) government (Makumbe, 2009). The ruling ZANU PF is alleged to have lost the elections to the main opposition party Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) (Makumbe, 2009). This resulted in widespread political violence amid the existing socio-economic crises. To end this political violence, Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) mediation, under the facilitation of the then South African President, Mr Thabo Mbeki was requested (Mukuhlani, 2014).

The GNU crafted the Medium Term Plan (MTP) 2010-2015, which aimed to provide the overarching national development framework from mid-2010 to mid-2013 as the country's premier economic and social policy document. The aim of the framework was to establish macro-economic stability, transform the economy, reduce poverty and create jobs, amongst other things (United Nations, 2014). In order to reduce the negative effects of the economic meltdown, Zimbabwe adopted a multicurrency payment system in February 2009 which in itself marked a significant shift in economic policy (Kramarenko, Engstrom, Verdier, Fernandez, Oppers, Hughes, McHugh and Coats, 2010; United Nations, 2014). Although the introduction of the multi-currency payment system brought some level of economic stabilisation, it also brought some challenges (Kramarenko et al., 2010). These challenges include the fact that prices and wages were now paid in U.S. dollars, while South Africa is Zimbabwe's main trading partner (Kramarenko et al., 2010). The shortages of small-denomination U.S. dollar banknotes and coins posed difficulties for retailers (Kramarenko et al., 2010).

The GNU further developed and implemented the Short Term Emergency Recovery Program (STERP), and a revised 2009 National Budget denominated in US Dollars (United Nations, 2014). These policy measures stamped out the rampant hyperinflation, and provided a holistic macroeconomic framework for economic recovery (Kramarenko et al., 2010; United Nations, 2014). These policy shifts paid off as the economy responded positively, with GDP growing from 5.4% in 2009 to 9.6% in 2010 (United Nations, 2014; United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b). Industrial capacity utilisation improved from 32.3% in 2009 to 43.7% in 2010 (United Nations, 2014). Other decisive macroeconomic changes included price liberalisation, removal of surrender requirements on export proceeds, removal of exchange restrictions, the end of the

Grain Marketing Board (GMB) monopoly, imposition of budget constraints on Parastatals and the reform of monetary and fiscal policy frameworks and institutions such as the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe (RBZ) (United Nations, 2014). Although Zimbabwe experienced improved economic growth rates, this still did not translate to any meaningful growth in productive employment and hence poverty remained high (United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b). This was likely caused by the weak connections between the growth sectors and other key sectors of the economy (United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b).

The period 2009-12 was marked by an economic rebound following the introduction of the multiple currency system, with the economy growing at an average rate of 11.0 percent per annum (African Development Bank Group, 2015). However, GDP growth decelerated sharply from 10.6% in 2012 to 4.5% in 2013 and an estimated 3.1% in 2014 (African Development Bank Group, 2015). Post 2013 elections, the Zimbabwe's economy did not show any signs of recovery (Mail and Guardian, 2014). Economic growth slowed to around 3% in 2014, and only a marginal improvement is expected for 2015 and 2016, with persistent de-industrialization and a growing informal economy (African Development Bank Group, 2015). Only a marginal (3.2%) improvement in real GDP is projected in 2015. According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the election year uncertainty shattered growth prospects (Mail and Guardian, 2014). The IMF suggests that in order for Zimbabwe to overcome its economic challenges, the government needs strong macro-economic policies and debt relief along with a strategy to clear its arrears (Mail and Guardian, 2014).

Land Reform: At independence, Zimbabwe inherited a racially skewed agricultural land ownership pattern where white large-scale commercial farmers, consisting of less than 1 percent of the population occupied 45 percent of agricultural land (Ministry of Lands and Rural Resettlement, 2015). Seventy-five (75) percent of this land is situated in the high rainfall areas of Zimbabwe, where the potential for agricultural production is high (Ministry of Lands and Rural Resettlement, 2015). Equally important, 60 percent of the large-scale commercial land was unutilised (Ministry of Lands and Rural Resettlement, 2015).

Among the unresolved contentious issues from the Zimbabwe liberation struggle was the redistribution of land from about 4,500 commercial farmers to between 8 to 7.5 million Zimbabweans in 1980 (United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b). During the first two decades after independence, the Zimbabwean population became increasingly restive, demanding that land

be more equitably redistributed (United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b). The Government succumbed to the pressure to solve the land redistribution issue.

The land reform that unfolded since 2000 resulted in a major reconfiguration of both land use and the economy of Zimbabwe (Chitsike, 2003). Over 7 million hectares of land was transferred to small-scale farm units (the A1 model) and larger scale farms (the A2 model) (Chitsike, 2003). The A1 model has plots with 5 to 6 hectares arable land and in excess of 6 hectares for grazing (Kapuya et al., 2013). The A2 model has farms ranging from 15 to 50 hectares in the peri-urban areas, from 15 to 250 hectares in Agro-ecological region 1, and from 350 to 2000 hectares in the Agro-ecological region (Kapuya et al., 2013).

The Fast Track Land Reform Programme in Zimbabwe has emerged as a highly contested reform process both nationally and internationally (Matondi, 2012). The image it portrayed to the entire world was that of widespread displacement of commercial white farmers and subsequent replacement by African people, which resulted in a change to agricultural-related production systems, facets and processes (Matondi, 2012). The reality, however, is altogether more complex (Matondi, 2012). Importantly, Zimbabwe has since 2000 struggled to transfer ownership of the land to the new settlers, a situation that has frustrated its plans to issue 99-year leases and offer letters that are tradable and bankable (Chenga, 2015). This has negatively affected agricultural production in the country as the resettled farmers are not able to secure farming loans using their land as collateral.

4.5 SOCIAL CONTEXT

This section highlights some of the social issues affecting Zimbabwe. These issues include among others, poverty, unemployment, HIV and AIDS, child mortality rate and migration.

Poverty: In 2011, 72.3% of all Zimbabweans were considered poor, whilst 62.6% of the households in Zimbabwe are deemed poor (United Nations, 2014; UNDP, 2012). Poverty is more prevalent in rural areas compared to urban areas with about 76% of the rural households considered poor compared to 38.2% of urban households (United Nations, 2014; UNDP, 2012). Individual poverty prevalence is 84.3% in rural areas compared to 46.5% in urban areas, while extreme poverty is 30.3% in rural areas compared to only 5.6% in urban areas (United Nations,

2014; UNDP, 2012). Post 2013 elections, poverty levels remained high (African Development Bank Group, 2013).

Unemployment: The problems of unemployment and underemployment is evident in most developing countries including Zimbabwe (Chiripanhura and Makwavarara, 2000). Underemployment is the greatest challenge in Zimbabwe, where highly skilled people are working in low paying jobs or low skill jobs and where people are working part-time when they prefer to be full-time (United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b). The decline in formal employment, with many workers engaged in poorly remunerated informal jobs, has a direct bearing on both poverty and hunger (United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b). In 2011, 94% of paid employees received an income equal to or below the total consumption poverty line (TCPL) for an average family of five, while three out of every four employed persons in Zimbabwe are classified as 'vulnerable employment' (United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b). Post 2013 elections, unemployment levels remained high (African Development Bank Group, 2013).

HIV and Aids: According to the 2011 Zimbabwe Demographic Health Survey (ZDHS), 15% of Zimbabwean adults aged 15-49 years are infected with HIV, which is a three-point decline from 18% in 2007 (UNDP, 2012; United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b). In Zimbabwe, HIV and AIDS is a feminised epidemic, with HIV prevalence among women at 18% and men at 12% (UNDP, 2012; United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b). The prevalence rate for 15 to 24 year olds is 5.5% for 2011 which is much higher in women (7.8%) than in men (3.6%) (UNDP, 2012; United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b). In general, people with better education and socioeconomic status have lower HIV prevalence (UNDP, 2012; United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b). There is geographical heterogeneity with HIV prevalence, which in urban areas is 17% and rural areas 15% (UNDP, 2012; United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b).

Child mortality rates: In Zimbabwe both under-five and infant mortality rates are improving but at a snail's pace (UNDP, 2012; United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b). The under-five mortality rate declined from 102 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1999 to 84 per 1,000 in 2010/2011 (UNDP, 2012; United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b). The infant mortality rate declined from 65 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1999 to 57 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2010/2011 (UNDP, 2012; United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b). Even so, this decline is lagging behind in achieving the MDG 4 target which aimed at reducing child mortality by two thirds between 1990 and 2015 (UNDP, 2012; United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b). Rural children have

a higher mortality rate than their urban counterparts. This could be explained by the poor socioeconomic status and lower educational level of the mother (UNDP, 2012; United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b).

Migration: Zimbabwe has a long history of migration and has been both a sender and receiver of migrants (United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b). Inward migration has mostly been from nearby countries such as South Africa, Malawi and Mozambique for both economic and political reasons (United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b). Outward migration can be categorized into different phases such as: migration of political exiles to neighbouring countries and abroad; labour migration to neighbouring countries like South Africa; flight of white Zimbabweans during the war of liberation and after independence (1970-1990) and as a result of land redistribution in 2000; and migration of skilled professionals to the diaspora (United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b). Regarding the migration of skilled professionals to other countries, Makumbe (2009) concurs that many school teachers, nurses, doctors and other skilled people have migrated from Zimbabwe to countries such as Botswana, South Africa, the United Kingdom, the United States of America, New Zealand, Canada and Australia. Although the exact number of people who have emigrated is not known, it is estimated that 2 to 3 million Zimbabweans are working and living in the Diaspora (United Nations Zimbabwe, 2015b). Approximately, 1 to 1.5 million Zimbabweans are conservatively estimated to be living in South Africa alone, with the rest residing in other countries the world over (Makumbe, 2009; United Nations, 2015a). One of main causes of outward migration is deteriorating political and socioeconomic conditions in the country that began particularly around 2000 (Makumbe 2009).

4.6 OVERVIEW OF MASHONALAND WEST PROVINCE

Mashonaland West province has six districts. These are Makonde, Chegutu, Hurungwe, Kadoma, Kariba and Zvimba. For this project, primary data was collected from four districts namely, Makonde, Chegutu, Kadoma and Zvimba. Figure 5.3 below presents the map of Zimbabwe and Mashonaland West province.

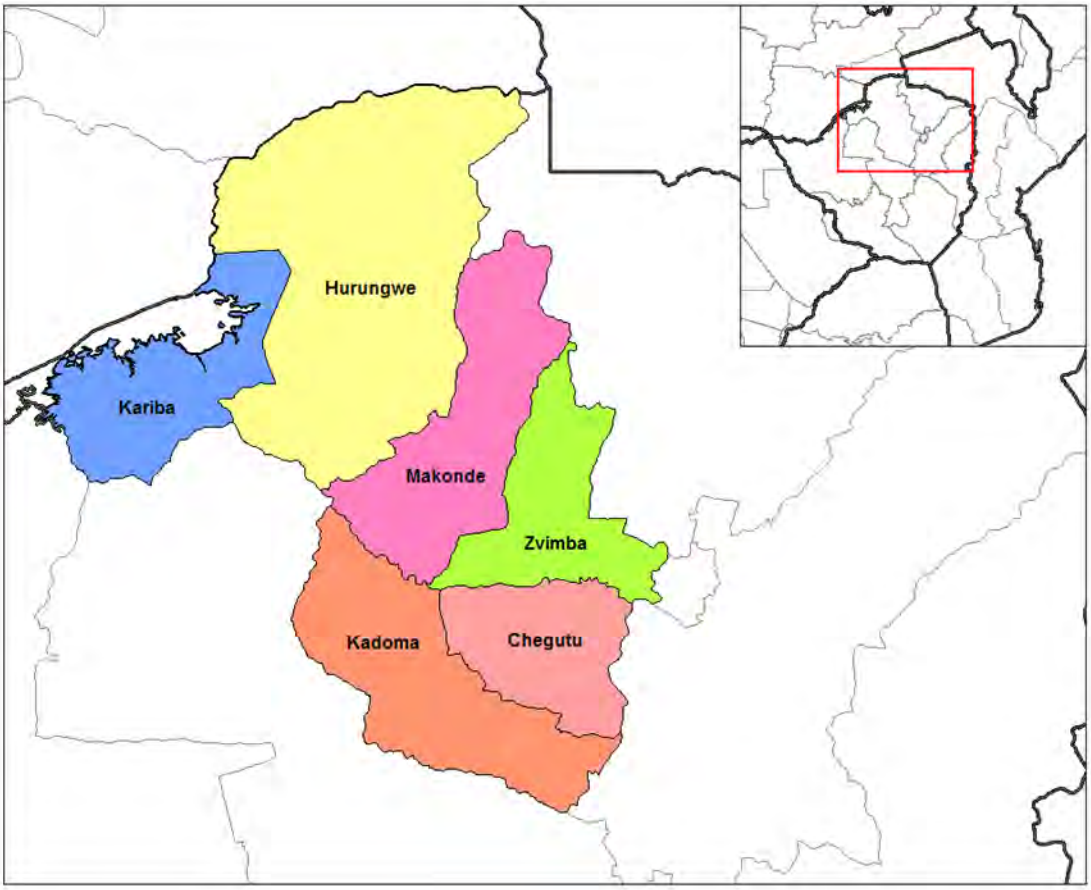

Figure 5.3: Study area – Mashonaland West province in Zimbabwe

Source:

https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/1/1d/Mashonaland_West_districts.png

Mashonaland West province is home to the president of Zimbabwe, Mr Robert Mugabe. The population of Mashonaland West province according to the Zimbabwe Population Census of 2012 is approximately 1 501 656 people out of a population of 13 061 239 (Zim Stats, 2012). The population of males and females is 747 475 and 754 181 respectively (Zimbabwe Population Census, 2012). The capital city of Mashonaland West province is Chinhoyi which is situated approximately 118 km from the capital city, Harare (www.distancesfrom.com). Mashonaland West province has poverty levels of 72.4% (Mangudhla and Chitemba, 2013).

Major economic activities in Mashonaland West province

The major economic activities of the province are agriculture, mining and tourism (www.zou.ac.zw). In terms of agriculture, the three Mashonaland provinces, that is Mashonaland East, Mashonaland Central and Mashonaland West, are the richest because they receive good rainfall during the rainy season (Makumbe, 2009). Mashonaland West province is unique because it is regarded as the bread basket of Zimbabwe (Sigauke and Katsaruware, 2014). The province is located in agro-ecological region II, where the annual rainfall is above 900 millimetres (Sigauke and Katsaruware, 2014). Farming is the major activity in the province and the major crops grown are tobacco, cotton, wheat and maize. Cattle is widely reared for dairy products and beef production (Sigauke and Katsaruware, 2014).

4.7 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study is to explore the nexus between women's economic empowerment and women entrepreneurship in agriculture in Mashonaland West province in Zimbabwe. In particular, the main aim of the study is to investigate whether economic empowerment of women through entrepreneurship in agriculture can lead to improved quality of lives for women. In order to achieve the objective of the study, this chapter positioned the country of Zimbabwe into the minds of the readers to enable them to understand the context of the empirical findings. Hence, the chapter provided an overview of Zimbabwe including the study site which is Mashonaland West province. The major issues discussed include the brief background of the country, the political, economic and social context of the country since its independence in 1980 up to mid-year in 2015. Lastly, a brief overview of the study site was outlined including the population, and the major economic activities of the province. The following chapter presents the Research Methodology adopted for the study.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided a detailed overview of Zimbabwe, including the study site. This chapter presents the research methodology used for the study. A research method is simply a technique used for data collection (Bryman and Bell, 2007). This chapter reviews literature on research methods that relate to the study. The research design and the techniques used for data collection and analysis are also discussed. The chapter concludes by discussing issues of reliability and validity including pretesting of questionnaires and how research ethics was incorporated in the research study. Figure 5.1: presents the main framework for research and how the key elements of research namely philosophical worldviews, research designs and research methods are connected. Thus, the framework below provides a summary of the major elements to be presented in this chapter.

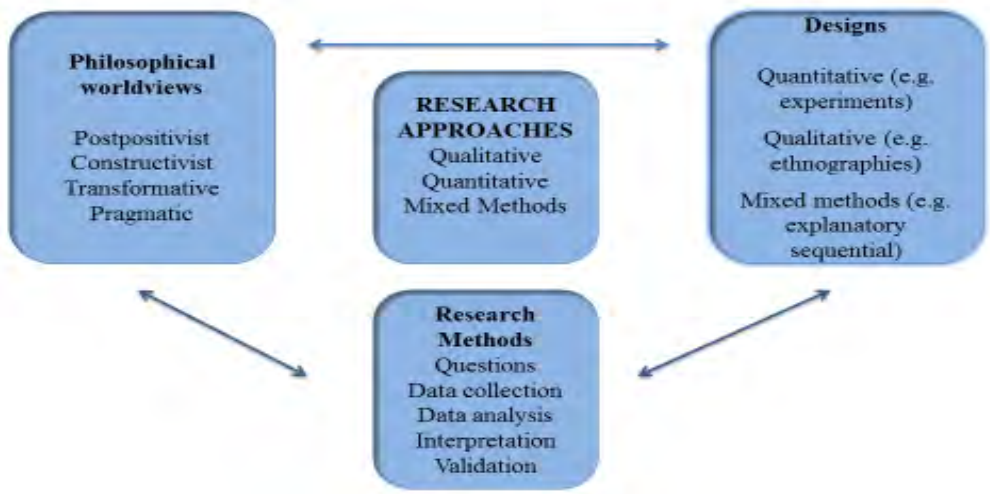

Figure 5.1: A framework for Research: The connection of Worldviews, Designs and Research Methods

Source: Creswell (2013)

5.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM "PHILOSOPHICAL WORLDVIEWS"

Research paradigm is also referred to as philosophical worldviews (Creswell, 2013); epistemologies and ontologies (Crotty, 1998). Creswell (2013) states that worldviews are general philosophical orientations about the world and the type of research that the researcher brings into the study. Worldviews are discipline specific and are based on past research experience of the supervisor (adviser) and the researcher. Skinner, Hester and Malos (2013) concur that the choice of method that a researcher adopts is influenced by one's epistemology and theoretical position. In addition, the type of beliefs held by individual researchers influence the research approach that one adopts (i.e. qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods). Mertens (2014:17) agrees that "research is a product of the values of the researcher and cannot be independent of them". Importantly, Hamlin (2015) mention that irrespective of the influence of the research paradigm, the nature of research questions determines the research approach to be adopted.

There are four main types of research paradigms or worldviews discussed in research methodology literature and these are: postpositivism, constructivism, transformative and pragmatism (Creswell, 2013; Mertens, 2014). The last two paradigms (transformative and pragmatism) are somewhat newcomers in the research community and they are frequently recognised in research literature (Mertens, 2014). The four research paradigms are summarised in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: The four major research paradigms or worldviews

Postpositivism	Constructivism
✓ Determination ✓ Reductionism ✓ Empirical observation and measurement ✓ Theory verification	✓ Understanding ✓ Multiple participant meanings ✓ Social and historical construction ✓ Theory generation
Transformative	**Pragmatism**
✓ Political ✓ Power and justice orientation ✓ Collaborative ✓ Change-orientation	✓ Consequences of actions ✓ Problem centred ✓ Pluralistic ✓ Real-world practice orientation

Source: Creswell (2013)

Postpositivism: Positivists assume that the goal of research is only to describe a phenomenon that can be directly observed and objectively measured (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Positivists use deductive reasoning to put forward theories that are tested using fixed predetermined research designs (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Thus, it is also referred to as the scientific method and the empirical science of research (Creswell, 2013). The postpositivism assumption represents the traditional form of research which is more inclined towards quantitative than qualitative approaches to research (Creswell, 2013). Postpositivism in this case refers to the thinking after positivism thereby challenging traditional research (Creswell**,** 2013; Mertens, 2014). Postpositivism hold claims that only scientific research is absolutely objective, valid, certain and accurate (Mertens, 2014). In a nutshell, this type of research paradigm holds a deterministic approach; reduces ideas into a small and discrete set to test; carefully observes and measures reality that exists and; verifies existing theory (Creswell**,** 2013). The derived meaning is varied (multiple), and is often subjective based on the individual's social and historical backgrounds (Creswell**,** 2013).

Constructivism: Constructivism criticises the positivist belief that there is an objective truth (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Constructivism is also known as interpretivism (Creswell and Creswell, 2005; Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006; Wahyuni, 2012). Constructivists hold a positive view that the world is fundamentally and mentally constructed (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Because of this reasoning, constructivists do not search for the truth (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Instead they seek to understand the rules people use to make sense of the world in which people live and work in by examining what happens in people's minds (Creswell, 2013; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). In other words, constructivists draw meaning from people's life experiences (Carson, Gilmore, Perry and Gronhaug, 2001; Bunniss and Kelly, 2010; Creswell, 2013). Constructivists' assumptions are more inclined to the qualitative approach to research (Creswell, 2013).

Within qualitative research, there is the concept known as reflexivity which is embedded in this type of research approach (Hsiung, 2008; Lambert, Jomeen and McSherry, 2010; Shaw, 2010). Reflexivity is accepted as a method where qualitative researchers can validate their research practices (Lambert et al., 2010). Reflexivity is central to debates on subjectivity, objectivity, and ultimately, the scientific foundation of social science knowledge and research (Shaw, 2010). It is perceived as an integral process in qualitative research whereby the researcher reflects continuously on how their own actions, values and perceptions impact upon

the research setting and can affect data collection and analysis (Hsiung, 2008). It is imperative for qualitative inquiry because it conceptualizes the researcher as an active participant in knowledge (re)production rather than as a neutral bystander (Hsiung, 2008). Although the process of reflecting is integral to qualitative research, researcher bias must not be allowed to infiltrate through the research process.

Transformative: The transformative paradigm arose partly because of the dissatisfaction with the traditional research approaches (i.e. positivism and constructivism) by people who had experienced discrimination and oppression such as the feminists, people of colour, indigenous people, people with disabilities and members of the gay and lesbian communities just to mention a few (Mertens, 2014). The transformative assumption holds that research enquiry needs to be intertwined with politics and political change which confront social oppression of marginalised people in our society (Creswell, 2013). This type of research enquiry gives a picture of issues being examined, the people to be studied and the change that is needed (such as a feminist perspective) (Creswell, 2013).

Pragmatism: Pragmatists do not take a particular position on what makes good research (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Instead, they believe that any research that is based on either objective, observable phenomenon or subjective meanings has potential to produce valuable knowledge depending on the research questions of the study (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Here the worldview assumption of pragmatists is that instead of researchers focusing on the methods, they (the researchers) must divert their focus on the research problem and use all approaches to understand the problem (Creswell**,** 2013; Mertens, 2014). The focus of pragmatism is on practical, applied research where different viewpoints on research and the subject under study are helpful in solving the research problem (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Pragmatists emphasise the relationship between theory and practice (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). This approach advocates for the pluralist approaches to gaining knowledge of the social problem and hence uses a mixed methods approach to research (Creswell, 2013). Thus, "mixed methods researchers advocates for the use of multiple methods, different worldviews and different assumptions, and different forms of data collection and analysis methods" (Creswell, 2013:11). This study adopts a pragmatic approach to research because it utilises a mixed method research approach.

5.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is also referred to as the strategies of inquiry (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011). According to Bryman and Bell (2007) a research design provides a framework for data collection and analysis. Skinner, Hester and Malos (2013) concur that research design is the interaction of the process of investigation and technique for data production with theory, ontology and epistemologies. Put simply, a research design focuses upon turning the research questions and objectives into a research project (Saunders et al., 2009). Researchers not only select the research method, but they also decide on the type of enquiry within qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods research approaches (Creswell, 2013). This study adopts a mixed method research design and this method is explained below.

5.3.1 Mixed Method Research Approach

According to Creswell (2013) there are three research approaches namely qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods. These approaches occupy different positions on the research continuum, with the qualitative and the quantitative research approaches occupying the two extreme ends of the continuum (Creswell, 2013). While the purist quantitative researchers argue vehemently for the superiority of hard generalisability of data, the purist qualitative researchers centre their argument on the depth, thickness and richness of descriptive data (Hamlin, 2015). The mixed method researchers advocate for a rather balanced and complimentary research approach. Qualitative research is an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem (Creswell, 2013). Qualitative research does not involve the use of numerical data, but rather derive meaning of the research problem by analysing words (Punch, 2014). Quantitative research on the other hand is an approach for testing objective theories by examining relationships between variables. This type of empirical research involves numerical data (Punch, 2014). The mixed method research approach resides at the middle of the continuum because it incorporates elements of both qualitative and quantitative research approaches in a single study (Creswell, 2013); with the researcher mindfully creating a research design that answers the research objectives (Hamlin, 2015). Mixed method research is a natural complement to the traditional qualitative and quantitative research approaches (Hamlin, 2015); and may involve philosophical assumptions and theoretical frameworks (Creswell, 2013). This form of enquiry assumes that this approach provides a more holistic understanding of the research problem compared to the other two research approaches (Creswell, 2013). Mixed

methods approach ensures triangulation because it uses multiple data sources (Mertens and Hesse-Biber, 2012; Creswell, 2013; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). The use of mixed method approach also enhances validity of the data collected (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Denscombe, 2008; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010). Combining different data sets enhance transferability, generalizability and practical importance of a research study (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2004; De Lisle, 2011). Although, the use of mixed methods has several benefits, there are challenges associated with this type of research design. For example, Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) argue that there is a need for mixed method researchers to be methodologically "bilingual". Thus, mixed method researchers ought to be proficient in both qualitative and quantitative data research methods for them to be able to integrate the data set properly. Another challenge is that mixed method approach often leads to extensive data collection (Bryman 2008). This may result in challenges with data analysis especially with reference to the level of integration of the two different data sets (Bryman 2008; Cameron, 2008). For this study, the analysis of data was more inclined towards quantitative data analysis. Further mixed methods should not be confused with multiple-methods research (Hamlin, 2015). Multiple-methods research refers to the use of two or more research methods of either qualitative or quantitative methods within a single study (Hamlin, 2015).

5.3.2 Mixed Methods Research Procedure

According to Creswell (2013), there are three different procedures that can be used for mixed methods research approach. These are: convergent parallel mixed methods, explanatory sequential mixed methods and exploratory sequential mixed methods.

5.3.2.1 Convergent parallel mixed methods

Convergent parallel mixed methods is a form of mixed methods research design in which the investigator converges or merges qualitative and quantitative methods in order to have a comprehensive understanding of the research problem (Creswell, 2013). In this case the investigator collects the data simultaneously or rather roughly at the same time and then integrates the research findings to understand the research problem (Creswell, 2013; Hamlin, 2015).

5.3.2.2 Explanatory sequential mixed methods

This is a form of mixed methods research design in which the researcher first collects quantitative data which is later followed by the collection of qualitative data (Creswell, 2013; Hamlin, 2015). This type of mixed method research design is called "explanatory" because the quantitative data results are further explained by qualitative data (Creswell, 2013). This research design is also "sequential" because the initial stage of quantitative data collection is followed by the collection of qualitative data (Creswell, 2013). Thus, the quantitative core component which is deductive is used to inform and compliment the qualitative component (Hamlin, 2015).

5.3.2.3 Exploratory sequential mixed methods

Here the researcher begins with the qualitative research phase which explores the views of the participants (Creswell**,** 2013). The data is then analysed and used to build into the second phase in which quantitative data was collected (Creswell**,** 2013). This process allows the researcher to identify suitable instruments and to identify specific variables to be further explored in a follow up quantitative phase (Creswell, 2013: Hamlin, 2015). Here the qualitative core component is inductive as it feeds into the quantitative component (Hamlin, 2015).

5.3.3 Mixed Methods Research Procedure for the study

This study draws from both explanatory sequential mixed methods and exploratory sequential mixed methods. Although the researcher draws from both types of mixed methods approach, the research method used is more inclined towards the exploratory sequential mixed methods. The mixed research procedure was divided into three stages. First, focus group discussions (qualitative) were conducted with the objective of exploring and gaining insight into the phenomenon understudy. Thus, the objective of conducting focus groups was to identify suitable variables that were further explored during the second stage of data collection. During the second stage of data collection, a questionnaire survey (quantitative) was conducted. The researcher went a step further to conduct in-depth interviews (qualitative) as a follow up to interesting cases identified during the second stage of data collection. The mixed method procedure adopted for this study is displayed in Figure 5.2. The procedure of data collection is explained in Section 5. 8 of this chapter.

Figure 5.2: Mixed methods research procedure used

Source: Author's own compilation

5.4 GENDER AND RESEARCH METHODS

This study is focused on women's economic empowerment and entrepreneurship in rural Zimbabwe. As a result, the study is grounded within feminist thinking and feminist research methods, hence the mixed method research was adopted. Hesse-Biber (2013) concurs that research is considered to be feminist when it is grounded in a set of traditions that privileges women issues, voices and their lived experiences. However, the issue of "feminist methodology" debate has been on-going, and it reached its climax in the early 1990s (Creswell, 2013). Creswell (2013) further argues that there is no unified feminist theory. Likewise, feminist use different ontological and epistemological stances, it tends to reason that there is no single feminist methodology (Creswell, 2013). However, Mertens and Hesse-Biber (2012) posit that it is important from a feminist theoretical lens to be aware of relevant dimensions of diversity in the communities in research is conducted. Feminist research positions gender as a categorical centre of inquiry where issues of inequality, social justices and social transformation are brought to the surface (Hesse-Biber, 2013). An example would be in a situation whereby the inclusion of women as research participants may be challenging in some cultures because they are relegated to lower status (Mertens and Hesse-Biber, 2012). In such circumstances, Mertens and Hesse-Biber (2012) advocates for a feminist approach to mixed methods which provides the opportunity for the voices of those who have been marginalized to be brought into conversation with data collected by different means. In this approach, neither

quantitative nor qualitative data are privileged (Mertens and Hesse-Biber, 2012; Hesse-Biber, 2013). Both are accorded legitimacy and different perspectives are brought into the interpretation of the data sources (Mertens and Hesse-Biber, 2012). In this way, subjugated knowledge can be made visible and used to interpret the data collected by other means with the goal of promoting social justice and social transformation on behalf of women and other marginalized groups (Mertens and Hesse-Biber, 2012).

5.5 RESEARCH POPULATION

Population refers to the entire group of people, events or things of interest that the researcher wishes to investigate (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). The focus of this study is on women participating in agriculture entrepreneurship in Mashonaland West province of Zimbabwe. According to the Mashonaland West Agriculture Database (2012), there are nine hundred and sixty five (965) women farmers registered on the database. The database is made up of communal irrigation schemes, A1 and A2 farming schemes. A1 is a resettlement model in the form of a communal subsistence farming model (Gwate, 2015). A1 are either in the form of a village or self-contained model (Gwate, 2015). A2 is a commercial farming model which comes in different variants of small, medium, large and peri-urban farming models (Gwate, 2015). The reasoning behind including three different types of farming activities was for the researcher to have a wider perspective and varied understanding of how women have improved the quality of their lives and their families as a result of economic empowerment through agriculture entrepreneurship across these three different levels of farming activities.

5.6 STUDY SAMPLE SIZE

A sample size is defined as the number of elements to be included in the study (Malhotra, 2010). The researcher used Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) table to determine or rather estimate a reasonable sample size for the study. The formula for determining the sample size according to Krejcie and Morgan (1970) is presented below:

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

s = required sample size

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

N= the population size

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

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

(Source: Krejcie and Morgan, 1970)

As mentioned before, study population (N) is 965 women. Using a 95% confidence level and 5% margin of error, the required sample size is 275 participants.

Due to the fact that the study adopted a mixed methods research approach (i.e. exploratory sequential mixed methods) which involved three stages of data collection, the broke down of the sample is presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Breakdown of Sample Size

Stage of Data Collection	Type of Data Collection	Targeted Sample Size
Stage 1	Qualitative Data (Focus Group Interviews)	**16** (2 X groups of 6 - 8 women)
Stage 2	Quantitative Data (Questionnaire Survey)	**259**
Stage 3	Qualitative Data (In-depth interviews)	The number is determined by saturation of data *NB: The participants were drawn from the women who participated in the questionnaire survey)*
Total		**275**

Source: Author's compilation

5.7 SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

This study adopted two types of non-probability sampling techniques, and these are: purposive and convenience sampling. For simplicity, these techniques are explained in the sequence in which these techniques were applied within the research design of the study.

First, purposive sampling technique was used to narrow down the research population to best fit the main focus of the study (i.e. women). According to Saunders et al. (2009) purposive sampling enables the researcher to use her or his judgement to select cases that best answer the research questions and meet the study objectives (Saunders et al., 2009). The other name for purposive sampling is judgemental sampling (Saunders et al., 2009). Purposive sampling allows the researcher to rely on their experience, ingenuity and previous research findings to choose elements of the population that are of the study (Welman et al., 2005; Malhotra, 2010). This type of sampling technique is often used a select cases that are highly informative about the research problem and it's also normally used for case study research studies (Saunders et al., 2009). According to Malhotra (2010) judgemental sampling is a low cost, quick and convenient way of collecting primary data. Purposive sampling technique was used to identify women who participated in focus group discussions.

Second, convenience sampling also referred to as haphazard sampling (Welman et al., 2005; Saunders et al., 2009) was used to identify women who participated in the questionnaire survey. Convenience sampling technique is a non-probability sampling technique which involves a conscious selection of certain subjects or elements to participate in the study by the researcher (Crookes and Davis, 1998; Saunders et al., 2009). This technique enables the researcher to select elements of the population that are easily accessible and provides rich information that deepens the study findings (Welman et al., 2005; Bryman and Bell, 2007; Malhotra, 2010). The selection of elements is primarily left to the researcher (Malhotra, 2010). According to Malhotra (2010) convenience sampling is the least expensive and least time-consuming of all the sampling methods in that the elements are easily accessible, easy to measure and cooperative. The limitation of this type of sampling is that it is prone to bias and influence beyond the control of the researcher as the cases are selected mainly on easy accessibility (Welman et al., 2005; Saunders et al., 2009). Further, convenience sampling is often used in conjunction with intense and focused methods of data collection such as in-depth interviews, focus groups and pilot studies (Curtis et al., 2000; Malhotra, 2010).

Third, the purposive sampling technique was used to identify women who participated in follow up in-depth interviews. The researcher used quantitative data gathered from questionnaires to determine the unique and interesting cases that needed further probing.

Although the two sampling techniques used generated interesting empirical findings, samples identified using non-probability sampling techniques are not representative of any defined population (Welman et al., 2005; Saunders et al., 2009; Malhotra, 2010). Hence, subsequent generalization of the research findings is likely to be at best flawed (Welman et al., 2005; Saunders et al., 2009; Malhotra, 2010).

5.8 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

The researcher used both primary and secondary data collection methods. These methods are further explored below.

5.8.1 Primary data

Primary data refers to the original data that the researcher collects for the purpose of his or her own study (Welman et al., 2007). This study made use of three data collection instruments which are: focus groups, in-depth interviews and a questionnaire survey. As mentioned before, these instruments are displayed in figure 5.4.

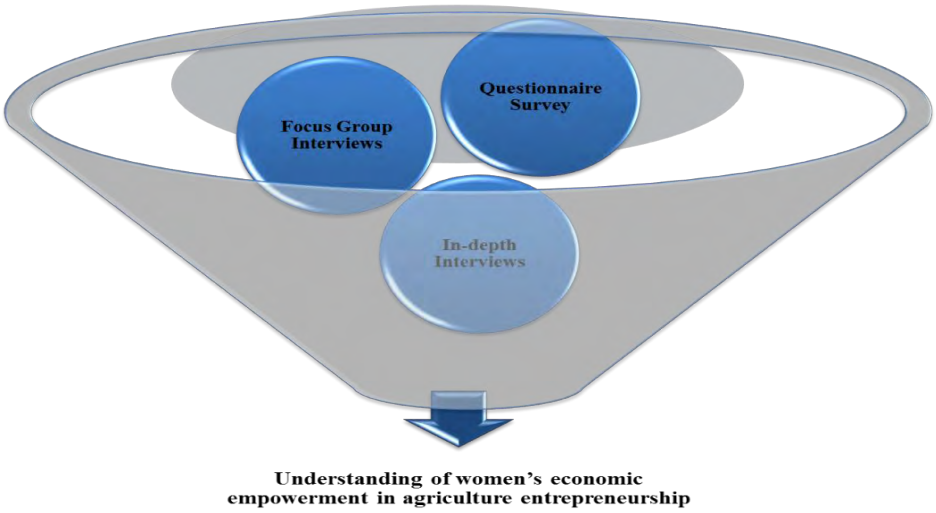

Figure 5.4: Data collection instruments used

Source: Author's own compilation

The three instruments used for primary data collection are explained in detail below.

5.8.1.1 Focus groups

A focus group is defined as an interview conducted by a trained moderator in an unstructured and natural manner with a small group of participants (Malhotra, 2010). According to Sekaran and Bougie, (2013) focus groups usually consist of eight to ten members. Focus groups are also referred to as group in-depth interviews (Welman, Kruger and Mitchell, 2007; Saunders et al., 2009). Saunders et al. (2009) further defines group interviews as non-standardised interviews conducted with two or more people. Focus groups are conducted with the aim of gaining insights through listening to a group of people sharing information on a specific tightly defined topic (Saunders et al., 2009; Malhotra, 2010; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). The emphasis of focus groups is interaction within a group and the construction of joint meaning (Bryman and Bell, 2007). The value of using focus groups lies in spontaneous responses and unexpected findings that are obtained from the free-flow of information (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Welman et al. (2007) concur that a small number of individuals brought together for a discussion and as a resource group is more valuable than any representative group.

For this study, focus groups were used for exploratory purposes (Welman et al., 2007). The use of focus group interviews was inductive in that the interviews assisted the researcher to identify suitable variables that were further explored during the second stage of data collection (i.e. questionnaire survey). Thus, the group interviews acted as a means of pretesting the wording and questions that were used for in-depth interviews and the quantitative questionnaire (Welman et al., 2007). Utilising focus group in this manner enabled the researcher to gain deep insights into the study, and also assisted in improving reliability and validity of the research instruments used for data collection.

Administration of Focus Group interviews

The aim of the researcher was to conduct two focus group interviews of between six to eight women. Purposive sampling technique was used to identify the women. The focus group interviews were conducted by the researcher with a group of women involved in agriculture entrepreneurship. These focus groups were conducted at two institutions that support farmers in Zimbabwe. These organisations are: Zimbabwe Farmers Union (ZFU) and Zimbabwe Indigenous Women Farmers Association Trust. ZFU was established with an objective of

supporting large scale indigenous commercial farmers after the Zimbabwean independence in 1980. Zimbabwe Indigenous Women Farmers Association Trust was established to support indigenous women farmers. The first focus group interviews were conducted at Zimbabwe Indigenous Women Farmers Association Trust and this group consisted of eight women involved in agriculture entrepreneurship. The second focus group interviews were conducted at ZFU and the group consisted of six women. These interviews were conducted by the researcher and they lasted for between forty five minutes to an hour. The discussions took place at the respective organization's premises. These premises were suitable for conducting group interviews and allowed the women to freely express their views. The focus group interviews were recorded using voice recorders. The interview guide contained questions which were research objectives. The interview guide utilised for focus groups is attached in Appendix C.

5.8.1.2 Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a research instrument that consists of a preformulated written set of questions to which the respondents record their answers (Cavana et al., 2001; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Questionnaires are an efficient method for data collection especially when the researcher has identified the variables of interest (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). The questionnaire was designed based on the information gathered from the literature survey and the focus group interviews. Usually questionnaires are constructed using either open-ended questions or closed or pre-coded questions or both. Open-ended questions are those in which the interviewer asks a question without prompting with regards to the range of answers expected (Welman et al., 2007; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Closed questions ask the respondents to make choices among a set of alternatives given by the researcher (Welman et al., 2007; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). The questionnaire for this study was made up of closed or pre-coded questions and it was distributed to women participating in agriculture entrepreneurship.

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013) questionnaires can be administered personally, mailed to respondents or electronically distributed. The two main reasons why people do not respond to questionnaires are: (1) they simply did not receive the questionnaire and (2) they are not interested in responding to the questionnaire (Baruch, 1999; Baruch and Holtom, 2008). Baruch (1999) asserts that careful preparation and application of the right methodology can improve the response rate (also referred to as the return rate). The issue of low response rate

can be mitigated, if not completely eliminated, by the use of specific tactics which includes the 'drop-and-pick' mode (Ibeh et al., 2004; Baruch and Holtom, 2008). In order to improve the response rate, the researcher opted to use personally administered questionnaires. Personally administered questionnaires have the following advantages:

- The enumerator can motivate the respondent to participate in the research study and rapport can be established between the enumerator and the participant;
- Any doubts can be clarified;
- Less expensive when administered to a group of respondents;
- Anonymity of the respondent is high; and
- Almost 100% response rate is ensured (Baruch, 1999; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013).

The disadvantages of personally administered questionnaires are:

- It seems as if people are "forced" to respond to the questionnaire (Baruch, 1999).
- It can be intrusive as some respondents may not feel comfortable to open up in the presents of an enumerator as compared to a self-administered questionnaires (Hansen and Machin, 2013; Mitchell and Jolley, 2013).
- The exercise can be time consuming and a costly exercise (Hansen and Machin, 2013).
- May lead to interviewer (i.e. enumerator) bias (Hair Jr, Wolfinbarger, Money, Samouel and Page, 2015).
- There is a possibility that human error can occur in recording of the responses by the enumerator.

In as much as Baruch (1999) refers to personally administered questionnaires as a "forced" process, this is not always the case since researchers are encouraged to uphold good ethical standards in conducting research. Upholding good ethical standards in research requires the researcher to explain the objective of the study to the participants and the respondent is left to decide whether to participate or not. Voluntary participation by the respondent is usually confirmed by the signing of the informed consent form. The respondent also has the liberty to pull out of the researcher process even after signing the informed consent form.

Administration of Questionnaire Survey

The questionnaires were personally administered by a group of field workers which consisted of two field supervisors and five enumerators. The supervisors were trained by the researcher before field work commenced. The enumerators were in turn trained by the two supervisors.

The field workers were carefully selected based on their qualifications, work experience within the field of agriculture and, their intense knowledge of the area. All field workers had a minimum of a diploma in agriculture with the supervisors possessing a bachelor's degree and a Master's degree in the related field. All the enumerators and field supervisors are stationed and are employed by the Ministry of Lands and Rural Settlement in Zimbabwe in Mashonaland West province. By virtue of their positions in society, they command a certain level of respect in the communities that they are employed. This had a positive effect on the data collection process.

Two hundred and fifty nine (259) questionnaires were delivered to two field supervisors who in turn distributed the questionnaires to the enumerators. To ensure quality and consistency during data collection:

- the questionnaire was designed in such a way that it included such information as the questionnaire number, name of enumerator, date and place where data was collected from.
- the two supervisors checked all collected questionnaires on a daily basis to avoid errors being carried over. Any errors identified were immediately rectified with the enumerator.

Due to the fact that the questionnaire was lengthy, detailed and was compiled in English, yet targeting at rural women, the enumerators in most cases translated the questions contained in the questionnaire to the respondents in the vernacular language (Shona). Women who were able to complete the questionnaire were given the opportunity to do so, while those who required assistance were assisted by the enumerators.

Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire was designed in such a way that justice was done to answer the research objectives of the study. A sample of the questionnaire used for this study is attached in Appendix D. A poorly constructed questionnaire is tantamount to collection of irrelevant information which does not add value to the body of knowledge. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013) a sound questionnaire design should focus on three key areas. These areas are (1) wording of the questions; (2) planning of issues with regards to how the variables will be categorised, scaled and coded; and (3) the general appearance of the questionnaire.

The information contained in the questionnaire was adapted from previous research studies conducted on the same subject and the views collected from focus group interviews. The questionnaire is divided into 10 sections in line with the research objectives. These sections are discussed below.

Section A: This section provides the demographic information of the respondents. This information include age, age at marriage, marital status, number of children, etc. of the respondents.

Section B: Section B presents information relating to the respondents' household endowment. Key information presented in this section includes type of house, source of drinking water, type of lighting and the type of sanitary services used by the respondents. This information is necessary because it provides readers with an overview of the respondents' living conditions. This section also presents information about land ownership (e.g. type of land, title deed ownership, year in which land was acquired and the size of the land acquired). In addition, section B also provides information about livestock and poultry ownership of the respondents such as type of livestock and poultry owned, the quantity of livestock and poultry owned and the person who owns the farming assets. The information provided under this section is in line with the focus of the study and it gives an overview of farming activities that are being undertaken by women in Mashonaland west province. More importantly, resource ownership is the basis on which women's economic empowerment takes place and also measure whether these women are economically empowered or not. Some of the information in this section is adopted from Mutenje (2009)'s interview guide. The ideas presented in these questions were adopted from instruments used to measure indicators of women's economic empowerment such as the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) among women in the agricultural sector which was developed by USAID and the basket of indicators to measure women's economic empowerment at household-level dynamics developed by researchers such as Alkire et al. (2013), Malapit et al. (2014) and Markel (2014).

Section C: Section C provides information about the nature of businesses that the women operating agriculture entrepreneurship are engaging in. The questions included in this section include amongst others business registration information, sources of capital and income generated from farming activities. This information is linked to the focus of the study which is women's economic empowerment and women entrepreneurship in agriculture. Section C is

important because it provides an overview of the level of women's participation in entrepreneurship (e.g. whether the business is formal or informal).

Section D: This section presents information about what motivated these women to engage in agriculture entrepreneurship. Understanding motivational patterns of these women is necessary because these factors determine their destiny in as far as entrepreneurship is concerned. Similarly, motivational factors determine women's level of economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship. This information is crucial in determining whether there is a relationship between economic empowerment and the need for financial independence among women. The main issue here is finding out whether these women were *"pushed"* or *"pulled"* into farming as a means of generating income. The questions and ideas used in this section were adapted from various studies and online sample questionnaires on entrepreneurial motivation (e.g. Alänge, Miettinen and Scheinberg, 1988; Stephan, Hart, Mickiewicz and Drews, 2014). The questions were adjusted to suit the study context.

Section E: Section E gives information regarding support for women in agriculture entrepreneurship from either the government or Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs). This information is important for achieving economic empowerment of women. Provision of resources alone is not enough. These women need to be supported with soft skills such as training for them to benefit meaningfully from available resources.

Section F: Some of the challenges affecting women economic empowerment and women entrepreneurship in agriculture are presented under this section of the questionnaire. These challenges are divided into two categories which are challenges on agricultural production and the challenges related to the farming aspect of the business. These challenges are not exhaustive. However, it is important to mention that challenges experienced by women from the agriculture perspective have a negative impact on the entrepreneurial side of the business. The highlighted challenges were adapted from the literature search from studies conducted by several researchers (e.g. Jayne et al., 2010; FAO, 2011; UNDP, 2012; Weng et al., 2013; Applefield and Jun, 2014; World Bank, 2014). Therefore, in order for economic empowerment of women to be realised, there is an urgent need by policy makers to try and understand these challenges from a broader perspective, which is, understanding the challenges from the entire value chain system of agriculture based enterprises.

Section G: This section of the questionnaire present questions that highlight the socio-cultural factors affecting women's economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship. Some of the ideas highlighted in this section were extracted from the findings of the literature search conducted in Chapter two of the thesis. These ideas were adapted from the work of researchers like Chitsike (2000), Moyo and Kawewe (2002), Chamlee-Wright (2002), Mboko and Smith-Hunter (2009; 2010) whose work focused on the nature of women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe.

Section H: This section presents questions on one of the outcomes of women's economic empowerment, which is linked to the women's ability to make key decisions in various aspects of their lives. The section is divided into two categories. The first set of questions revolve around establishing whether women are involved in making decisions in the following four areas of farming production, farming business, business income and expenditure, and household income and expenditure. The second set of questions indicate the extent to which these women are involved in decision making of the above mentioned key aspects. The ideas presented in these questions were adapted from an instrument used to measure levels of women's economic empowerment in agriculture known as the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) (Alkire et al., 2013; Malapit et al., 2014; Markel, 2014). The empowerment indicators used to measure the level of decision making among women were fine tuned to suit the Zimbabwean context.

Section I: Women's economic empowerment is meaningless if the opportunity structure or rather the environment or conditions that exist do not foster economic empowerment of women. Further, women should be able to utilise the resources that they have for further empowerment. In other words, the institutional framework should provide opportunities for women to enable economic empowerment to take place. For example, if a woman owns land, the woman should be able to use that piece of land as collateral when borrowing finance. Therefore, this section provides questions that evaluate whether women in Mashonaland West province are able to use their resources to further develop and empower themselves in agriculture.

Section J: Section J measures the outcome of women's economic empowerment by evaluating the impact of women's economic empowerment on the family's quality of life. The questions measure how women's lives have improved as a result of economic empowerment at three

different dimensions of empowerment which are personal, relational or close relations and at a collective level as indicated by Rowlands (1995). This section wraps up with a question that highlights how the families' lives have been changed as a result of women's economic empowerment such as building a house, sending children to school, etc. Due to the fact that these aspects are not exhaustive, common achievements were identified and some blank spaces were left open to allow the women to indicate their achievements.

5.8.1.3 In-depth Interviews

In order to gain a deeper understanding of the nature of women entrepreneurship within the agricultural sector in Mashonaland West province, in-depth interviews were conducted as a follow up on interesting cases identified from the data collected from questionnaires. An in-depth interview is an unstructured, direct personal interview with a single person with the objective of uncovering underlying motivations, beliefs, attitudes and feelings on a topic (Malhotra, 2010). An in-depth interview offers a unique means of understanding complex issues being investigated because the method is not limited by predetermined classifications found in deductive studies which demand 'best fit' but rather, results in the generation of large amounts of valuable data obtained from a free flowing communication process (Punch, 1998). The interviews lasted between 30 - 45 minutes. These interviews were voice recorded. The interview guide contained questions which were aligned to the research objective of the study. The objective of conducting follow up interviews was to bring out women's voices which were hidden in the quantitative data that was collected during the questionnaire survey. This methodology is in line to feminist research thinking (Mertens and Hesse-Biber, 2012). A sample of the interview guide used is attached in Appendix E.

Administration of in-depth interviews

The researcher conducted in-depth interviews as a follow up discussion to the data collected from the questionnaire survey. The sample for the women who participated in the interviews was drawn from the women who participated in the questionnaire survey. Purposive sampling technique was used to identify the women entrepreneurs based on the unique information gathered from questionnaires. The researcher used quantitative data gathered from questionnaires to determine the interesting cases that were deemed as needing further probing. An example of such cases is women who are generating significant amounts of income from

the farming activities. Usually in-depth interviews are carried out until data saturation is reached. Data saturation is a point whereby additional data collected provides few, if any, new insights (Saunders et al., 2009). In the current study, data saturation was achieved with ten women entrepreneurs operating agriculture based enterprises. This was deemed as sufficient as sample sizes in qualitative research should not be so large that the extraction of rich data is compromised. At the same time, the sample should not be too small that it is difficult to achieve data saturation (Flick, 1998).

5.8.2 Secondary data

Secondary data refers to data that has already been gathered by other researchers; and this data is usually published in journal articles, books and other sources that might be useful to the researcher (Cavana et al., 2001). Secondary data includes both raw data and published summaries (Saunders et al., 2001). For the current study, secondary data was gathered from relevant information which includes journal articles, textbooks, e-books, databases, policy documents and other relevant sources.

5.8.3 Data collection for the study

Table 5.3 summarises the data collection methods adopted for this study.

Table 5.3: Summary of data collection employed for the study

Research phase	Sampling technique	Data collection method	Targeted sample size
Phase 1: Literature review			
Purpose: To assist the researcher in understanding the key issues of the study.		Literature survey	n/a
Phase 2: Data collection stages			
Stage 1: Focus group interviews **Purpose:** Purpose was twofold: (1) The outcome of focus group interviews was used to guide the researcher in identifying the key variables to be included in the questionnaire; (2) used as an alternative data collection method.	Purposive sampling	Focus group interviews	16 Made up of 2 groups of between 6 – 8 participants
Stage 2: Questionnaire survey **Purpose:** Main data collection of the study.	Convenience sampling	Questionnaire survey	259
Stage 3: In-depth interviews: **Purpose:** To gain a deeper understanding of the nature of women entrepreneurship within the agricultural sector in rural Zimbabwe by gathering their unique voices. In this case, the researcher made a follow up on interesting cases identified during the second stage (questionnaire survey) of data collection	Purposive sampling	In-depth interviews	The number is determined by saturation of data *NB: The participants were drawn from the women who participated in the questionnaire survey)*
Total sample size			**275**

Source: Own compilation

5.9 DATA ANALYSIS

The use of a mixed method research approach which incorporated both qualitative and quantitative research approaches within a single study (Creswell, 2013) allowed the researcher to use two different approaches for data analysis and interpretation for the data sets.

5.9.1 Quantitative data

Data preparation was carried out before data analysis. This process entails checking the quality (completeness and correctness) of the collected data (Welman et al., 2005) and converting the data into a format that allows for analysis and interpretation to take place. For this study, the questionnaires were cross checked for accuracy by two different people (i.e. the field

supervisors and researcher). Precoding of questionnaires was done during questionnaire design. Thereafter, quantitative data was captured and analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to interpret quantitative data sets. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to interpret quantitative data sets. Descriptive statistics used include frequency distribution such as bar charts and pie charts and; statistical measures of location and tendencies such as the mean. Inferential statistics used include Principal Component Analysis, Correlation analysis, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and T-tests. These inferential statistics are explained below.

5.9.1.1 Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Principal components analysis (PCA) is an approach to factor analysis that considers the total variance in data (Malhotra, 2010). It is a multivariate statistical technique used to reduce the number of dimensions or variables, whilst retaining as much data variation as possible (Härdle and Simar, 2012; Groth, Hartmann, Klie and Selbig, 2013). PCA is used to extract important information from a table, represent the information as a set of new orthogonal variables called principal components, and display the pattern of similarity of the observations and of the variables (Abdi and Williams, 2010; Groth et al., 2013). Important original variables that are the major contributors to the components can be discovered (Groth et al., 2013).

5.9.1.2 Correlation analysis

Correlation is a technique for investigating the relationship between interval/ ratio variables and or ordinal variables that seeks to assess the strength and direction of the relationship between the variables concerned (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Pearson's *r* and Spearman's *rho* are both methods used to access the level of correlation between variables (Bryman and Bell, 2007). This study used Pearson's *r* method. The Pearson's correlation coefficient *(r*) enables the researcher to quantify the strength of a linear relationship between two ranked or numerical variables (Saunders et al., 2009). Pearson's correlation coefficient (*r*) for continuous (interval level) data ranges from -1 to +1 (Saunders et al., 2009). A value of +1 represents a positive perfect correlation, while a value of -1 represents a perfect negative correlation (Saunders et al., 2009). A value of 0 means that the variables are perfectly independent (Saunders et al., 2009). The closer the absolute value is to 1, the stronger the relationship (Saunders et al., 2009). A correlation of zero indicates that there is no linear relationship between the variables. The t-test is used to establish if the correlation coefficient is significantly different from zero, and,

hence that there is evidence of an association between the two variables (University of the West England, Online). The coefficient can be either negative or positive (Saunders et al., 2009). Here, the underlying assumption that the data is from a normal distribution sampled randomly (University of the West England, Online).

5.9.1.3 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) analyses variance which is the spread of data values within and between groups of data by comparing means (Saunders et al., 2009; Malhotra, 2010). Put simply, ANOVA is used to test whether groups are significantly different (Saunders et al., 2009). The *F* statistic represents these differences (Saunders et al., 2009). If the likelihood of any difference between groups occurring by chance is low, this is represented by a large *F* ratio with a probability of less than 0.05 (Saunders et al., 2009). This is referred to as statistically significant (Saunders et al., 2009). There are many different types of ANOVAs (DeCoster, 2006). These are: one-way between groups, one-way repeated measures, two-way between groups, and two-way repeated measures (www.csse.monash.edu.au). The different types of ANOVA reflect the different experimental designs and situations for which they have been developed (www.statsdirect.com). This study used one-way analysis of variance which involves only one categorical variable or a single factor (Malhotra, 2010). The purpose of a one-way between-subjects ANOVA is to tell you if there are any deference among the means of two or more groups (DeCoster, 2006).

5.9.1.3 *T*-tests

The independent-samples *t*- test evaluates the difference between the means of two independent or unrelated groups (Saunders et al., 2009). Thus, a *t*- test is used to test whether the means of the two groups are significantly different (Saunders et al., 2009). Thus, it is a statistical test used to determine the probability (likelihood) that the values of a numerical data variable for two independent samples or groups are different (Saunders et al., 2009; Malhotra, 2010).

Table 5.4 summarises how data analysis methods were applied in order to address the research objectives.

Table 5.4: Research objectives, data sources and methods of analysis

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE	DATA SOURCES	METHOD OF ANALYSIS
1. To investigate how motivational factors into entrepreneurship influences women's economic empowerment in agriculture.	1. Focus group interviews 2. Questionnaire survey. 3. In-depth interviews.	1. Principal component analysis. 2. Descriptive statistics 3. Correlation analysis 4. Content analysis
2. To analyse the challenges affecting women's economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship.	1. Focus group interviews 2. Questionnaire survey. 3. In-depth interviews.	1. Principal component analysis. 2. Correlation analysis 3. Descriptive statistics 3. Analysis of variance (Anova) 4. Content analysis
3. To evaluate how socio-cultural factors affect women' economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship.	1. Focus group interviews 2. Questionnaire survey. 3. In-depth interviews.	1. Principal component analysis. 2. Correlation analysis 3. Content analysis
4. To investigate how support received influences women's economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship.	1. Focus group interviews 2. Questionnaire survey. 3. In-depth interviews.	1. Descriptive statistics 2. T-tests analysis 3. Content analysis
5. To investigate how economic empowerment influences women's decision making role in agriculture entrepreneurship.	1. Focus group interviews 2. Questionnaire survey. 3. In-depth interviews.	1. Principal component analysis. 2. Correlation analysis 3. Content analysis
6. To examine the extent to which economic empowerment has changed women's lives in agriculture entrepreneurship.	1. Focus group interviews 2. Questionnaire survey. 3. In-depth interviews.	1. Principal component analysis. 2. Descriptive statistics 3. Content analysis

Source: Author's own compilation

5.9.2 Qualitative data

The qualitative data collected from focus group discussions and in-depth interviews was analysed using content analysis. Content analysis is a method of analysing written, verbal or visual communication messages (Bowles, 2000; Satu and Kyngäs, 2007). Similarly, Bowles (2000) states that content analysis is a procedure for the categorisation of verbal or behavioural data, for purposes of classification, summarisation and tabulation. Content analysis is a widely

used qualitative research technique (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005); and is used to analyse data within specific contexts in view of the meanings attributed by the participants (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005; Krippendorff, 2012). Content analysis is a research method for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context, with the purpose of providing knowledge, new insights, a representation of facts and a practical guide to the issue being studied (Satu and Kyngäs, 2007; Cong, Wu, Morrison, Shu and Wang, 2014). The aim is to attain a condensed and broad description of the phenomenon, and the outcome of the analysis is concepts or categories describing the phenomenon (Satu and Kyngäs, 2007:108). These concepts are usually used to build up a model or a conceptual map (Satu and Kyngäs, 2007).

The critics of content analysis argue that the method is a simple technique to data analysis as compared to detailed statistical analysis (Satu and Kyngäs, 2007). Some researchers argue that it is possible to attain simple results by using any kind of data analysis method even in situations where the researcher is not conversant with how content data analysis is done (Satu and Kyngäs, 2007). To the contrary, Neundorf (2002) states that content analysis is as easy or as difficult as the researcher determines it to be. Despite these criticism, content analysis has been a widely used data analysis method and it offers several benefits. These benefits include the fact that it is a content-sensitive method and it is a flexible in terms of its research design (Castro, Pinto and Simeonsson, 2014; Tuckett, 2015). It is also a method of analysis that is used to develop an understanding of the meaning of communication (Satu and Kyngäs, 2007).

There are two approaches to content analysis, and these are the inductive or the deductive approach (Satu and Kyngäs, 2007; Elo, Kääriäinen, Kanste, Pölkki, Utriainen and Kyngäs, 2014). The choice between these two approaches is determined by the purpose of the study. In situations where there is limited knowledge about the phenomenon, then the inductive approach is recommended (Kyngäs and Vanhanen 1999; Satu and Kyngäs, 2007). Deductive content analysis, on the other hand, is used when the structure of analysis is operationalized on the basis of previous knowledge and when the purpose of the study is testing theory (Kyngäs and Vanhanen 1999; Elo et al., 2014). For the current study, the deductive approach was used because theory of women economic empowerment exists.

Authentic citations could also be used to increase the trustworthiness of the research and to point out to readers where the original data sets are formulated from (Elo and Kyngäs, 2008). In this regard, the researcher should make sure that informants are not identified by quotes from the data sets.

5.10 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

This section discusses the two concepts of reliability and validity which act as criteria for assessing the quality of a research study (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

5.10.1 Reliability

Reliability is concerned with the questions of whether the results of a study are repeatable (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) concur that reliability refers to the extent to which your data collection or analysis procedure can yield consistent findings. The term also relates to whether the measures that were devised for concepts are consistent (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Threats to reliability of results are: subject or participant error, subject or participant bias, observer error and observer bias (Saunders et al., 2009). To ensure reliability, the Cronbach's alpha (coefficient) statistic was used to check the reliability of all variables used in the questionnaire. Cronbach's alpha determines the internal consistency or average correlation of items in a survey instrument to gauge its reliability (Santos, 1999). A Cronbach's alpha value of 0.7 to 0.8 is generally acceptable (Baruch, 1999; Field, 2014). A Cronbach's alpha value of 0.4 is not acceptable, while a value higher than 0.9 reflects potential for possible similarities among the items (Baruch, 1999). Some researchers even argue that a Cronbach alpha value of 0.5 can suffice especially during the early stages of conducting research in a fairly new area (Field, 2014).

5.10.2 Validity

Validity refers to the degree to which the research instruments measure its intended purpose in solving the research objectives (Cooper and Schindler, 2003). Validity relates to the integrity of the conclusions that are generated from a piece of research (Hair, Bush and Ortinau, 2006; Bryman and Bell, 2007). Thus, it is concerned with whether the findings of a study are really about what they appear to be about (Saunders et al., 2009). Threats to validity include among others, history, maturation, mortality and testing (Saunders et al., 2009). Bryman and Bell

(2007) distinguish between the different types of validity which are: measurement validity, internal validity, ecological validity and external validity. Content validity is another type of validity that is important in research. These different types of validity are explained next.

Measurement validity: This type of validity applies primarily to quantitative research and to the measures of social scientific concepts (Bryman and Bell, 2007). It is also often referred to as construct validity (Bryman and Bell, 2007). An instrument has construct validity if it measures the constructs that it is intended to measure (Welman et al, 2007). Put differently, this type of validity has to do with the question of whether or not a measure that is developed for a particular concept really reflects the concept it is supposed to be representing (Bryman and Bell, 2007). If the measure of a concept is unstable and unreliable, it means that the measure cannot be provided as a measure for the concept in question (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

To ensure measurement or construct validity for the current study, the researcher adopted a mixed method research approach which enhances validity of the data collected (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Denscombe, 2008; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010). In addition, the research instruments such as the questionnaire were subjected to pre-testing or pilot testing in order to determine whether the constructs were indeed measuring what they were intended to measure. In addition, some questions used in the questionnaire were adopted from previous studies. Where possible, these questions were adopted to suit the country specific context (i.e. Zimbabwe). Pretesting or pilot testing is further explained in Section 5.11 of this chapter.

Internal validity: This type of validity relates mainly to the issue of causality and is concerned with the question of whether a conclusion that incorporates a causal relationship between two or more variables holds water (Bryman and Bell, 2007). If it is suggested that ***x*** causes ***y***, then the researcher needs to sure that ***x*** is responsible for variations in ***y*** and that not something else is producing that causal relationship (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

Ecological validity: Ecological validity relates to the question of whether or not social scientific research is applicable to people's every day, natural social settings, i.e. do the instruments capture the daily life conditions, values, attitudes and knowledge base (Bryman and Bell, 2007). The researcher is a native of Zimbabwe (country of study) and understands how the research study links and is applicable to the everyday way of life of women in the

country. In addition the use of a mixed research design where focus group interviews were used to inform the second stage of data collection also ensured ecological validity of the study.

External validity: This is concerned with the question of whether the results of a study can be generalised beyond the specific research context (Bryman and Bell, 2007). External validity is one of the reasons why quantitative researchers are keen to generate representative samples (Bryman and Bell, 2007). The results of this study cannot be generalised beyond the specific research context because non probability sampling techniques were used.

Content validity: Content validity measures the extent at which the measuring tools adequately cover the objectives of the study (Cooper and Schindler, 2003; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). To ensure content validity, the researcher reviewed literature on the subject matter. Secondly, a mixed method research design which began by the conducting of focus group interviews was adopted. The feedback from the focus group in-depth interviews was used to inform the second stage of data collection which was made up of a questionnaire survey and in-depth interviews. Lastly, the empirical findings were compared to similar research studies on the topic.

5.11 PILOT TESTING

Pilot testing involves trying out the questionnaire on a smaller number of the proposed sample in order to get an idea of how the research participants would react and complete the proposed instrument (Saunders et al., 2003; Stangor, 2014). According to Hair, Money, Samouel and Page (2007:279) "the sample for pre-testing may include four or five individuals but not more than thirty individuals". This process is carried out before the actual data collection takes place (Saunders et al., 2003; Stangor, 2014). Pilot testing ensures that (1) participants understand the questions as the researcher expects them to do; (2) eliminate the majority of difficulties that arises in data recording; and (3) validity and reliability (Saunders et al., 2003; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013; Stangor, 2014).

For this study, the pilot test was conducted in two ways. Firstly, pilot testing was conducted using four females. The selected females were not taken from the proposed population sample. Errors and questions that were vague were rephrased for clarity. A critical section of the questionnaire which relates to awareness of government support for women entrepreneurs as

outlined by the Broad Based Women's Economic Empowerment Framework that was omitted was added to the questionnaire. These questionnaires did not form part of the analysed data sets. Secondly, pilot testing was then conducted on four women involved in agricultural entrepreneurship from the proposed population sample. Minor editorial errors were noted and were rectified.

5.12 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical behaviour is of paramount importance in research (Welman et al., 2007). It enables researchers to carry out their research in a dignified manner with honesty and respect for human rights (Welman et al., 2007). Researcher bias is one of the ethical dilemmas that researchers encounter. In order to reduce the influence of researcher bias, the researcher tried as much as possible to remain objective during the entire research process. In addition, issues of plagiarism should be treated with high priority in research (Welman et al., 2007). The researcher gave all careful consideration to all issues of ethical behaviour in conducting the study. The researcher notified the research participants about the purpose of the study and that their participation in the survey was solely on a voluntary basis. All participants were required to complete an informed consent form before partaking in the research study as evidence that they were willing to take part in this research project. Informed consent is when an individual understands what the researcher wants her or him to do and consents to partaking in the research duty (Zikmund, Babin, Carr and Griffin, 2012). In addition, for in-depth and focus group interviews, respondents were required to give consent to the researcher to record the interviews. Copies of the informed consent forms used in this research project are attached in Appendix B. The participants were also assured that anonymity and confidentiality was going to be maintained throughout the study. All research instruments used contained information that was not emotionally harmful to the respondents. An Ethical Clearance certificate was sought from University of KwaZulu Natal, prior to the commencement of the research project. A copy of the certificate is attached in Appendix A.

5.13 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the research methodology adopted for the study. Key issues discussed include the research paradigm, the research design, research population and sample size, sampling technique, data collection methods and how the empirical data was analysed. The chapter concluded by discussing issues of reliability and validity including pretesting of

questionnaires and how research ethics was incorporated in the research study. Chapter 6 presents and discusses the empirical findings of the study.

CHAPTER 6

DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided a detailed explanation of the methodology used. Chapter 6 consists of the presentation and analysis of the empirical findings of the study using a mixed method research approach which combined qualitative and quantitative data. The chapter is divided into ten major sections. The chapter begins by discussing the response rate and the reliability test results using Cronbach's Alpha statistic. The demographic data of the respondents is analysed next. Thereafter, the empirical findings are presented and analysed according to the six research objectives of the study. Since the study adopted a mixed method research approach, the qualitative and quantitative research findings are combined in the analysis of research findings.

6.2 RESPONSE RATE

The targeted sample size was two hundred and seventy five (275) women. Two hundred and forty eight (248) women participated in the research project. The sample size is comprised of (1) fourteen (14) women who participated in focus group interviews (2) two hundred and thirty four (234) women who participated during the questionnaire survey and (3) ten (10) women who were involved in in-depth interviews. It should be noted that the 10 women who participated during in-depth interviews were identified from the women who took part in the questionnaire survey. The breakdown of the number of women who took part in the research study are provided in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Breakdown of Research participants

Stages of Data Collection	Type of Data collection	Targeted Sample size	Actual no. of women who participated
Stage 1	Qualitative Data (Focus Group Interviews)	**16** (2 X groups of 6 - 8 women)	**14** 1 x group of 6 women; and 1 x group of 8 women
Stage 2	Quantitative Data (Questionnaire Survey)	**259**	**234**
Stage 3	Qualitative Data (In-depth interviews)	**(10)** NB: The women were drawn from the women who participated in the questionnaire survey	**(10)** The 10 women were drawn from the women who participated in the questionnaire survey
Total		**275**	**248**
Total Response rate			**90.18%**

Since the targeted sample size was 275 and 248 women participated in the research study, a response rate of 90.18% was achieved. According to Baruch (1999: 422), "there is no generally agreed norm as to what is or what may not be perceived as an acceptable and reasonable response rate". However, Johnson and Owens (2003:130) mention that "in most instances, 20% is too low, and 80% is a de facto standard, but there is a considerable grey area". Some researchers (e.g. Roth and BeVier, 1998; Dillman, 2000) suggest that 50% is the minimum level. There are also exceptional cases where the response rate is above the de facto standard (Green, Krosnick and Holbrook, 2001). This is often the case with face to face surveys (Green et al., 2001). Examples of studies that achieved high response rate are: Thornberry (1987) who achieved a 96% response rate, Mulry-Liggan (1983) who achieved an 88% response rate for face to face interviews and 84% for telephone interviews (cited in Green et al., 2001). According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013), almost 100% response rate can be achieved with personally administered questionnaires (Baruch, 1999). The response rate of 90.18% which was achieved for the study falls within the upper end of acceptable response rates. This was achieved because of the way the researcher designed the research study. In this case the questionnaires which formed the major chunk of the data collection were personally administered. Further, although the questionnaire was lengthy, detailed and was compiled in English, yet targeting rural women, the enumerators in most cases translated the questions contained in the questionnaire to the respondents in the vernacular language (Shona). Women who were able to complete the questionnaires on their own, were given the opportunity to do so, while those who required assistance were supported by the field supervisors and enumerators. Obviously, this method is not without drawbacks as discussed in the previous chapter.

Data cleaning was conducted in order to identify unusable questionnaires. According to (Baruch, 1999), unusable questionnaires are as a result of missing data. For this study, there were no unusable questionnaires. The presence of the field supervisors and enumerators assisted in making sure that all sections of the questionnaires were completed.

6.3 RELIABILITY TESTING

The results of Cronbach's alpha are presented in table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Reliability test - Cronbach's Alpha

Question No.	Valid cases (N)	Valid cases (%)	No. of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Q15	234	100%	10	0.697
Q16	234	100%	32	0.844
Q18	234	100%	5	0.665
Q19	234	100%	4	0.761
Q20	234	100%	6	0.565
Q21	234	100%	4	0.951
Q22	234	100%	18	0.749
Q23	234	100%	10	0.948
Q24	234	100%	4	0.962
Q25	234	100%	32	0.967
Q26	234	100%	10	0.804
Q27	234	100%	34	0.939
Q28	234	100%	24	0.770

A reliability test was conducted on all questions contained in the questionnaire except for the questions pertaining to the general background information. Table 6.2 indicates that the majority (10 out of 13) questions, achieved a Cronbach alpha statistics of above 0.7. The ten questions had a Cronbach alpha value that ranged from 0.761 to 0.967. A Cronbach's alpha value of 0.7 to 0.8 is generally acceptable as an indicator for reliability (Baruch, 1999; Field, 2014). Only three values are lower than 0.7 and these values are: 0.697, 0.665 and 0.565. Although these values are below 0.7, researcher such as Field (2014) argue that a Cronbach alpha value of 0.5 can suffice usually in the early stages of research.

6.4 DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FOR THE RESPONDENTS

The demographic data for the respondents is divided into three sections. The first section provides information gathered from the questionnaire survey, i.e. from the two hundred and thirty four women. The second section presents data collected from focus group interviews, i.e.

from the fourteen women. The last section provides information about the farming activities that the women are involved in.

6.4.1. Demographic data – Questionnaire survey

The demographic data collected from the questionnaire survey is divided into five major sections. These sections are: the general background information; household endowment; land ownership details; livestock ownership details and; business information. This information is pertinent for understanding the empirical findings in line with the overall objective of the study.

6.4.1.1 General background information

The information analysed in this section include the age, marital status, age at marriage, number of children, number of other dependents, level of education and the professional status of the respondents.

Age of respondents: The age of the respondents is displayed in Figure 6.1.

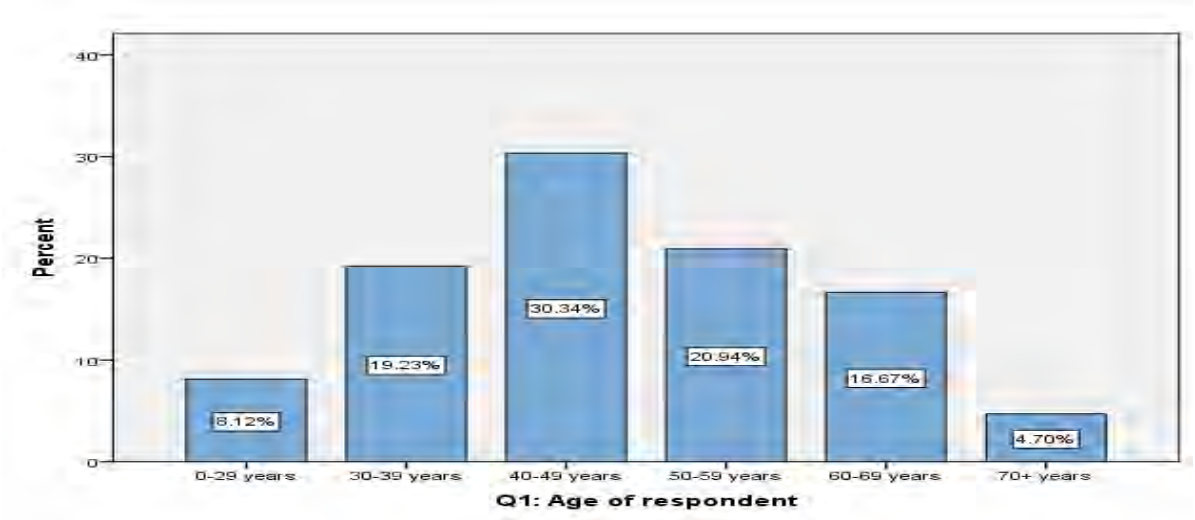

Figure 6.1: Age of respondents

The age of the women is normally distributed, ranging from the youth to senior citizens. The majority (34.34%) of the respondents are aged between 40 – 49 years old. This is followed by the 50 – 59 and 30 – 39 years category with 20.94% and 19.23% respectively. The other women are between the age group of 60 – 69 years (16.67%) and 0 – 29 years representing 8.12% of the respondents. The age group with the least respondents is 70 years and above.

Marital status: The marital status of the women is presented in Figure 6.2.

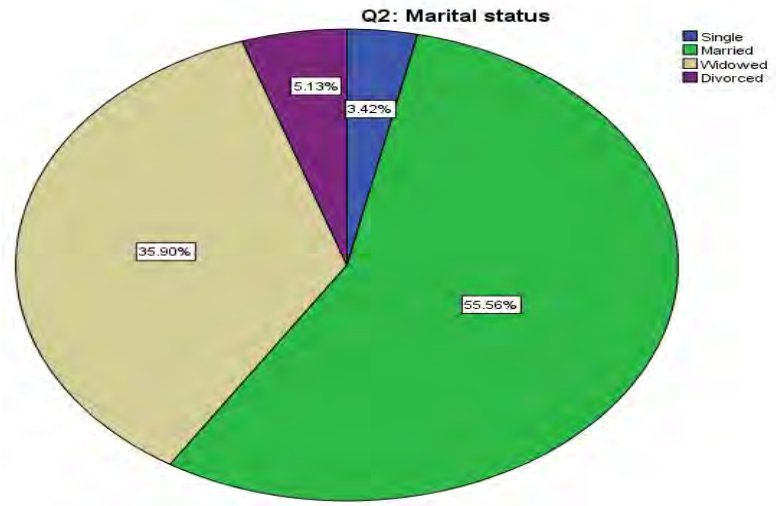

Figure 6.2: Marital status

Only a few of the participants were never involved in the marriage institution. The empirical results indicates that the majority (55.56%) of the respondents are married, while 35.90% of the respondents are widowed. The remainder of the women were divorced (5.13%) and single (3.42%).

Age at marriage: Figure 6.3 displays the age at which the respondents were married at. These results exclude the eight women representing 3.42% of the sample who are single (refer Figure 6.2). Therefore, the results for this variable is based on 228 women.

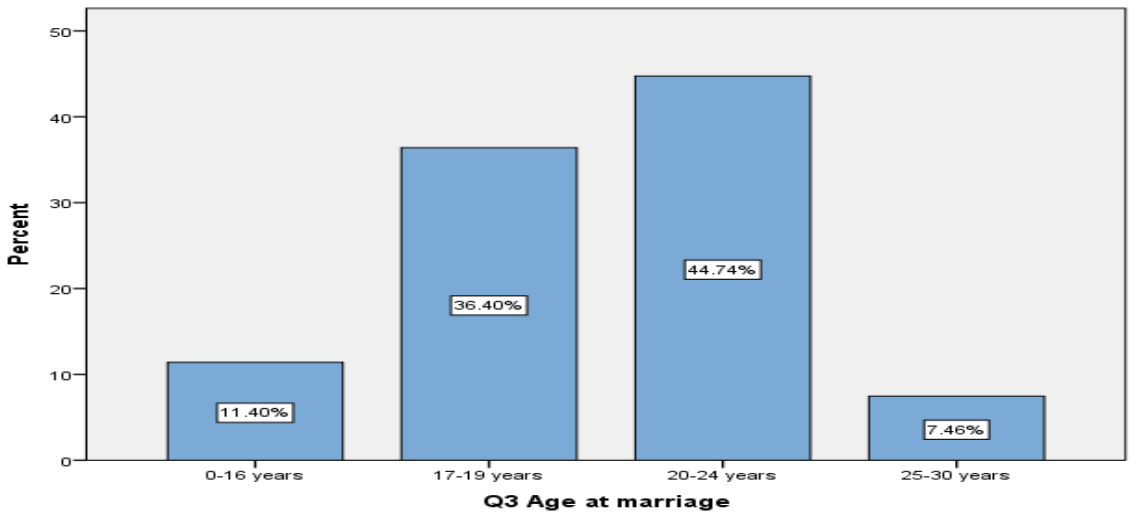

Figure 6.3: Age at marriage

The data indicates that the age at marriage varies from 16 – 30 years. The majority (44.74%) of women were married at the age category of 20 – 24 years, whilst 36.40% were married at

the age category of 17 – 19 years. The remainder of the women were married at the age category of 25 – 30 years (7.46%) and below the age of 16 years (11.40%).

Number of children: Figure 6.4 displays data about the number of children of the respondents.

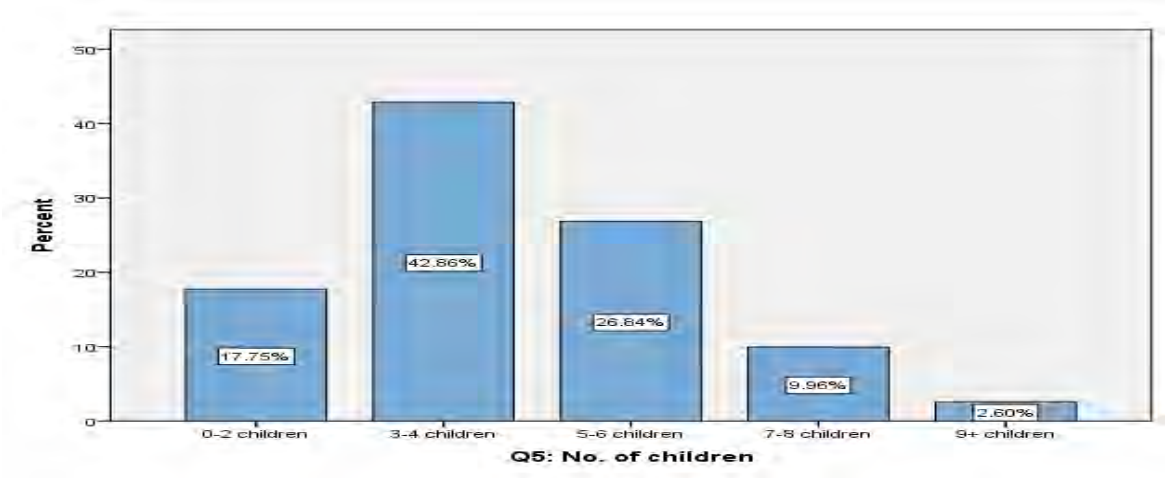

Figure 6.4: Number of children

There are few children per household. The majority (42.86%) of women have 3 – 4 children, 26.84% have 5 – 6 children, whilst 17.75% have two children or less. Only a minority of women have more than seven children (Figure 6.4).

Number of dependents: In Zimbabwe, there is a culture of extended family, where people look after other relatives apart from their own biological children. The majority of these dependents are orphans whose parents have succumbed to the HIV and Aids disease as indicated in chapter four. The results of the dependents are displayed in Figure 6.5.

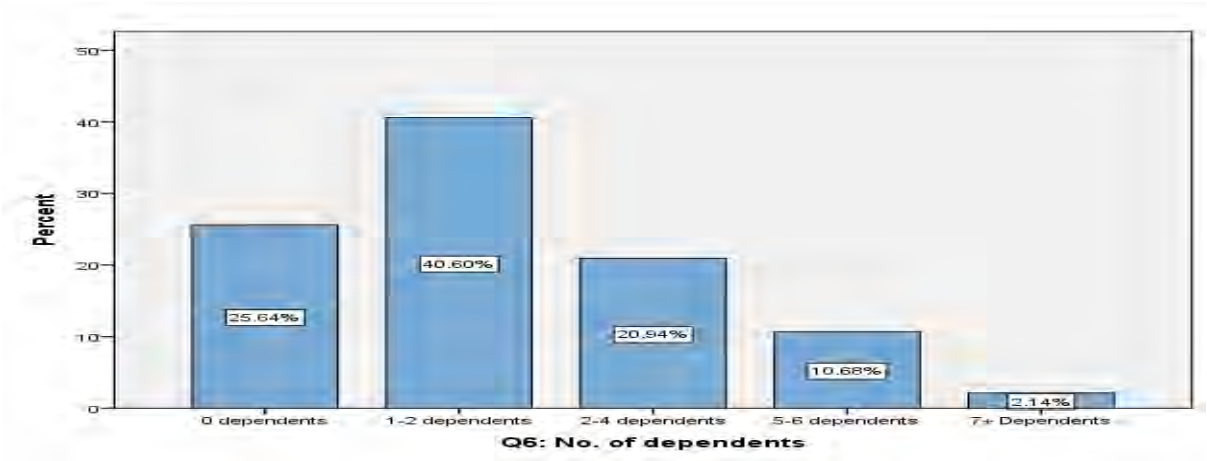

Figure 6.5: Number of dependents

The women have few dependents. The majority (40.60%) have one to two dependents. This is followed by 25.64% who have no dependents, and 20.94% with two to four dependents. Only a minority have 5 – 6 dependents.

Level of education and Professional Status: Table 6.3 displays the level of education and the employment status of the women.

Table 6.3: Level of Education and Employment status

Personal details	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Q7. Level of Education	Below Ordinary Level Ordinary Level Advanced Level Diploma Bachelor's Degree Master's Degree Doctorate	150 31 33 15 2 2 1	64.1% 13.2% 14.1% 6.4% 0.9% 0.9% 0.4%
Total		**234**	**100%**
Q8. Employment Status	Professionals Non-professional/ Self employed	69 165	29.5% 70.5%
Total		**234**	**100%**

Zimbabwe follows a British system of education. Unfortunately, most women have below standard education level. The majority (64.1%) of women have an education level which is below standard, i.e. Ordinary level. Women with Advanced level and Ordinary level of education are 14.1% and 13.2% respectively. Women with a Bachelor's degree and a Master's degree represent 0.9% each of the sample. Only one (0.4%) woman has a Doctorate degree.

Most of the women are self-employed. The majority (70.5%) of women have no profession (i.e. they are housewives or rather "stay at home mums"), while 29.5% of the women had a profession such as teaching and nursing.

6.4.1.2 Qualitative insights - General background

Below are some qualitative insights from some of the respondents in relation to the general background information:

"I am 55 years old and I am married with five children. "Unfortunately, I dropped out of school in Form three due to financial hardships. I ended up getting married at the age of seventeen years" (A1 farmer).

"I am a 65 year old widow and have five children. I never went to school, instead my parents sent my brothers to school" (Irrigation scheme member).

"I am a 45 year old widow and have five daughters. I have a Master's degree in Agricultural Economics" (A2 farmer).

I am 40 years old, married and have 3 children. "I went to school up to form four…." (A1 farmer).

"I am a 44 year old widow and have four children and 6 dependents. I went to school up to ZJC" (A1 farmer).

"I am 61 years old, married and have six children (four boys and two girls) and two grandchildren that I look after. My highest level of education is 'O' Level" (Irrigation scheme member).

"I am a 38 years old, married and have 2 children and 4 dependents. I am a school teacher and I have a Diploma in Education" (A2 farmer).

"I am 26 years old, married and have one child who is 2 years old. I went to school up to 'O' Level (A1 farmer).

According to the Zimbabwean education system, the full name of JZC is Zimbabwe Junior Certificate, and is the equivalence of Form two. Form four is also referred to as Ordinary level certificate. It is also important to mention that women who participate in irrigation schemes are also communal farmers.

6.4.1.3 Household endowment

Under household endowment, the type of house, source of drinking water, type of lighting and sanitary services are analysed. These results are presented in table 6.4.

Table 6.4 Household Endowment

Household Endowment	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Q10.1 Type of House	Burnt bricks with Asbestos / Iron roof	74	31.6%
	Pole and Dagga with Thatched roof	13	5.6%
	Burnt bricks with Thatched roof	147	62.8%
Q10.2 Source of Drinking Water	Private Borehole	20	8.5%
	Private Well	80	34.2%
	Shared Borehole	94	40.2%
	Shared Well	37	15.8%
	Dam water	3	1.3%
Q10.3 Type of Lighting	Electricity	63	26.9%
	Kerosene, gas, candles	77	32.9%
	Solar energy	94	40.2%
Q10.4 Sanitary Service	Connected to sewer system	4	1.7%
	Connected to septic tank	25	10.7%
	Latrine	200	85.5%
	Open bush	5	2.1%

In general, the communities represented in this study are regarded as poor, with limited access to modern resources such as decent housing, electricity, safe water and sanitation.

***Type of house*:** The majority (68.4% (62.8% + 5.6%) of women reside under a brick and thatched roof house and pole and dagga (mud). Within the Zimbabwean context, this type of housing represents poverty. The minority (31.6%) of women reside under a brick and asbestos or iron roof house. This represents is a sign of better quality of life.

Source of drinking water: The majority (40.2%) of women use shared boreholes for water. The other women use private wells (34.2%), shared wells (15.8%), private boreholes (8.5%) and dam water (1.3%). Put differently, women who use unprotected water in the form of either private or shared wells or dam water represent the majority which is 51.3% (i.e. 34.2% + 15.8% + 1.3%) of the study sample.

***Type of lighting**:* The majority (40.2%) of women use solar energy for lighting, while 32.9% use either kerosene, gas or candles. The minority (26.9%) have access to electricity.

Sanitary service: The majority (85.5%) of women use latrine toilets, while 10.7% use a septic system as ablution facilities. It is disturbing to note that there are women (2.1%) who are still using the bush as ablution facilities. Only (1.7%) of the women are connected to the sewer system.

6.4.1.4 Land ownership details

The land ownership details analysed here include the type of land owned, the title deed holder, and the year in which the land was acquired. The results indicate that most women own land.

Type of land used: Figure 6.6 displays the type of land that is utilised by the women.

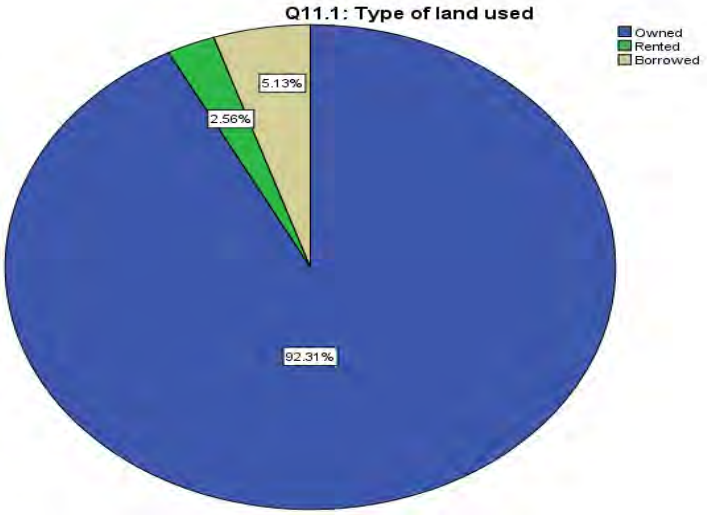

Figure 6.6: Type of land used

The majority of women (92.31%) are using family owned land for farming. The minority are either using borrowed land (5.13%) or rented land (2.56%).

Title deed holder: The information about the title deed holder is presented in Figure 6.7.

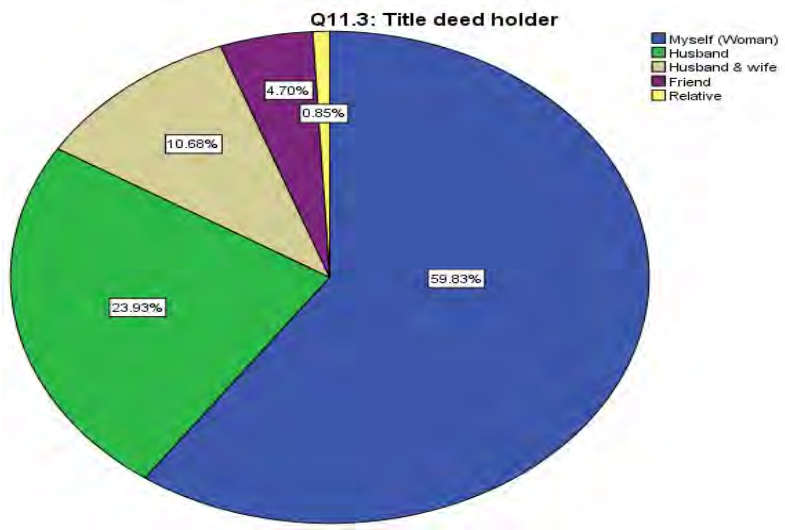

Figure 6.7: Title deed holder

The majority (70.51% (i.e. 59.83% + 10.68%)) have title to the land that they are using either in their own names (59.83%) or joint names with their husbands (10.68%). The women using land which is in their husband's names constitutes 23.93% of the sample. The remainder of women are using land that belongs to either a relative (4.70%) or a friend (0.85%).

Type of land: The empirical findings of the type of land utilised by women is presented in Figure 6.8.

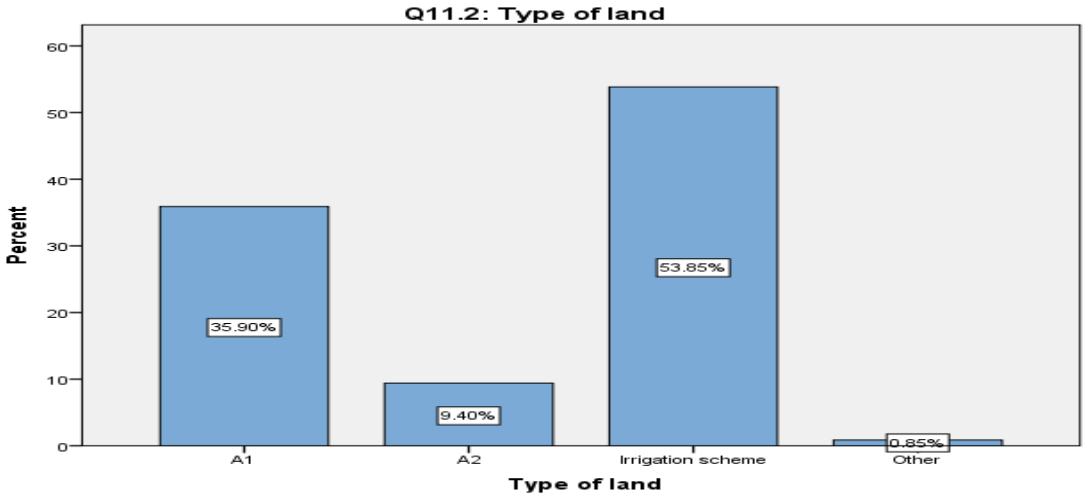

Figure 6.8: Title deed holder

Most women are farming under irrigation schemes. The results show that the majority (53.85%) of women are participating in communal irrigation schemes. A1 and A2 farmers constitute 35.90% and 9.40% of the sample respectively. The minority (0.85%) are communal farmers.

Year in which land was acquired: Figure 6.9 depicts the results of the year in which the land was acquired.

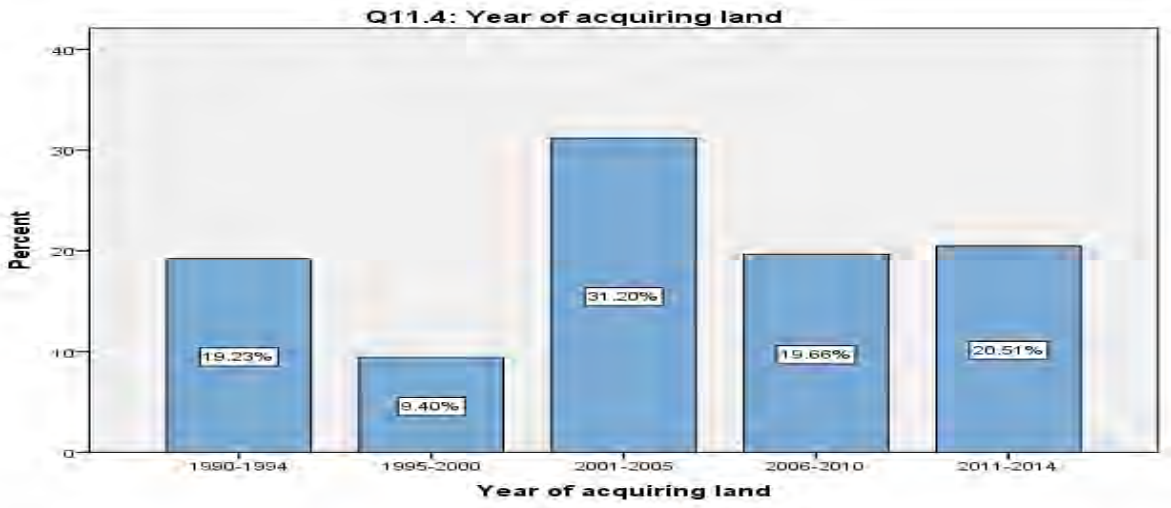

Figure 6.9: Year of acquiring land

Most women acquired land after 2001. The results in Figure 6.9 indicate that the majority of women acquired land after the year 2001 (commonly regarded as the controversial land reform programme or "*Jambanja"* in the vernacular language). The majority (71.37% (i.e. 31.20% + 19.66% + 20.51%)) of women acquired land between 2001 and 2014. Only 28.63% (i.e. 19.23% + 9.40%) acquired land before 2000.

6.4.1.5 Qualitative Insights – Land ownership

Below are some qualitative extracts from the women pertaining land ownership dynamics:

> "*Takawana munda muna2001 nguva yehondo yeminda. Takatora mimba zvejambanja (translated in English as: We got land by force in 2001 during the Land Reform Programme). We have 30 hectares of land and we utilise all the land…" (A2 farmer).*
>
> *My husband was a Lands Officer….. so he acquired this land during the Land Reform Programme. We have 120 hectares of land" (A2 farmer).*
>
> *We got land during the Land Reform Programme in 2001. The land was in my husband's name…. When my husband passed on, the land was trasferred in my name…" (A1 farmer).*

"My father in law subdivided his land and gave us 25 hectares. He owns 140 hectares Last year, we only managed to plough on 10 hectares….."(A1 farmer).

My late husband and I got 6 hectares of land during the Land Reform Programme. My husband passed away last year after a long illness…. The land is now in my name" (A1 farmer).

"The government gave us 0.5 hectares of land in 2002 so that we could start farming through an irrigation scheme…" (Irrigation scheme member).

"My husband got the 0.5 hectares of land in 2012. We jointly make use of the land" (Irrigation scheme member).

6.4.1.6 Livestock ownership

The empirical findings about livestock ownership is displayed in Table 6.5. It is important to highlight that the information presented in the table depicts only households that own livestock, hence the frequency for each livestock category does not add up to 234.

Table 6.5: Livestock Ownership

Livestock Ownership	Owner	Frequency	Percent	Average No. owned	Std. Dev.	Average Number acquired in the last 3 years	Average Number Sold in the last 3 years
Q12.1: Cattle	Husband	27	17.9%	5.9	3.7	0.8	1.3
	Woman	67	44.4%	12.0	31.4	2.1	5.1
	Husband & Wife	50	33.1%	15.2	25.6	1.0	4.1
	Sons	5	3.3%	83.8	176.8	5.0	12.4
	Other	2	1.3%	12.0	8.5	0.0	1.5
Q12.2: Goats & sheep	Husband	10	10.9%	2.9	1.0	0.0	0.9
	Woman	46	50.0%	5.7	7.7	1.0	1.9
	Husband & Wife	32	34.8%	14.3	28.5	2.9	1.1
	Sons	4	4.3%	6.0	2.4	2.3	1.8
Q12.3: Poultry	Husband	2	1.0%	11.0	1.4	5.5	1.5
	Woman	155	76.7%	60.1	244.1	313.9	315.1
	Husband & Wife	40	19.8%	125.0	437.1	781.1	705.2
	Sons	5	2.5%	20.2	14.8	0.0	0.0

Generally, the empirical results reveals that women are predominant in livestock ownership from poultry to small ruminates (e.g. goats and sheep) and cattle. However, the level of ownership declines as the size of the animal increases as they tend to share ownership with men. Thus, women are more dominant in ownership of poultry than in cattle. It is also important to mention that the results indicate a large variance for cattle ownership, which ranges from ownership of 1 – 400 cattle. Livestock ownership details are further explored below.

Cattle Ownership

In terms of cattle ownership, the results show that only 151 households (n=151) own cattle out of the sample of 234. That is, the results based on 151 women.

Women and cattle ownership: From the 151 households, the majority (44.4%) of women have sole ownership of cattle. The figure of 44.4% is closely related to women who are not married (44.44%) as depicted in figure 6.2. These women are not married because they are either divorced, widowed or they have never married. The average cattle owned by women is twelve (12) cattle, with a standard deviation of 31.4. These women acquired an average of two (2)

cattle over the past three years, and they also sold an average of five (5) cattle during the same period.

Husband and wife cattle ownership: Women who have joint ownership of cattle with their husbands constitutes 33.1% of the sample. The average cattle owned by these women is about fifteen (15) cattle, and the standard deviation is 26. These women acquired an average of one (1) cattle over the past three years, and they also sold an average of four (4) cattle over the past three years.

Women rearing cattle on behalf of sons: Another interesting finding is that 3.3% of the women are rearing cattle on behalf of their sons. Where this arrangement exist, the results reveal that an average of eighty four (84) cattle is owned and the standard deviation is about 177. An average of five (5) cattle was acquired during the past three years, while an average of twelve (12) cattle was sold during the past three years. Interestingly, none of the participants mentioned the same type of relationship between mothers and daughters.

Goats and Sheep ownership

Here, only 92 out of 234 households own goats and or sheep. In this regard, the majority (50%) of women have sole ownership for small ruminates. The women own an average of around six (6) goats and or sheep. The standard deviation is approximately 8. This is followed by joint ownership between husband and wives (34.8%). The average number of small ruminates owned is about fourteen (14), and the standard deviation is approximately 29.

Poultry Ownership

For poultry, there are 202 household who own poultry, i.e. n = 202.

Women ownership: Again, women dominate in poultry ownership. Women own an average of 60 birds, while the standard deviation is about 244. Over the past 3 years, these women acquired approximately 314 birds, while 315 birds were sold during the same period. These results indicate that women are actively engaging in poultry farming.

Husband and wife ownership: Only 19.8% of women have joint ownership of poultry with their husbands. The average number of birds owned is 125, and the standard deviation is about 437. In terms of activity during the past 3 years, 781 birds were acquired, while 705 birds were sold. These results reveal that the scale of entrepreneurship intensifies, as both husband and wife team up together in running the business.

6.4.1.7 Qualitative insights – Livestock ownership

The following quotes gives insights about livestock ownership among the women:

> "*We have 2 cows and 7 chickens…" (Irrigation scheme member).*
>
> *'We have only 1 cow, we sold the rest. We also own 8 chickens" (A1 farmer).*
>
> *"I own 62 cattle, 3 tractors, 2 disc harrows, 2 planters, 2 boom sprayers and 5 pigs"(A2 farmer).*
>
> *"We have joint ownership of all our assets, be it cattle, goats, crops, farming equipment, and the land…." (A2 farmer).*
>
> *"My husband owns the cattle and I own chickens" (A1 farmer)*
>
> *My son own the cattle, and I own goats and chickens" (A1 farmer).*

6.4.1.8 Business information

Under this heading, the details about business registration and sources of capital are presented.

Business Registration: The business registration details are presented in Figure 6.10.

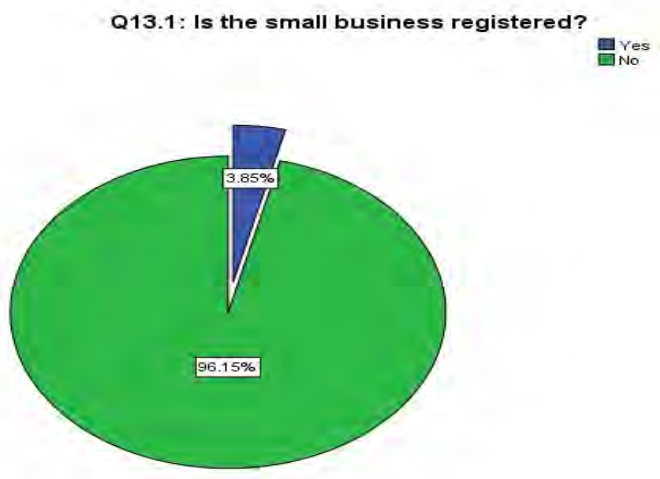

Figure 6.10: Business registration

Most women are operating in the informal sector. The results reveal that the majority (96.15%) of women did not register their business ventures. Only a minority (3.85%) of the women managed to register their business ventures.

6.4.1.9 Qualitative insights – Business information

Below are some quotes from the interviews regarding registration of the business:

> *"No, we have not registered the business. Are we supposed to register (smiles)?" (A1 farmer)*
>
> *"We have not registered the business. Isn't registration requires money?"(A1 farmer). "I have not registered the business as a separate entity…. I just could not be bothered" (A1 farmer).*
>
> *"No, we have not registered. Although we are aware that farming is a business, it never crossed our minds that we should register our farming activities as a separate entity" (A2 farmer).*
>
> *"Yes, we registered the business so as to ensure that in the event of debt, no one becomes personally liable for the cooperatives debts which could result in loss of personal property" (Irrigation scheme member).*

"Yes, the business is registered. My husband is the one who wanted the business to be separate from the household. Today, I believe he made the best decision though I was against it at first" (A2 farmer).

Sources of capital: Figure 6.11 displays information about the sources of capital used by the women.

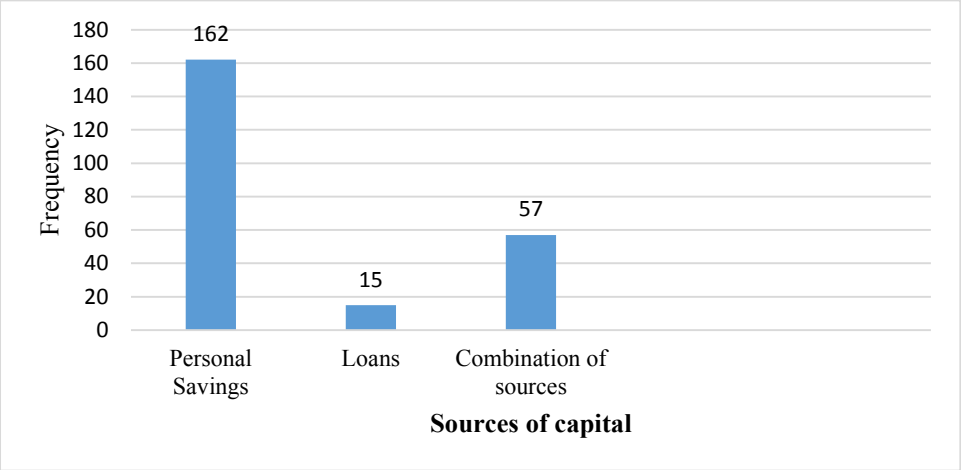

Figure 6.11: Sources of Capital

Unfortunately, few women have access to farming credit. The majority (69.23%, i.e. or n = 162) of women used personal savings to kick start their businesses, whilst, 24.36% (n = 57) used a combination of sources. Only 6.41% (n = 15) received loans.

6.4.1.10 Qualitative insights – Sources of capital

Below are some qualitative insights from the participants which give an overview of the dynamics of raising capital for the business:

"My husband makes and sell bricks….and we use the money to buy farming inputs. No, we have not borrowed any money to fund our farming operations" (A1 farmer).

"We use the money that we earned from last year's harvest to buy farming input for the current year. No, we are not able to borrow money from banks using land as collateral" (A2 farmer).

6.4.2 Demographic data - Focus group interviews

Fourteen women participated in the focus group discussions. The demographic data collected during the two interviews were not as detailed as the data collected from the questionnaire survey. However, the focus group interviews provided useful insights into the state of agriculture entrepreneurship in Mashonaland West province of Zimbabwe. The information in Table 6.6 was gathered from the introductions provided by the participants.

Table 6.6: Demographic data of the focus group participants

Participant	Age	Marital status	No. of children	Level of education	Type of farming scheme
1	45	Married	4	Ordinary level	A1
2	50	Married	5	Ordinary level	A1
3	62	Married	6	Teaching Diploma	A2
4	46	Widow	4	Bachelor's Degree	A1
5	43	Married	3	Ordinary level	A1
6	39	Married	2	Advanced Level	A1
7	55	Widow	4	Below Ordinary level	A1
8	42	Married	2	Ordinary level	A1
9	48	Married	5	Ordinary level	A1
10	58	Married	6	Below Ordinary level	A2
11	57	Married	7	Nursing Diploma	A1
12	40	Married	4	Teaching Diploma	A1
13	38	Married	3	Ordinary level	A1
14	45	Married	4	Master's Degree	A1

The women were aged between 38 and 62 years. Two women are widows, whilst the rest were married. The group of women had children ranging from two to seven. The education of the women were split as follows: two with below Ordinary level education; six with Ordinary level certificate, one with Advanced level certificate, three with Diploma qualification, one with a Bachelor's degree and one with a Master's degree. The majority (12 out of 14) of the women have A1 farms, while only two women had A2 farms.

6.4.3 Farming activities

The women participate in various farming activities. For example, the women participating in irrigation schemes are mostly involved in market gardening. They plant crops which include cabbages, peas, potatoes, tomatoes, green mealies, onions and butternuts. The women with A1 and A2 farms are involved in both livestock and cash crop production. The livestock production includes beef and poultry farming. The cash crops include tobacco, maize and soy beans. It is worth mentioning that there are other livestock and cash crops that are suitable for the study site that are not produced by the women involved in the study. These activities include cotton, wheat, sorghum, groundnuts, seed maize, dairy and pig production. The women involved in fruits farming mentioned mangoes and guavas.

6.4.3.1 Qualitative insights – Farming activities

The following extracts gives an indication of the farming activities that women are involved in.

> *"We are members of an irrigation scheme. We are able to do farming throughout the year. We grow maize, sweet potatoes, vegetables, potatoes and tomatoes" (Irrigation scheme member).*

> *"As a cooperative we grow maize and soya beans. On my own land I grow, maize, sweet potatoes, groundnuts and pumpkins" (Irrigation scheme member).*

> *"We grow what is recommended by the Agricultural Extension Officer. Last year were grew maize, vegetables, tomatoes, onions, peas and butternuts" (Communal/ irrigation scheme member).*

"We are involved in both crop and livestock production. For crop production, we grow maize, tobacco and other crops for family consumption such as potatoes, beans and vegetables. For livestock production, we do beef and poultry farming" (A2 farmer).

The following section presents and analyse the empirical findings according to the research objectives of the study

6.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVE ONE: MOTIVATION FOR ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

The focus of this research objective was to investigate how motivational factors into entrepreneurship influence women's economic empowerment in agriculture. Here, the motivational factors for engaging in entrepreneurship as measured by questionnaire items in question 16, and women's economic empowerment which is measured by question 15 (income generated from various farming activities) are investigated. The research findings are presented and analysed in the following sequence. Firstly, the questionnaire items in question 16 on motivational factors are presented. Secondly, the questionnaire items for question 15 on income generated from various farming activities are analysed. Lastly, the effects of motivational factors (question 16) on women's economic empowerment (question 15) is investigated.

6.5.1 Summary of motivational factors for entrepreneurship (Principal Component Analysis)

The motivational factors are presented according to the following eight themes which are: achievement, independence, opportunity, money, flexibility, recognition, escape and communitarianism.

6.5.1.1 Motivated by the need for achievement

Achievement based motivational factors are presented in Table 6.7 which indicate that in general entrepreneurs are driven by the desire to achieve certain goals as indicated by the high percentages of women who agree or strongly agree with the six questions posed.

Table 6.7: Motivation (Achievement)

Motivation-Achievement (MotAchievement)		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive statistics		Latent Factor (Principal component)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	% Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	Std Dev	Coefficient
Q16.1: To prove I can do it	Count	1	5	25	191	12	86.8%	3.89	0.52	0.772
	%	0.4%	2.1%	10.7%	81.6%	5.1%				
Q16.2: To achieve a personal sense of accomplishment	Count	0	5	28	193	8	85.9%	3.87	0.47	0.826
	%	0.0%	2.1%	12.0%	82.5%	3.4%				
Q16.3: To make a direct contribution to the success family	Count	0	3	24	188	19	88.5%	3.95	0.48	0.793
	%	0.0%	1.3%	10.3%	80.3%	8.1%				
Q16.4: To make better use of my training and skills	Count	0	23	46	153	12	70.5%	3.66	0.73	0.736
	%	0.0%	9.8%	19.7%	65.4%	5.1%				
Q16.5: To be able to establish an opportunity for a business	Count	0	16	41	169	8	75.6%	3.72	0.64	0.714
	%	0.0%	6.8%	17.5%	72.2%	3.4%				
Q16.6: To follow an example of the person I admire	Count	1	53	51	119	10	55.1%	3.36	0.89	0.476
	%	0.4%	22.6%	21.8%	50.9%	4.3%				
	Cronbach's Alpha							0.783		
	% of total variation accounted for by latent factor							53.09%		

The highest achievement based motivational factor is that women want to make a direct contribution to the success their families (questions 16.3) as indicated by the highest percentage (88.5%) of women who agree and strongly agree. The mean for this variable is also the highest (3.95). The lowest achievement based motivational factor is that women want to follow the example of the person that they admire (question 16.6) as indicated by 55.1% of women who agree and strongly agree with this sentiment. The mean score for this variable is 3.36. Generally a mean score of above 3 is indicative of general agreement to the sentiments posed. An overall measure of motivation driven by achievement is calculated as a summary of the six items presented in Table 6.7. This summary variable (MotAchievement) is calculated using principal components (or latent factors) which have weights presented in the last column of the table. The weights indicate that question 16.2, the need to achieve a personal sense of accomplishment, has the highest (0.826) weight which indicates that it is the most important part of achievement based motivation factors.

6.5.1.2 Motivated by the need for independence

The need for independence based motivational factors are presented in Table 6.8 which indicates that in general, entrepreneurs are driven by the desire for independence as indicated by the high percentages of women who agree or strongly agree with the five posed questions.

Table 6.8: Motivation (Independence)

Motivation - Independence (MotIndependence)		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive Statistics		Latent Factor (Principal component)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	% Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	Std Dev	Coefficient
Q16.7: To be my own boss	Count	1	26	66	107	34	60.3%	3.63	0.88	0.894
	%	0.4%	11.1%	28.2%	45.7%	14.5%				
Q16.8: To be free to adopt my own approach to work	Count	0	28	80	106	20	53.8%	3.50	0.81	0.966
	%	0.0%	12.0%	34.2%	45.3%	8.5%				
Q16.9: To control my own time	Count	0	29	72	115	18	56.8%	3.52	0.81	0.948
	%	0.0%	12.4%	30.8%	49.1%	7.7%				
Q16.10: To have an opportunity to lead rather than being led	Count	0	28	80	90	36	53.8%	3.57	0.89	0.936
	%	0.0%	12.0%	34.2%	38.5%	15.4%				
Q16.11: To be able to work with people I choose	Count	0	28	89	106	11	50.0%	3.43	0.76	0.916
	%	0.0%	12.0%	38.0%	45.3%	4.7%				
	Cronbach's Alpha							0.961		
	% of total variation accounted for by latent factor							86.95%		

The highest independence based motivational factor is that women want to be their own bosses (questions 16.7) as indicated by the highest percentage (60.3%) of women who agree or strongly agree. The mean score for this variable is 3.63. The factor with the lowest percentage (50.0%) is that women wanted to work with the people that they choose to work with. The mean score is 3.43. An overall measure of motivation driven by independence is calculated as a summary of the five items presented in Table 6.8. This summary variable (MotIndependence) is calculated using principal components (or latent factors) which have weights presented in the last column. The weights indicate that question 16.8, which highlights the freedom to adopt one's own approach to work, has the highest (0.966) weight which indicates that it is the most important component of independence based motivational factors.

6.5.1.3 Motivated by a business opportunity

Opportunity based motivational factors are presented in Table 6.9 which indicate that in general entrepreneurs are driven by business opportunities that arise on the market. This is indicated by the high percentages of women who agree or strongly agree to the three questions posed.

Table 6.9: Motivation (Opportunity)

Motivation - Opportunity (MotOpportunity)		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive Statistics		Latent Factor (Principal component)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	% Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	Std Dev	Coefficient
Q16.12: It was time in my life when it made sense	Count	0	40	72	115	7	52.1%	3.38	0.80	0.902
	%	0.0%	17.1%	30.8%	49.1%	3.0%				
Q16.13: To diversify and being adventurous in my work	Count	0	38	74	119	3	52.1%	3.37	0.77	0.917
	%	0.0%	16.2%	31.6%	50.9%	1.3%				
Q16.14: To take advantage of an opportunity in farming	Count	1	14	54	158	7	70.5%	3.67	0.66	0.736
	%	0.4%	6.0%	23.1%	67.5%	3.0%				
	Cronbach's Alpha							0.817		
	% of total variation accounted for by latent factor							73.23%		

The highest opportunity based motivational factor is that women want to take advantage of opportunities that arise in farming (questions 16.14). This is shown by the highest percentage (70.5%) of women who agree and strongly agree with this perception. The mean score for this variable is 3.67. An overall measure of motivation driven by opportunity is calculated as a summary of the three items presented in Table 6.9. The summary variable (MotOpportunity) is calculated using principal components (or latent factors) which have weights presented in the last column of the table. The weights indicate that question 16.13, which is based on quest to diversify and to be adventurous in one's work, has the highest (0.917) weight which indicates that it is the most important part of opportunity based motivational factors.

6.5.1.4 Motivated by the need for money

The motivational factors based on the need for money are presented in Table 6.10. The empirical findings reveal that entrepreneurs are generally driven by the need for money as indicated by the high percentages of women who agree or strongly agree to the four questions posed.

Table 6.10: Motivation (Money)

Motivation-Money (MotMoney)		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive Statistics		Latent Factor (Principal component)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	% Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	Std Dev	Coefficient
Q16.15: To give myself and my family financial security.	Count	0	0	3	169	62	98.7%	4.25	0.46	0.870
	%	0.0%	0.0%	1.3%	72.2%	26.5%				
Q16.16: Desire to have higher earnings	Count	0	0	6	166	62	97.4%	4.24	0.48	0.934
	%	0.0%	0.0%	2.6%	70.9%	26.5%				
Q16.17: Needed more money to survive	Count	0	0	2	173	59	99.1%	4.24	0.45	0.901
	%	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%	73.9%	25.2%				
Q16.18: To create wealth	Count	0	1	13	164	56	94.0%	4.18	0.53	0.833
	%	0.0%	0.4%	5.6%	70.1%	23.9%				
	Cronbach's Alpha							0.905		
	% of total variation accounted for by latent factor							78.39%		

The highest money based motivational factor is that women needed more money to survive (questions 16.17). This is shown by the highest percentage (99.1%) of women who agree or strongly agree with this perception. The mean for this variable is 4.24. An overall measure of motivation driven by money is calculated based on a summary of the four items presented in Table 6.10. The summary variable (MotMoney) is calculated using principal components (or latent factors) which have weights presented in the last column of the table. The weights indicate that question 16.16, which is based on the desire to have higher earnings, has the highest (0.934) weight indicating that it is the most important component of money based motivational factors.

6.5.1.5 Motivated by the need for flexibility

The motivation factors based on the need for flexibility are presented in Table 6.11. The research findings reveal that entrepreneurs are generally driven by the need for flexibility in pursing entrepreneurship. This is indicated by the high percentages of women who agree or strongly agree with the posed questions.

Table 6.11: Motivation (Flexibility)

Motivation-Flexibility (MotFlexibility)		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive Statistics		Latent Factor (Principal component)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	% Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	Std Dev	Coefficient
Q16.19: To have greater flexibility between personal and work life	Count	0	23	85	100	26	53.8%	3.55	0.82	0.934
	%	0.0%	9.8%	36.3%	42.7%	11.1%				
Q16.20: To have greater flexibility between personal and family life	Count	0	20	76	121	17	59.0%	3.58	0.75	0.934
	%	0.0%	8.5%	32.5%	51.7%	7.3%				
	Cronbach's Alpha							0.852		
	% of total variation accounted for by latent factor							87.27%		

The highest flexibility based motivational factor is that women desire to have greater flexibility between their personal and family life (questions 16.20). This is indicated by the highest percentage (59.0%) of women who agree or strongly agree to the sentiment. The mean score for this variable is 3.58. An overall measure of motivation factors driven by flexibility is calculated based on a summary of the two items presented in Table 6.11. The summary variable (MotFlexibility) is calculated using principal components (or latent factors) which have weights presented in the last column of the table. The weights indicate that both questions (i.e. question 16.19 and question 16.20), carry the same weight of 0.934 indicating that both variables carry equal weight towards flexibility based motivational factors.

6.5.1.6 Motivated by the need for Recognition

The motivation factors based on the need for recognition are presented in Table 6.12. The research results reveal that entrepreneurs are generally driven by the need for recognition in pursing entrepreneurship. This is indicated by the high percentages of women who agree or strongly agree with the posed questions.

Table 6.12: Motivation (Recognition)

Motivation-Recognition (MotRecognition)		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive Statistics		Latent Factor (Principal component)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	% Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	Std Dev	Coefficient
Q16.21: To achieve something in life.	Count	0	3	18	205	8	91.0%	3.93	0.40	-0.425
	%	0.0%	1.3%	7.7%	87.6%	3.4%				
Q16.22: To achieve societal recognition.	Count	0	5	28	196	5	85.9%	3.86	0.46	-0.267
	%	0.0%	2.1%	12.0%	83.8%	2.1%				
Q16.23: To be part of a network of agricultural entrepreneurs.	Count	0	1	35	192	6	84.6%	3.87	0.42	-0.309
	%	0.0%	0.4%	15.0%	82.1%	2.6%				
Q16.24: To achieve status and prestige for my family.	Count	0	5	32	194	3	84.2%	3.83	0.46	0.020
	%	0.0%	2.1%	13.7%	82.9%	1.3%				
Q16.25: To be respected by friends.	Count	16	27	37	150	4	65.8%	3.42	0.96	0.673
	%	6.8%	11.5%	15.8%	64.1%	1.7%				
Q16.26: To continue with family traditions.	Count	8	25	43	149	9	67.5%	3.54	0.86	0.478
	%	3.4%	10.7%	18.4%	63.7%	3.8%				
Q16.27: To have more influence in my community.	Count	3	11	55	162	3	70.5%	3.65	0.65	0.264
	%	1.3%	4.7%	23.5%	69.2%	1.3%				
	Cronbach's Alpha							0.694		
	% of total variation accounted for by latent factor							42.07%		

The highest recognition based motivational factor is that women want to achieve something in life (questions 16.21). This is indicated by the highest percentage (91.0%) of women who agree and strongly agree with this sentiment. The mean score for this variable 3.93. The lowest (65.8%) recognition based motivational factor is that women want to be respected by their friends. This sentiment has a mean score of 3.42. An overall measure of motivation driven by recognition is calculated based on a summary of the seven items presented in Table 6.12. The summary variable (MotRecognition) is calculated using principal components (or latent factors) which have weights presented in the last column of the table. The weights indicate that question 16.25, which is based on the desire to be respected by friends, has the highest (0.673) weight which indicates that it is the most important of recognition based motivational factors.

6.5.1.7 Motivated by the need to escape undesirable situations

The motivation factors based on the need to escape undesirable situations are presented in Table 6.13. The research results reveal that entrepreneurs are not generally driven by the need to escape from undesirable situations. This is indicated by the low percentages of women who agree or strongly agree to the three questions posed.

Table 6.13: Motivation (Escape)

Motivation - Escape (MotEscape)		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive Statistics		Latent Factor (Principal component)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	% Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	Std Dev	Coefficient
Q16.28: It was the only thing I could do.	Count	43	94	32	62	3	27.8%	2.52	1.11	0.794
	%	18.4%	40.2%	13.7%	26.5%	1.3%				
Q16.29: Frustration of not securing a job.	Count	33	123	36	41	1	17.9%	2.38	0.95	0.755
	%	14.1%	52.6%	15.4%	17.5%	0.4%				
Q16.30: "I was retrenchment from work"	Count	52	144	30	8	0	3.4%	1.97	0.70	0.755
	%	22.2%	61.5%	12.8%	3.4%	0.0%				
	Cronbach's Alpha							0.638		
	% of total variation accounted for by latent factor							59.03%		

Women are not motivated to establish agricultural based enterprises due to job losses as a result of retrenchments (questions 16.30) as indicated by the lowest percentage (3.4%) of women who agree to the sentiment. The mean score for this variable is 1.97 indicating a general disapproval with the sentiment posed. An overall measure of motivation driven by escape is calculated based on a summary of the three items presented in Table 6.13. The summary variable (MotEscape) is calculated using principal components (or latent factors) which have weights presented in the last column of the table. The weights indicate that question 16.28, which is based on the fact that it was the only thing that the women could do, has the highest (0.794) weight which indicates that it is the most important component of escape based motivational factors.

6.5.1.8 Motivated by the sense of communitarianism

The motivation factors based on the sense of communitarianism are presented in Table 6.14. The research results reveal that entrepreneurs are generally driven by the desire to contribute to their communities. This is indicated by the high percentages of women who agree or strongly agree to the two posed questions.

Table 6.14: Motivation (Communitarianism)

Motivation Communitarianism (MotCommunitarianism)		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive Statistics		Latent Factor (Principal component)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	% Agree/ Strongly	Mean	Std Dev	Coefficient
Q16.31: To contribute to the welfare of my relatives.	Count	2	11	26	172	23	83.3%	3.87	0.68	0.942
	%	0.9%	4.7%	11.1%	73.5%	9.8%				
Q16.32: To contribute to the welfare of my community.	Count	2	16	31	177	8	79.1%	3.74	0.67	0.942
	%	0.9%	6.8%	13.2%	75.6%	3.4%				
	Cronbach's Alpha							0.872		
	% of total variation accounted for by latent factor							88.64%		

The highest communitarianism based motivational factor is that women want to contribute to the welfare of their relatives (question 16.31). This is indicated by the highest percentage (83.3%) of women who agree and strongly agree to the sentiment. The mean score for this variable is 3.87. An overall measure of motivation driven by the sense of communitarianism is calculated based on a summary of the two items presented in Table 6.14. The summary variable (MotCommunitarianism) is calculated using principal components (or latent factors) which have weights presented in the last column of the table. The weights indicate that both questions (i.e. question 16.31 and question 16.32), carry the same weight of 0.942. This indicates that both variables carry equal weight towards the communitarianism based motivational factors.

6.5.1.9 Qualitative insights – Motivation for entrepreneurship

The qualitative quotes that relate to motivation into agriculture entrepreneurship are given below:

"I was encouraged and motivated to farm through seeing how other people within our community were succeeding in farming through Irrigation Schemes. We would go and buy crops from them and also work for them as labourers. As a result, I decided to joint an irrigation scheme so that I can work on my land and generate income" (Irrigation scheme member)

"My husband has always been keen on farming and so after we got married, I decided to join him …" (A1 farmer)

"I used to watch and learn while my father did farm work and then I was encouraged and motivated to farm through seeing how other women were succeeding in farming" (Irrigation scheme member).

"Following the death of my husband, the chief nominated me to be part of the cooperative and that motivated and encouraged me to do farming" (Irrigation scheme member).

"I did not want to watch while other women are progressing through farming. I also wanted to be independent and earn my own income as a woman…. I also wanted to earn respect and have other people from my society looking up to me. 'Ndinoda kuve mukadzi anoremekedzwawo pane vamwe' (literally translated as: I also wanted to be a respectable woman among others)" (A1 farmer).

"Initially I started farming so that I could support my husband who was already into farming. After he passed on, I was driven by the fact that I wanted to carry on his legacy. I also wanted to use my knowledge in agriculture instead of only advising others. Importantly, I want to fight for my daughter's right against other family members" A2 farmer).

I have always wanted to farm …. the government afforded me this opportunity so that I could get money to look after my family instead of just relying on my husband's salary

which is not sufficient. 'Iyezvino tave kubatsirana nababa kuchengeta mhuri yedu', translated as: I am now able to assist my husband in taking care of our family" (A1 farmer).

I was born in a family that relied on farming for survival. Farming is our way of life such that even when we were school kids, we would first go to and work in the fields before we go to school. I then got married into a family that also do quite a lot of farming….and here I am!"(A1 farmer)

The second part of research objective one which is based on question 15 (i.e. income generated over a period of two agricultural seasons) is analysed next.

6.5.2 Summary of income generated over the two farming seasons

Women's economic empowerment as measured by the income generated by the following sources of income which are poultry and crop sales, livestock sales, market gardening activities, and off farm sources of income are presented in table 6.15. The income is generated from two farming seasons (i.e. 2013/2014 and 2014/2015).

The empirical results indicate that the major source of income for the two farming seasons is from cash crop sales.

Table 6.15: Sources of Income for the two farming seasons

Source of Income	2013/2014		2014/2015		Mean Increase/ Decrease
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	
Q15.1a: Income generated Poultry sales	$907.49	$7,101.912	$991.42	$7,402.643	$83.93
Q15.2a: Income generated from crop sales	$5,979.85	$24,985.541	$6,520.51	$30,568.641	$540.66
Q15.3a: Income generated from livestock sales	$548.49	$2,092.874	$494.09	$2,001.922	-$54.39
Q15.4a: Income generated from gardening and fruit sales	$402.46	$3,020.574	$380.78	$3,015.576	-$21.68
Q15.5a: Income generated from off farm income (e.g. pension, craft sales, causal labour)	$873.40	$2,276.411	$853.56	$2,299.467	-$19.83
Mean of Total Income	**$8711.69**	**$32627.61**	**$9240.37**	**$36927.46**	**$528.68**

The major sources of income for the women is from cash crop sales. This is indicated by the highest means of $5, 979.85 and $6 520.51 for the 2013/2014 and 2014/2015 farming seasons

respectively. The results show a large standard deviation for the two seasons which indicates a wide range of income generated by the women. For example, the income generated from cash crop sales ranged from as little as $10 to $295 000 for the 2014/2015 farming season. The lowest source of income is generated from gardening and fruits sales which is $402.46 and $380.78 for 2013/2014 and 2014/2015farming seasons respectively. This result is a cause for concern considering the fact that majority of women who participated in the study are involved in irrigation schemes which are directly linked to market gardening. Another important result from the table is that there is a decrease in the income generated from livestock sales, gardening and fruit sales and off farm income. The mean decreases are -$54.39, -$21.68 and -$19.83 for livestock sales, gardening and fruit sales, and off farm income respectively. On the overall, the mean of total income increased by $528.68.

6.5.2.1 Qualitative insights – Sources of income

Below are source qualitative quotes which give a different dimension to the quantitative data summarised above.

> *"Last year, we got a total income of $1 400 from our soya beans and maize harvest" (Irrigation scheme member).*

> *"Last year, we got a total income of $6 900 from our harvest which was made up of 3 tonnes of maize, 5 tonnes of soya beans and 4 tonnes of sugar beans" (A1 farmer).*

> *"I get an average of $10 per week from the sale of vegetables. This is the only source of income I have …" (Irrigation scheme member).*

> *"I received an income of $3000 from cooperative sales. From my own farming activities I received $1000 from maize sales, $2000 from poultry sales and $180 from sewing…" (Communal and Irrigation scheme member).*

> *"Farming is my only source of income and that is the money that I have managed to feed my children and send them to school with. My annual income from farming are: maize sales - $1 200, cabbage sales - $500, vegetable sales - $100, sweet potatoes sales - $200, green mealie sales - $600…" (Communal and Irrigation scheme member).*

"My business income for the year was from: tobacco sales - $40 000, maize crop sales - $20 000, beef sales - $1 000, poultry sales - $4000" (A2 farmer).

"I received $1600 from the sale of green mealies, $600 from potato sales, $200 from tomato sales, $100 from vegetable sales, $200 from sweet potato sales and $220 from selling mangoes and guavas. I also get money from my children and from my late husband's pension (Irrigation scheme).

The last section of research objective one is presented below. Here, the effects of motivational factors (question 16) on women's economic empowerment (question 15) are investigated. Here the motivational factors are correlated to income generated from the two main farming activities namely poultry and cash crop farming.

6.5.3 Correlations between Motivational variables and Income sources

The correlations between motivational variables and women's economic empowerment as measured by income generated from poultry and cash crops for the two farming seasons are presented in Table 6.16. The results generally reveal that motivation driven by independence, opportunity, and escape are correlated to income generated for the two farming seasons. To the contrary, there is no significant correlation between motivation driven by achievement, money, flexibility, recognition and communitarianism and the income generated by the women.

Table 6.16: Correlations between Motivation and Economic Empowerment (income)

Pearson's Correlations			Empowerment variable (Income)								
			Income generated from 2013-2014 poultry sales	Income generated from 2014-2015 poultry sales	Increase in Poultry Sales	Income generated from 2013-2014 crop sales	Income generated from 2014-2015 crop sales	Increase in Crop Sales	Total Income 2013/2014	Total Income 2014/2015	Increase in Total Income
Motivational factors	Motivation-Achievement	Corr	-0.089	-0.090	-0.023	-0.013	0.010	0.038	-0.020	-0.003	0.033
		p-value	0.173	0.172	0.729	0.840	0.874	0.564	0.757	0.967	0.614
		n	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234
	Motivation-Independence	Corr	-0.159*	-0.142*	0.064	-0.140*	-0.137*	-0.039	-0.173**	-0.170**	-0.037
		p-value	0.015	0.030	0.333	0.032	0.037	0.557	0.008	0.009	0.572
		n	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234
	Motivation-Opportunity	Corr	-0.149*	-.147*	-0.0271	-0.150*	-0.159*	-0.065	-0.167*	-0.181**	-0.076
		p-value	0.023	0.024	0.680	0.022	0.015	0.320	0.010	0.006	0.277
		n	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234
	Motivation-Money	Corr	-0.070	-0.062	0.032	-0.068	-0.078	-0.041	-0.080	-0.091	-0.044
		p-value	0.288	0.347	0.631	0.302	0.234	0.537	0.221	0.164	0.504
		n	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234
	Motivation-Flexibility	Corr	-0.051	-0.052	-0.015	0.055	0.008	-0.065	0.031	-0.003	-0.065
		p-value	0.434	0.431	0.822	0.406	0.903	0.321	0.637	0.966	0.319
		n	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234
	Motivation-Recognition	Corr	-0.081	-0.073	0.028	0.044	0.064	0.051	0.014	0.040	0.060
		p-value	0.216	0.264	0.666	0.508	0.328	0.438	0.828	0.540	0.361
		n	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234
	Motivation-Escape	Corr	-0.159*	-.160*	-0.044	-0.178**	-0.152*	-0.0117	-0.198**	-.179**	-0.008
		p-value	0.015	0.014	0.502	0.006	0.020	0.859	0.002	0.006	0.905
		n	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234
	Motivation-Communitarianism	Corr	0.023	0.028	0.037	0.018	0.016	0.003	0.017	0.019	0.008
		p-value	0.731	0.672	0.569	0.790	0.806	0.961	0.794	0.775	0.904
		n	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234

** Correlation is highly significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Motivation-Achievement: The results indicate that there is no significant correlation between motivation based on the achievement and income generated from crop or poultry sales (all p-values>0.05).

Motivation-Independence: Motivation driven by the need to be independent is significantly correlated to income generated from poultry and cash crops for the two farming seasons (p-

values≤0.05). Motivation driven by the need for independence is highly significantly correlated to total income generated for both farming seasons (p-values≤0.01).

Motivation-Opportunity: Motivation driven by opportunity is significantly correlated to income generated from poultry and cash crops for the two farming seasons (p-values≤0.05). Motivation driven by opportunity is significantly correlated to total income generated for 2013/2014 season (p-values≤0.05), as well as highly correlated to total income for the 2014/2015 season (p-values≤0.01).

Motivation-Money: The results indicate that there is no significant correlation between motivation based on money and income generated from crop or poultry sales (all p-values>0.05).

Motivation-Flexibility: The results indicate that there is no significant correlation between motivation based on flexibility and income generated from crop and poultry sales (all p-values>0.05).

Motivation-Recognition: The results indicate that there is no significant correlation between motivation based on recognition and income generated from crop and poultry sales (all p-values>0.05).

Motivation-Escape: Motivation based on the need to escape is significantly correlated to income generated from poultry for the two farming seasons (p-values≤0.05). Similarly, motivation driven by the need to escape is significantly correlated to income generated from cash crops for 2013/2014 seasons (p-values≤0.05), as well as highly significantly correlated to income generated from the 2014/2015 farming season (p-values≤0.01). Motivation driven by the need to escape is also highly significantly correlated to total income generated for both farming seasons (p-values≤0.01).

Motivation-Communitarianism: The results indicate that there is no significant correlation between motivation based on flexibility and income generated from crop or poultry sales **(**all p-values>0.05).

6.6 RESEARCH OBJECTIVE TWO: CHALLENGES AFFECTING WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

The aim of research objective two was to analyse the challenges affecting women's economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship. The challenges affecting the women as measured by questionnaire items in question 22 and women's economic empowerment as measured by question 15 (income generated from various farming activities) are investigated. The empirical findings for research objective two are analysed in the following order. Firstly, the questionnaire items in question 22 on challenges affecting women's economic empowerment are analysed. The outcome of questionnaire 15 on income is already anaysed under research objective one (section 6.5.2). Secondly, the effects of the challenges (question 22) on women's economic empowerment (question 15) is analysed. Lastly, in an attempt to explore the challenges further, these challenges are further analysed relative to various demographic information such as age, marital status, education and land size.

6.6.1 Summary of Challenges

The summaries of challenges faced by women entrepreneurs in agriculture are split into agricultural production and farming business challenges. The agriculture production challenges are analysed first. This is then followed by the analysis of the farming production challenges.

6.6.1.1 Agricultural production challenges

Women were requested to rank eight challenges that affect women in agriculture. The empirical findings reveal that women in Mashonaland West province consider three out of the eight identified challenges as having a huge impact on their farming. These results are presented in Table 6.17.

Table 6.17: Challenges (Agricultural production)

Challenges: Agricultural production) (ChallengeAgricprodn)		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive Statistics		Latent Factor (Principal component)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	% Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	Std Dev	Coefficient
Q22.1: Rising costs of agricultural inputs	Count	16	0	8	171	39	89.7%	4.00	0.69	-0.372
	%	6.8%	0.0%	3.4%	73.1%	16.7%				
Q22.2: Lack of availability of farming loans	Count	18	0	29	157	30	79.9%	3.85	0.73	-0.116
	%	7.7%	0.0%	12.4%	67.1%	12.8%				
Q22.3: Lack of supply of farming inputs and equipment on the local market	Count	77	0	33	119	5	53.0%	3.22	0.94	0.205
	%	32.9%	0.0%	14.1%	50.9%	2.1%				
Q22.4: Lack of irrigation facilities	Count	6	105	19	95	9	44.4%	2.98	1.06	0.398
	%	2.6%	44.9%	8.1%	40.6%	3.8%				
Q22.5: Poor infrastructure (e.g. roads)	Count	15	141	31	46	1	20.1%	2.47	0.89	0.729
	%	6.4%	60.3%	13.2%	19.7%	0.4%				
Q22.6: Ratio of extension officers to farmers is too low	Count	16	120	55	42	1	18.4%	2.54	0.88	0.813
	%	6.8%	51.3%	23.5%	17.9%	0.4%				
Q22.7: Poorly resourced extension officers (e.g. lack of transport to visit farmers)	Count	15	93	49	74	3	32.9%	2.82	1.00	0.714
	%	6.4%	39.7%	20.9%	31.6%	1.3%				
Q22.8: Lack of agricultural training	Count	15	86	60	70	3	31.2%	2.83	0.97	0.811
	%	6.4%	36.8%	25.6%	29.9%	1.3%				
	Cronbach's Alpha							0.595		
	% of total variation accounted for by latent factor							33.88%		

The agricultural production challenge that overwhelms women entrepreneurs in agriculture is the rising costs of agricultural inputs as indicated by the highest (89.7%) number of women who agree or strongly agree. The mean score of this challenge is 4. The other two main challenges are lack of availability of farming loans (79.9%, mean score is 3.85) and lack of supply of farming inputs and equipment on the local market (53.0%, mean score is 3.22). The remaining five challenges had a low percentage of women who agree or strongly agree that their agricultural production is negatively affected by the impact of these challenges. These challenges are: lack of irrigation facilities (44.4%, mean score is 2.98), poorly resources agriculture extension officers (32.9%, mean score is 2.82), lack of agricultural training (31.2%, mean score is 2.83), poor infrastructure such as roads (32.1%, mean score is 2.47) and low ratio of agriculture extension officers to support farmers (18.4%, mean score is 2.54). An overall measure of agriculture production challenges is calculated as a summary of the eight items presented in Table 6.17. The summary variable (ChallengeAgricProdn) is calculated using principal components (or latent factors) which have weights presented in the last column of the

table. The item with the highest weighting is question 22.6 which is based on low ratio of agriculture extension officer to farmers (0.813) representing that it is the most important challenge for agriculture production.

6.6.1.2 Farming Business Challenges

The empirical results of farming business challenges are presented in Table 6.18.

Table 6.18: Farming Business Challenges

Challenges (Farming Business)		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive Statistics		Latent Factor (Principal component)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	% Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	Std Dev	Coefficient
Q22.9: Lack of lucrative markets for livestock and agricultural produce	Count	3	43	18	160	10	72.6%	3.56	0.88	0.306
	%	1.3%	18.4%	7.7%	68.4%	4.3%				
Q22.10: Lack of refrigerated storage facilities for agricultural fresh produce	Count	4	81	55	84	10	40.2%	3.06	0.97	0.871
	%	1.7%	34.6%	23.5%	35.9%	4.3%				
Q22.11: High cost of transportation to the market	Count	1	37	31	153	12	70.5%	3.59	0.83	0.612
	%	0.4%	15.8%	13.2%	65.4%	5.1%				
Q22.12: High licensing cost at market places (e.g. market fees)	Count	3	75	67	82	7	38.0%	3.06	0.92	0.895
	%	1.3%	32.1%	28.6%	35.0%	3.0%				
Q22.13: Lack of basic infrastructure at market places (e.g. ablution facilities)	Count	1	78	66	82	7	38.0%	3.07	0.91	0.903
	%	0.4%	33.3%	28.2%	35.0%	3.0%				
Q22.14: Lack of vending shades at market places	Count	1	80	66	83	4	37.2%	3.04	0.89	0.924
	%	0.4%	34.2%	28.2%	35.5%	1.7%				
Q22.15: Over flooding of agricultural produce on the market	Count	0	43	42	110	39	63.7%	3.62	0.97	0.631
	%	0.0%	18.4%	17.9%	47.0%	16.7%				
Q22.16: Lack of disposable income	Count	0	14	27	176	17	82.5%	3.84	0.63	0.376
	%	0.0%	6.0%	11.5%	75.2%	7.3%				
Q22.17: Lack of training in business management skills	Count	5	45	64	120	0	51.3%	3.28	0.85	0.105
	%	2.1%	19.2%	27.4%	51.3%	0.0%				
Q22.18: Lack of training in value addition activities (e.g. food processing skills)	Count	3	34	62	118	17	57.7%	3.48	0.88	0.142
	%	1.3%	14.5%	26.5%	50.4%	7.3%				
	Cronbach's Alpha							0.798		
	% of total variation accounted for by latent factor							42.68%		

Lack of disposable income or rather buying power among the people in Zimbabwe is the biggest challenge that women engaging in agriculture based entrepreneurship encounter. This is indicated by the highest (82.5%) number of women who agree or strongly agree to this sentiment. The other major farming business challenges that women entrepreneurs in agriculture face are: lack of lucrative markets for livestock and agricultural produce (72.6%), high cost of transportation to markets (70.5%), over flooding of agricultural produce on the market (63.7%), lack of training in value addition activities such as food processing skills (57.7%), and lack of training in business management skills (53.1%). The mean scores for all these challenges is above 3. A summary variable that represent farming business challenges (ChallengeFarmBus) was generated using principal components analysis to create a latent factor for farming business challenges based on the ten items of the question. The question with the highest weighting is question 22.14 which indicates that lack of vending shades at market places is the most important challenge for farming business.

6.6.1.3 Qualitative insights – Challenges in agriculture entrepreneurship

Below are some of the extracts from women on the overall challenges that women are facing in agriculture entrepreneurship:

> *"Our main challenge is that the Grain Marketing Board (GMB) has not paid us for the maize that we sold to them. Low tobacco prices and theft by employees are also some of the challenges that we are experiencing. Employees disrespect me … they do not treat me in the same way they used to respect my late husband. Ways of dealing with these challenges is to grow irrigated tobacco so as to improve on quality, selling maize to the informal sector and scaling down on operations" (A2 farmer).*

> *"We have no money for purchasing farming inputs because GMB have up to now, not paid us for the maize that we sold to them. This means that next year we have nowhere to sell our harvest to, where we get reasonable returns. Next time, we will sell only a small portion of our maize to GMB because they pay us late…" (A1 farmer).*

> *"Our main challenge is money to purchase seeds and other farming equipment that we need for farming. We also struggle to sell our crops. 'Tinogara tichitaura nemudhumeni kuti atitsvagire kwekutengesera, (translated in as: we are continuously pleading with*

the Agricultural Extension Officer to help us source buyers for our harvests" (Irrigation scheme member).

"We have very little farming space from the irrigation scheme. If we had more land, it would be better for us because we would be able to grow more crops and generate more income…. Because of the limited farming space, we are not able to generate enough income for significant household improvements…" (Irrigation scheme member).

"Our main challenge is lack of transport to carry the crops from the farm to the market. The cost of farming inputs is also very high. What we have resorted to do is buying our farming inputs collectively so that we increase our bargaining power. In this way, we also save on delivery costs for the farming inputs because we share the costs" (A1 farmer).

"Electricity charges and water rates are very high. We once had the electricity cut off and our seedlings dried up and we were not able to continue with our farming operations. If only the government would assist us…" (Irrigation scheme member)

"Our biggest challenge is that there are so many of us producing the same crops which results in reduction in prices of agricultural commodities....." (A1 farmer).

"It is difficult to do farming in Zimbabwe at the moment because there are no farming loans. Before the Land Reform Programme, white farmers used to get loans for farming from banks. Indigenous farmers cannot do that because we cannot use their land as collateral. Again poor economic conditions that the country is facing has resulted in banks not being able to lend money even if you want to borrow using your house in Harare as collateral. GMB is not paying us for the produce that we sold to them! This is negatively affecting our farming operations – we have cash flow problems…and tell me, how do you run a farming enterprise like that!" (A2 farmer).

"High costs of farming inputs is a big challenge for us. In order to mitigate against such challenges, we have now resorted to farming on smaller pieces of land and we now buy our farming inputs collectively".

6.6.2 Effects of challenges on income (Correlations)

The correlations between challenges and women's economic empowerment as measured by income generated for two farming seasons are presented in Table 6.16. The results reveal that there is no significant correlation between income generated from the 2013/2014 and 2014/2015 farming season and agricultural production challenges. However, there are significant correlations between incomes generated from livestock sales and off farm activities for both seasons. The details of the empirical findings are presented in Table 6.19.

Table 6.19: Effects of challenges on income

Pearson's Correlations			Challenges	
			Challenges-Agricultural Production	Challenges-Farm Business
Income	Income generated from 2013-2014 poultry sales	Correlation	0.104	-0.040
		p-value	0.114	0.538
		n	234	234
	Income generated from 2014-2015 poultry sales	Correlation	0.114	-0.024
		p-value	0.081	0.719
		n	234	234
	Income generated from 2013-2014 crop sales	Correlation	0.077	-0.059
		p-value	0.238	0.367
		n	234	234
	Income generated from 2014-2015 crop sales	Correlation	0.049	-0.095
		p-value	0.460	0.149
		n	234	234
	Income generated from 2013-2014 livestock sales	Correlation	-0.078	-0.192**
		p-value	0.232	0.003
		n	234	234
	Income generated from 2014-2015 livestock sales	Correlation	-0.053	-0.230**
		p-value	0.423	0.000
		n	234	234
	Income generated from 2013-2014 gardening and fruit sales	Correlation	0.056	.004
		p-value	0.393	0.955
		n	234	234
	Income generated from 2014-2015 gardening and fruit sales	Correlation	0.063	-.002
		p-value	0.340	0.976
		n	234	234
	Income generated from 2013-2014 off farm, pension, craft sales, causal labour	Correlation	-0.079	-0.257**
		p-value	0.228	0.000
		n	234	234
	Income generated from 2014-2015 off farm, pension & craft sales	Correlation	-0.082	-0.264**
		p-value	0.209	0.000
		n	234	234

** Correlation is highly significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The analysis of the results in Table 6.19 is split into agriculture production and farming business challenges.

Agriculture production challenges

The results in Table 6.19 indicate that there is no significant correlation between income generated for the two farming seasons (2013/2014 and 2014/2015) and agriculture production challenges (all p-values>0.05).

Farming business challenges

There are no significant correlations between some sources of income (such as poultry, cash crops, market gardening and fruit sales) and farming business challenges (all p-values>0.05). There is however a highly significant correlation between incomes generated from livestock sales and off farm activities for the seasons (p-values≤0.01).

The following section analyses the challenges faced by women against selected demographic variables.

6.6.3 Tests for the effects of selected demographic variables on challenges

The effects of demographic variables on challenges faced by women entrepreneurs in agriculture are summarized in this section. The demographic variables used are age, marital status, education, land size.

6.6.3.1 Effects of Age on challenges

The empirical results on the effect of age on challenges facing women's economic empowerment are presented in Table 6.20.

Table 6.20: Tests for the effects of Age on challenges (ANOVA)

Challenges		N	Mean	Std. Dev.	ANOVA Tests			
					F	DF1, DF2	p-value	Comment
Challenges-Agricultural Production	0-29 years	19	3.14	0.42	1.647	5 228	0.149	Not Significant
	30-39 years	45	3.03	0.38				
	40-49 years	71	3.20	0.50				
	50-59 years	49	3.05	0.46				
	60-69 years	39	2.97	0.45				
	70+ years	11	3.10	0.52				
Challenges-Farm Business	0-29 years	19	3.49	0.56	0.859	5 228	0.509	Not Significant
	30-39 years	45	3.41	0.56				
	40-49 years	71	3.38	0.49				
	50-59 years	49	3.34	0.52				
	60-69 years	39	3.27	0.46				
	70+ years	11	3.18	0.70				

According to the results in Table 6.20, age does not significantly affect agricultural production challenges faced by women entrepreneurs in agriculture (F=1.647, df1=5, df2=228, p-value=0.149) and neither does it affect farming business challenges (F=0.859, df1=5, df2=228, p-value=0.509).

To better understand the general trend of age and challenges the mean plots for the two variables measuring challenges are presented in Figure 6.12.

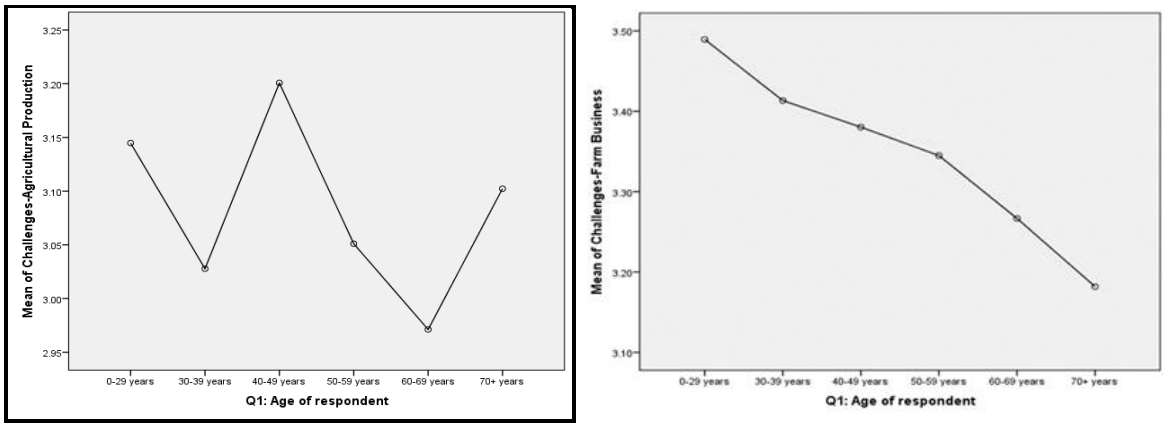

Figure 6.12: Mean plots of age vs agricultural production challenges and farming business challenges

Although there is no significant effect of age on both agricultural production and farming business challenges, the empirical findings reveal that women in the age group of 40-49 years' experience more agriculture production challenges (highest mean), while women in the 60-69 age group experience the least challenges (lowest mean). The empirical findings also reveal a general decline in the level of farming business challenges as one grows older. This might be indicative of the farming business lessons derived from experience or other positive qualities that age brings on farming business knowledge.

6.6.3.2 Effects of Marital Status on challenges

The results on the effect of marital status on challenges are analysed in Table 6.21.

Table 6.21: Effects of Marital Status on challenges (ANOVA)

		N	Mean	Std. Dev.	ANOVA Tests			
					F	DF1, DF2	p-value	Comment
Challenges-Agricultural Production	Single	8	3.05	0.53	0.478	3 230	0.698	Not Significant
	Married	130	3.11	0.43				
	Widowed	84	3.05	0.51				
	Divorced	12	3.17	0.45				
Challenges-Farm Business	Single	8	3.25	0.52	0.769	3 230	0.513	Not Significant
	Married	130	3.41	0.51				
	Widowed	84	3.31	0.53				
	Divorced	12	3.31	0.56				

According to the results in Table 6.21, marital status does not significantly affect agricultural production challenges faced by women entrepreneurs (F=0.478, df1=3, df2=230, p-value=0.698); and neither does it affect farming business challenges (F=0.769, df1=3, df2=230, p-value=0.513).

To better understand the general trend of marital status and challenges, the means plots for the two variables measuring challenges are presented in Figure 6.13.

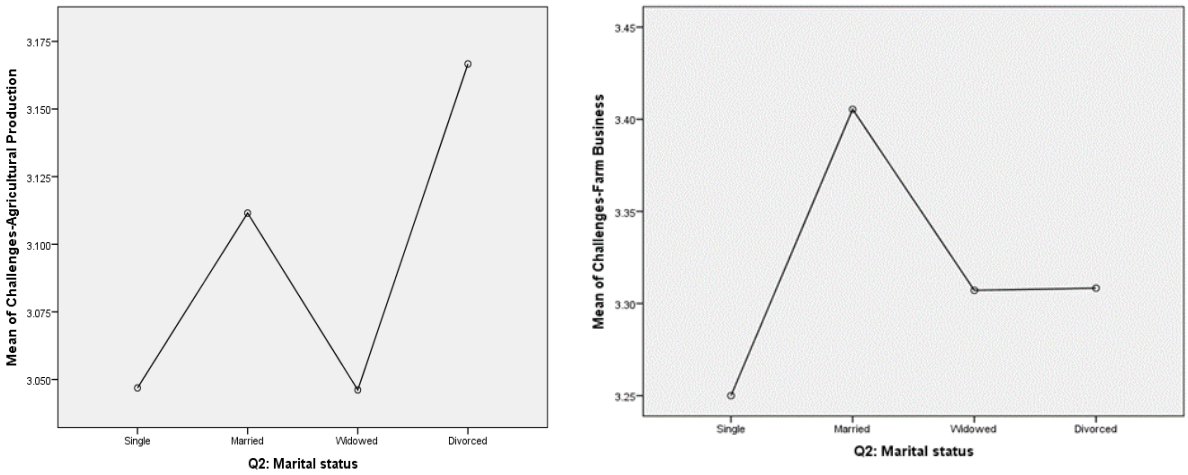

Figure 6.13: Means plot of marital status vs agricultural production and farming business challenges

Although there is no significant effect of marital status on both types of challenges, it can be noticed that the agricultural production challenges are more prevalent for divorced women, while the farming business challenges are more prevalent for married women.

6.6.3.3 Effects of education on challenges

The results of the effect of education on challenges is analysed using Anova in Table 6.22.

Table 6.22: Effects of education on challenge (ANOVA)

		N	Mean	Std. Dev.	ANOVA Tests			
					F	DF1, DF2	p-value	Comment
Challenges-Agricultural Production	Below Ordinary Level	150	3.07	0.46	2.507	6 227	0.023	Significant
	Ordinary Level	31	3.03	0.49				
	Advanced Level	33	3.16	0.36				
	Diploma	15	3.36	0.47				
	Bachelor's Degree	2	2.94	0.27				
	Master's Degree	2	2.19	0.09				
	Doctorate	1	3.00					
Challenges-Farm Business	Below "O" Level	150	3.36	0.49	3.618	6 227	0.002	Significant
	Ordinary Level	31	3.32	0.57				
	Advanced Level	33	3.48	0.50				
	Diploma	15	3.44	0.53				
	Bachelor's Degree	2	2.30	0.14				
	Master's Degree	2	2.30	0.14				
	Doctorate	1	4.00	-				

The results in Table 6.22 indicate that education has a significant effect on agricultural production challenges (F=2.504, df1=6, df2=227, p-value=0.023); and has a significant effect on farming business challenges (F=3.618, df1=6, df2=227, p-value=0.002).

In order to understand the general trend of the impact of education on challenges, the means plots for the two variables measuring challenges are presented in Figure 6.14.

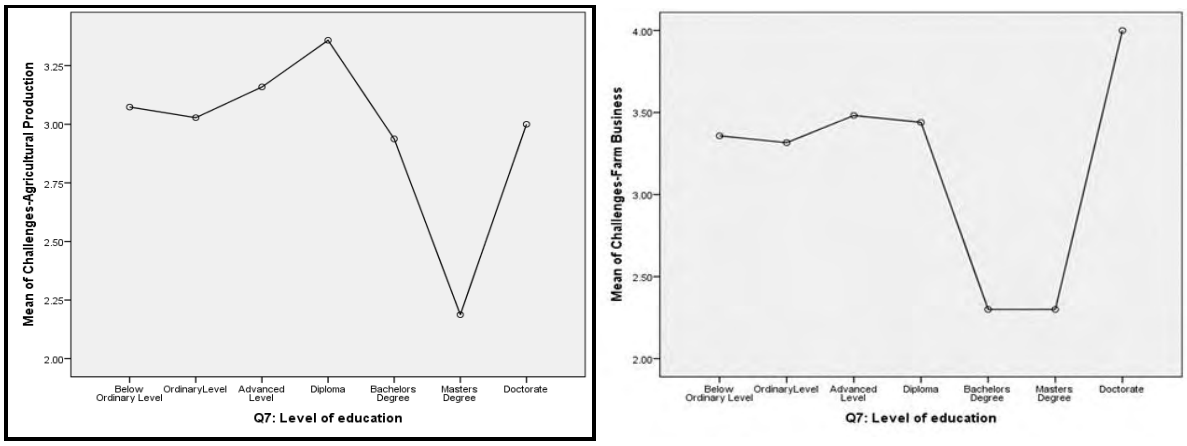

Figure 6.14: Means plot of Education vs agricultural production challenge and farming challenges

Although there is a significant effect of education on both types of challenges, it can be noticed that the challenges are more predominate for women who are less educated as indicated by the highest mean, as compared to women who are educated (lowest means). It is also important to mention that only one woman had a Doctorate degree. Hence, the rise in the trend of challenges can be misleading.

6.6.3.4 Effects of type of land on challenges

The results on the effect of land type and challenges are analysed in Table 6.23.

Table 6.23: Effects of type of land on challenges (ANOVA)

Challenges	Type of Land	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	ANOVA Tests			
					F	DF1, DF2	p-value	Comment
Challenges-Agricultural Production	A1	84	3.36	0.41	28.543	3 230	0.000	Significant
	A2	22	3.27	0.53				
	Irrigation scheme	126	2.87	0.34				
	Other	2	3.44	1.15				
Challenges-Farm Business	A1	84	3.23	0.45	9.644	3 230	0.000	Significant
	A2	22	3.02	0.52				
	Irrigation scheme	126	3.50	0.52				
	Other	2	4.00	0.14				

The results in Table 6.23 indicate that the type of land has a significant effect on agricultural production challenges (F=28.543, df1=3, df2=230, p-value=0.000); and has a significant effect on farming business challenges (F=9.644, df1=3, df2=230, p-value=0.000).

In order to understand the general trend of the impact of type of land on challenges, the means plots for the two variables measuring challenges are presented in Figure 6.15.

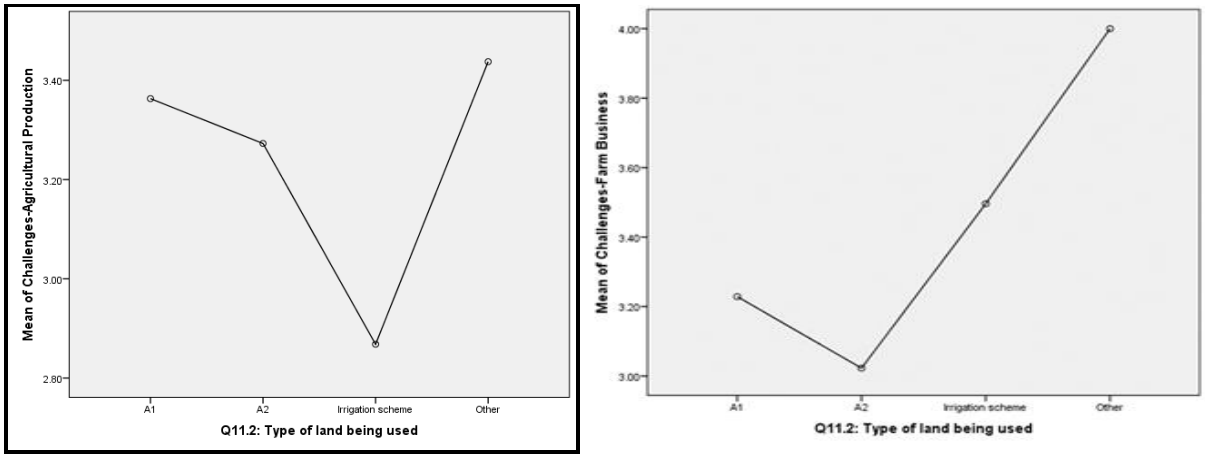

Figure 6.15: Means plot of type of land vs agricultural production challenge and farming challenges

Although the empirical results indicate that there is a significant effect on the type of land used on both types of challenges, it can be seen that women involved in irrigation schemes face the least agricultural production challenges (lowest means). Similarly, A1 and A2 farmers face the least farming business challenges (lowest means) as compared to irrigation scheme farmers.

6.6.3.5 Effects of year of land occupation (year of land acquisition) on challenges

The results on the effect of year of land occupation and challenges are analysed in Table 6.24.

Table 6.24: Effects of year of land occupation (year of land acquisition) on challenges (ANOVA)

Challenges	Year land acquired	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	ANOVA Tests			
					F	DF1, DF2	p-value	Comment
Challenges-Agricultural Production	1990-1994	45	2.90	0.27	8.567	4 229	0.000	Significant
	1995-2000	22	3.02	0.50				
	2001-2005	73	3.26	0.47				
	2006-2010	46	3.22	0.44				
	2011-2014	48	2.90	0.46				
Challenges-Farm Business	1990-1994	45	3.72	0.47	13.027	4 229	0.000	Significant
	1995-2000	22	3.69	0.41				
	2001-2005	73	3.23	0.41				
	2006-2010	46	3.24	0.56				
	2011-2014	48	3.18	0.50				

The empirical results in Table 6.24 indicate that the year of land occupation has a significant effect on agricultural production challenges (F=8.567, df1=4, df2=229, p-value=0.000); and has a significant effect on farming business challenges (F=13.027, df1=4, df2=229, p-value=0.000).

In order to understand the general trend of the year in which the land was acquired and the challenges, the means plots for the two variables measuring challenges are presented in Figure 6.16.

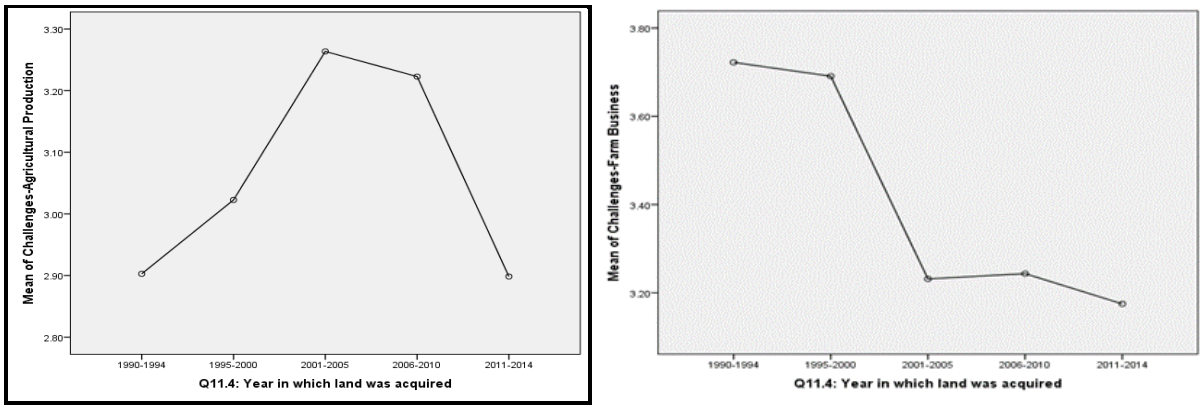

Figure 6.16: Means plot of the year of land occupation vs agricultural production challenge and farming challenges

The results in Figure 6.16 indicate that the agricultural production challenges were more intense between 2001 and 2000 (highest mean), and the challenges are declining with time (i.e. the mean for the challenges is at its lowest between 2011 and 2014). In the same way, the women experienced more challenges before the year 2000. Since then, the intensity of challenges has been declining as indicated by lower means from 2001 to 2014. Thus, there has been improvement in the level of agriculture entrepreneurship from the years 2001-2014 as indicated by the decline in farm business challenges.

6.6.3.6 Effects of year of land size on challenges

Table 6.25 presents the results of the land size on challenges.

Table 6.25 Effects of year of land size on challenges

Challenges	Size of land	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	ANOVA Tests			
					F	DF1, DF2	p-value	Comment
Challenges-Agricultural Production	0-5 Hectares	130	2.88	0.38	16.008	6 227	0.000	Significant
	6-10 Hectares	82	3.36	0.40				
	11-15 Hectares	1	3.50	-				
	16-20 Hectares	1	3.50	-				
	21-50 Hectares	4	3.66	0.45				
	51-100 Hectares	9	3.44	0.35				
	100+ Hectares	7	2.91	0.57				
Challenges-Farm Business	0-5 Hectares	130	3.50	0.52	6.447	6 227	0.000	Significant
	6-10 Hectares	82	3.21	0.45				
	11-15 Hectares	1	3.80	-				
	16-20 Hectares	1	3.70	-				
	21-50 Hectares	4	3.53	0.22				
	51-100 Hectares	9	3.10	0.43				
	100+ Hectares	7	2.63	0.44				

The empirical results in Table 6.25 indicate that land size has a significant effect on agricultural production challenges (F=16.008, df1=6, df2=227, p-value=0.000); and has a significant effect on farming business challenges (F=6.447, df1=6, df2=227, p-value=0.000).

In order to understand the general trend of the land size on challenges, the means plots for the two variables measuring challenges are presented in Figure 6.17.

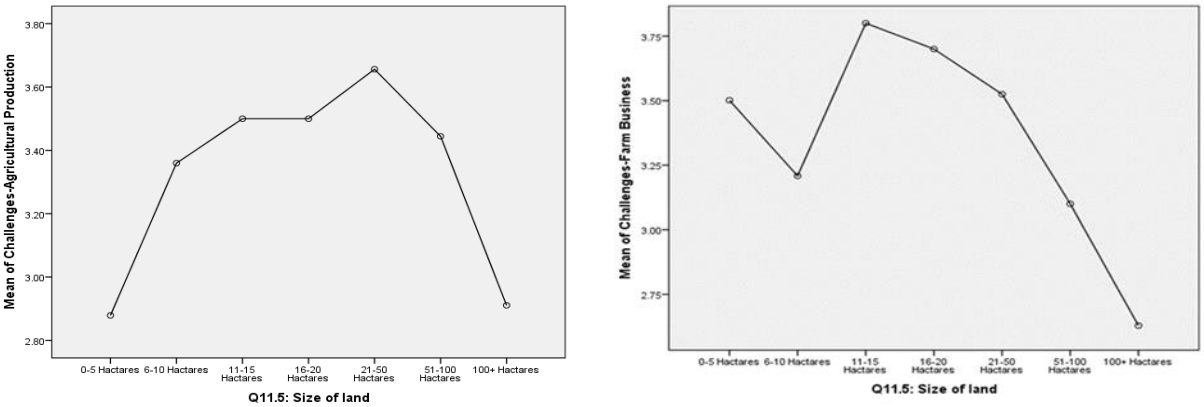

Figure 6.17: Means plot of land size vs agricultural production challenge and farming challenges

The results in Figure 6.17 indicates that women with small sizes of land (0-5 hectares) and those with the largest size of agricultural land (+100 hectares) experience the least agricultural production challenges. The rest of the women with land size measuring between six to 100 hectares experience more challenges as indicated by the high mean scores. With regards to farming business challenges, the women with more than 100 hectares experience the least challenges. The rest of the women are experiencing more challenges as indicated by the mean score of above 3.

6.7 RESEARCH OBJECTIVE THREE: SOCIO-CULTURAL FACTORS AFFECTING WOMEN' ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

The aim of research objective three was to evaluate how socio-cultural factors affect women economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship. The socio-cultural factors affecting women entrepreneurship as measured by questionnaire items in question 23 on women's economic empowerment which is measured by question 15 (income generated from various farming activities) are investigated.

The analysis of the empirical findings for research objective three is organised in the following order. The questionnaire items for question 23 on socio-cultural factors affecting women entrepreneurship in agriculture are analysed first. The summary of the outcome of questionnaire 15 on income is omitted because it was analyzed under research objective one, section 6.5.2. Second, the effects of socio-cultural factors on women's economic empowerment are then analysed.

6.7.1 Summary of socio-cultural factors

Women were requested to rank ten items on socio-cultural factors affecting women's economic empowerment in agriculture. The results generally indicate that women agree with the fact that socio-cultural factors are negatively affecting women's economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship. These results are presented in table 6.26.

Table 6.26: Socio-Cultural Factors

Socio-Cultural Factors (SocioCultFactors)		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive Statistics		Latent Factor (Principal component)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	% Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	Std Dev	Coefficient
Q23.1: Society believe that a woman's place is in the kitchen	Count	9	45	22	142	16	67.5%	3.47	1.00	0.833
	%	3.8%	19.2%	9.4%	60.7%	6.8%				
Q23.2: Society believe that a woman's role is to bear children and support her husband	Count	11	42	19	151	11	69.2%	3.47	0.99	0.855
	%	4.7%	17.9%	8.1%	64.5%	4.7%				
Q23.3: Society believe that the husband is the head of the house and controls everything.	Count	7	34	20	156	17	73.9%	3.61	0.93	0.868
	%	3.0%	14.5%	8.5%	66.7%	7.3%				
Q23.4: Society believe that the success of the woman belongs to the husband.	Count	10	31	26	157	10	71.4%	3.54	0.93	**0.902**
	%	4.3%	13.2%	11.1%	67.1%	4.3%				
Q23.5: Society believe that women are not capable of achieving anything in life without help from men	Count	12	27	20	167	8	74.8%	3.56	0.93	0.891
	%	5.1%	11.5%	8.5%	71.4%	3.4%				
Q23.6: Society believe that women are inferior to men, therefore, they must not own property (e.g. land)	Count	12	31	22	156	13	72.2%	3.54	0.97	0.863
	%	5.1%	13.2%	9.4%	66.7%	5.6%				
Q23.7: Society believe that a woman cannot make sound decisions on their own.	Count	7	34	21	163	9	73.5%	3.57	0.89	0.897
	%	3.0%	14.5%	9.0%	69.7%	3.8%				
Q23.8: Society is not supportive of women who work hard because they are seen to be competing with men	Count	11	51	25	132	15	62.8%	3.38	1.04	**0.685**
	%	4.7%	21.8%	10.7%	56.4%	6.4%				
Q23.9: Society believes that women who are successful in business are not "straight forward".	Count	9	28	20	146	31	75.6%	3.69	0.98	0.740
	%	3.8%	12.0%	8.5%	62.4%	13.2%				
Q23.10: Society believes that certain farming activities are performed by a particular gender	Count	10	24	27	149	24	73.9%	3.65	0.95	0.753
	%	4.3%	10.3%	11.5%	63.7%	10.3%				
	Cronbach's Alpha							0.948		
	% of total variation accounted for by latent factor							69.20%		

The majority of women agreed that socio-cultural factors are indeed affecting women's economic empowerment in agriculture as indicated by the mean score of above 3 on all factors. Questionnaire item 23.9 which is based on the fact that society believes that women who are successful in business are not "straight forward" has the highest (75.6%) percentage. The mean score is 3.69. The socio-cultural factor with the lowest (62.8%) percentage of women who agree/ strongly agree is questionnaire item 28.8 which is based on the fact that society is not supportive of women who work hard because they are seen to be competing with men. The mean score for this questionnaire item is 3.38. A summary variable that represents the socio-cultural factors affecting women's economic empowerment (SocioCultFactors) was generated using principal components analysis to create a latent factor for socio-cultural factors based on the ten question items. The question with the highest weighting (0.902) is question 23.4 which is based on the fact that society believe that the success of the woman belongs to the husband. This indicates that this questionnaire item is the most important socio-cultural factor.

6.7.2 Correlation of socio-cultural factors and women economic empowerment

The correlations between socio-cultural factors and women's economic empowerment as measured by income generated for two farming seasons are presented in Table 6.27. The results generally reveal that there is no significant correlation between socio-cultural factors and women's economic empowerment.

Table 6.27: Correlation of socio-cultural factors and women economic empowerment

Socio-Cultural Factors		Economic empowerment variables											
		Q15.1a: Income generated from 2013-2014 poultry sales	Q15.1b: Income generated from 2014-2015 poultry sales	Q15.2a: Income generated from 2013-2014 crop sales	Q15.2b: Income generated from 2014-2015 crop sales	Q15.3a: Income generated from 2013-2014 livestock sales	Q15.3b: Income generated from 2014-2015 livestock sales	Q15.4a: Income generated from 2013-2014 gardening and fruit sales	Q15.4b: Income generated from 2014-2015 gardening and fruit sales	Q15.5a: Income generated from 2013-2014 off farm, pension, craft sales, causal labour	Q15.5b: Income generated from 2014-2015 off farm, pension & craft sales	Q15.6a: Total Income 2013/2014	Q15.6b: Total Income 2014/2015
Q23.1:	Corr	0.041	0.047	0.089	0.086	0.009	0.038	0.052	0.051	0.037	0.043	0.085	0.089
	p-value	0.533	0.472	0.174	0.192	0.892	0.560	0.432	0.436	0.573	0.512	0.194	0.174
	n	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234
Q23.2	Corr	0.049	0.055	0.087	0.086	0.008	0.037	0.053	0.052	0.081	0.091	0.088	0.094
	p-value	0.460	0.402	0.185	0.188	0.909	0.574	0.416	0.429	0.220	0.163	0.179	0.150
	n	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234
Q23.3:	Corr	0.025	0.035	0.066	0.066	-0.018	0.020	0.049	0.043	0.064	0.070	0.064	0.071
	p-value	0.700	0.597	0.313	0.311	0.780	0.764	0.452	0.516	0.327	0.283	0.329	0.280
	n	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234
Q23.4:	Corr	0.042	0.051	0.080	0.080	-0.016	0.038	0.048	0.045	0.081	0.088	0.080	0.088
	p-value	0.525	0.442	0.222	0.220	0.807	0.560	0.464	0.490	0.215	0.182	0.225	0.180
	n	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234
Q23.5:	Corr	0.038	0.046	0.075	0.073	-0.004	0.036	0.045	0.041	0.057	0.068	0.073	0.079
	p-value	0.565	0.487	0.254	0.265	0.950	0.583	0.494	0.535	0.382	0.303	0.263	0.227
	n	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234
Q23.6:	Corr	0.035	0.042	0.079	0.075	0.030	0.035	0.048	0.044	0.061	0.073	0.079	0.080
	p-value	0.590	0.525	0.230	0.253	0.650	0.599	0.463	0.504	0.356	0.264	0.231	0.220
	n	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234
Q23.7:	Corr	0.035	0.047	0.079	0.076	0.034	0.038	0.049	0.044	0.058	0.070	0.079	0.082
	p-value	0.590	0.478	0.227	0.249	0.605	0.559	0.453	0.504	0.378	0.287	0.228	0.211
	n	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234
Q23.8:	Corr	0.056	0.065	0.106	0.102	0.089	0.065	0.048	0.055	.129*	0.126	0.112	0.113
	p-value	0.393	0.326	0.107	0.120	0.173	0.320	0.461	0.404	0.049	0.055	0.086	0.084
	n	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234
Q23.9:	Cor	0.029	0.032	0.054	0.049	0.024	0.007	0.037	0.031	0.002	0.009	0.053	0.050
	p-value	0.657	0.627	0.414	0.459	0.710	0.910	0.569	0.639	0.981	0.895	0.423	0.445
	n	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234
Q23.10:	Corr	0.030	0.034	0.055	0.056	-0.025	0.017	0.042	0.031	0.010	0.021	0.052	0.058
	p-value	0.650	0.603	0.403	0.396	0.701	0.799	0.523	0.637	0.884	0.755	0.433	0.380
	n	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234

**. Correlation is highly significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

In general, socio-cultural factors have little impact on women's economic empowerment. The results indicate that there is no significant correlation between socio-cultural factors and various income sources (all p-values>0.05).

6.7.3 Qualitative insights – Socio-cultural factors

The qualitative extracts presented below highlights the socio-cultural dynamics that women in agriculture entrepreneurship encounter in their everyday lives.

> *"My children are the only ones who supports me. 'Hama dzemurume dzakabva dzandirasa pakafa murume wangu' (translated as: my husband's family and relatives turned their backs on me following the death of my husband). My community assists me, some give me farming advice and others donate clothes" (Irrigation scheme member).*

> *"I have received overwhelming support from my family. The community respects me. 'Vanoshora havashaike kana madzimai tave kugona kuzvimiririra' (translated as: there are always people for despise and criticize me especially when women are financially independent). However, I never listen to them" (A1 farmer).*

> *"I am very much respected and a lot of people from my community consult me on various issues. I once faced resistance from people and relatives who thought my husband's work will 'die' with his death. Right now some relatives and community members are accusing me of causing my husband's death so that I would prosper. I work even harder than what he (late husband) did. I have positive support from work mates and friends especially my boss from work who is also a woman" (A2 farmer).*

6.8 RESEARCH OBJECTIVE FOUR: SUPPORT FOR WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

The aim of research objective four was to investigate how support received from government influences women's economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship. The government support received by women as measured by question 17 and 18 and women's economic empowerment as measured by income generated from various sources (question 15) are

investigated. The empirical results of this research objective is organized in the following order: (1) question 17 on general awareness of the framework that guides and support women's economic empowerment is analysed; (2) question 18 on government support and women's economic empowerment, i.e. income sources (question 15) is analysed.

6.8.1 Awareness of the Broad Based Women's Economic Empowerment Framework

The empirical results for question 17 on the general awareness of the Broad Based Women's Economic Empowerment Framework is presented in Figure 6.18.

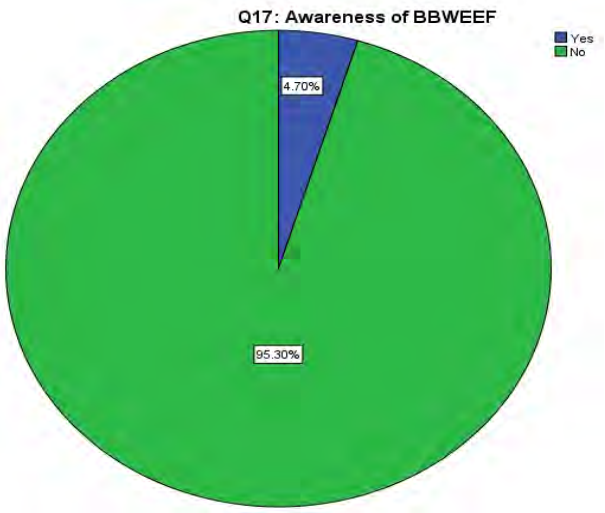

Figure 6.18: Awareness of the Broad Based Women's Economic Empowerment Framework (BBWEEF)

Women are not aware of the existence of a framework that guides and support women's economic empowerment in Zimbabwe. The majority (95.30%) of women are not aware of the existence of the BBWEE Framework. Only (4.70%) of women are aware of the BBWEE Framework.

6.8.1.1 Qualitative insights – Awareness of BBWEEF

The qualitative extracts pertaining to awareness of BBWEE Framework are highlighted next.

> *"I do not know what you are talking about…" (Irrigation scheme member)*
> *"I have no knowledge of BBWEE" (A1 farmer).*

"I have no knowledge of BBWEE, my child. What is that?" (Irrigation scheme member).

"I have heard about the framework, but I have not benefitted from it" (A1 farmer).

"The last time I heard about the BBWEE Framework was when it was launched by the president. I attended the launch function. Since then, I have not seen any woman who have benefitted as a result of the framework. As for me, I only benefited from the food and the t-shirt that I received from the launch (laughing)" (A2 farmer).

6.8.2 Summary of support received from government

The results of the type for support received by women is presented in Table 6.28 and Figure 6.19. The type of government support received by the women and the percentages of women entrepreneurs who received such support are shown in Table 6.28. Figure 6.19 specifically shows the ranking of support received by the women from the government.

Table 6.28: Type of support received from Government

Type of support received from Government		Yes	No
Q18.1: Land	Frequency	169	65
	%	72.2%	27.8%
Q18.2: Start-up capital	Frequency	45	189
	%	19.2%	80.8%
Q18.3: Agricultural inputs	Frequency	216	18
	%	92.3%	7.7%
Q18.4: Infrastructural development (e.g. irrigation equipment)	Frequency	137	97
	%	58.5%	41.5%
Q18.5: Agricultural training	Yes	158	76.0
	No	67.5%	32.5%

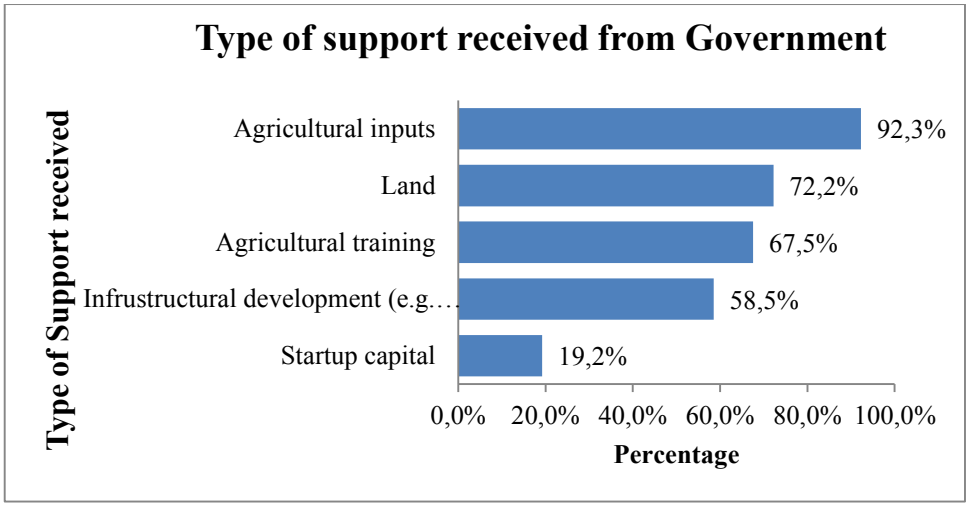

Figure 6.19: Type of support received from Government

Unfortunately, only a few women received start-up capital as compared to other forms of support provided by the government. Figure 6.19 shows that the biggest form of support received was agricultural input with 92.3% of the respondents indicating that they received such form of support. 72.2% of women received land, while 67.5% received training. 58.5% of women received infrastructural development on their land such as irrigation equipment. The least form of support received by women is start-up capital with only 19.2% of women having received this type of support.

6.8.2.1 Qualitative insights – Government support

The qualitative insights relating to government support are outlined below:

> *"Since we started farming, we have not received any assistance from the Government or any organisation" (A1 farmer).*

> *"The Government assists us with farming inputs and also provide farming training. We are also very grateful that the government gave us a tractor, plough, planter and other farming equipment. They also installed the irrigation infrastructure" (Irrigation scheme member).*

> *"The Government offers a lot of assistance to farmers. We get seeds and fertilisers all the time. We are thankful to Mr Mugabe (the President)!" (A1 farmer).*

"The Government installed the irrigation infrastructure and we also receive seeds and fertilizer. We are very grateful for this assistance. 'Dai varamba vachitibetsera' (translated as: I hope they will continue to assist us)" (Irrigation scheme member).

The Government assists us with farming inputs such as seeds and fertiliser. The only problem is that we receive a very small portion of maize seed which is not even enough to cover one hectare. We are however grateful for and appreciate the support. If only they (the government) could increase the quantity of seeds that they give us, it will be better" (A1 farmer).

6.8.3 Analysis of the effects of government support on women's economic empowerment

Since the variables that measure the type of support received is dichotomous (yes/no), independent samples t-tests with economic empowerment as a response variable were used to analyse the data.

6.8.3.1 Analysis of the effects of land support on women's economic empowerment (T-tests)

The empirical results of the effect of land support on women's economic empowerment are analysed in Table 6.29.

Table 6.29: Analysis of Effects of land support from government on women's economic empowerment

		Descriptive Statistics			T-tests			
Economic empowerment	**Received Land from Government?**	**n**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**t**	**df**	**p-value**	**Comment**
Q15.1a: Income generated from 2013-2014 poultry sales	Yes	169	$960.76	$7,952.02	0.185	232	0.854	not sig
	No	65	$769.00	$4,195.82				
Q15.1b: Income generated from 2014-2015 poultry sales	Yes	169	$966.64	$7,945.45	-0.082	232	0.934	not sig.
	No	65	$1,055.85	$5,812.11				
Q15.2a: Income generated from 2013-2014 crop sales	Yes	169	$7,080.69	$29,027.79	1.087	232	0.278	not sig.
	No	65	$3,117.69	$7,027.24				
Q15.2b: Income generated from 2014-2015 crop sales	Yes	169	$6,384.72	$27,987.42	-0.11	232	0.913	not sig.
	No	65	$6,873.57	$36,682.77				
Q15.3a: Income generated from 2013-2014 livestock sales	Yes	169	$652.43	$2,384.68	1.226	232	0.221	not sig.
	No	65	$278.23	$957.13				
Q15.3b: Income generated from 2014-2015 livestock sales	Yes	169	$546.29	$2,291.16	0.642	232	0.521	not sig.
	No	65	$358.38	$885.97				
Q15.4a: Income generated from 2013-2014 gardening and fruit sales	Yes	169	$488.64	$3,545.61	0.703	232	0.483	not sig.
	No	65	$178.38	$382.36				
Q14.4b: Income generated from 2014-2015 gardening and fruit sales	Yes	169	$459.49	$3,540.51	0.643	232	0.521	not sig.
	No	65	$176.15	$378.02				
Q15.5a: Income generated from 2013-2014 off farm, pension, craft sales, causal labour	Yes	169	$869.76	$2,492.70	-0.04	232	0.969	not sig.
	No	65	$882.85	$1,598.49				
Q15.5b: Income generated from 2014-2015 off farm, pension & craft sales	Yes	169	$844.11	$2,521.16	-0.1	232	0.919	not sig.
	No	65	$878.15	$1,601.23				
Q15.6a: Total Income 2013/2014	Yes	169	$10,052.28	$37,682.40	1.014	232	0.312	not sig.
	No	65	$5,226.15	$11,453.37				
Q15.6b: Total Income 2014/2015	Yes	169	$9,201.24	$36,535.74	-0.03	232	0.979	not sig.
	No	65	$9,342.11	$38,216.08				
Increase in Poultry Income	Yes	169	$5.88	$533.80	-1.59	232	0.113	not sig.
	No	65	$286.85	$2,135.93				
Increase in Crop Income	Yes	169	-$695.96	$5,073.36	-1.79	232	0.075	not sig.
	No	65	$3,755.88	$31,465.79				
Increase in Total Income	Yes	169	-$851.04	$5,209.46	-2.012	232	*0.045	sig.
	No	65	$4,115.95	$31,084.79				

**. Correlation is highly significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Land ownership does not have a significant effect on revenue generated by women. There were no significant differences in the amount of various sources of income received by women who own and those who do not own land (all p-values >0.05). However, there were differences in the increase of total income received by the women. The women who own land had a decline in total income, whereas, those who do not own land had a positive increase in income during the two seasons (t= -2.012, df =232, p-value=0.045).

6.8.3.2 Analysis of the effects of start-up capital support from government on women's economic empowerment (T-tests)

Government funded start-up capital does not have a significant effect on revenue generated by women. In fact, women who did not receive start-up capital generated more income than those who received start-up capital. This is indicated by the higher mean score for all the various revenue sources for the women who did not receive start-up capital from the government. Table 6.30 presents an analysis of the effect of start-up capital as a form of government support on women's economic empowerment.The results indicate that there is no significant effect of start-up capital on revenue generated by the women (all p-values>0.05).

Table 6.30: Analysis of the effects of start-up capital support from government on women's economic empowerment

		Descriptive Statistics			T-tests			
Economic empowerment	Receive start-up capital from Government?	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	p-value	comment
Q15.1a: Income generated from 2013-2014 poultry sales	Yes	45	$9.02	$32.63	-0.944	232	0.346	not sig
	No	189	$1,121.41	$7,891.16				
Q15.1b: Income generated from 2014-2015 poultry sales	Yes	45	$17.53	$56.24	-0.982	232	0.327	not sig.
	No	189	$1,223.30	$8,224.00				
Q15.2a: Income generated from 2013-2014 crop sales	Yes	45	$1,087.98	$925.39	-1.465	232	0.144	not sig.
	No	189	$7,144.59	$27,684.17				
Q15.2b: Income generated from 2014-2015 crop sales	Yes	45	$472.11	$412.64	-1.481	232	0.140	not sig.
	No	189	$7,960.61	$33,870.78				
Q15.3a: Income generated from 2013-2014 livestock sales	Yes	45	$150.02	$320.97	-1.424	232	0.156	not sig.
	No	189	$643.36	$2,314.60				
Q15.3b: Income generated from 2014-2015 livestock sales	Yes	45	$124.76	$216.23	-1.380	232	0.169	not sig.
	No	189	$582.03	$2,217.12				
Q15.4a: Income generated from 2013-2014 gardening and fruit sales	Yes	45	$225.04	$429.02	-0.438	232	0.662	not sig.
	No	189	$444.70	$3,354.90				
Q14.4b: Income generated from 2014-2015 gardening and fruit sales	Yes	45	$147.76	$250.78	-0.576	232	0.565	not sig.
	No	189	$436.26	$3,352.55				
Q15.5a: Income generated from 2013-2014 off farm, pension, craft sales, causal labour	Yes	45	$473.87	$1,076.69	-1.312	232	0.191	not sig.
	No	189	$968.52	$2,470.59				
Q15.5b: Income generated from 2014-2015 off farm, pension & craft sales	Yes	45	$402.76	$1,047.10	-1.467	232	0.144	not sig.
	No	189	$960.90	$2,497.27				
Q15.6a: Total Income 2013/2014	Yes	45	$1,945.93	$1,717.74	-1.552	232	0.122	not sig.
	No	189	$10,322.59	$36,126.45				
Q15.6b: Total Income 2014/2015	Yes	45	$1,164.91	$1,277.48	-1.638	232	0.103	not sig.
	No	189	$11,163.10	$40,869.69				
Increase in Poultry Income	Yes	45	$8.51	$45.11	-0.463	232	0.644	not sig.
	No	189	$101.88	$1,351.02				
Increase in Crop Income	Yes	45	-$615.87	$827.36	-0.502	232	0.616	not sig.
	No	189	$816.02	$19,090.50				
Increase in Total Income	Yes	45	-$781.02	$1,088.51	-0.573	232	0.567	not sig.
	No	189	$840.51	$18,935.87				

**. Correlation is highly significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

6.8.3.3 Analysis of the effects of Agriculture inputs support from government on women's economic empowerment (T-tests)

Table 6.31 presents the empirical results of the effect of agriculture inputs received from government on women's economic empowerment.

Table 6.31: Analysis of the effects of agriculture inputs support from government on women's economic empowerment

		Descriptive Statistics			T-tests			
Economic empowerment	**Received Agriculture inputs from Government?**	**n**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**t**	**df**	**p-value**	**comment**
Q15.1a: Income generated from 2013-2014 poultry sales	Yes	216	$819.94	$7,111.83	-0.652	232	0.515	not sig.
	No	18	$1,958.06	$7,096.11				
Q15.1b: Income generated from 2014-2015 poultry sales	Yes	216	$840.17	$7,086.05	-1.083	232	0.280	not sig.
	No	18	$2,806.39	$10,595.13				
Q15.2a: Income generated from 2013-2014 crop sales	Yes	216	$6,121.20	$25,902.71	0.299	232	0.765	not sig.
	No	18	$4,283.72	$8,211.27				
Q15.2b: Income generated from 2014-2015 crop sales	Yes	216	$6,764.07	$31,763.32	0.421	232	0.674	not sig.
	No	18	$3,597.78	$6,150.13				
Q15.3a: Income generated from 2013-2014 livestock sales	Yes	216	$496.88	$1,945.00	-1.309	232	0.192	not sig.
	No	18	$1,167.78	$3,427.76				
Q15.3b: Income generated from 2014-2015 livestock sales	Yes	216	$436.06	$1,838.55	-1.541	232	0.125	not sig.
	No	18	$1,190.56	$3,409.13				
Q15.4a: Income generated from 2013-2014 gardening and fruit sales	Yes	216	$426.72	$3,142.34	0.425	232	0.671	not sig.
	No	18	$111.39	$269.14				
Q14.4b: Income generated from 2014-2015 gardening and fruit sales	Yes	216	$401.84	$3,137.36	0.369	232	0.712	not sig.
	No	18	$128.06	$279.97				
Q15.5a: Income generated from 2013-2014 off farm, pension, craft sales, causal labour	Yes	216	$744.17	$1,600.83	-3.062	232	**0.002	sig.
	No	18	$2,424.17	$5,987.99				
Q15.5b: Income generated from 2014-2015 off farm, pension & craft sales	Yes	216	$723.17	$1,634.23	-3.058	232	**0.002	sig.
	No	18	$2,418.33	$5,990.44				
Q15.6a: Total Income 2013/2014	Yes	216	$8,608.91	$33,440.07	-0.167	232	0.868	not sig.
	No	18	$9,945.11	$21,132.52				
Q15.6b: Total Income 2014/2015	Yes	216	$9,165.31	$37,967.59	-0.107	232	0.914	not sig.
	No	18	$10,141.11	$21,394.07				
Increase in Poultry Income	Yes	216	$20.23	$747.29	-2.821	232	**0.005	sig.
	No	18	$848.33	$3,532.18				
Increase in Crop Income	Yes	216	$642.88	$17,849.27	0.315	232	0.753	not sig.
	No	18	-$685.94	$2,339.95				
Increase in Total Income	Yes	216	$556.40	$17,715.12	0.086	232	0.931	not sig.
	No	18	$196.00	$2,219.28				

**. Correlation is highly significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Agriculture inputs does not have a significant effect on revenue generated by women. There were no significant differences in the amount of various sources of income generated by the women who received agriculture inputs and those who did not receive any inputs from the government (all p-values >0.05). However, agriculture inputs have a highly significant effect on off farm income received by women for both the 2013-2014 (t= -3.062, df =232, p-value =0.002) and 2014-2015 (t= -3.058, df =232, p-value=0.002) farming season and the total increase in poultry income (t= -2.821, df =232, p-value=0.005).

6.8.3.4 Analysis of the effects of Infrastructural development support from government on women's economic empowerment (T-tests)

Infrastructural development does not have a significant effect on income generated by women. Women who did not receive any form of infrastructural development actually generated more income than those women who were assisted by the government. The empirical results of the effect of government infrastructural development support on women's economic empowerment is presented in Table 6.32. The results indicate that there is no significant effect of government infrastructural development support on income generated by the women (all p-values>0.05).

Table 6.32: Analysis of the effects of infrastructural development support from government on economic empowerment

		Descriptive Statistics			T-tests			
Economic empowerment	**Received Infrastructural development support from Government?**	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	p-value	comment
Q15.1a: Income generated from 2013-2014 poultry sales	Yes	137	$370.92	$2,296.05	-1.376	232	0.170	not sig
	No	97	$1,665.33	$10,675.00				
Q15.1b: Income generated from 2014-2015 poultry sales	Yes	137	$368.32	$2,264.35	-1.535	232	0.126	not sig.
	No	97	$1,871.46	$11,153.55				
Q15.2a: Income generated from 2013-2014 crop sales	Yes	137	$6,335.08	$29,875.43	0.258	232	0.797	not sig.
	No	97	$5,478.14	$15,821.03				
Q15.2b: Income generated from 2014-2015 crop sales	Yes	137	$5,908.39	$29,386.15	-0.363	232	0.717	not sig.
	No	97	$7,385.05	$32,300.49				
Q15.3a: Income generated from 2013-2014 livestock sales	Yes	137	$464.86	$2,121.46	-0.726	232	0.469	not sig.
	No	97	$666.60	$2,056.94				
Q15.3b: Income generated from 2014-2015 livestock sales	Yes	137	$367.42	$1,989.92	-1.151	232	0.251	not sig.
	No	97	$673.01	$2,015.45				
Q15.4a: Income generated from 2013-2014 gardening and fruit sales	Yes	137	$316.55	$945.25	-0.516	232	0.606	not sig.
	No	97	$523.80	$4,566.53				
Q14.4b: Income generated from 2014-2015 gardening and fruit sales	Yes	137	$272.51	$911.54	-0.652	232	0.515	not sig.
	No	97	$533.70	$4,566.58				
Q15.5a: Income generated from 2013-2014 off farm, pension, craft sales, causal labour	Yes	137	$636.18	$1,556.12	-1.905	232	0.058	not sig.
	No	97	$1,208.44	$2,992.17				
Q15.5b: Income generated from 2014-2015 off farm, pension & craft sales	Yes	137	$622.41	$1,641.60	-1.837	232	0.068	not sig.
	No	97	$1,180.04	$2,971.81				
Q15.6a: Total Income 2013/2014	Yes	137	$8,123.58	$33,265.26	-0.327	232	0.744	not sig.
	No	97	$9,542.32	$31,858.07				
Q15.6b: Total Income 2014/2015	Yes	137	$7,539.05	$32,963.39	-0.837	232	0.403	not sig.
	No	97	$11,643.27	$41,956.73				
Increase in Poultry Income	Yes	137	-$2.60	$575.34	-1.297	232	0.196	not sig.
	No	97	$206.13	$1,756.13				
Increase in Crop Income	Yes	137	-$426.69	$5,087.76	-1.025	232	0.307	not sig.
	No	97	$1,906.91	$25,978.96				
Increase in Total Income	Yes	137	-$584.53	$5,330.53	-1.190	232	0.235	not sig
	No	97	$2,100.95	$25,675.14				

**. Correlation is highly significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

6.8.3.5 Analysis of the effects of agricultural training support from government on women's economic empowerment (T-tests)

Table 6.33: Analysis of the effects of agricultural training support from government on women's economic empowerment

		Descriptive Statistics			T-tests			
Economic empowerment	**Receive Agricultural training from Government?**	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	p-value	comment
Q15.1a: Income generated from 2013-2014 poultry sales	Yes	158	$505.65	$3,165.07	-1.250	232	0.213	not sig.
	No	76	$1,742.91	$11,604.90				
Q15.1b: Income generated from 2014-2015 poultry sales	Yes	158	$653.16	$4,145.82	-1.008	232	0.315	not sig.
	No	76	$1,694.63	$11,555.11				
Q15.2a: Income generated from 2013-2014 crop sales	Yes	158	$3,257.73	$19,606.16	-2.428	232	*0.016	sig.
	No	76	$11,639.01	$32,964.79				
Q15.2b: Income generated from 2014-2015 crop sales	Yes	158	$2,893.66	$19,942.25	-2.650	232	**0.009	sig.
	No	76	$14,060.54	$44,555.28				
Q15.3a: Income generated from 2013-2014 livestock sales	Yes	158	$336.72	$1,419.73	-2.251	232	*0.025	sig.
	No	76	$988.75	$3,016.17				
Q15.3b: Income generated from 2014-2015 livestock sales	Yes	158	$305.18	$1,153.55	-2.096	232	*0.037	sig.
	No	76	$886.84	$3,071.40				
Q15.4a: Income generated from 2013-2014 gardening and fruit sales	Yes	158	$282.35	$887.58	-0.877	232	0.382	not sig.
	No	76	$652.17	$5,157.72				
Q14.4b: Income generated from 2014-2015 gardening and fruit sales	Yes	158	$247.41	$857.72	-0.975	232	0.330	not sig.
	No	76	$658.05	$5,157.10				
Q15.5a: Income generated from 2013-2014 off farm, pension, craft sales, causal labour	Yes	158	$631.08	$1,504.78	-2.371	232	*0.019	sig.
	No	76	$1,377.17	$3,313.30				
Q15.5b: Income generated from 2014-2015 off farm, pension & craft sales	Yes	158	$623.70	$1,581.63	-2.223	232	*0.027	sig.
	No	76	$1,331.45	$3,293.53				
Q15.6a: Total Income 2013/2014	Yes	158	$5,013.51	$23,807.21	-2.529	232	*0.012	sig.
	No	76	$16,400.01	$45,078.38				
Q15.6b: Total Income 2014/2015	Yes	158	$4,723.11	$24,467.02	-2.735	232	**0.007	sig.
	No	76	$18,631.51	$53,393.49				
Increase in Poultry Income	Yes	158	$147.52	$1,231.49	1.156	232	0.249	not sig.
	No	76	-$48.28	$1,174.66				
Increase in Crop Income	Yes	158	-$364.06	$1,375.15	-1.164	232	0.246	not sig.
	No	76	$2,421.53	$30,094.43				
Increase in Total Income	Yes	158	-$290.40	$1,729.70	-1.061	232	0.290	not sig.
	No	76	$2,231.50	$29,835.61				

**. Correlation is highly significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Women who did not receive government training generated more income than their counterparts. This is indicated by the higher mean score for the income for the women who were not trained. However, government training had a significant effect on income generated from cash crops for 2013-2014 (t= -2.428, df =232, p-value=0.016) and a highly significant effect on income from cash crops for 2014-2015 (t= -2.650, df =232, p-value=0.009) farming seasons. Similarly, government training had a significant effect on revenue collected from livestock sales for both the 2013-2014 (t= -2.251, df =232, p-value=0.025) and 2014-2015 (t= -2.096, df =232, p-value=0.037) farming season. The same trends were noted for off farm income for 2013-2014 (t= -2.371, df =232, p-value=0.019) and 2014-2015 (t= -2.223, df =232, p-value=0.027) farming seasons. Overall, government training had a significant effect on total income generated by the women for 2013-2014 (t= -2.529, df =232, p-value=0.012) and a highly significant effect on income generated (t= -2.735, df =232, p-value=0.007) for the 2014-2015 season.

6.9 RESEARCH OBJECTIVE FIVE: ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT AND WOMEN'S DECISION MAKING ROLE

The aim of this objective was to investigate how economic empowerment influences women's decision making role in agriculture entrepreneurship. Here, economic empowerment as measured by question 15 and women's decision making role as measured by question 25 are investigated. Women's role in decision making is analysed first. Thereafter, the correlations between women's decision making and income generated are analysed.

6.9.1 Summary of decision making indicators

Here, women's decision making indicators are grouped into four. These are farming production decisions, farming business decisions, business income and expenditure decisions, and household income and expenditure decisions.

6.9.1.1 Empowerment Indicators (Farming Production Decisions)

The empirical results for the farming production decisions are analysed in Table 6.34.

Table 6.34: Empowerment Indicators (Farming Production Decisions)

Empowerment Indicators: Farming Production Decisions (FarmProdDecisions)		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive Statistics		Latent Factor (Principal component)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	% Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	Std Dev	Coefficient
Q25.1: I am able to make decisions about acquiring additional land	Count	2	41	44	136	11	62.8%	3.48	0.87	0.555
	%	0.9%	17.5%	18.8%	58.1%	4.7%				
Q25.2: I am able to make decisions about the hiring of farming equipment.	Count	1	22	26	169	16	79.1%	3.76	0.73	0.797
	%	0.4%	9.4%	11.1%	72.2%	6.8%				
Q25.3: I am able to make decisions about the type of farming inputs.	Count	0	14	16	183	21	87.2%	3.90	0.62	0.756
	%	0.0%	6.0%	6.8%	78.2%	9.0%				
Q25.4: I am able to make decisions about recruitment of labour	Count	1	10	22	186	15	85.9%	3.87	0.59	0.835
	%	0.4%	4.3%	9.4%	79.5%	6.4%				
Q25.5: I am able to make decisions about food crop farming	Count	1	8	20	192	13	87.6%	3.89	0.55	0.803
	%	0.4%	3.4%	8.5%	82.1%	5.6%				
Q25.6: I am able to make decisions about cash crop farming	Count	1	13	20	190	10	85.5%	3.83	0.60	0.863
	%	0.4%	5.6%	8.5%	81.2%	4.3%				
Q25.7: I am able to make decisions about utilization of land	Count	1	20	26	181	6	79.9%	3.73	0.67	0.834
	%	0.4%	8.5%	11.1%	77.4%	2.6%				
Q25.8: I am able to make decisions about farming maintenance issues	Count	1	32	37	161	3	70.1%	3.57	0.76	0.726
	%	0.4%	13.7%	15.8%	68.8%	1.3%				
Q25.9: I am able to make decisions about borrowing money for the farm	Count	2	48	32	145	7	65.0%	3.46	0.88	0.628
	%	0.9%	20.5%	13.7%	62.0%	3.0%				
Q25.10: I am able to make decisions about rearing of livestock	Count	1	16	29	178	10	80.3%	3.77	0.65	0.809
	%	0.4%	6.8%	12.4%	76.1%	4.3%				
Q25.11: I am able to make decisions about farming improvements.	Count	3	31	30	157	13	72.6%	3.62	0.83	0.704
	%	1.3%	13.2%	12.8%	67.1%	5.6%				
Q25.12: I am able to make decisions about allocation of farm duties.	Count	0	14	16	178	26	87.2%	3.92	0.64	0.800
	%	0.0%	6.0%	6.8%	76.1%	11.1%				
	Cronbach's Alpha							0.926		
	% of total variation accounted for by latent factor							58.41%		

The women are involved in making decisions on farming production. This is indicated by the mean score of above 3.4. The highest (87.6%) decision that women are making for farming production is the ability to make decisions on the type of food crops that are planted on the farm (question 25.5). The mean score for this decision is 3.89. The least (62.8%) decision that women are making on farming production is the decision to acquire additional land for farming (question 25.1). The mean score for this decision is 3.48. An overall measure of farming production decisions is calculated as a summary of the twelve items presented in Table 6.34. This summary variable (FarmProdDecisions) is calculated using principal components (or latent factors) which have the weights presented in the last column. The weights indicate that question 25.6, on the ability to make decisions about cash crop farming (0.863) is the most important decision on farming production.

6.9.1.2 Empowerment Indicators (Farming Business Decisions)

The results of the analysis of the empowerment indicators on farming decisions are presented in Table 6.35.

Table 6.35: Empowerment Indicators (Farming Business Decisions)

Empowerment Indicators: Farming Business Decisions (FarmBusDecisions)		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive Statistics		Latent Factor (Principal component)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	% Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	Std Dev	Coefficient
Q25.13: I am able to make decisions about when to sell farming produce including livestock	Count	0	16	33	178	7	79.1%	3.75	0.62	0.821
	%	0.0%	6.8%	14.1%	76.1%	3.0%				
Q25.14: I am able to make decisions about where to sell farming produce including livestock	Count	0	14	30	183	7	81.2%	3.78	0.59	0.863
	%	0.0%	6.0%	12.8%	78.2%	3.0%				
Q25.15: I am able to make decisions about how to sell farming produce including livestock (e.g. type of transportation required, cash or credit)	Count	0	16	34	178	6	78.6%	3.74	0.62	0.875
	%	0.0%	6.8%	14.5%	76.1%	2.6%				
Q25.16: I am able to make decisions about what to sell in terms of farming produce including livestock	Count	0	15	34	181	4	79.1%	3.74	0.60	0.821
	%	0.0%	6.4%	14.5%	77.4%	1.7%				
Q25.17: I am able to make decisions about the selling price of the farming produce including livestock	Count	0	12	36	171	15	79.5%	3.81	0.62	0.668
	%	0.0%	5.1%	15.4%	73.1%	6.4%				
Q25.18: I am able to make decisions about the expansion of the business	Count	1	18	33	173	9	77.8%	3.73	0.67	0.643
	%	0.4%	7.7%	14.1%	73.9%	3.8%				
	Cronbach's Alpha							0.942		
	% of total variation accounted for by latent factor							78.19%		

Women are involved in farming business decision making. This is indicated by the mean score of above 3.7. The highest (81.2%) decision that women are making for the farming business is the ability to decide on where to sell their farming produce including livestock (question 25.14). The mean score for this decision is 3.78. The least (77.8%) decision that women are making in relation to farming business is the decision to expand the farming business (question 25.18). The mean score for this decision is 3.73. An overall measure of farming business decisions is calculated as a summary of the six items presented in Table 6.35. This summary variable (FarmBusDecisions) is calculated using principal components (or latent factors) which have the weights presented in the last column. The weights indicate that question 25.15, on the ability to make decisions about how to sell farming produce including livestock (e.g. type of transportation required, cash or credit) (0.875) is the most important decision on farming business.

6.9.1.3 Empowerment Indicators (Business Income and Expenditure Decision)

Table 6.36 presents the empirical findings of business income and expenditure decisions that women are making in agriculture entrepreneurship.

Table 6.36: Empowerment Indicators (Business Income and Expenditure Decision)

Empowerment Indicators: Business Income & Expenditure Decision (BusIncoExpenDecs)		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive Statistics		Latent Factor (Principal component)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	% Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	Std Dev	Coefficient
Q25.19: I am able to control farming income	Count	0	21	29	166	18	78.6%	3.77	0.71	0.909
	%	0.0%	9.0%	12.4%	70.9%	7.7%				
Q25.20: I am able to control farming expenditure	Count	0	19	29	170	16	79.5%	3.78	0.69	0.916
	%	0.0%	8.1%	12.4%	72.6%	6.8%				
Q25.21: I am able to make decisions on how farming income is spent	Count	0	15	33	171	15	79.5%	3.79	0.65	0.930
	%	0.0%	6.4%	14.1%	73.1%	6.4%				
Q25.22: I am able to make decisions about re-investing business profits	Count	1	18	42	163	10	73.9%	3.70	0.69	0.893
	%	0.4%	7.7%	17.9%	69.7%	4.3%				
Q25.23: I am able to make decisions about purchasing or renting land	Count	0	37	36	151	10	68.8%	3.57	0.81	0.763
	%	0.0%	15.8%	15.4%	64.5%	4.3%				
Q25.24: I am able to make decisions about the purchase or hiring of farming equipment.	Count	2	32	28	156	16	73.5%	3.65	0.83	0.745
	%	0.9%	13.7%	12.0%	66.7%	6.8%				
Q25.25: I am able to make decisions about the purchase of farming inputs.	Count	0	13	22	164	35	85.0%	3.94	0.68	0.790
	%	0.0%	5.6%	9.4%	70.1%	15.0%				
	Cronbach's Alpha							0.932		
	% of total variation accounted for by latent factor							72.69%		

Women are able to make decisions about their business income and expenditure (mean score of above 3.5). The highest (85.0%) decision that women are able to make on farming business income and expenditure is to decide on the purchase of farming inputs (question 25.25). The mean score for this decision is 3.94. The least (68.8%) decision that women are able to make is about purchasing or renting additional land (question 25.23). The mean score for this decision is 3.57. An overall measure of business income and expenditure decisions is calculated as a summary of the seven items presented in Table 6.36. This summary variable (BusIncoExpenDecs) is calculated using principal components (or latent factors) which have the weights presented in the last column. The weights indicate that question 25.21, on the ability to decide how farming income is spent (0.930) is the most important decision on farming business income and expenditure.

6.9.1.4 Empowerment Indicators (Household Income and Expenditure Decision)

Table 6.37 presents the results of household income and expenditure decisions by the women.

Table 6.37: Empowerment Indicators (Household Income and Expenditure Decision)

Empowerment Indicators: Household Income & Expenditure Decision (HseIncExpDecisions)		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive Statistics		Latent Factor (Principal component)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	% Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	Std Dev	Coefficient
Q25.26: I am able to make decisions about major household expenditure.	Count	5	33	22	144	30	74.4%	3.69	0.94	0.639
	%	2.1%	14.1%	9.4%	61.5%	12.8%				
Q25.27: I am able to make decisions about buying furniture	Count	1	9	19	169	36	87.6%	3.98	0.65	0.712
	%	0.4%	3.8%	8.1%	72.2%	15.4%				
Q25.28: I am able to make decisions about buying groceries	Count	0	2	2	177	53	98.3%	4.20	0.48	0.512
	%	0.0%	0.9%	0.9%	75.6%	22.6%				
Q25.29: I am able to make decisions about children's educational expenditure	Count	0	5	12	192	25	92.7%	4.01	0.49	0.814
	%	0.0%	2.1%	5.1%	82.1%	10.7%				
Q25.30: I am able to make decisions about the family's health related expenditure	Count	0	4	18	194	18	90.6%	3.97	0.47	0.852
	%	0.0%	1.7%	7.7%	82.9%	7.7%				
Q25.31: I am able to make decisions about investing in my family's future	Count	0	6	26	187	15	86.3%	3.90	0.52	0.862
	%	0.0%	2.6%	11.1%	79.9%	6.4%				
Q25.32: I am able to make decisions about property improvements.	Count	7	27	20	165	15	76.9%	3.66	0.88	0.581
	%	3.0%	11.5%	8.5%	70.5%	6.4%				
	Cronbach's Alpha							0.807		
	% of total variation accounted for by latent factor							52.08%		

Women are able to make decisions about their household income and expenditure as indicated by a mean score of above 3.6. The highest (98.3%) decision that women are able to make on household income and expenditure is on buying groceries (question 25.28). The mean score for this decision is 4.20. The least (74.4%) decision that women are able to make is about major household expenditure (question 25.26). The mean score for this decision is 3.69. An overall measure of household income and expenditure decisions is calculated as a summary of the seven items presented in Table 6.37. This summary variable (HseIncExpDecisions) is calculated using principal components (or latent factors) which have the weights presented in the last column. The weights indicate that question 25.31, on the ability to decide on investing

for the family's future (0.862) is the most important decision that women are making on household income and expenditure.

6.9.1.5 Qualitative insights – Women's decision making roles

"Baba ndivo muridzi wemusha saka ndivo vanoronga zvinoitwa pamusha (translated as: The husband is the head of the household, so he is the one who decides on what must be done within the homestead. When it comes to the farm work and selling the harvest, we plan together" (A1 farmer).

Mumba baba ndivo vanoronga zvese (translated as: The husband is the head of the family, therefore, he makes the overall decisions for the family). When it comes to the farm work, we (my husband and I) plan together with our oldest son. In selling the harvest, my husband and I decide together in terms of where and at what price we should sell our produce at" (A2 farmer).

"Economic Empowerment has enabled me to make high level decisions. Even when my husband was still alive, I used to make most of the decisions about household and farming income and expenditure. Off course, I would report back to him as the head of the family on the decisions that I would have made. My husband didn't care much and was not really involved in farming" (A1 farmer).

Nothing has changed within my household. 'Baba ndivo samusha, ndivo vanoronga zvose' (translated as: The husband is the head of the household and so he does all the planning). We help each other with the farming and selling of our crop" (A2 farmer).

I have always been making my own decisions but with economic empowerment, I have changed. 'Mafungiro angu ava emhando yepamusoro soro' (translated as: I am now a strategic thinker). I make all decisions at home as the lady of the house. I am the cooperative's treasurer. I am involved in the decision making process of the group" (Irrigation scheme member).

I used to give my husband his superiority over farming decisions while I concentrated on my boutique but now I took over, since the death of my husband. I am the head of the house and the farming business. I am even consulted in my community. Recently I embarked on an irrigation project where I will be using drip irrigation for my tobacco seed bed" (A2 farmer).

"With a smile on her face. 'Ndini ndinoita hurongwa hwese, asi ndinobvunza murume wangu ende haanetse chaanongoda kuti mhuri igute. Ndakamufunda uye ndave kuziva zvinoita kuti afare. Chisingadiwe kuti kutaurisa pavanhu. Murume anoda kupiwa chinzvimbo chake pane vanhu' (translated as I make all the decisions in my house, but I always consult my husband. All that my husband wants is for the family to be well fed. I have done my homework and I know what makes him happy. All that is required is to be less talkative and give total respect to your husband especially in front of other people. Men want women who are submissive, who give them their position in front of people)" (A1 farmer).

"I make all decisions in in my home because my husband is late…" (Irrigation scheme member).

"Because my husband is late, I now make all the planning and make all the household and farming decisions including when, how, what and how much I should sell my produce for" (Irrigation scheme member).

6.9.2 Relationship between income and women's decision making roles (Correlation)

The relationship between income and women's decision roles are presented in Table 6.38.

Table 6.38: Relationship between income and decision making Indicators (Correlation)

Pearson's correlations			Decision making overall indicators			
			Empowerment Indicators- Farming Production Decisions	Empowerment Indicators- Farming Business Decisions	Empowerment Indicators- Business Income & Expenditure Decisions	Empowerment Indicators- Household Income & Expenditure Decisions
Empowerment variables	Q15.6a: Total Income 2013/2014	corr	0.100	0.031	0.068	0.187
		p-value	0.128	0.642	0.302	**0.004
		n	234	234	234	234
	Q15.6b: Total Income 2014/2015	corr	0.095	0.038	0.065	0.166
		p-value	0.148	0.562	0.321	*0.011
		n	234	234	234	234
	Increase in Poultry Income	corr	-0.019	-0.030	-0.047	0.021
		p-value	0.775	0.645	0.475	0.755
		n	234	234	234	234
	Increase in Crop Income	corr	0.023	0.034	0.020	0.004
		p-value	0.722	0.605	0.763	0.956
		n	234	234	234	234
	Increase in Total Income	corr	0.015	0.024	0.011	0.002
		p-value	0.822	0.712	0.863	0.980
		n	234	234	234	234

**. Correlation is highly significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Women are mostly active in household income and expenditure decision making and not actively involved in all other key decision making in agriculture entrepreneurship such as farming production, farming business and farming business income and expenditure. Table 6.38 shows that there is a significant correlation between income and women's economic decision making within household income and expenditure. There is a highly significant correlation between total income for 2013-2014 farming season (p-value≤0.01) and women's household income and expenditure decision making. Similarly, there is a significant correlation between total income for 2014-2015 farming season (p-value≤0.05) and women's household income and expenditure decision making.

6.10 RESEARCH OBJECTIVE SIX: ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT AND CHANGE IN WOMEN'S LIVES

The aim of research objective six is to examine the extent to which economic empowerment has changed women's lives in agriculture entrepreneurship. Economic empowerment indicators as measured by question 27 and change in women's livelihood as measured by question 28 are investigated. Firstly, the empirical results for question 27 are interrogated and secondly, question 28 on change in women's livelihood is examined.

6.10.1 Summary of economic empowerment indicators representing change in women's livelihoods

The economic indicators representing change in women's livelihood are grouped into four categories. These are: change in personal life of the women as an individual, and how these changes have impacted on their family livelihoods, community and the other women.

6.10.1.1 Economic empowerment indicators representing change in personal lives of women

Table 6.39 presents the empirical findings of the economic indicators representing change in the personal lives of the women.

Table 6.39: Economic Empowerment Indicators (Change in personal lives of women)

Empowerment Indicators: Personal (EmpIndPer)		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive Statistics		Latent Factor (Principal component)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	% Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	Std Dev	Coefficient
Q27.1: I feel I am in control of my life now	Count	1	6	20	190	17	88.5%	3.92	0.54	0.736
	%	0.4%	2.6%	8.5%	81.2%	7.3%				
Q27.2: I am more confident than before	Count	2	4	18	192	18	89.7%	3.94	0.54	0.680
	%	0.9%	1.7%	7.7%	82.1%	7.7%				
Q27.3: I am now in a better position financially	Count	3	13	42	163	13	75.2%	3.73	0.71	0.670
	%	1.3%	5.6%	17.9%	69.7%	5.6%				
Q27.4: I now have savings for a "rainy day"	Count	2	33	43	147	9	66.7%	3.55	0.81	0.555
	%	0.9%	14.1%	18.4%	62.8%	3.8%				
Q27.5: I am able to "spoil myself" by buying personal items that I need as a woman	Count	8	30	33	134	29	69.7%	3.62	0.97	0.429
	%	3.4%	12.8%	14.1%	57.3%	12.4%				
Q27.6: I am able now able to develop myself by attending courses and training	Count	0	38	34	150	12	69.2%	3.58	0.82	0.449
	%	0.0%	16.2%	14.5%	64.1%	5.1%				
Q27.7: I am able now able to take care of my personal health	Count	0	5	26	188	15	86.8%	3.91	0.50	0.727
	%	0.0%	2.1%	11.1%	80.3%	6.4%				
Q27.8: I am able to make my own personal financial decisions	Count	0	6	15	204	9	91.0%	3.92	0.45	0.796
	%	0.0%	2.6%	6.4%	87.2%	3.8%				
Q27.9: I am able to make strategic decisions for myself	Count	0	7	16	201	10	90.2%	3.91	0.47	0.738
	%	0.0%	3.0%	6.8%	85.9%	4.3%				
Q27.10: I am able to inspire my children, especially my daughter	Count	0	10	28	184	12	83.8%	3.85	0.57	0.725
	%	0.0%	4.3%	12.0%	78.6%	5.1%				
Q27.11: My family respects me because of my achievements	Count	3	9	26	176	20	83.8%	3.86	0.67	0.721
	%	1.3%	3.8%	11.1%	75.2%	8.5%				
	Cronbach's Alpha							0.841		
	% of total variation accounted for by latent factor							44.53%		

Economic empowerment has resulted in change in the personal lives of women. This is indicated by the mean score of above 3.5. The highest (91.0%) change in the lives of the women is that they are now able to make their own personal financial decisions (question 27.8). The mean score for this change in personal life is 3.92. The least (69.2%) change in the women's ability to further develop themselves by acquiring additional skills through training (question 27.6). The mean score for this decision is 3.58. An overall measure of change in personal lives of women is calculated as a summary of the eleven items presented in Table 6.39. This summary variable (EmpIndPer) is calculated using principal components (or latent factors). The weights of the latent factors are presented in the last column. The weights indicate that

question 27.8, on women's ability to make personal financial decisions (0.796) is the most important change in women's personal lives.

6.10.1.2 Economic empowerment indicators representing change in family livelihoods

Table 6.40: Economic empowerment indicators (Change in family livelihoods)

Empowerment Indicators: Family (EmpIndFam)		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive Statistics		Latent Factor (Principal component)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	% Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	Std Dev	Coefficient
Q27.12: I am now able to provide better clothing for my family	Count	1	3	18	147	65	90.6%	4.16	0.65	0.782
	%	0.4%	1.3 %	7.7%	62.8%	27.8%				
Q27.13: I am now able to provide at least two meals per day for my family	Count	1	3	3	151	76	97.0%	4.27	0.60	0.753
	%	0.4%	1.3 %	1.3%	64.5%	32.5%				
Q27.14: I am able to provide better and nutritious food for my family	Count	1	2	8	150	73	95.3%	4.25	0.60	0.771
	%	0.4%	0.9 %	3.4%	64.1%	31.2%				
Q27.15: I am able to produce most of the food for my family	Count	1	1	7	195	30	96.2%	4.08	0.46	0.671
	%	0.4%	0.4 %	3.0%	83.3%	12.8%				
Q27.16: I am able to send my family to better health facilities	Count	2	7	29	178	18	83.8%	3.87	0.62	0.796
	%	0.9%	3.0 %	12.4 %	76.1%	7.7%				
Q27.17: I am able to buy medication for my family	Count	2	6	20	190	16	88.0%	3.91	0.57	0.821
	%	0.9%	2.6 %	8.5%	81.2%	6.8%				
Q27.18: I am able to provide better education for my children	Count	2	8	25	178	21	85.0%	3.89	0.63	0.826
	%	0.9%	3.4 %	10.7 %	76.1%	9.0%				
Q27.19: I am able to buy school uniforms for my children	Count	2	3	15	186	28	91.5%	4.00	0.56	0.849
	%	0.9%	1.3 %	6.4%	79.5%	12.0%				
Q27.20: I am able to buy school stationery for my children	Count	3	4	17	181	29	89.7%	3.98	0.62	0.787
	%	1.3%	1.7 %	7.3%	77.4%	12.4%				
Q27.21: I am now able to afford school trips for my children	Count	3	31	37	142	21	69.7%	3.63	0.87	0.697
	%	1.3%	13.2 %	15.8 %	60.7%	9.0%				
Q27.22: I am now able to afford extra lessons to support my children's education	Count	2	28	44	145	15	68.4%	3.61	0.81	0.621
	%	0.9%	12.0 %	18.8 %	62.0%	6.4%				
Q27.23: I am now able to send by children for further education (e.g. university, college)	Count	10	58	60	96	10	45.3%	3.16	0.99	0.454
	%	4.3%	24.8 %	25.6 %	41.0%	4.3%				
	Cronbach's Alpha							0.911		
	% of total variation accounted for by latent factor							55.27%		

Women's economic empowerment has resulted in a positive change in the lives of women's families (mean score of above 3.1). The highest (87.6%) positive change in the lives of their families is based on women's ability to provide a minimum of two meals per day (question 27.13). The mean score for this change is 4.27. The least (62.8%) change in the family livelihoods is sending children for further education (question 27.23). The mean score for this decision is 3.16. An overall measure of change in family livelihoods is calculated as a summary of the twelve items presented in Table 6.40. This summary variable ((EmpIndFam) is calculated using principal components (or latent factors) with weights presented in the last column of the table. The weights indicate that question 27.19, on the ability to buy school uniforms for children (0.849) is the most important change in the family livelihoods. The least weight (0.454) is based on the ability to send children for further education (question 27.23). This indicates difficulty in breaking the poverty cycle in the near future.

6.10.1.3 Economic empowerment indicators representing change in community livelihoods

Table 6.41: Economic Empowerment Indicators (Change in Community livelihoods)

Empowerment Indicators: Community (EmpIndCom)		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive Statistics		Latent Factor (Principal component)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	% Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	Std Dev	Coefficient
Q27.24: My community respects me because of my achievements	Count	6	14	37	161	16	75.6%	3.71	0.79	0.782
	%	2.6%	6.0%	15.8%	68.8%	6.8%				
Q27.25: My community consult me on key issues concerning our village	Count	9	33	39	145	8	65.4%	3.47	0.91	0.738
	%	3.8%	14.1%	16.7%	62.0%	3.4%				
Q27.26: I am able to contribute towards the needs of my community (e.g. funerals, sickness)	Count	7	11	31	171	14	79.1%	3.74	0.77	0.841
	%	3.0%	4.7%	13.2%	73.1%	6.0%				
Q27.27: I am able to contribute towards the financial needs of my community	Count	5	28	42	149	10	67.9%	3.56	0.84	0.732
	%	2.1%	12.0%	17.9%	63.7%	4.3%				
Q27.28: I am willing to share my farming business knowledge with my community	Count	2	3	29	181	19	85.5%	3.91	0.57	0.613
	%	0.9%	1.3%	12.4%	77.4%	8.1%				
	Cronbach's Alpha							0.794		
	% of total variation accounted for by latent factor							55.52%		

The livelihood for the communities in which women reside have improved (mean score of above 3.4. The highest (87.6%) change is in the ability of women to share their knowledge of agriculture entrepreneurship (question 27.28). The mean score for this decision is 3.91. The least (62.8%) change in community livelihood is that community leaders are now consulting women on key issues concerning their communities (question 27.25). The mean score for this decision is 3.47. An overall measure of change in community livelihoods is calculated as a summary of the five items presented in Table 6.41. This summary variable (EmpIndCom) is calculated using principal components (or latent factors) with weights presented in the last column of the table. The weights indicate that question 27.26 based on the ability of women to contribute to the needs of their communities (0.841) is the most important change in community livelihoods.

6.10.1.4 Economic empowerment indicators (Support for other women)

Table 6.42 depicts the empirical results of how women are able to influence the lives of other women as a result of economic empowerment.

Table 6.42: Empowerment Indicators (Support for other women)

Empowerment Indicators: Support for other Women (EmpIndSupWom)		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive Statistics		Latent Factor (Principal component)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	% Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	Std Dev	Coefficient
Q27.29: I am able to encourage other women to empower themselves	Count	0	1	20	190	23	91.0%	4.00	0.45	0.534
	%	0.0%	0.4%	8.5%	81.2%	9.8%				
Q27.30: I can provide agricultural related advice to other women because of my personal experience	Count	2	3	22	192	15	88.5%	3.92	0.53	0.846
	%	0.9%	1.3%	9.4%	82.1%	6.4%				
Q27.31: I can provide business related advice to other women because of my experience	Count	3	2	25	192	12	87.2%	3.89	0.54	0.837
	%	1.3%	0.9%	10.7%	82.1%	5.1%				
Q27.32: I am willing to share my business related achievements with other women	Count	1	2	20	202	9	90.2%	3.92	0.44	0.809
	%	0.4%	0.9%	8.5%	86.3%	3.8%				
Q27.33: I am willing to share my agricultural related achievements with other women	Count	3	1	18	203	9	90.6%	3.91	0.49	0.797
	%	1.3%	0.4%	7.7%	86.8%	3.8%				
Q27.34: I am willing to assist other women who are struggling with setting up their farming business.	Count	4	10	42	152	26	76.1%	3.79	0.76	0.637
	%	1.7%	4.3%	17.9%	65.0%	11.1%				
	Cronbach's Alpha							0.825		
	% of total variation accounted for by latent factor							56.63%		

Economic empowerment has resulted in women supporting each other to empower themselves as indicated by the mean score of above 3.7. The highest (91.0%) form of support that women are assisting each other with is to encourage themselves to achieve economic empowerment (question 27.29). The mean score for this item is 4. The least (76.1%) form of support that women are giving each other is assisting those who are struggling to set up their farming business to do so (question 25.34). The mean score for this decision is 3.79. An overall measure of economic indicators for support for other women is calculated as a summary of the six items presented in Table 6.42. This summary variable (EmpIndSupWom) is calculated using principal components (or latent factors) which represented by weights in the last column. The weights indicate that question 27.30, based on the ability of women to support each other by sharing agriculture related advice to other women based on their experience (0.846) is the most important form of support.

6.10.1.5 Qualitative insights – Improved quality of lives

"Kubva patakatora minda kubva kuvarungu tiri kurarama zvakanaka. Hongu hazvisati zvanyatsosvika patinoda asi hazvishoreki (translated as: From the time we took the land from the whites, the quality of our lives have improved. Yes, we may not have quite reached the level that we aspire to get to but we cannot complain). Now we can even afford to buy meat, eggs and also buy nice clothes" (A2 farmer).

"Following the death of my husband, things got really tough, but since I started farming, I am now able to look after my children. They have all finished school and I am able to buy myself clothes and eat healthy food" (Irrigation scheme member).

"I now go and buy clothes from the shops. 'Ndave kugona kuzvitengera zvandinoda uye pandinodira' translated as: I am now able to buy whatever I want and whenever I want)" (Irrigation scheme member).

"As a family we now dress well. We no longer wear ragged clothes. We can now afford to buy laundry detergent. Now we also eat better and healthier food" (A1 farmer).

I drive my own car and I can afford a high quality lifestyle. My family is now a modern one. My daughters live like princesses. They go to a private school where I pay school fees of $3 500 per term per child. My eldest daughter is at a prestigious university in South Africa and I am able to pay for all her costs. It doesn't look like I lost my husband, my kids continue to live as if their father is still alive" (A2 farmer).

"Ndave kugeza kudarika imi vechidiki (laughs). Ndave kupfeka kudarika maticha (laughs) ... (translated as: 'I am now able to take very good care of myself and I am better groomed than you, the youth. I even dress better than the teachers). All my children went to a very good boarding school and I paid their fees from farming income. All my grandchildren are now very happy and are keen to stay with me because they know that I am capable of looking after them and I can afford to give then what they want" (A2 farmer).

"Our lifestyle is now very different from when we were not farming. We can now afford to buy brand new clothes and not the second hand clothes that we used to buy. Now we also eat better and healthier food" (A1 farmer).

I am a community leader in my area…. One thing that I can tell you is that the lives of women in my community have changed for the better. Women in my community have developed their homesteads…. they have built modern "kitchens" roofed with asbestos (in the Zimbabwean context, a kitchen is normally a round hut thatched with grass). They have bought new furniture. ….. In my community, women are so empowered that they are now financing funerals….. 'Kudhara, madzimai aichema nhamo parufu, iye zvino, madzimai ave kuchema kurasikirwa nemurume' (translated as: before women used to cry a lot at a husband's funeral because of not knowing where to start as the husband was the bread winner. Nowadays, women mourn the loss of their spouse because they know, they are able to take care of themselves and the family) (A2 farmer).

"The community holds me in high regard and the respect me. I stay on my own so I employ people from the community to help with farm labour" (Irrigation scheme member).

"My family is very helpful and supportive especially my husband. I tend to do more of the farm work and he gives me money to buy farming inputs. The community also assists me with farming advice and I also get farming labour from the community" (A1 farmer).

"My family is very helpful and supportive. We do the farm work together. My two eldest sons are the ones that I do the farm work with. My husband inspects the fields because that what he enjoys. The community assists with farming advice" (A1 farmer).

6.10.2 Summary of improvements and asset acquisitions

The summary of improvements and asset acquisitions are based on two categories which are household improvements and farming business improvements and assets acquisitions.

6.10.2.1 Household Improvements and Asset acquisitions

The results for household improvements and asset acquisitions are analysed using Table 6.43 and Figure 6.19. Figure 6.19 specifically depicts the rankings of the household improvements.

Table 6.43: Household Improvements and Asset acquisitions

Household Improvements & Assets		Yes	No
Q28.1. I purchased a vehicle for my family	Frequency %	32 13.7%	202 86.3%
Q282. I managed to build a house for my family	Frequency %	125 53.4%	109 46.6%
Q28.3. I managed to buy additional land for my family (e.g. plot)	Frequency %	10 4.3%	224 95.7%
Q28.4: I managed to buy a house for my family in the city	Frequency %	25 10.7%	209 89.3%
Q28.5: I managed to install solar energy system at my house	Frequency %	81 34.6%	153 65.4%
Q28.6: I managed to install a borehole water	Frequency %	18 7.7%	216 92.3%
Q28.7: I managed to fence my property	Frequency %	112 47.9%	122 52.1%
Q28.8: I managed to buy new furniture for my house	Frequency %	143 61.1%	91 38.9%
Q28.9: I managed to repair and extend my house	Frequency %	18 7.7%	216 92.3%
Q28.10: I managed to build a latrine toilet	Frequency %	8 3.4%	226 96.6%
Q28.11: I managed to electrify my homestead	Frequency %	12 5.1%	222 94.9%
Q28.12: I managed to send my children to good schools	Frequency %	123 52.6%	111 47.4%
Q28.13: I managed to send my children for further education (e.g. university, college).	Frequency %	39 16.7%	195 83.3%
Q28.14: I am now able to eat good food and a well-balanced diet	Frequency %	7 3.0%	227 97.0%
Q28.15: I am now able to buy nice clothes for my family	Frequency %	5 2.1%	229 97.9%

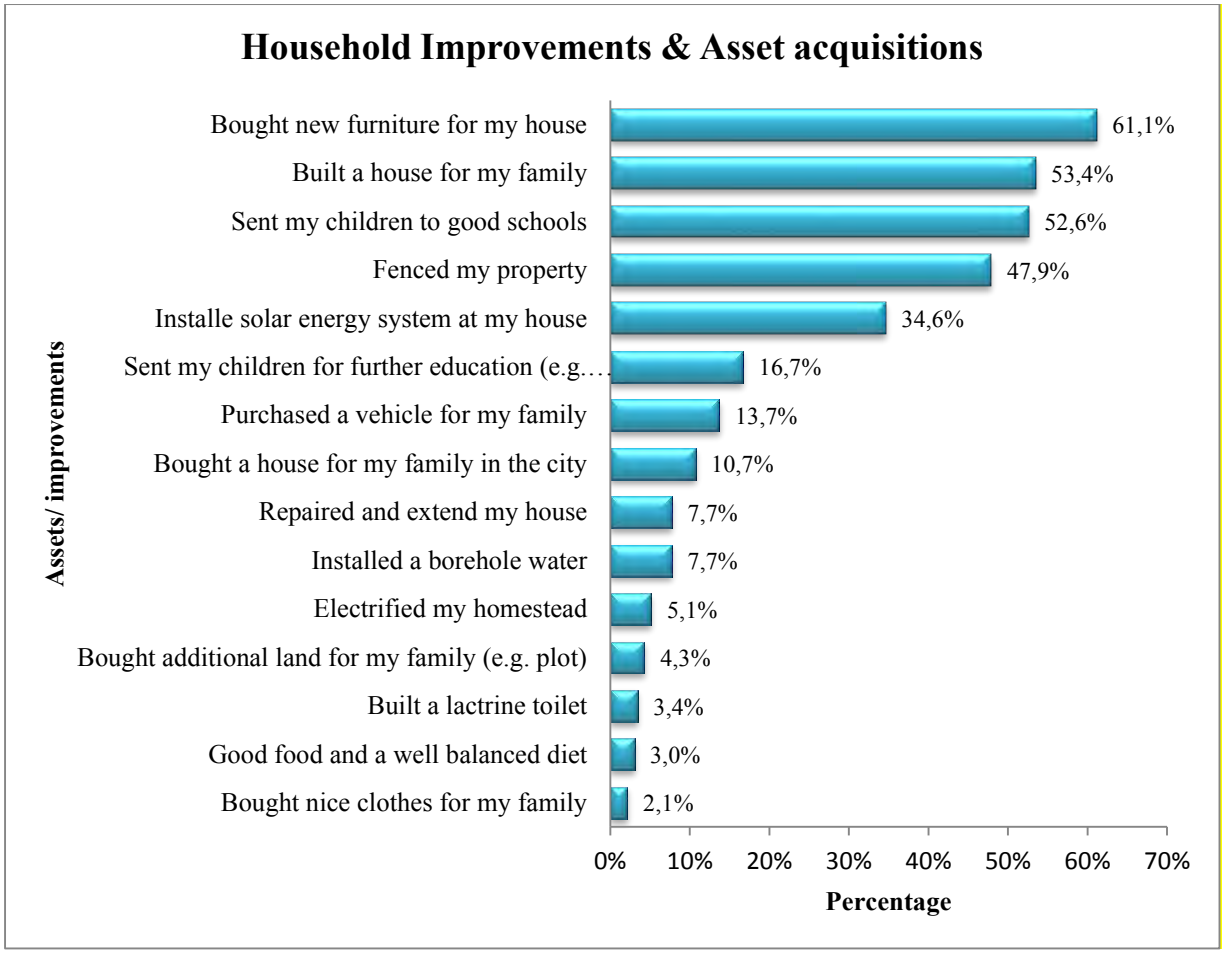

Figure 6.19: Household Improvements and Assets

The results reveal that there has been a positive improvement in the women's lives as a result of economic empowerment. Figure 6.19 show that improvements ranged from the ability to buy nice clothes for the family to buying furniture.

6.10.2.2 Farming Business improvements and asset acquisitions

The results for the farming business improvements and asset acquisitions are presented in Table 6.44 and Figure 6.20. Figure 6.20 specifically depicts the rankings for the farming business improvements and asset acquisitions.

Table 6.44: Achievements from economic empowerment in agricultural entrepreneurship

Farming Business Improvements & Assets		Yes	No
Q28.16: I managed to purchase a vehicle for transporting my produce to the market	Frequency	26	208.0
	%	11.1%	88.9%
Q28.17: I managed to purchase additional livestock	Frequency	58	176.0
	%	24.8%	75.2%
Q28.18: I managed to build storage facilities for my harvested crops	Frequency	47	187.0
	%	20.1%	79.9%
Q28.19: I managed to build sheds for my livestock, e.g. kraal (chicken, goats, cattle, pigs, etc.)	Frequency	77	157.0
	%	32.9%	67.1%
Q28.20: I managed to build a tobacco ban	Frequency	13	221.0
	%	5.6%	94.4%
Q28.21: I managed to fence for my field	Frequency	29	205.0
	%	12.4%	87.6%
Q28.22: I installed irrigation on my field	Frequency	8	226.0
	%	3.4%	96.6%
Q28.23: I bought scotch cart to transport my produce	Frequency	68	166.0
	%	29.1%	70.9%
Q28.24: I bought farming assets, e.g. wheel barrow,	Frequency	138	96.0
	%	59.0%	41.0%

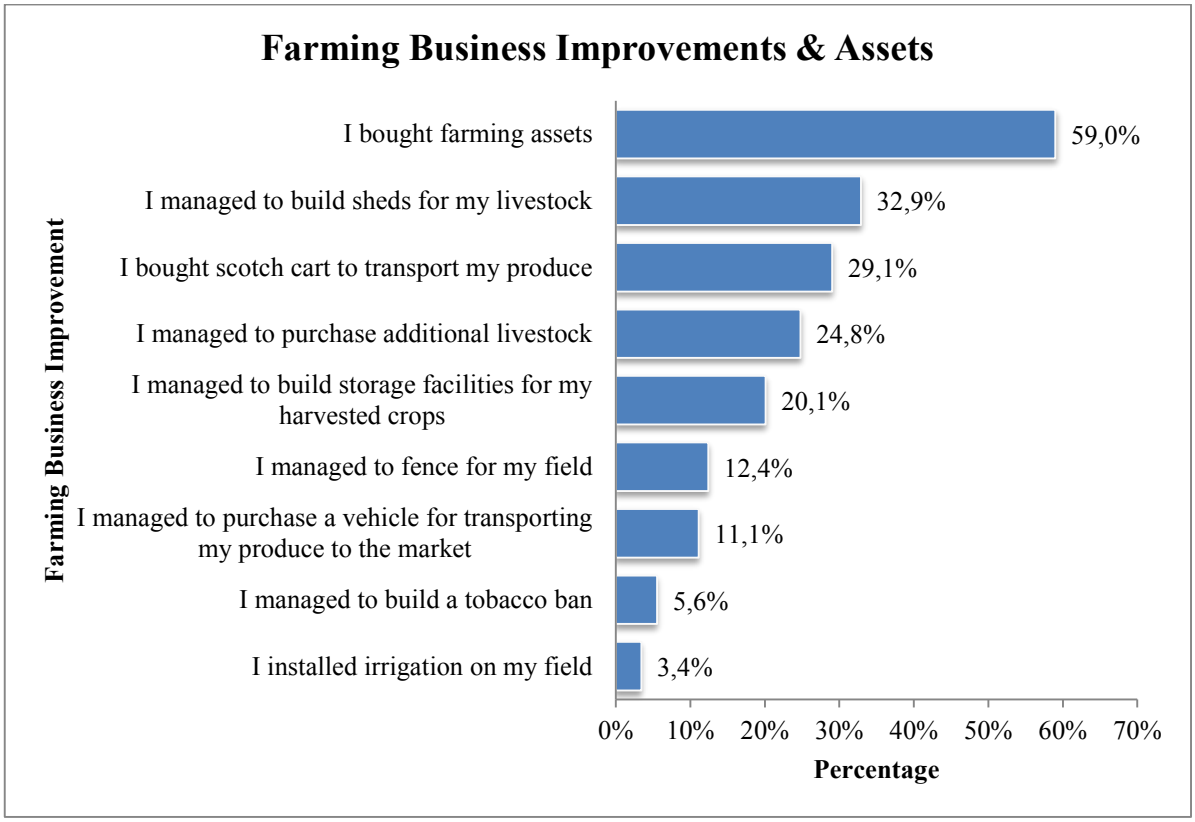

Figure 6.20: Farm Business Improvements & Assets

The majority of women did not make significant improvements in their farming business venture as indicated by the low percentages of women who invested their income back into the

operations of their businesses. However, economic empowerment resulted in improvements in some women's farming business ventures. This is indicated by what the women were able to do in order to improve their business ventures. Figure 6.20 depicts that the farming business improvements ranged from installation of irrigation to the purchase of other keys farming assets.

6.10.2.3 Qualitative Insights – Household improvements

The following quotes give an overview of how women have improved their quality of lives and improved their homes and businesses as a result of agriculture entrepreneurship.

> *"We built a five roomed house on the farm and we bought 4 cattle. We installed solar energy at our homestead" (A1 farmer).*

> *"We have been farming for 5 years and I have managed to install solar energy throughout our house and I purchase a small radio. I managed to send my children to school and to extend my house with an additional 2 rooms" (A1 farmer).*

> *"I can now afford to feed my family, send my kids to school and even purchase their school stationery. I am also able to pay for their medical expenses. I built a house for my parents in the rural areas. I bought a scotch cart, household appliances and sofas for myself" (A1 farmer).*

> *"We managed to install a borehole. Very little time has elapsed since we started farming and it's still early days, so I have not yet made significant improvements" (Irrigation scheme member / communal farmer).*

> *"I built a beautiful house and installed electricity. 'Hapana chakasiyana ini ndiri paruzevha nevari kudhorobha' (translated as: 'There is no difference between myself living in the village and those living in town). I managed to install a borehole and DSTV and I also bought a fridge" (A2 farmer).*

"I have all the household appliances and furniture I need. There is no one with pots like mine (laughing)! I have a solar power system installed, purchased a scotch cart, a plough, cattle and goats. I am so happy and content that my family is now well fed and looked after" (A2 farmer).

"I bought a house in the suburbs in Harare, a family car, delivery van and a truck for the business. I have invested some of the income from farming into a clothing boutique store in town. My kids go to private schools and overseas universities" (A2 farmer).

"I managed to purchase a radio; solar panel, battery and an inverter…. I also managed to build a granary to store my grain and managed to send my child to school" (Irrigation scheme member).

6.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented and analysed the empirical research findings of the study. Since the study adopted a mixed method approach, qualitative insights were used to support the quantitative data. The chapter began by reporting on the response rate and reliability test. Thereafter, the demographic information of the respondents was analysed. The empirical findings of the research were then analysed according to the research objectives of the study. The next chapter discusses the research findings.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented and analysed the empirical findings of the study. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the research findings in relation to the study objectives. The chapter begins by discussing important themes extracted from the demographic data. Thereafter, the research findings are discussed according to the six research objectives of the study.

7.2 THEMES EXTRACTED FROM THE DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Four themes emerged from the demographic data. Although these themes do not directly address the research objectives of the study, they are worth discussing. The four themes are based on (1) high levels of poverty that exists in Zimbabwe; (2) widening wealth gap between the rich and poor; (3) women owning land and; (4) dominance of women entrepreneurship in the informal sector. These themes are discussed below.

7.2.1 Poverty remains high in Zimbabwe

The results indicate that in general, the communities represented in this study are regarded as poor, with limited access to modern resources such as decent housing, electricity, safe water and sanitation. This is revealed by the following facts that (1) the majority (68.4%) of women reside either under a brick and thatched roof house or pole and dagga (mud); (2) majority (51.3%) of women do not have access to safe water; (3) only a minority (26.9%) have access to electricity; and (4) only 1.7% of the women are connected to the sewer system. High levels of poverty is also revealed from the income that women are generating from various farming activities. For example, the results indicates that women at the lowest end of the income scale generate as little as $10 per week from selling vegetables. These findings concurs with extant literature on poverty in Zimbabwe. For example, the United Nations (2014) and the United

Nations Development Programme (2012) assert that the majority (72.3%) of people in Zimbabwe are considered to be poor, while 62.6% of the households are deemed poor. Poverty is more prevalent in rural areas compared to urban areas with about 76% of the rural households considered poor compared to 38.2% of urban households (United Nations, 2014; UNDP, 2012). Individual poverty prevalence is 84.3% in rural areas compared to 46.5% in urban areas, while extreme poverty is 30.3% in rural areas compared to only 5.6% in urban areas (United Nations, 2014; UNDP, 2012). The African Development Bank Group (2013) states that poverty levels remained high after the 2013 Zimbabwean elections. The findings of the study are in line with the statistics drawn from literature that poverty is still high in Zimbabwe.

7.2.2 Widening wealth gap between the rich and poor

This theme is discussed from two angles namely livestock ownership (in particular cattle ownership) and income generated by the women over the two farming seasons (2013/2014 and 2014/2015).

Firstly, the empirical findings show a wide range of cattle ownership starting from zero (no cattle) to households that own up to 400 cattle. Those households with no cattle constitute 35.47% of the sample. According to the Commercial Farmers Union of Zimbabwe (CFU) (2014; 2015), live cattle prices as at the end of September 2015 ranged from $1.67/kg for weaner steers to $1.84/kg for feeder steers. Using conservative pricing, it can be estimated that a heifer costs US$800, while a bull costs US$4000 (CFU, 2014; 2015). Assuming an average price of $800 per beast as at 2015 prices, it means that the net worth of those who own one (1) beast is $800, while those who own 400 cattle is US$320 000. According to the findings indicated in Table 6.5, a woman owns an average of 12 cattle, implying that their average net worth for cattle ownership is US$9 600.

Secondly, the results show that the mean for total income for the 2013/2014 farming season is $8 711.69 and the standard deviation is $32 627.61, while the mean for the total income for 2014/2015 farming season is $9 240.37 with a standard deviation for $36 927.46. The high standard deviations indicates a wide range of income generated by the women. As mentioned

before, the research data shows that women earn between $480 ($10 per week converted to annual income) to $295 000 per annum.

These results on cattle ownership and income variations depict a huge wealth gap between the poor and the rich in Zimbabwe. Although poverty is high in Zimbabwe, it can be argued that some women are really creating wealth from agriculture, while others are not. Jacobs (2006) concurs that farming remains an attractive business sector for those who are willing to manage their farms on key business principles and it is a great means for creating wealth. According to Osirim (2003) agriculture is the main income earner for women in sub-Saharan Africa. The implication of these results is that farming could be used as a means for poverty alleviation if the women are equipped with the necessary skills to operate their farming business ventures on key business principles.

7.2.3 Women owning land

The empirical findings reveals that the majority (70.51% (i.e. 59.83% + 10.68%)) have title to the land that they are using either in their own names (59.83%) or joint names with their husbands (10.68%). The results contradicts extant literature on women land ownership in Africa. According to Applefield and Jun (2014), less than 2 percent of women own land in Africa. The lower percentage of women land ownership within the African continent depicts gender disparity. This gender inclusion according to Christine Lagarde (the Managing Director of the International Monetary Fund), is often neglected by policymakers (Lagarde, 2013). She further argues that in today's world, it is no longer acceptable to block women from achieving their potential (Lagarde, 2013). The gender gap in ownership of assets for example, imposes costs on the agriculture sector, the broader economy and society as well as on women (Food and Agriculture Organisation, 2011).

These results indicate that despite the political, socio and economic hardships that the country is experiencing, Zimbabwe has made progress towards achieving gender equality in ownership of factors of production for women. This implies that policy makers in Zimbabwe, unlike in many developing countries have not neglected policy on gender inclusion, although the process

of land redistribution was highly controversial and not without flaws. Although, women are claiming ownership to their pieces of land, these women cannot use their land as collateral when borrowing money from financial institutions for further development of their land. Thus, according to the USAID (Online), one of the major challenges that Zimbabwe is currently facing is that land tenure insecurity is extremely high. Indigenous farmers who have been resettled on the land, remain uncertain about the strength of their property rights and they cannot use their land as collateral when borrowing money (USAID, Online).

7.2.4 Dominance of women entrepreneurship in the informal sector

The results also indicate that the majority (96.15%) of women are operating in the informal sector as only 3.85% managed to register their business ventures. These findings concur with extant literature that the majority of women owned small businesses in developing countries are concentrated within the informal sector (International Labour Organisation, 2004; Bertulfo, 2011). Osirim (2003) further argues that the informal sector is the major source of economic activity in sub-Saharan Africa. Within the Zimbabwe context, McPherson (1991) confirms that micro and small enterprises are an important part of the Zimbabwean economy; and a major generator of income for the country's citizens.

The following section discusses the research findings according to the research objectives of the study.

7.3 MOTIVATION FOR ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Research objective one was addressed by raising the following research hypothesis:

H1: Motivational factors into entrepreneurship influences women's economic empowerment in agriculture.

In order to address the research objective, a general discussion of the motivational factors into entrepreneurship is discussed first. This is followed by the discussion of how motivational into entrepreneurship influences women's economic empowerment.

7.3.1 Summary of Motivational factors into agriculture entrepreneurship

The research findings indicate that women are motivated into agriculture entrepreneurship by seven (mean score of above three) out of the eight identified motivational factors. These results are analysed from Table 6.7 to 6.14. The qualitative insights also confirm that women are motivated into agriculture entrepreneurship by various factors. These findings concurs with existing literature that people are either pulled or pushed by circumstances to start small business ventures (McClelland et al., 2005; Orhan and Scott, 2001; Walker and Webster, 2004). Examples of pull or positive factors are: desire for independence, self-fulfilment, desire for wealth creation, social status and power, desire for a flexible lifestyle, personal challenge, and desire for personal development (McClelland et al., 2005; Orhan and Scott, 2001; Walker and Webster, 2004). Push factors on the other hand are elements of necessity (Orhan and Scott, 2001), and are related to strong desires that are based on external negative reasons (Walker and Webster, 2004). Examples of push factors are: insufficient family income, dissatisfaction with a salaried job, difficulties in finding work, desire for flexible work schedules due to family responsibilities, frustration, lack of control and perceived lack of opportunity for career advancement (Orhan and Scott, 2001; Walker and Webster, 2004; Warren-Smith and Jackson, 2004; McClelland et al., 2005).

Only one of the identified factors achieved a mean score of less than three, implying that the women were not driven into agriculture entrepreneurship by this factor and, this factor is "escape from undesirable conditions". This implies that the constructs listed under this factor did not apply to the everyday lives of the women who participated in the study. This could be explained by the fact that the majority (64.1%) of the women had educational levels which are below the minimum standard according to the Zimbabwean education system and that the majority (70.5%) of these women are house wives or "stay at home mums" as indicated by the results in Table 6.3. As a result, they were never retrenched from their employment and they were never frustrated by not securing employment according to two of the listed constructs. Another reason could be that it is seen as an achievement for women to be married especially those with very low levels of education. As a result, to say that it was the only thing they could do according to the other listed construct may not be applicable to the women.

On the overall, it could be argued that the majority of women were pushed into agriculture entrepreneurship by the need for money as indicated by the high mean scores of above four. This is usually the case in developing countries where poverty levels are extremely high such that the informal sector represents the only option for generating income for survival.

Another important finding worth discussing is the fact that the percentage of the total variation accounted for by the latent factors of motivational factors are low. These factors are the need for recognition (42.07%), the need to escape (59.03%) and the need for achievement (53.09%). These factors need to be investigated further in order to understand how these factors relate to the Zimbabwean context.

7.3.2 Influence of motivational factor on women's economic empowerment

The research results reveal that motivation driven by independence, opportunity, and escape are correlated to income generated for the two farming seasons. A summary of the results show that independence is significantly correlated to income generated from poultry and cash crops for the two farming seasons (p-values≤0.05) and; is also highly significantly correlated to total income generated for both farming seasons (p-values≤0.01). The results also indicate that motivation driven by opportunity is significantly correlated to income generated from poultry and cash crops for the two farming seasons (p-values≤0.05); significantly correlated to total income generated for the 2013/2014 season (p-values≤0.05) and; highly correlated to total income for the 2014/2015 season (p-values≤0.01). In terms of the motivation driven by the need to escape, the results indicate that the factor is significantly correlated to income generated from poultry for the two farming seasons (p-values≤0.05); significantly correlated to income generated from cash crops for 2013/2014 season (p-values≤0.05); significantly correlated to income generated from the 2014/2015 farming season (p-values≤0.01) and; highly significantly correlated to total income generated for both farming seasons (p-values≤0.01). These findings, therefore, indicate that motivation driven by independence, opportunity and escape influences women's economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship. Based on these findings, the study therefore, accepts the research hypothesis that motivational factors driven by the desire for independence, opportunity and escape influences women's economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship.

To the contrary, there is no significant correlation between motivation driven by achievement, money, flexibility, recognition and communitarianism and income generated from various farming activities (all p-values>0.05). Based on these findings, the study therefore, rejects the research hypothesis. This implies that motivational factors driven by the desire for achievement, money, flexibility, recognition and communitarianism do not influence women's economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship. These findings concur with existing literature that women in developing countries participate in agriculture mainly for feeding their families, i.e. food production (UNDP, 2012; Applefield and Jun, 2014), hence they participate in agriculture mainly as smallholder farmers or subsistence farmers (Weng et al., 2013).

7.4 CHALLENGES AFFECTING WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

The following hypothesis was developed to guide the researcher in achieving the aim of the research objective two:

H1: Farming and production challenges affect women women's economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship.

The results of the research objective are discussed in the following order. Firstly, the results of the farming production and farming business challenges are discussed. Thereafter, the relationship between these challenges and women's economic empowerment as measured by income generated is discussed.

7.4.1 Farming production challenges

The results indicate that the rising cost of agricultural inputs, lack of availability of farming loans, and inadequate supply of farming inputs and equipment on the local market are some of the challenges that women are facing in agriculture entrepreneurship. The mean scores for these challenges is above three. The qualitative insights also highlights some of these challenges. These findings concurs with extant literature which states that women face numerous challenges in agriculture (e.g. Jayne et al., 2010; FAO, 2011; UNDP, 2012; Weng et al., 2013; Applefield and Jun, 2014).

On the other hand, the women did not agree that lack of irrigation facilities, poor infrastructure, low ratio of extension officers to farmers and poorly resourced extension officers are some of the challenges that they are facing in agriculture as indicated by the mean scores which are below three. These findings contradict extant literature on challenges affecting women in agriculture production (e.g. Jayne et al., 2010; FAO, 2011; UNDP, 2012; Weng et al., 2013; Applefield and Jun, 2014). While these challenges are applicable to other developing countries, it seems as though these challenges are not applicable to the Zimbabwean context. This is because Zimbabwe generally has a good infrastructure, although the current government is experiencing difficulties in maintaining the system in good condition. Several authors (e.g. Oshikoya, 1994; Chiripanhura and Makwavarara, 2000; Brett, 2005) agree that in 1980, Zimbabwe inherited one of the most structurally developed economies and effective state systems in Africa. These results make perfect sense considering the fact that the Mashonaland West province used to be considered as the bread basket of Africa (Mupedziswa, 2011).

The results also indicate that the percentage of total variation accounted for by latent factor for farming production challenges is low (33.88%). This implies that the farming production challenges that are affecting women empowerment in agriculture need to be explored further in order to identify other challenges affecting women in agriculture in Zimbabwe.

7.4.2 Farming business challenges

The results indicate that women face numerous challenges that relate to the entrepreneurship side of their farming activities as indicated by all mean scores of above three. The qualitative insights also reflect some of the issues that affect women in their everyday lives in agriculture entrepreneurship. These results concur with the findings of existing literature on women participating in agriculture entrepreneurship (e.g. Jayne et al., 2010; FAO, 2011; UNDP, 2012; Weng et al., 2013; Applefield and Jun, 2014). One key issue that came out from the interviews was the fact that the Grain Marketing Board is not paying farmers on time for buying their agricultural produce. This has a negative impact on agriculture in Zimbabwe considering the fact that there is limited availability of farming loans. Such obstacles not only heighten the risk of food insecurity in Zimbabwe, but also considerably reduce farmers' contribution to overall agricultural production in the country (UNDP, 2012). Providing women with essential tools and resources can have a significant impact on agricultural productivity and this often does not

require a major investment of resources to make a huge impact. For example, paying farmers on time would motivate them to produce more as it presents them with a ready market for their agricultural produce.

In as much as the women perceived that the identified challenges were affecting their farming businesses, the percentage of total variation accounted for by latent factor for farming production challenges is low (42.68%). This implies that the challenges affecting women's farming businesses need to be explored further in order to get a deeper understanding of the challenges that women are experiencing in agriculture in Mashonaland West province of Zimbabwe.

7.4.3 Effect of agriculture and farming business challenges on women's economic empowerment

7.4.3.1 Agriculture production challenges and farming business challenges on income

The results in Table 6.19 indicate that there is no significant correlation between income generated from the two farming seasons (2013/2014 and 2014/2015) and agriculture production challenges (all p-values>0.05). The results also indicate that there is no significant correlation between some sources of income (e.g. poultry, cash crops, market gardening and fruit sales) and farming business challenges (all p-values>0.05). Based on these results, the study rejects the research hypothesis that agriculture production challenges are affecting women women's economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship. There is, however, a highly significant correlation between incomes generated from livestock sales and off farm activities for the two seasons (p-values≤0.01). The research hypothesis is therefore accepted for these two sources of income. These results, again point to the same fact that women in developing countries are participating in agriculture mainly for food consumption, hence the subsistence nature of their farming activities (UNDP, 2012; Applefield and Jun, 2014).

7.4.3.2 Effects of selected demographic variable on income

In order to understand the effects of the selected demographic variables on women's economic empowerment, the following hypothesis was developed:

H1: The selected demographic variables affect women's economic empowerment.

Age: The results in Table 6.20 indicates that age does not have a significant effect on the agricultural production challenges faced by women entrepreneurs in agriculture (F=1.647, df1=5, df2=228, p-value=0.149) and neither does it affect farming business challenges (F=0.859, df1=5, df2=228, p-value=0.509). Based on these results, the research hypothesis is therefore rejected.

Marital Status: The results in Table 6.21 show that marital status does not have a significant effect on agricultural production challenges faced by women entrepreneurs (F=0.478, df1=3, df2=230, p-value=0.698); and neither does it affect farming business challenges (F=0.769, df1=3, df2=230, p-value=0.513). Based on these findings, the research hypothesis is therefore rejected.

Education: The results in Table 6.22 show that education has a significant effect on agricultural production challenges (F=2.504, df1=6, df2=227, p-value=0.023); and has a significant effect on farming business challenges (F=3.618, df1=6, df2=227, p-value=0.002). Based on these findings, the research hypothesis is therefore accepted. These findings concurs with literature that education is necessary for the advancement of women's economic empowerment (Alkire et al., 2013; Markel, 2014). Thus, education equips women with the necessary skills to deal with the challenges associated with agriculture entrepreneurship.

Type of land: The findings in Table 6.23 indicates that the type of land has a significant effect on agricultural production challenges (F=28.543, df1=3, df2=230, p-value=0.000); and has a significant effect on farming business challenges (F=9.644, df1=3, df2=230, p-value=0.000). The research hypothesis is therefore accepted, based on these findings. The findings imply that the type of land (such as irrigation schemes, A1 and A2) has an effect on the challenges that women are facing. Thus, the challenges that women encounter depend to the type of farming activities that they are involved in. For example, those in irrigation schemes, encounter certain types of challenges that are unique to them.

Year of land occupation: The results in Table 6.24 show that the year of land occupation has a significant effect on agricultural production challenges (F=8.567, df1=4, df2=229, p-value=0.000); and has a significant effect on farming business challenges (F=13.027, df1=4,

df2=229, p-value=0.000). The research hypothesis is therefore accepted, based on the study findings. These results imply that the challenges that women are experiencing is influenced by the period that they have been involved on the particular type of farming activities. Thus, those who have been farming for a longer period would have the advantage of experience as compared to the recent farmers.

Size of land: The results in Table 6.25 indicate that the size land has a significant effect on agricultural production challenges (F=16.008, df1=6, df2=227, p-value=0.000); and has a significant effect on farming business challenges (F=6.447, df1=6, df2=227, p-value=0.000). Based on the findings of this study, the research hypothesis is therefore accepted. This implies that the challenges that women encounter in agriculture entrepreneurship is influenced by the size of land they utilize. Thus, those with bigger sizes of land experience challenges that are peculiar to them compared to those with smaller plots of land.

7.5 SOCIO-CULTURAL FACTORS AFFECTING WOMEN' ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

In an attempt to address the aim of research objective three, the researcher formulated the following hypothesis:

H1: Socio-cultural factors affect women' economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship.

7.5.1 Summary of Socio-cultural challenges:

The results show that the identified socio-cultural factors are indeed affecting women's economic empowerment in agriculture as indicated by mean scores of above three for all the factors. The findings from the qualitative insights also reflect some of the socio-cultural challenges that women encounter in their everyday lives in agriculture entrepreneurship. These results concur with finding of previous studies (e.g. Chitsike, 2000; Chamlee-Wright, 2002; Muzvidziwa, 2005; Mboko and Smith-Hunter, 2009) which placed little value on women's participation in activities outside the home.

The results also indicate that the percentage of total variation accounted for by the latent factor for socio-cultural factors is 69.20%. Although this percentage is relatively high, there is a need for further investigation into the socio-cultural factors affecting women's economic empowerment in agriculture. However, it is worth highlighting that research can only highlight some of the socio-cultural factors affecting women, because these factors can never be exhausted as they differ from one to the other.

7.5.2 Correlation of socio-cultural factors and women economic empowerment

The results reveal that socio-cultural factors have little impact on women's economic empowerment. The results indicate that there is no significant correlation between socio-cultural factors and various income sources (all p-values>0.05). Therefore, the results of the study reject the stated research hypothesis that socio-cultural factors affect women's economic empowerment. Thus, although women are aware and experience deeply rooted socio-cultural factors within agriculture entrepreneurship, these factors do not discourage them. In fact, it seems as though women derive motivation for achieving economic empowerment from their daily experiences. The qualitative results also indicate that women have learnt to deal with their situations in such a way that they do not take to heart what is said about them. For example, one woman mentioned that she does not listen or take hid of these negative comments. In fact, these challenges motivate her to achieve much more that the societal norms. These findings are in agreement with existing literature on how women deal with negative societal perceptions. For example, Mboko and Smith-Hunter (2009) assert that while women acknowledge societal attitudes towards them, they do not allow these perceptions to negatively affect their businesses. In fact, they take it as an opportunity to prove that they are capable of achieving more in life as women (Mboko and Smith-Hunter, 2009).

7.6 SUPPORT FOR WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

To address research objective four, the following research hypothesis was formulated:

H1: Government support influences women's economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship.

7.6.1 Awareness of the BBWEE Framework and type of support received from government

The research results indicate that the majority (95.30%) of women are not aware of the existence of a framework that guides and support women's economic empowerment in Zimbabwe. Only (4.70%) of women are aware of the BBWEE Framework. The research findings also reveal that women are generally receiving support from the government such as agricultural inputs, training, agriculture equipment, and that very few women received farming loans. These findings concur with existing literature that the potential of women in agriculture is compromised by lack of support from the policy decision makers (Jayne et al., 2010; FAO, 2011; UNDP, 2012; Weng et al., 2013; Applefield and Jun, 2014; World Bank, 2014).

7.6.2 Effects of type of government support on women's economic empowerment

Land ownership: The results show that land ownership does not have a significant effect on women's economic empowerment measured as the revenue generated from various farming activities. The findings indicate that there were no significant differences in the amount generated by women who own land and those who do not own land (all p-values >0.05). Therefore, the study rejects the research hypothesis that support in the form of land influences women's economic empowerment. The results also reveal that there were differences in the increase of total income received by the women. The women who own land had a decline in total income, whereas, those who do not own land had a positive increase in income during the two seasons (t= -2.012, df =232, p-value=0.045).

Start-up capital / loans: The results in Table 6.30 indicate that there is no significant effect of start-up capital on revenue generated by the women (all p-values>0.05). The study therefore, rejects the research hypothesis that government assistance in the form of loans and start-up capital influences women's economic empowerment. In fact, women who did not receive government assisted start-up capital generated more income than those who received this type of assistance.

Agriculture inputs: The research results show that government support in the form of agriculture inputs does not have a significant effect on revenue generated by women. There were no significant differences in the amount of various sources of income generated by the women who received agriculture inputs and those who did not receive any inputs from the government (all p-values >0.05). The study therefore rejects the hypothesis that government support in the form of agriculture inputs influences women's economic empowerment. Yet, the majority (92.3%) of women received this type of support. The question that then arises is then that: is the government wasting resources by assisting women with agricultural inputs such as loan? However, agriculture inputs have a highly significant effect on off farm income received by women for both the 2013-2014 (t= -3.062, df =232, p-value =0.002) and 2014-2015 (t= -3.058, df =232, p-value=0.002) farming season and the total increase in poultry income (t= -2.821, df =232, p-value=0.005).

Infrastructural development: The study findings reveal that infrastructural development does not have a significant effect on income generated by women. Women who did not receive any form of infrastructural development support actually generated more income than those women who were assisted by the government. The results in Table 6.32 indicate that there is no significant effect of government infrastructural development support on income generated by the women (all p-values>0.05). Therefore, the study results reject the stated hypothesis that infrastructural development influences women's economic empowerment.

Training: The results indicate that women who did not receive government training generated more income than their counterparts. This is indicated by the higher mean score for the income for the women who were not trained. However, government training had a significant effect on income generated from cash crops for 2013-2014 (t= -2.428, df =232, p-value=0.016) and a highly significant effect on income from cash crops for 2014-2015 (t= -2.650, df =232, p-value=0.009) farming seasons. Similarly, government training had a significant effect on

revenue collected from livestock sales for both the 2013-2014 (t= -2.251, df =232, p-value=0.025) and 2014-2015 (t= -2.096, df =232, p-value=0.037) farming season. The same trends were noted for off farm income for 2013-2014 (t= -2.371, df =232, p-value=0.019) and 2014-2015 (t= -2.223, df =232, p-value=0.027) farming seasons. Overall, government training had a significant effect on total income generated by the women for 2013-2014 (t= -2.529, df =232, p-value=0.012) and a highly significant effect on income generated (t= -2.735, df =232, p-value=0.007) for the 2014-2015 season. Based on these results, the study accepts the research hypothesis that training influences women's economic empowerment.

In summary, the above results indicate that women who did not benefit from government support such as land, loans, agricultural inputs, infrastructural development actually generated more income as compared to those who received support. These findings contradict with existing literature (e.g. Grabe, 2012; Kabeer, 2012; Alkire et al., 2013; Markel, 2014) on economic empowerment which argues that empowering women with resources is necessary for promoting economic empowerment. This implies that the government should review its process of providing support for women in agriculture. This is necessary to avoid giving more support to women who are not capable of fully utilising these resources for further development of agriculture in Zimbabwe. Thus, before distributing resources, a proper needs assessment of the women is required. Due to the fact that training influences women's economic empowerment, it is necessary to continue empowering women who are productive within the agricultural sector with more skills so that they are able to produce more food and ensure food security in the country.

7.7 ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT AND WOMEN'S DECISION MAKING ROLE

To address research objective five, the following question was formulated: "*How does economic empowerment influence decision making roles for women participating in agriculture entrepreneurship?*"

The results indicate that women are involved in the decision making process for farming production (mean score of above 3.4), farming business (mean score of above 3.7), business income and expenditure (mean score of above 3.5), and household income and expenditure (mean score of above 3.6). These findings concur with extant literature (e.g. Mosedale, 2005; Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007; Kabeer, 2012; Markel, 2014) that women's economic empowerment

increases women's participation in decision making in different key aspects of their lives. The qualitative insights also revealed one critical aspect concerning women's decision making roles that comes as a result of economic empowerment. The results indicate that women have developed strategies that assist them retain control over their economic resources. For example, some married women highlighted the issue of making sure that husband is "happy" for them to be able to maneuver through their unique economic empowerment journeys. According to Tong (2013:1-2), these strategies symbolise "ways in which so many women have "beaten the system" taken charge of their own destinies and encourage each other to live, love, laugh and be happy as women".

The results of the percentage of total variation accounted for by latent factor is reasonably high for farming business decisions (78.19%) and business income and expenditure decisions (72.69%) indicating that the constructs used reflect the conditions on the ground. However, the percentage of total variation accounted for by latent factor is low for farming production decisions (58.41%) and household income and expenditure (52.08%). These results suggest that indicators for women's decision making for farming production and household income and expenditure need to be explored further so that they reflect the level of these decision making in women's lives.

7.8 ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT AND CHANGE IN WOMEN'S LIVES

The researcher was guided by the following research question in addressing research objective six: *"To what extent has economic empowerment changed women's lives in agriculture entrepreneurship?"*

The results indicate that economic empowerment resulted in positive change in women's personal lives (mean score of above 3.5), change in the lives of women's families (mean score of above 3.1), change in their community livelihoods (mean score of above 3.4) and, has resulted in women supporting each other to achieve economic empowerment (mean score of above 3.7). All women who participated in the study managed to improve their lives in one way or the other. These results concur with existing literature (e.g. Kabeer, 2005; Malholtra and Schuler, 2005; Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007) which states that economic empowerment is a process that results in positive change in peoples' lives. Although the change in quality of life

may seem to be minute and insignificant to others, such changes make a huge impact in women's everyday lives considering the high levels of poverty that these women experience on a daily basis. These improvements include building ablution facilities by those who did not have such basic facilities and acquiring of immovable assets in the city. Being able to provide basic necessities for the family such as providing food, clothes and education dominated the list of improvements. These are examples of basic human needs that many people take for granted. To the poorest of the poor, ability to have these basic needs brings much joy. Hence the quote from one woman who mentions that "… she is so happy and content that her family is now well fed and well looked after". These findings are supported by existing literature that investing in women can be viewed as a "smart move" that enables developing countries to break the poverty cycle (UNIDO, 2010). It is a win-win situation that benefits not only women, but the society more broadly (Golla et al., 2011). Income-generating activities empower not just an individual; but also benefit entire family (Mayoux, 2000; Alkire et al., 2013). An empowered woman is able to ensure that her children's well-being is given high priority because she is able to take care of her own physical and mental well-being (Alkire et al., 2012). Economic empowerment enables women to increase expenditure on their well-being and their children which is in fact the main concern in the poverty alleviation paradigm. Women's control over decision-making is also beneficial to men through preventing leakage of household income to unproductive and harmful activities (Mayoux, 2000).

7.9 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this chapter discussed the results of the study. The chapter began by discussing four themes that were extracted from the demographic data of the research participants (i.e. women). Thereafter, the results were discussed according to the specific research objective. The results ultimately indicate that economic empowerment of women improves the lives of women, their families and their societies at large.

CHAPTER 8

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter discussed the results of the study. This chapter provides an overview of the major issues discussed in the previous chapters of the thesis. The major findings are re-emphasised, upon which the conclusions of the study are drawn. The chapter also provides the recommendations and the implications for the study. Thereafter, the contribution to the body of knowledge and the limitations of the study are outlined. Lastly, the areas for future research are presented.

8.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study was to explore the nexus between women's economic empowerment and women entrepreneurship in agriculture in Mashonaland West province in Zimbabwe. In particular, the purpose of the study was to investigate whether economic empowerment of women through entrepreneurship in agriculture could lead to improved quality of lives for women. The thesis was broken down into eight chapters. The first chapter introduced the research project where the background of the study was outlined together with the six research objectives which guided the study. The rationale of the study stressed the dearth of research in three contemporary discourses which are women's economic empowerment, women entrepreneurship and agriculture in developing nations, particularly in Zimbabwe. A research study that combined the three discourses was necessary considering the socio-economic and political challenges that Zimbabwe is currently facing. At the centre of this crisis are women who bear the responsibility of providing food for the family on a daily basis.

In order to situate the study within the broader literature, two literature review chapters were developed. These chapters focused on two concepts in relation to the aim of the study namely women entrepreneurship and women's economic empowerment. Chapter two of the thesis reviewed literature on women entrepreneurship. In particular, the chapter reviewed research studies that were conducted on women entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe. The outcome of the

literature search was that there is indeed a scarcity of research studies conducted on this subject in the country, particularly on women based in rural areas, where the majority of them draw their livelihood on subsistence farming.

Chapter three provided the theoretical framework of the study which is based on women's empowerment. Of importance, the chapter outlined the theory which guides women's empowerment, in particular women's economic empowerment. The significance of economic empowerment of women was presented. The chapter wrapped up by discussing how economic empowerment is measured.

Since the research study was conducted in Zimbabwe, it was necessary to give a general overview of the country. This was achieved in chapter four of the thesis. Key issues delved in within the chapter were the political, economic and social environment of the country.

Chapter five of the thesis focused on the research methodology used. The chapter provided a detailed explanation of mixed method research approach (i.e. exploratory sequential mixed method) which combined both qualitative and quantitative data. The research approach was adopted in line with gender research methodology. The research population, the sample size, and the sampling techniques (i.e. purposive and convenience sampling), research instruments (i.e. focus group interviews, questionnaire survey, and in-depth interviews) were explained and the justification was also provided. The chapter wrapped up with a discussion on the data analysis methods used and how reliability and validity was achieved for the study.

In chapter six, the empirical data was presented and analysed in accordance with the research objectives of the study. In chapter seven the research findings were discussed in relation to the existing theories and knowledge on women's economic empowerment and entrepreneurship in agriculture.

8.3 CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions are made by the researcher based on the empirical findings of the study.

8.3.1 Influence of motivational factors on women's economic empowerment

Women in Mashonaland West province in Zimbabwe are motivated to participate in agriculture entrepreneurship by several factors which include the need for achievement, need for independence, opportunity, money, flexibility, recognition, and communitarianism. However, these women are not motivated by the need to escape from undesirable circumstances. On the influence of motivational factors on women's economic empowerment, the study concludes that motivational factors driven by independence, opportunity and escape influences women's economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship. To the contrary, motivation driven by the need for achievement, money, flexibility, recognition and communitarianism does not influence women's economic empowerment. The implication of these findings is that women in Mashonaland West province in Zimbabwe are driven to participate in agriculture mainly for food consumption. These women generate income by selling excess agriculture produce. Very few women are realising that farming is a viable business venture.

8.3.2 Effect of agriculture and farming business challenges on women's economic empowerment

The challenges that affect women in farming production are the rising cost of agricultural inputs, the lack of availability of farming loans, and inadequate supply of farming inputs and equipment on the local market. However, women in Mashonaland West province do not experience challenges that relate to infrastructure development and support such as lack of irrigation facilities and lack of support from agricultural extension officers. The study therefore, concludes that infrastructure that supports agriculture in the selected province is available. The only challenge could be that the government is failing to maintain the available infrastructure due to lack of financial resources.

The study concludes that women in Mashonaland West province face numerous challenges that relate to the entrepreneurship side of their farming activities. These findings, therefore, imply that more training is required to equip these women with entrepreneurial skills so that they would be able to generate more income from their farming activities. Another key finding is that the Grain Marketing Board is not paying farmers on time for their farming produce. This has a negative impact on agriculture production in Zimbabwe considering the fact that there is limited availability of farming loans. The government of Zimbabwe should find ways of ensuring that the Grain Marketing Board pays farmers on time.

The study concludes that there is no significant correlation between income from the main farming activities such as cash crop farming, poultry and market gardening and the challenges faced by the women. There is, however, a highly significant correlation between incomes generated from livestock sales and off farm activities. These results, again point to the same fact that women in developing countries are mainly participating in agriculture for subsistence farming.

The study also concludes that the challenges that women are experiencing in agriculture entrepreneurship are not influenced by age and marital status. However, the challenges are influenced by education, type of land, size of land and year of occupation.

8.3.3 Influence of socio-cultural factors on women's economic empowerment

The study concludes that women in Mashonaland West province experience deeply rooted socio-cultural factors that are imbedded within the patriarchal culture of Zimbabwe. However, these negative socio-cultures factors do not discourage women to achieve economic empowerment. In fact, the women derive motivation to succeed from these factors.

8.3.4 Effects of type of government support on women's economic empowerment

Women are not aware of the existence of the Broad Based Women's Economic Empowerment Framework that guides and support women's economic empowerment in Zimbabwe. Based on the results, the conclusion is that women are receiving support from the government. The type

of support received include agricultural inputs, training, agriculture equipment, and farming loans although very few women received the loans. Yet, farming loans are critical for the development of agriculture in the country, especially considering the fact that the economy of Zimbabwe is agro-based.

The study also concludes that government support does not have a significant effect on women's economic empowerment. Women who did not receive any form of support are actually generating more income that those who have receive support. This implies that the government is supporting women who are not ready to take agriculture to a higher level (i.e. commercial agriculture). This requires a change in mindset of the women to start to looking at agriculture at a different level other than subsistence farming, although their level of education could pose as a hindrance.

Economic empowerment and women's decision making role

The study concludes that the women are participating in the decision making process on key issues relating to their livelihood such as farming production, farming business, business income and expenditure, and household income and expenditure. Interestingly, women have developed strategies that assist them retain control over their economic resources such as ensuring that their spouses are kept happy and do not feel that their position as the head of the household is threatened. Such strategies challenge the patriarchy system in a very subtle way.

8.3.6 Economic empowerment and change in women's lives

Economic empowerment has improved the lives of women in many different aspects. The lives of women improved at an individual level, family level, as well as at the community level. Importantly, economic empowerment resulted in women supporting each other to achieve economic independence.

Although the change in quality of life may seem to be minute and insignificant to others, such changes make a huge impact in women's everyday lives considering the high levels of poverty that these women experience on a daily basis. Being able to provide basic necessities for the

family such as providing food, clothes and education are examples of basic human needs that many people take for granted. Yet, to the poorest of the poor, having these basic needs bring for much joy in their lives.

8.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the conclusions of the study, the researcher proposes the following recommendations:

- Since Zimbabwe's economy is agro based, the government should find ways of supporting this sector in a sustainable way. Thus, it is important for the Zimbabwean economy to be the "bread basket of Africa" again. Ways of supporting agriculture includes among others, providing farming loans to farmers based on merit and, dealing with the issue of land tenure insecurity so that farmers would be able to secure funding using their land as collateral.
- It is high time that the people of Zimbabwe start viewing farming as a viable business venture and begin to create wealth from agriculture. This requires, the people of Zimbabwe in particular the women and the youth to take an active role in bringing back the country to its former glory of being the bread basket of Africa.
- Women should be encouraged to diversify their farming activities such that they would be able to be productive all year round and increase their financial reward from agriculture.
- More women centred agriculture based training programmes are required in order to influence women to participate at a higher level (i.e. from subsistence farming to operating enterprising agriculture. In particular, more training is required to equip women with entrepreneurial skills. Importantly, entrepreneurial training that encourages women to add value within the agriculture value chain is vital.
- Farming should be encouraged as a possible career choice among the youth, especially those studying agriculture at tertiary level. Importantly, entrepreneurship should be made compulsory at tertiary level so that the youth are trained to turn their subject knowledge into viable and sustainable business ventures. This is very important, especially within the African culture where graduates still search for employment in the sector after completing their studies.

- The government should ensure that those people owning larger pieces of land (i.e. A2 farms) are fully utilising the land. Measures should be put in place to ensure that no land remains unutilised.
- There is scarcity of farming loans in Zimbabwe due to the current economic hardships that the country is experiencing. This situation affects women more and yet the majority of them are involved in agriculture. In this regard, it is a worthwhile initiative to establish a financial institution that serves the needs of females.
- There is also a need for the government of Zimbabwe to ensure that the existing institutions and infrastructure that supports agriculture in the country is functioning efficiently. Disbursement of money to the farmers for their produce is important and has to be processed on time to ensure that farming activities are not jeopardised due to lack of funds.
- Before any redistribution of any key factors of production (i.e. key resources), it is important that the earmarked recipients are equipped with the knowledge on how these resources can be fully utilised in a profitable manner. Thus, proper and customised training is crucial.
- While it is the duty of the government to support farmers with agriculture inputs such as seed, fertilisers for food security purposes. This type of support should managed in such a way that once farmers receive such inputs, they should be able to be sustainable in future. Commercial farming does not rely hand-outs.
- The disbursement of agriculture inputs and equipment should be done on merit. Thus, those farmers with potential to engage is sustainable agriculture should be given priority.
- Investment in the mechanisation of Agriculture is necessary to improve productivity.
- Programmes that economically empower women should be driven by the women themselves.
- Not everyone is a farmer – therefore, unutilised farms should be given to people who have the ability to use them.

The above recommendations would add value to any organisation (including the government) that has special interest in women's economic empowerment through agriculture entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe. In addition, the researcher will publish papers from this study since there is a dearth of research on this subject in developing countries.

8.5 CONTRIBUTION TO THE BODY OF KNOWLEDGE

This study fills the research gap on three contemporary discourses in research based on women's studies. Thus, this study combines the concepts of women's economic empowerment, women entrepreneurship and agriculture in one study. This area is under researched in most developing countries, particularly in Zimbabwe. Yet, these areas are vital for economic development.

Economic advancement of women is lagging behind in Zimbabwe. Literature suggests that there are three interrelated and indivisible elements which are necessary for achieving economic empowerment of women (e.g. Kabeer, 1999; 2005; Grabe, 2012; Wiig, 2013). These elements are: agency, resources, and achievements. Whilst in most developing countries, these elements are out of reach for women, in Zimbabwe, this is not the case. The study found out that the majority of the sampled women had access to land which is an essential resource. However, these women's ability to achieve economic empowerment is hindered by their ability to use their land due to lack of training, access to funding among others. This therefore calls for the need to establish a strong support structure for women to achieve economic empowerment. Whilst, the women have managed to achieve a certain level of economic empowerment, there is still more that these women can achieve. Therefore, the findings of this study contributes to the body of knowledge by highlighting the issues of women's economic empowerment in Zimbabwe - an area that is significantly under researched. Thus, the study adds to the body of knowledge on women's economic empowerment among the works of key authors on this subject such as Kabeer (1999; 2005); Grabe (2012); Wiig (2013). Sen (1985); Kabeer (2005); Alsop and Heinsohn (2005); Uphoff (2005); Mosedale (2005); and Samman and Santos (2009), among others.

The study also found out that the majority of women are still dominating the informal sector. These findings contribute to extant literature on women's active participation in the informal in Zimbabwe such as Moyo and Kawewe (2002); Osirim (2003); Mboko and Smith-Hunter (2009; 2010); Chitsike (2000); and Chamlee-Wright (2002). Within the agricultural sector, women are actively participating in subsistence farming which contributes to the findings of several key authors in the field such as Mallick and Rafi (2010); Tibesigwa et al. (2015); Mehra and Hill (2008); Applefield and Jun, (2014).

The study also looked at the influence of motivational factors on women's economic empowerment, an area that is under researched. Previous studies have looked at motivational factors into entrepreneurship such as Orhan and Scott (2001); Walker and Webster (2004); Warren-Smith and Jackson (2004); and McClelland et al. (2005). This study however, took a different dimension and linked these motivational factors into entrepreneurship with women's economic empowerment – an area that has not been explored previously.

The study also contributes to extant literature on the challenges facing women in agriculture such as Jayne et al. (2010); FAO (2011); UNDP (2012); Weng et al. (2013); and Applefield and Jun (2014). The study also found out that some of the challenges that affect women in agriculture that are highlighted in literature such as lack of infrastructural development, do not apply to the Zimbabwean context. This study, therefore concludes that infrastructure that support agriculture production exists in Zimbabwe. What is lacking is the maintenance and proper function of the infrastructure.

While existing literature argues that the advancement of women's economic empowerment requires support from decision makers, this study found out that government support does not have a significant effect on women's economic empowerment. In fact, those women who did not receive any form of support were actually generating more income for their farming activities. These findings contradicts extant literature on women's economic empowerment such as Malhotra et al. (2002); Kabeer (1999; 2005); Grabe (2012); and Alsop and Heinsohn (2005).

Lastly, the study adds value to the body of knowledge on the significance of women's economic empowerment such as Golla et al. (2011); Mayoux (2000); Alkire et al. (2013); UNIDO (2010); and UN (2012). This study has however provided a Zimbabwean perspective on how economic empowerment has influenced the quality of life.

In a nutshell, this study has contributed to the large body of literature on women's economic empowerment, women entrepreneurship and women participating in agriculture in Zimbabwe, where there is a dearth of research on the subject.

8.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The research study has two key limitations. Firstly, the research study adopted a case study approach by focusing on women's economic empowerment and entrepreneurship in agriculture in a selected location in Zimbabwe known as Mashonaland West province. This study, therefore, excludes the views of other women involved in agriculture entrepreneurship in other parts of the Zimbabwe who are playing a critical role in food production and economic development in the country. Yet, these women are experiencing their own unique set of challenges towards their pursuit for economic empowerment in a country that is highly patriarchal. Further, non-random sampling techniques (convenience and purposive sampling) were used to identify the women who participated in the research project. As a result, the research findings cannot be generalised to the entire population of women participating in agriculture entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe. However, this study fills a research gap on women's economic empowerment and entrepreneurship within the agricultural sector in Zimbabwe. The study also lays the foundation for future research on the study area.

8.7 AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Areas for future research in the study area include the possibility of evaluating the impact of economic empowerment within household dynamics where both women and men are included in the research project. This is likely to bring out the deeply rooted socio-cultural interplay which is imbedded within the household setup. Incorporating both men and women in measuring economic empowerment of household dynamics is important because this is one institution where both positive and negative effects of economic empowerment are experienced. It is also important to mention that the research methodology for data collection should be properly designed in such a way that male dominance does not compromise the empirical findings of the research study.

More research studies should be conducted on women participating in agriculture since the agriculture sector is the backbone of most developing economies, especially in Zimbabwe where the productivity of the sector was compromised by the land reform programme. These studies should focus on ways of encouraging women to produce food that not only feed their families (subsistence farming), but also look beyond that level and begin to explore agriculture

at a higher level where they could derive benefits from the process. This obviously requires a shift in the mind-sets of women and the entire population at large. In a similar vein, it is worthwhile testing the Women's Empowerment Agricultural Index (WEAI) in Zimbabwe and evaluate the level of women's economic empowerment in agriculture.

Future research could also explore the possibility of understanding the basic entrepreneurial training needs of women in agriculture. For example, women tend to copy each other and produce similar agriculture produce which often leads to over flooding of markets and reduced prices. Similarly, the qualitative insights show that women sometimes plead with the agricultural officers to assist them in searching for markets that they could sell their products to. This alone portrays inadequate entrepreneurial skills among women. The training needs for women should include business management skills.

Further research on women operating within the informal sector is crucial for economic development in developing countries, particularly in Zimbabwe where the majority of people are unemployed. It is also necessary to explore ways of how informal sector activities could be encouraged to form part of the formal business economy in Zimbabwe.

Further studies could also explore the possibility of establishing a financial institution which caters for the needs of women. Establishing an institution that serves females alone could go a long way in economic empowerment of women in Zimbabwe.

Future research studies could also consider exploring the impact of the Broad Based Women's Economic Empowerment Framework which was introduced by the government of Zimbabwe in July 2012. Thus, it is imperative to evaluate whether the objectives of the framework are being realised by the intended beneficiaries (i.e. the women).

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APPENDIX A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE APPROVAL LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
INYUVESI YAKWAZULU-NATALI

10 December 2015

Mrs Evelyn Derera (207520926)
School of Management, IT & Governance
Pietermaritzburg Campus

Dear Mrs Derera,

Protocol reference number: HSS/1665/014D
New project title: Women's Economic Empowerment and Entrepreneurship in Agriculture: A case of Mashonaland West Province in Zimbabwe

Approval Notification – Amendment Application

This letter serves to notify you that your application and request for an amendment received on 03 December 2015 has now been approved as follows:

- Change in Title
- Change in Research Instruments

Any alterations to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form; Title of the Project, Location of the Study must be reviewed and approved through an amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

Best wishes for the successful completion of your research protocol.

Yours faithfully

Dr Shamila Naidoo
On behalf of Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)

/ms

cc Supervisor: Dr Maxwell Phiri and Professor KC O'Neill
cc Academic Leader Research: Professor Brian McArthur
cc School Administrator: Ms Jessbie Cunynghame

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)
Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building
Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000
Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 8350/4557 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 260 4609 Email: [illegible]
Website: www.ukzn.ac.za

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APPENDIX B: INFORMED CONSENT FORMS

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
School of Management, IT and Governance

Dear Respondent,

PhD Research Project

Researcher: Evelyn Derera (00 27 33 260 5781)

Supervisor: Dr Maxwell Phiri (00 27 33 260 5843)

Co Supervisor: Prof. Charles O'Neill (Charles.Oneill@bue.edu.eg)

Research Office: Ms P Ximba 031-2603587

I, Evelyn Derera, am a PhD student in the School of Management, IT and Governance, at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. You are invited to participate in a research project entitled "Women's Economic Empowerment and entrepreneurship in agriculture: A case of Mashonaland West province in Zimbabwe".

The aim of this study is to: explore the nexus between women's economic empowerment and entrepreneurship in agriculture in Mashonaland West province in Zimbabwe.

Through your participation I hope to understand how the economic empowerment of women in agriculture has improved their lives. The results of this survey is intended to contribute to the completion of my PhD studies. Your participation in this project is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the project at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this research project. Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the School of Management, IT and Governance, UKZN.

If you have any questions or concerns about participating in this study, please contact me or my supervisor at the numbers listed above. It should take you about 45 minutes to complete the interview. I hope you will take the time to complete the interview.

Sincerely

Investigator's signature_____ Date_____

This page is to be retained by participant

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
School of Management, IT and Governance

M Com/Doctoral Research Project

Researcher: Evelyn Derera (0027 33 260 5781)

Supervisor: Dr Maxwell Phiri (0027 33 260 5843)

Research Office: Ms P Ximba 031-2603587

CONSENT

I_____(full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project. I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

I consent / do not consent to having this interview audio- recorded.

_____ _____

Signature of Participant Date

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
School of Management, IT and Governance

Dear Respondent,

PhD Research Project

Researcher: Evelyn Derera (00 27 33 260 5781)

Supervisor: Dr Maxwell Phiri (00 27 33 260 5843)

Co Supervisor: Prof. Charles O'Neill (Charles.Oneill@bue.edu.eg)

Research Office: Ms P Ximba 031-2603587

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It should take you about 45 minutes to complete the questionnaire. I hope you will take the time to complete the questionnaire.

Sincerely

Investigator's signature_____ Date_____

This page is to be retained by participant

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
School of Management, IT and Governance

PhD Research Project

Researcher: Evelyn Derera (00 27 83 3951 949)

Supervisor: Dr Maxwell Phiri (00 27 33 260 5843)

Research Office: Ms P Ximba 031-2603587

CONSENT

I_____(full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project. I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

_____ _____

Signature of Participant Date

This page is to be retained by researcher

APPENDIX C: FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Please introduce yourself.
   (Include some of the following information in your introduction: age, marital status, number of children, level of education, and membership of agricultural support programmes).
2. Please describe your agricultural activities
   (Include information about land acquisition, business registration, type of crops and livestock farming).
3. What challenges are you facing in agriculture entrepreneurship; and how are you dealing with these challenges.
   (Include both agriculture production challenges and farming business challenges).
4. Explain what motivated you to engage in agriculture entrepreneurship.
5. Describe resources ownership in your household including resources owned for farming activities.
6. Please explain the type of support that you received from the Government and other organisations such as NGOs.
   (Include discussion about awareness of the Broad Based Women's Empowerment Framework).
7. Please highlight your personal and family achievements as a result of economic empowerment though agriculture entrepreneurship.
8. Please explain the challenges that you are facing as an economically empowered woman.
   (Include challenges pertaining family and community dynamics).
9. Please explain how economic empowerment has changed the level and type of decisions that you make in your home and farming activities.
10. Please explain how the quality of life has changed as a result of economic empowerment through agriculture entrepreneurship.
    (include changes in your personal life and that of your family).

APPENDIX D: QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire No..... Date..... Interviewer's name.....

Ward..... Village Name..... District……

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Table on household demography

Age (Years) (1)	Marital Status (2)	Age at marriage (3)	Age difference between couple (4)	No. of children (5)	Other dependents (6)	Level of education (7)	Profession (8)	Membership (9)

2 *= (1) single (2) married (3) widowed (4) divorced*
7 *= (1) Below Ordinary level certificate (2) Ordinary level (3) Advanced level certificate (4) = Diploma (5) Degree (6) Master's degree (7) PhD*
8 *= (1) Teacher (2) Church leader (3) Trader (4) Nurse (5) Soldier (6) Police officer (7) Other (specify)*
9 *= (1) Farmer group (2) Agricultural marketing group (3) Professional association (teacher, nurse, veterans) (4) Village committee (5) Religious or spiritual group (6) Political group or movement (7) Burial society (8) Savings clubs (9) NGO or civic group (10) Other (specify)*

SECTION B: HOUSEHOLD ENDOWMENT

10. Table on household endowment

(1) Type of house	(2) Source of drinking water	(3)Type of lighting	(4) Sanitary service

10.1 *= (1) Burnt bricks iron/ asbestos roofed (2) Pole and dagga and thatched (3) Burnt bricks, iron roofed /asbestos and grass thatched*
10.2 *= (1) Private borehole water (2) Private Well (3) Shared borehole (4) Shared well (5) Dam*
10.3 *= (1) Electricity (2) Kerosene, gas, candles (3) solar energy*
10.4 *= (1) Connected to sewage system (2) Connected to septic tank (3) Latrine (4) Open bush*

11. Table on land ownership

(1) Type of land ownership	(2) Type of land being used	(3) Title deed holder	(4) Year you acquired land	(5) Size of land (hectares)	(6) Size of land being used (hectares)

11.1 *= (1) Owned (2) Rented (3) borrowed* ***11.2*** *= (1) A1 (2) A2 (3) Irrigation scheme (4) Other (specify)*
11.3*= (1) myself (2) husband (3) both husband & wife (4) Other (specify)*

12. Livestock ownership

(1) Type of livestock and poultry	(2) Who owns livestock & poultry	(3) Number owned	(4) How many did you acquire in the last 3 years	(5) How many did you sell in the last 3 years
1. Cattle				
2. Goats				
3. Sheep				
4. Pigs				
5. Chickens				
6. Turkeys				
7. Others (specify)				

12.2 = (1) Man only (2) Woman only (3) Man & woman (4) Sons (5) other (specify)

SECTION C: BUSINESS INFORMATION

13. Business registration Details

1. Is your business registered (Yes/No)		2. Year of registration	

14. Please indicate your source(s) of start-up capital for your agricultural business

Sources of business capital	Tick	Sources of business capital	Tick
1. Own savings		5. Retirement money	
2. Husband's savings		6. Retrenchment pay-out	
3. Husband & wife combined savings		7. Loan from bank	
4. Loan from relatives		8. Government loan	

15. Please indicate the income generated from the following farming activities for two farming seasons

Source of income	Income generated - 2013/2014	Income generated - 2014/2015
1. Poultry sales		
2. Crop sales		
3. Livestock sales		
4. Gardening		
5. Fruit selling		
6. Off farm income		
7. Pension		
8. Crafts selling		
9. Others (specify)		

SECTION D: MOTIVATION FOR PARTICIPATING IN AGRICULTURE ENTREPRENEURSHIP

16. Please indicate your motivation for participating in agriculture entrepreneurship by placing a cross (X) in the most appropriate column.

Motivation	**Strongly Disagree (1)**	**Disagree (2)**	**Neutral (3)**	**Agree (4)**	**Strongly Agree (5)**
A. Achievement:					
1. To prove I can do it.					
2. To achieve a personal sense of accomplishment.					
3. To make a direct contribution to the success of the family.					
4. To make better use of my training and skills.					
5. To be able to establish an opportunity for business.					
6. To follow an example of the person I admire.					
B. Independence:					
7. To be my own boss.					
8. To be free to adopt my own approach to work.					
9. To control my own time.					
10. To have an opportunity to lead rather than being led.					
11. To be able to choose the people I work with.					
C. Opportunity:					
12. It was time in my life when it made sense.					
13. To diversify and being adventurous in my work.					
14. To take advantage of an opportunity in farming.					
D. Money:					
15. To give myself and family financial security.					
16. Desire to have higher earnings					
17. Needed more money to survive					
18. To create wealth					
E. Flexibility:					
19. To have greater flexibility between personal and work life.					
20. To have greater flexibility between personal and family life.					
F. Recognition:					
21. To achieve something in life.					
22. To achieve societal recognition.					
23. To be part of a network of agricultural entrepreneurs.					
24. To achieve status and prestige for my family.					
25. To be respected by friends.					
26. To continue with family traditions.					
27. To have more influence in my community.					

G. Escape:					
28. It was the only thing I could do.					
29. Frustration of not securing a job.					
30. I was retrenchment from work					
H. Communitarianism:					
31. To contribute to the welfare of my relatives.					
32. To contribute to the welfare of my community.					

SECTION E: SUPPORT FOR WOMEN IN AGRICULTURE

17. Are you aware of the Broad Based Women Economic Empowerment Framework?

1. Yes	2. No

18. Please indicate by placing an X in the appropriate box(es) the type of SUPPORT received from the GOVERNMENT for women in agriculture entrepreneurship

Type of support	Tick (x)	Type of support	Tick (x)
1. Land		2. Startup capital	
3. Agricultural inputs (e.g. fertilizer, seed, etc.)		4. Infrastructure (e.g. irrigation equipment)	
5. Training			

19. Please indicate the type of training received from the GOVERNMENT in the space provided

Type of training	Tick (x)	Type of training received	Tick (x)
1. Market gardening		2. Farming training	
3. Business management skills training		4. Food processing training	
5. Others (specify)			

20. Please indicate by placing an X in the appropriate box(es) the type of SUPPORT received from NGOs for women in agricultural entrepreneurship

Type of support	Tick (x)	Type of support	Tick (x)
1. Land		2. Startup capital	
3. Agricultural inputs (e.g. fertilizer, seed, etc.)		4. Infrastructure (e.g. irrigation equipment)	
5. Training			

21. Please indicate by placing an X in the appropriate box(es) the type of training received from NGOs for women in agricultural entrepreneurship

Type of training received from NGOs	Tick (x)	Type of training received from NGOs	Tick (x)
1. Market gardening		2. Farming training	
3. Business management skills training		4. Food processing training	
5. Others (specify)			

SECTION F: CHALLENGES AFFECTING WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT IN AGRICULTURE ENTREPRENEURSHIP

22. Please indicate how the following challenges are affecting women's economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship by placing a cross (X) in the most appropriate column.

Challenges	**Strongly Disagree 1**	**Disagree 2**	**Neutral 3**	**Agree 4**	**Strongly Agree 5**
A. Agricultural production:					
1. Rising costs of agricultural inputs					
2. Lack of availability of farming loans					
3. Lack of supply of farming inputs and equipment on the local market					
4. Lack of irrigation facilities					
5. Poor infrastructure (roads)					
6. Ratio of extension officers to farmers is too low					
7. Poorly resourced extension officers (e.g. lack of transport to visit farmers)					
8. Lack of agricultural training					
B. Farming business:					
9. Lack of lucrative markets for livestock and agricultural produce					
10. Lack of refrigerated storage facilities for agricultural fresh produce					
11. High cost of transportation to the market					
12. High licencing cost at market places (e.g. market fees)					
13. Lack of basic infrastructure at market places (e.g. ablution facilities)					
14. Lack of vending shades at market places					
15. Over flooding of agricultural produce on the market					
16. Lack of disposable income					
17. Lack of training in business management skills					
18. Lack of training in value addition activities (e.g. food processing skills)					

SECTION G: SOCIO-CULTURAL FACTORS AFFECTING WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT IN AGRICULTURE ENTREPRENEURSHIP

23. Please indicate how the following socio-cultural factors are affecting women's economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship by placing a cross (X) in the most appropriate column.

Socio-cultural factors	**Strongly Disagree 1**	**Disagree 2**	**Neutral 3**	**Agree 4**	**Strongly Agree 5**
1. Society believe that a woman's place is in the kitchen					
2. Society believe that a woman's role to bear children and support her husband					
3. Society believe that the husband is the head of the house and therefore controls everything for his household (e.g. income generated from sale of cash crops)					
4. Society believe that the success of the woman belongs to the husband because he paid "lobola"					

5. Society believe that women are not capable of achieving anything in life without help from men					
6. Society believe that women are inferior to men, therefore, they must not own property (e.g. land)					
7. Society believe that a woman cannot make sound decisions on their own without consulting the husband or male figure in the family					
8. Society is not supportive of women who work hard because they are seen to be competing with men					
9. Society believes that women who are successful in business are not straight forward as they are often linked to extra marital affairs					
10. Society believes that certain farming activities are performed by a particular gender					
11.					
12.					

SECTION H: IMPACT OF ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT ON WOMEN'S DECISION MAKING ROLES IN AGRICULTURE ENTREPRENEURSHIP

24. Please indicate who make the following key decisions in the family and agriculture entrepreneurship by placing a cross (X) in the appropriate box

Decisions	**Joint decision (me & my spouse)**	**Husband only**	**Myself**	**Myself in consultation with son(s)**	**Myself in consultation with other male relatives**
1. Farming production decisions					
2. Farming business decisions					
3. Business income & expenditure decision					
4. Household income & expenditure decisions					

25. Please indicate the extent to which you make the following decisions in your family and agriculture entrepreneurship by placing a cross (X) in the appropriate box

Empowerment Indicators for Decision making & control	**Strongly Disagree 1**	**Disagree 2**	**Neutral 3**	**Agree 4**	**Strongly Agree 5**
A. Farming production decisions					
1. I am able to make decisions about acquiring additional land					
2. I am able to make decisions about the hiring of farming equipment (e.g. tractor, shelling machines)					
3. I am able to make decisions about the type of farming inputs required for the next season (e.g. fertilizers, pesticides)					
4. I am able to make decisions about recruitment of labour					
5. I am able to make decisions about food crop farming					
6. I am able to make decisions about cash crop farming					
7. I am able to make decisions about utilization of land					
8. I am able to make decisions about farming maintenance issues					
9. I am able to make decisions about borrowing money for the farm					

10. I am able to make decisions about rearing of livestock					
11. I am able to make decisions about farming improvements (fencing, expansion of livestock facilities)					
12. I am able to make decisions about allocation of farm duties (e.g. ploughing, weeding, harvesting)					
B. Farming business decisions					
13. I am able to make decisions about when to sell farming produce & livestock					
14. I am able to make decisions about where to sell farming produce & livestock					
15. I am able to make decisions about how to sell farming produce & livestock (e.g. transportation)					
16. I am able to make decisions about what to sell in terms of farming produce & livestock					
17. I am able to make decisions about the selling price of the farm produce & livestock					
18. I am able to make decisions about the expansion of the business					
C. Business income & expenditure decision					
19. I am able to control farming income					
20. I am able to control farming expenditure					
21. I am able to make decisions on how farming income is spent					
22. I am able to make decisions about re-investing business profits					
23. I am able to makes decisions about purchasing or renting additional land					
24. I am able to make decisions about the purchase or hiring of farming equipment (e.g. tractor, shelling machines)					
25. I am able to make decisions about the purchase of farming inputs (e.g. fertilizers, pesticides)					
D. Household income & expenditure decisions					
26. I am able to make decisions about major household expenditure (e.g. purchasing of land, house)					
27. I am able to make decisions about buying furniture					
28. I am able to make decisions about buying groceries					
29. I am able to make decisions about children's educational expenditure					
30. I am able to make decisions about the family's health related expenditure					
31. I am able to make decisions about investing in my family's future					
32. I am able to make decisions about property improvements (e.g. building or extending the existing house)					

SECTION I: ACCESS TO RESOURCES AND WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT IN AGRICULTURE ENTREPRENEURSHIP

26. Please indicate the extent to which you are able to use the following resource for further empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship by placing a cross (X) in the appropriate box

Resources acquired	**Strongly Disagree 1**	**Disagree 2**	**Neutral 3**	**Agree 4**	**Strongly Agree 5**
A. Tangible Resources					
1. I have been able to borrow money from the bank using my farm as collateral					
2. I have been able to use the government agricultural inputs to further develop my farm (e.g. seeds & fertiliser, fuel)					
3. I have been able to use the government equipment loan scheme to develop my farm (e.g. tractors)					
4. I have been able to use the government loan to further develop my farm					
5. I have been able to use technology to further develop my farming business (e.g. cell phone)					
B. Intangible Resources					
6. I have been able to use my agricultural knowledge and skills from training to further develop my farm					
7. I have been able to use my business knowledge and skills from training to further develop my farm business					
8. I have been able to increase business profits through showcasing my products at district / regional trade fairs					
9. I have been able to increase my business networks through women networking organisations					
10. I have been able to use NGO support to further develop my farming business (e.g. training)					

SECTION J: IMPACT OF ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT ON QUALITY OF LIFE AS A RESULT OF AGRICULTURE ENTREPRENEURSHIP

27. Please indicate how economic empowerment through agriculture entrepreneurship has influenced the quality of your personal of life, family and your community by placing a cross (X) in the most appropriate column.

Empowerment indicators on improvement of Quality of life	**Strongly Disagree 1**	**Disagree 2**	**Neutral 3**	**Agree 4**	**Strongly Agree 5**
A. Personal:					
1. I feel I am in control of my life now					
2. I am more confident than before					
3. I am now in a better position financially					
4. I now have savings for a "rainy day"					
5. I am able to "spoil myself" by buying personal items that I need as a woman					
6. I am able now able to develop myself by attending courses and training					
7. I am able now able to take care of my own personal health issues					
8. I am able to make financial decisions for me and my family					

9. I am able to make important decisions for me and my family					
10. I am able to inspire my children, especially my daughter					
11. My family respects me because of my achievements					
B. Family:					
12. I am now able to provide better clothing for my family					
13. I am now able to provide more than 2 meals per day for my family					
14. I am able to provide for better and nutritious food for my family					
15. I am able to produce most of the food for my family					
16. I am able to send my family to better health facilities					
17. I am able to buy medication for my family					
18. I am able to provide for better education for my children					
19. I am able to buy school uniforms for my children					
20. I am able to buy school stationery for my children					
21. I am now able to afford school trips for my children					
22. I am now able to afford extra lessons for support my children's education					
23. I am now able to send by children for further education (e.g. university, college)					
C. Community:					
24. My community respects me because of my achievements					
25. My community consult me on key issues concerning our village					
26. I am able to contribute in kind towards the needs of my community (e.g. funerals, sickness)					
27. I am able to contribute towards the financial needs of my community					
28. I am willing to share my farming business knowledge with my community					
D. Support to other women:					
29. I am able to encourage other women to empower themselves					
30. I can provide agricultural related advice to other women because of my personal experience					
31. I can provide business related advice to other women because of my experience					
32. I am willing to share my business related achievements with other women					
33. I am willing to share my agricultural related achievements with other women					
34. I am willing to assist other women who are struggling with setting up their farming business (e.g. sharing transport costs, sharing seeds, etc.)					

28. Please indicate some of your achievements that resulted from economic empowerment in agriculture entrepreneurship by crossing (X) in the appropriate box(es)

A. Household Improvements & Assets	**Tick**	**B. Farming Business Improvements & Assets**	**Tick**
1. I purchased a vehicle for my family		1. I managed to purchase a vehicle for transporting my produce to the market	
2. I managed to build a house for my family		2. I managed to purchase additional livestock	
3. I managed to buy additional land for my family (e.g. plot)		3. I managed to build storage facilities for my harvested crops	
4. I managed to buy a house for my family in the city		4. I managed to build sheds for my livestock, e.g. kraal (chicken, goats, cattle, pigs, etc.)	
5. I managed to install solar energy system at my house		5. I managed to build a tobacco ban	
6. I managed to install a borehole water		6. I managed to fence for my field	
7. I managed to fence my property		7. I installed irrigation on my field	
8. I managed to buy new furniture for my house		8. I bought scotch cart to transport my produce	
C. Family		9. I bought farming assets, e.g. wheel barrow,	
9. I managed to send my children to good schools			
10. I managed to send my children for further education (e.g. university, college).			
Indicate any additional achievements		**Indicate any additional achievements**	
11.		10.	
12.		11.	

THANK YOU!

APPENDIX E: INDEPTH INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Please introduce yourself.
   (Include some of the following information in your introduction: age, marital status, number of children, level of education, and membership of agricultural support programmes).

2. Please describe your agricultural activities and roughly how much income you generating per annum from these activities.
   (Include information about land acquisition, business registration, type of crops and livestock farming).
3. What challenges are you facing in agriculture entrepreneurship; and how are you dealing with these challenges.
   (Include both agriculture production challenges and farming business challenges).
4. Explain what motivated you to engage in agriculture entrepreneurship.
5. Describe resources ownership in your household including resources owned for farming activities.
6. Please explain the type of support that you received from the Government and other organisations such as NGOs.
   (Include discussion about awareness of the Broad Based Women's Empowerment Framework).
7. Please highlight your personal and family achievements as a result of economic empowerment though agriculture entrepreneurship.
8. Please explain the challenges that you are facing as an economically empowered woman.
   (Include challenges pertaining family and community dynamics).
9. Please explain how economic empowerment has changed the level and type of decisions that you make in your home and farming activities.
10. Please explain how the quality of life has changed as a result of economic empowerment through agriculture entrepreneurship (include changes in your personal life and that of your family).