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**Intersections of gender and food insecurity
in a political and economic crisis environment:
A reflection from some NGOs and Civil Society Organisations
in Zimbabwe**

by

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02 October 2020

Declaration

I, Professor Maheshvari Naidu, as the candidate's supervisor, I agree the submission of this thesis.



02 October 2020

Signature

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Abstract

In the past few decades, the struggle to safeguard the availability, accessibility, stability and utilisation of food has captured the world's attention. Despite mobilisation efforts by numerous interested global institutions, including governments, food security concerns remain a significant challenge confronting many populations who suffer continued food shortages and severe hunger. Notably, past and present food scarcity situations have either resulted in or instigated, public discontent. Moreover, political and economic crises have taken centre stage in world affairs and both phenomena have adversely impacted the livelihoods of the general populace in Africa, with women and children most affected.

This study is grounded in establishing how food insecurity intersects with political and economic crises in Zimbabwe as well as the gender implications thereof. A qualitative approach was used, making use of focus group discussions and interviews as tools for data collection. Working with theoretical lenses that include the theory of protracted social conflict, the theory of intersectionality, theory of justice, and systems theory, the research explores men and women of Zimbabwe's life experiences and struggle to ensure food security. Results from this study reveal that most women, as compared to men, continue to experience discrimination with regard to land ownership. The research findings also reveal that although women play an active role in food production, they remain in the majority of those who cannot access enough food for their dietary needs. The study concludes that there is a need for a paradigm shift in conceptualising what ought to be addressed so as to ensure food security and avoid possible further future violent conflict. This entails the need for sustainable strategies more resilient to future changes in the political and economic domain.

Keywords: Zimbabwe, food insecurity, political crisis, economic crisis, gender, protracted social conflict, intersectionality

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my lovely wife, Ntombizanele Kuzhanga,
and the Kuzhanga family as a whole.

This is for you all.

List of Acronyms

CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women
CSO	Central Statistics Office
CSOs	Civil Society Organisations
CSVR	Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation
ESAP	Economic Structural Adjustment Programme
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
FTLRP	Fast Track Land Reform Programme
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNU	Government of National Unity
GoZ	Government of Zimbabwe
GPA	Global Political Agreement
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
INGOs	International Non-Governmental Organisations
IPFP	Inception Phase Framework Plan
LDC	Less Developed Countries
LRRP	Land Reform and Resettlement Programme
MAMID	Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanisation and Irrigation Development
MDC	Movement for Democratic Change
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MWAGCD	Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NGP	National Gender Policy
OAU	Organisation of African Unity
PSC	Protracted Social Conflict
RBZ	Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAPs	Structural Adjustment Policies
UN	United Nations
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNICEF	United Nation Children’s Fund
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

USD	United States Dollar
WFP	World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organisation
WLLG	Women Land and Lobby Group
WLZ	Women and Land in Zimbabwe
ZANU-PF	Zimbabwe African National Union-Patriotic Front
ZIMSTAT	Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency
ZIMVAC	Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The world has been confronted by many challenges that have modified political, economic and social arenas. This has been described by scholars such as Vassiliev (2013); Maathai (2011); Godfray, Beddington, Crute, Haddad, Lawrence, Muir and Toulmin (2010), who pointed out that the future of humankind continues to be shaped by numerous concerns that are far beyond an individual nation's ability to solve, among which is the challenge of having to feed 9 billion people. These concerns include issues such as financial instability, intractable levels of poverty, climate change, civil wars, terrorism, migration, food shortages, and water scarcity, to mention a few. Ravallion (2017, p. 3) described poverty as a state in which one lacks adequate resources to meet basic needs, for instance, education, food, clothing, shelter and health care. Goebbert, Jenkins-Smith, Klockow, Nowlin and Silva (2012) asserted that climate change is best comprehended as a feature denoting the change in global or regional climate patterns over a long period of time with respect to the accumulation of atmospheric greenhouse gases. On the other hand, Roser, Nagdy and Ritchie (2018, p. 1) affirmed that terrorism is a term understood as the use or threat of violence to further a political cause. As such, the climate change and violence concerns directly or indirectly affect many countries.

Boersma, Andrews-Speed, Bleischwitz, Johnson, Kemp and Van Deveer (2014, p. 2) pointed out that the struggle for land has also been a global phenomenon, given the history of violent struggles between landowners and landless individuals in virtually every country. Rukuni (2006, p. 11) asserted that land is a limited resource and possessing land symbolises wealth, societal position and political supremacy. This means that the reform of land tenure is political. This assertion is based on the understanding that the transformation of land tenure will require rearranging of the structures of wealth, the flow of revenue, societal status and reputation, amongst other things. On the other hand, Bohannan (2018) asserted that land tenure refers to the circumstances surrounding land occupation, utilisation and administration of land, while defining individuals' ability to utilise the available means for a period of time and under given circumstances. These global challenges would thus require some form of collaborative effort as a means of trying to solve them, with the consideration that most

countries are affected by similar challenges. Many countries are developing nationally instituted programmes on sustainable development to address these challenges.

Among these multiple challenges that have daunted the world for the past two decades, perhaps the most important and enduring has been the challenge of eliminating hunger and ensuring global governance of food security (Margulis, 2013, p. 53). Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) (2000) posited that the food security concept describes a situation where people continuously have both economic and physical access to adequate, nutritious and safe food that meets their food choices and nutritional requirements. This basic right to food is rightly critical and important that it is rightly enshrined in the United Nations (UN) 1989 Universal Declaration of Human Rights under Article 25(1). In this declaration (see Appendix 11) the UN recognises the availability of food as a fundamental right to be enjoyed like every other human right. Bhargava (2006, p. 8) proposed that eliminating hunger is one of the most fundamental challenges for humanity. As such, there was the establishment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), following the UN Millennium Development Summit in year 2000. Among the eight international goals established, one of the goals was focused on the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger meant to be attained before year 2015 (United Nations, 2015). There have been many cautions voiced about the emerging food crisis in Southern African countries, where the food security of countries such as Zimbabwe, Zambia, Mozambique, Malawi, Lesotho and Angola has been severely compromised due to numerous factors such as political instability, drought, disease and lack of resources (Vogel and Smith, 2002, p. 315).

Lado (2001) also pointed out that other Southern African countries, such as Botswana, have experienced food security concerns as a result of socio-economic and environmental factors. World Food Programme (WFP), International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and (2015) reiterated the challenges being experienced, mentioning that slow economic growth and political instability contribute immensely to food insecurity. Anderson (1990, p. 1576) asserted that “the meaning of hunger, referring to the tense or excruciating feeling instigated by the absence of food, is in this description a possible, though not necessarily, result of food insecurity”. However, the Forum for Food Security in Southern Africa (2004) further stated that southern Africa’s food crisis intensified during the period from late 2002 to early 2003, with an estimated 15 million

people considered to be food insecure. This led to the region receiving shipments of food aid.

The problem of food insecurity, which presupposes the lack of adequate economic or physical access to sufficient, nourishing, non-toxic and adequate food required for well-being, has been a source of numerous contemporary and past conflicts (Gibson, 2012, p. 21). This is evident by research done by scholars such as Caselli, Morelli and Rohner (2015); Hendrix (2017); and Schultz (2017) analysing the factors that are driving many interstate conflicts¹. Although conflicts are, to some extent, part of the social system, it becomes much more problematic when they turn into violent conflicts. Thus, scholars such as Chen (2016); Hendrix and Brinkman (2013); Malik, 2019; Brück and d'Errico (2019); and Buhaug, Benjaminsen, Sjaastad and Theisen (2015) submit that food insecurity is a driver of violent conflict. Korf and Bauer (2002) also maintained that inequality, poverty and human suffering are fundamental contributors to perpetual and escalated civil conflicts around the world. Chen (2016) postulated that because of the extremely destructive nature of violent food insecurity conflicts, the development process tends to fail in regions where they are ongoing and prolonged. Bigsten and Shimeles (2004, p. 11) concurred that heightened inequality within Africa has contributed to the adverse distribution of land, financial, social, physical and human capital.

Messer, Cohen and Marchione (2001) also emphasised that civic struggles can be either a source or a result of food shortage, given the intertwined relationship between crises and food security. Civic struggles can be a cause of food shortages because of people looting and overstocking food supplies at the expense of others. On the other hand civic struggles might occur as a result of food shortages and people demanding food justice (Sbicca, 2018; Kerssen, 2013). Therefore, confronting food insecurity issues becomes a core question in complex economic and political crises. Cohen (1999), in addition, purported that the converse relationship between food insecurity and conflict is not clearly understood, although it is evident that violent conflict unequivocally reduces individual food security levels. However, Bora, Ceccacci, Delgado and Townsend (2010) pointed out that the conflicts experienced, mostly encompass struggle over governing food production factors, predominantly those of land and water. This is against the background of there being many people that need food; this puts pressure on

¹ Interstate conflicts are conflicts between two or more states within the international community.

land and water, thus leading to a greater risk of civil unrest or worse conflict situations. Agarwal (2013, p. 2) noted that hunger and food security challenges are made much more complex by the increase and instability of the prices of food; the change from food crops to biofuels in countries that export food; the negligence of agricultural practice in numerous emerging countries, particularly with regard to infrastructure investment, as well as imminent danger of climate change with the situation expected to have a detrimental impact on food production. This is echoed by FAO (2012) who reported that there are intricate interconnections on concerns regarding impact on food security, the long-term challenges to achieve food security centred between hunger and poverty; the continuous global water catastrophe; concerns over land degradation; prejudiced land agreements; climate change concerns; agricultural pest infections; biotechnology concerns; dictatorship and kleptocracy; and the skewed access to food for women and children. De Waal (2014) defines kleptocracy as a system of governance that is militarised with those in power, staying in cities through exploiting and stealing national resources, collusion, nepotism and corruption. Smith, Ramakrishnan, Ndiaye, Haddad and Martorell (2003) pointed out that child hunger should not be detached from undernutrition and poverty amongst women, especially in the rural communities and other remote areas.

Since 2000, Zimbabwe as a nation has been entangled in intricate and persistent political crises exposing a series of human rights violations, together with abductions and disappearances, indiscriminate imprisonments, political oppression, severe torment, militarised political viciousness, and sexual violence (CSV, 2009; Zimbabwe Human Rights NGO Forum, 2009; Machakanja, 2012; Human Rights Watch, 2016). However, Du Plessis and Ford (2008) asserted that the root cause of the political violence being experienced is deeply entrenched, rooted not solely in the colonial history of the country, but then again in masculine power relations experienced at all levels by the country's inhabitants. The period dating from 2000 to the present is synonymous with the economic crisis, featuring high inflation, food shortages and high unemployment rate, as well as the collapse of public service delivery and ever deepening poverty (Besada and Moyo, 2008). However, besides the political crises that entangle Zimbabwe, there has also been other concerns that have daunt the Southern African region as a whole. Maunder and Wiggins (2007, p. 2) mentions that the three major

issues that daunt Southern Africa are food security concerns; HIV/AIDS;² and the incapacity of the government to deliver basic services to the people. This emphasised by the World Bank (2012, p. 41) who report that an estimate of about 1.29 billion individuals in the world are currently poverty stricken, with the poverty threshold estimated at \$1.25 a day. Statistics given by Tawodzera (2014, p. 207) showed Zimbabwe's GDP being over 40 percent, with an unemployment rate of over 80 percent. Although this unfavourable atmosphere affected the entire country, the susceptibility of the urban population to the country's trade and industry collapse as well as the accompanying food insecurity remained intense because of people's full dependence on purchasing food rather than growing food.

In addition, Tawodzera (2014) maintains that the level of hyperinflation³ in Zimbabwe is high and continues to grow, with the production shortfalls especially that of maize being the primary crop, sky-high about one thousand tons. Larochelle, Alwang and Taruvinga (2014, p. 226) also adds by mentioning that hyperinflation is a concept that is characterised by fast and out-of-control inflation. Needless to say, the political and economic crisis phenomenon has not been unique to Zimbabwe but is also evident in other countries, namely Sudan, Nigeria, Tanzania, Ethiopia, Venezuela and Portugal, to mention a few (Stewart, 2015; Snyder, 2015). FAO⁴ (2001), reported that the transformation in Zimbabwe's food security state is paradoxical, given that up until the year 2000 Zimbabwe often produced extra grain for export, mostly in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region. Schenoni (2017) described SADC as a regional economic community, established in 1992 and comprising 16 member states, namely Botswana, Zimbabwe, Lesotho, Seychelles, Mauritius, Zambia, Mozambique, Tanzania, Madagascar, Swaziland, Malawi, South Africa, Namibia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Comoros and Angola. SADC focuses on furthering political, socio-economic and security cooperation among member states. The situation in Zimbabwe, as Rukuni, Tawonenzvi, Eicher, Munyuki-Hungwe and Matondi (2006) pointed out, is paradoxical in that agriculture in this country has historically held an important

² HIV/AIDS refers to numerous medical conditions that are caused by the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) with later symptoms that become known as acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS).

³ Hyperinflation refers to the excessive and rapid increase of general prices of goods and services within an economy.

⁴ Food and Agriculture Organisation is a UN agency established in 1945 with headquarters in Rome, leading international efforts to eradicate hunger by means of assisting developing countries to improve and modernise their agricultural, fishery and forestry practices.

economic position, as evidenced by the 12-20 percent Gross Domestic Product (GDP) contribution between the years 1985–2007. Scoones, Marongwe, Mavedzenge, Mahenehene, Murambarimba, and Sukume (2010) further noted that the country's commercial agricultural sector alone contributed 75 percent of the total output, with the remainder from the small-scale sector. It was after 2000 that the situation started to change, as became evident when the country started importing grain from neighbouring countries.

While economic instability and climatic factors have both contributed towards the enormous scale of food insecurity in Zimbabwe, international food security bodies like the World Food Programme, as well as the Food and Agriculture Organisation hold the government of Zimbabwe's policies and practices partly responsible for causing the food crisis. To an extent this assertion is justified, given the manner in which the controversial land restructuring programme was implemented, significantly disturbing household production of food and the capability of a multitude of Zimbabweans to access sufficient food (FAO, 2004). In an attempt to understand land reform, Adams (2000) defined it as the distribution or confirmation of rights to land to benefit the poor. In the past two decades the world has witnessed many other countries taking part in land reform programmes. These programmes are partly implemented with the intention to better the production rate, on the premise that small farms tend to be more productive. Zikhali (2008) pointed out that small farms, when compared to big farms, are expected to produce more efficiently, to maximise the utilisation of available land. Deere and Doss (2006) stated that land is an important resource, given that it creates the primary form of wealth and is a source of political and economic power. However, as Gaidzanwa (2004) mentioned, women did not benefit in Zimbabwe during the land redistribution process. Gaidzanwa (2004) further asserted that the reason they did not benefit was because the implementation process was gender-blind, given that the land reform policies continued to be highly masculinised, while side-lining the land concerns of women (Gaidzanwa, 1988). Chimhowu (2009, p. 1) stated, furthermore, that surrounding the hyperinflation atmosphere, was acute scarcity of food, with above 80 percent of homes in Zimbabwe relying on as little as US \$2 a day.

Both men and women are considered unable to cope with high food prices hikes, considering the fact that food production tends to fall in conflict-affected areas (WFP,

2009a). In many African states, for example Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe, land availability for households and communities is critical to ensure food production, since it is used for small-scale and subsistence farming⁵ (Baiphethi & Jacobs, 2009; Hobbs, 2007; Quisumbing, Brown, Feldstein, Haddad, & Peña, 1995). This is affirmed by the fact that the economy of Zimbabwean remains largely an agro-based economy, with approximately 70 percent of the rural population highly reliant on mostly agriculture that is rain-fed (FAO, 2018, p. 1). Therefore, the realisation of the subordinate position of women in the Zimbabwean economy prompted the government in 1984 to institute the Ministry of National Affairs, Employment Creation and Cooperation. Lesabe (1999) maintains this ministry sought to promote and ensure a form of socio-economic empowerment in communities. This came against the background of the majority of women in the country characterised as being poor and having low income. The ability to farm is also closely linked to being able to sustain oneself. The last few years have also witnessed pilot projects by the Zimbabwean government and interventions by NGOs and CSOs such as ADRA Zimbabwe, CARE International Zimbabwe, World Vision and others to address food insecurity issues.

1.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF POVERTY IN ZIMBABWE

Chinake (1997) affirmed that there have been varying views by those regarded as poor, academics, and politicians on the perceptions on the identification of poverty, causes and solutions of alleviating poverty. Poverty can be seen, not as a rational activity, but rather as technical and political issue (DiNitto & Dye, 1983). Malaba (2006) mentioned that poverty is a phenomenon that is multidimensional, both reflecting and impacted on by numerous associated factors such as malnutrition, low literacy, lack of water access, food, good public health, safe housing, and pitiful living environments, to mention a few. Equally, Alwang, Mills and Taruvinga (2002, p. 3) postulated that after independence, Zimbabwe experienced extreme dualism in the agricultural sector, enforced by legislation and reflected in division throughout the society. The duality in Zimbabwe's agricultural sector was characterised by there being subgroups of land size namely; the communal land owners and smallholder farmer who occupy areas with low rainfall, poor soil. It is also worth noting that on its way to becoming a middle-income nation, Zimbabwe's economy and society since 1997 has deteriorated immensely. Quinn

⁵ This is a system also known as Subsistence Agriculture, whereby an individual grows crops and raises livestock for personal use or consumption and with no intention to sell in exchange for money or kind.

(2017, p. 1) postulated “Approximately 72 percent of Zimbabwe’s populace live in chronic poverty, and 84 percent of those categorised as ‘poor’ live in rural areas”. In addition, statistical evidence and trends have not been able to adequately convey the enormity of the Zimbabwe’s current poverty. Malaba (2006) further maintained that Zimbabwe is experiencing both transient and structural poverty, and this makes the situation even more complex. Chen (2016) maintained that fragile and conflict-affected areas are breeding places for increased poverty. This is against what was mentioned by the Ministry of Public Service Labour and Social Welfare (1997) which reported that poverty is correlated with vulnerability, social exclusion, and to some extent political, economic, cultural and social deprivation. In addition, the Commission for Africa (2005, p. 1010) reported that:

Poverty relates to thirst, hunger, and living deprived of decent shelter. It means being unable to read. It means chronic sickness. Poverty means not finding any opportunity for you and your children. It is about being pushed around by those who are more powerful. It is about having little control over your life. And it can mean living with the constant threat of personal violence.

It is also worth mentioning that poverty in Zimbabwe is also inextricably connected with the country’s colonial history. This is emphasised by Chinake (1997) who purported that Zimbabwe’s poverty is as a result of divisions present within most African societies because of colonialism. This is because the colonial history engendered a build-up of grievances concerning needs that most black people lacked. Chinake (1997) also added that the fatalities brought about by poverty were kept to a minimum in traditional societies, given the intricate extended relationships in families as well as the degree of community support. With the inception of modernised ideals, there was entrenchment of the capitalist system that had a major effect in distorting black family structures in Zimbabwe. UNICEF (1994) pointed out that this period witnessed the African population becoming a reservoir of cheap labour, resulting in most households being female-headed. This situation was also evident throughout the periods where violent conflict was experienced in the country, namely during the First Chimurenga⁶ from 1896 to 1897, the Second Chimurenga from 1966 to 1979 as well as the Third Chimurenga that commenced in 2000. Nyandoro (2019) mentioned that before the country gained independence, the country’s political, economic and social

⁶ Chimurenga is a Shona word referring to “war of liberation”.

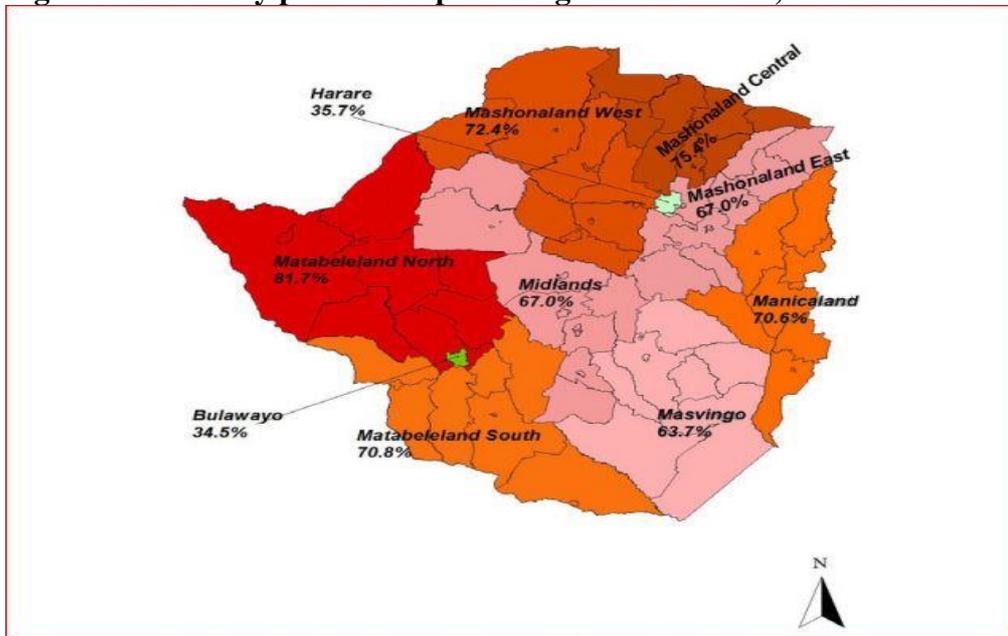
environment gave political and economic benefits to the white people as opposed to the black majority. According to Chinake (1997), at independence the incoming government inherited a dualistic socio-economic system that politically, socially, technologically and economically, was white dominated and existed side by side with marginalised black peasants. Mandaza (1986) further added that this peasant sector was characterised by underdevelopment, widespread poverty and disease.

Life after independence did not improve for most of the country's people. Many black people had settled on small and poor-quality portions of land, unlike their white counterparts (ZIMSTAT, 2013). Black people had been deprived of equal education and employment opportunities, and even the salaries differed according to race. ZIMSTAT (2013) also pointed out that these adverse policies brought about great inequalities and ongoing poverty among the black majority. Over time these inequalities grew into a tense and prolonged liberation war that commenced mid-1960s and ended with Zimbabwe gaining independence on 18 April 1980. Because of the detrimental effects of the liberation struggle, severe economic hardships were experienced in Zimbabwe. Soon after independence, the government gave first priority to reducing the country's levels of poverty. ZIMSTAT (2013, p. 2) reported that although some of the country's industries became nationalised, multinational companies and whites continued to be in control of the private sector. This impelled the government to develop hasty development policies regarding rural infrastructure, in terms of health, transport system and education. Efforts were also made to reduce the gap between rich and poor, as well as to effect real wage increases and set up minimum wages. All these efforts by the government to address the country's poverty challenge were home-grown initiatives, such as the 1981 Growth with Equity Plan, followed by the 1982–1985 Zimbabwe Transitional National Development Plan, as well as the 1986–1990 Zimbabwe National Development Plan. Sylvester (1985, p. 19) asserted that the Zimbabwe Transitional National Development Plan refers to the public commitment made by the government to employ a developmental strategy that would move the country away from the capitalist socio-economic system.

Numerous studies have identified poverty as constituting the majority of the people regarded as poor. This is highlighted by Khan and Noreen (2012, p. 4514) who purported about 70 percent of the women in the world's population are deemed

disadvantaged. On the other hand, the Women and Land Lobby Group (WLLG) (2001) maintained that 75 percent of the Zimbabwe’s citizens are surviving below the poverty datum line and the majority of the people are women. According to ZIMSTAT (2016), the Poverty Datum Line (PDL) signifies cost of a specified level of survival well-being meant to be attained when a person is considered to be not disadvantaged. It is worth noting, however, that the past few years have also witnessed poverty levelling in gender terms in Zimbabwe, as a result of intensified competition in the informal sector between male and female and the informalisation of the Zimbabwean economy. This comes because when women are experiencing dire poverty situations, their rights are not protected. They experience high risk that is generally extremely difficult to overcome. Figure 1.1 below shows the findings from the country’s statistics agency known as ZIMSTAT after having conducted the Poverty Income Consumption and Expenditure Survey from the month of June 2011 to May 2012. The report covered the prevalence of poverty and other issues that needed analysis. The results clearly show that poverty varied significantly across the country’s provinces, with Matabeleland North, for example, having the highest percentage of 81.7 percent.

Figure 1.1: Poverty prevalence percentage in Zimbabwe, PICES 2011/2012

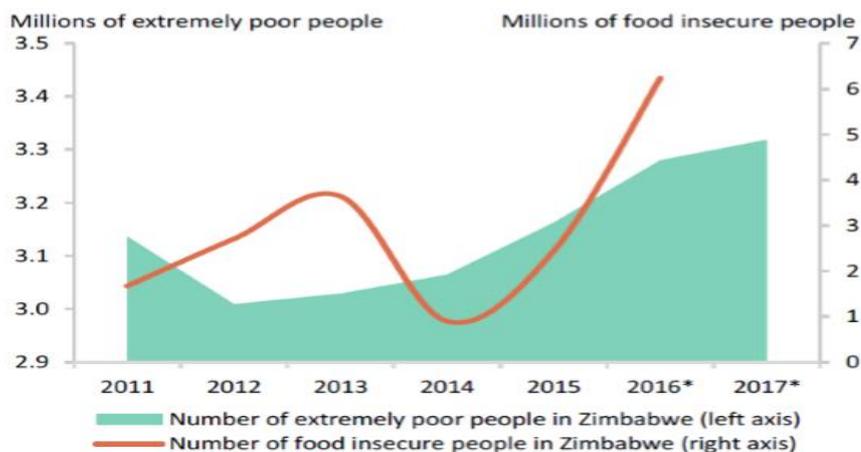


Source: ZIMSTAT (2013, p. i)

1.2.1 Food Insecurity in Zimbabwe

Long-standing difficulties in Zimbabwe's food security have been identified and need urgent attention. The Forum for Food Security in Southern Africa (2004, p. 28) reported that these challenges take into account amassed production and efficiency that will involve developing sustainable agriculture and livelihood systems for the drylands, and offering provisional wellbeing during the time of poor harvests primarily for the persons who rely largely on the farming. This is echoed by Famine Early Warning Systems Network (FEWS NET) (2014, p. 5) who attested that although the agricultural sector contributes immensely to the economy, the country still experiences a structural maize production shortfall. In addition, it is well-documented by the Human Rights Watch (2004) that since 2002, numerous individuals within Zimbabwe have remained reliant on national and global aid programmes to acquire food and many go hungry and are not able to access food. This is emphasised by FEWS NET's (2014) observation that although Zimbabwe had an extremely low harvest in 2001 as compared to its average in previous years, it was only in April year 2002 that a 'national drought disaster' was declared by the government. It was during this time that a food security assessment revealed that an estimated 6 million people needed emergency food aid, which led to the planned distribution by donors of 705 000 tonnes in cereal as food aid (FEWS NET 2014, p. 7). Food poverty in Zimbabwe has been understood largely as a rural phenomenon, but recent years have brought about a different perspective where food poverty in Zimbabwe is understood as both a rural and urban phenomenon. This is against the background of urban food poverty being notably high.

Figure 1.2: Zimbabwe's Poverty and Food Insecurity levels (2011–2017)



Source: World Bank (2016) cited in Crush et al. (2017, p. 9)

The World Bank assessment of 2016 (p. 292) shows a weak economic growth of 0.4 percent for that year in Zimbabwe. Kararach and Otieno (2016, p. 16) affirmed that Zimbabwe has a long way to go before recuperating from the economic crisis. This is because poverty and food insecurity continue to be widespread. Furthermore, the undesirable impact on agrarian efficiency of the El Niño-induced⁷ famine of 2015 have remained intensified by the going slow of economies worldwide with basic product costs remaining less and the terms of trade adverse to Zimbabwe. In Zimbabwe, the main crops grown to ensure food security are millet, maize, sorghum and comestible oil produce such as soya beans, sunflowers and groundnuts, to mention a few. According to the FAO (2017) report, these food crops play a significant role that impacts on the gender relations in households, given the responsibility of women to feed the family. The Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanisation and Irrigation Development (MAMID) (2013) asserted that while Zimbabwean men make determinations about the produce to be planted and sold, women have the responsibility to ensure household food security. Concerns pertaining to gendered access to food and food insecurity are principally significant in the present-day Zimbabwean environment. FAO (2003b) in Table 1.1 show that during the early 1990s, 43 percent of the Zimbabwean general public was undernourished, and this number has increased because of factors that have affected the economy adversely.

Table 1.0.1: Number of undernourished persons in Zimbabwe

	1990-1992	1995-1997	1999-2001
Population	10.5 million	11.7 million	12.6 million
Undernourished population	4.5 million	5.1 million	4.9 million
Undernourished proportion in total population	43 percent	44 percent	39 percent

Source: FAO (2003b)

According to the Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee (ZIMVAC, 2014) statistics, 2.2 million people making up 25 percent of the rural families were experiencing food insecurity by March 2014 which marked the peak of the hunger period. It is also worth noting that household food security status differs from household to household, because of the differences in available resources for each household.

⁷El Niño refers to a warming ocean-current weather phenomenon that induced drought, which resulted in cut crop yields and the death of livestock.

Mukarumbwa and Mushunje (2010) pointed out that up until the early 1990s, Zimbabwe continued to be considered the second most mechanised and industrialised economy in Africa, even though majority of people in Zimbabwean have always had an agrarian background. Furthermore, Tawodzera and Zanamwe (2016) reported that there has been a drop in Zimbabwe's household food security levels, in comparison to statistics a decade ago. This decline is partly attributed to the drastic fall in agricultural food production levels as a result of erratic rainfall, lack of farming inputs, as well as the industrial economy itself experiencing a decline (FAO, 2008). Tawodzera, Zanamwe and Crush (2012, p. 11) mentioned that food insecurity concerns in Zimbabwe have till recently mainly been a family level concern, focusing on underprivileged families and individuals deprived of adequate farming land. However, over the past two decades, food shortages both at the national and household level have shown a drastic increase and this has left Zimbabwe with no option other than to rely on commercial grain imports and food aid to meet their food requirements. The Central Statistics Office (CSO) (2012) show that 70 percent of the country's populace was surviving below the poverty datum line and there was a high chance of the figure increasing, due to the ongoing food price hikes as well as high inflation.

While bearing in mind Zimbabwe's daunting food security tragedy, it is worth mentioning that the plight of the rural population is intensified through the substantial decline in the production of maize, the staple crop, due to increasingly erratic rainfall. Although the majority of the population has to depend on food aid from donors, poverty levels of Zimbabwe's urban population continue to rocket because of the increased levels of unemployment (Murisa, 2010). This, as explained by Gundu (2009), leaves Zimbabwe as a diversified low-income economy with mining and agriculture as its main industrial sectors. The downturn in trade and other manufacturing activities has adversely led to an increased number of families having to be solely dependent on agriculture as a means for survival, given that there is little else to choose from (Iram and Butt, 2004).

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Sub-Saharan Africa has experienced an historical past of land scarcity and contestation that has led to struggles, expropriation, subjugation and manipulation. This has resulted in many inconsistencies including the low numbers of women with access to land and

financial resources or ownership that might help to mitigate against the cost of productive ability (Bob, 2010, p. 49; Moyo, 2011; Werner, 1993). Generally, violent conflict has the potential to hinder societal and economic growth. Despite the overwhelming academic literature on food security, from scholars such as Wheeler and Von Braun (2013), Van Huis (2013), Fischer, Byerlee and Edmeades (2014), there is, arguably, less qualitative and empirical data probing economic, political and gendered issues affecting food insecurity in Zimbabwe. Therefore, it is key to understand the conditions to which a mere conflict is likely to turn violent. In addition, there is also need to investigate the impact of Zimbabwe's political and economic crisis on gender, food insecurity and its potential to instigate a conflict situation. What makes this study unique is that it does not only acknowledge the immense population of Zimbabweans by way of food insecurity concerns in the situation of the protracted political and economic crises, but further investigates how these concerns intersect and the possibility of the situation escalating into a violent conflict scenario. Additionally, the knowledge gap the research aims to redress hinges on the premise that the status of women is key not only to sustainable food security but also to peace within the country. This is against the background of the statement by Sims (2015, p. 1) that failure to fulfil human needs creates an environment of protracted social conflict, because people are intrinsically driven by the urge to satisfy their needs.

1.4 OBJECTIVES AND KEY QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

The research main objectives are to:

- Investigate intersections between gender and food insecurity in Zimbabwe's economic and political crisis environment.
- Critically interrogate the link between gender, food insecurity and conflict.
- Establish the role that NGOs and CSOs play in addressing gender discrepancies with regard to food insecurity in a political and economic crisis environment.
- Examine how people respond or react to food security/insecurity in Zimbabwe.

The key research questions have been identified as follows:

- How does gender and food insecurity in Zimbabwe's political and economic crisis environment intersect?
- What critical link is there between gender, food insecurity and conflict?

- What role do NGOs and CSOs play in addressing gender discrepancies that impact on food security in a political and economic crisis environment?
- How do people respond/react to food security/insecurity in Zimbabwe?

1.5 METHODOLOGY

The methodological framework for the research is qualitative in nature, using qualitative tools in the form of individual focus group discussions and interviews. This is in keeping with the view of McLeod (2001, p. 4) that we can under no circumstances accomplish a comprehensive systematic understanding of the world. The best we can do is try to gain as truthful a view as possible, which can create a change that unlocks new options for understanding the world. The qualitative research approach is subjective and systematic, which means it enlighten and highlights the day to day life experiences and, additionally, give proper meaning to the experiences (Hox and Boeije, 2005; Burns and Grove, 2009). In addition, the work took a phenomenological approach, which Lester (1999) explained as seeking to understand the experiences of people from the perspectives of the individuals concerned. Husserl (1970) further characterised this as a method that seeks to describe rather than explain. The phenomenological approach is one that enables the researcher to gain insight into people's motivation and actions, as well as understand the subject's experiences.

1.5.1 Sample Size

According to Terre Blanche, Durrheim, and Kelly (2006, p. 288), qualitative studies typically require a smaller sample size than quantitative studies. Therefore, from the study population that of the city of Harare a sample size of 26 participants was used, which was sufficient to enable the research to reach a point of saturation or redundancy. The study made use of non-probability purposive sampling and the researcher recruited participants using purposive sampling methods. This sampling technique was adopted because it is synonymous with a qualitative study, the targeted sample, in this case, being NGOs and CSOs, namely ADRA Zimbabwe; CARE Zimbabwe; World Vision; and Gender Commission of Zimbabwe, organisations that focus mainly on gender disparity issues, peacebuilding and conflict resolution, food security, and political and economic crisis analysis. Ten in-depth interviews were conducted at a place convenient and agreed upon with the research participants from the NGOs. The interview participants were recruited using a purposeful random sampling technique. Focus

groups can provide opportunities for participants to clearly articulate problem dynamics and real-life experiences. Two focus group discussions (FGDs) involving eight different participants in the Harare CBD were conducted, one group with adults (both men and women) and one group with teenagers (both male and female).

1.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Conducting research that probes gender, food insecurity and political and economic crisis issues proved very challenging, especially during a period when the crises are still being experienced and also at a time when people were preparing for the presidential elections. I found the politically charged environment stifled my ability to conduct the research. Research questions were often misinterpreted and yielded negative reactions from the participants. Also, the study was conducted using limited financial resources that allowed travelling and accessing the research informants while they were working. Therefore, because of limited access and financial resources only four NGOs participated were used as research informants. The research process proved more time-consuming than anticipated as informants often rescheduled our meetings.

1.7 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Food Insecurity: This occurs when individuals have limited economic or physical access to adequate, nutritious, safe and communally suitable food intended for a productive as well as healthy well-being. Food insecurity can remain categorised as temporal, seasonal or chronic. In addition, food insecurity may result in extreme psychological, social and behavioural concerns.

Gender: The term relates to the duties and roles of both women and men which are formulated within communities, families, as well as beliefs (Martin, 2004; Stead, 2013; UNESCO, 2003, p. 1). Malaba (2006, p. 4) defined gender as “a codification and social construction of the differences between sexes and between men and women social relationships”. It also relates to the individual gender identity, which covers the social norms as well as the socially constructed individual identity. In addition, the gender concept that takes into account the beliefs that are well thought regarding the attitudes, individualities and probable behaviour of men and women (masculinity and femininity). Furthermore, gender responsibilities are modified by the structures of communal

differences for instance social class, ethnicity, political position, age, mental and physical disability.

Crisis: Refers to a physical and emotional response to some precipitating event or series of events that disrupts the day to day functioning. Crises situations are a phenomenon that everyone experiences now and then. They are a normal part of life and can occur at any stage in life. A crisis situation can be experienced at the individual level, family level, societal level, national level or international level.

Poverty: This can be understood to result from limited or completely absent access to basic services and infrastructure that can be aggravated as a result of individuals' limited access to useful resources such as land, shelter, credit facilities, and so on, as well as the absence of institutions and other resources desirable for sustainable livelihoods (Malaba, 2006, p. 4). Poverty can be either transient, meaning that it lasts for a short while, or structural or chronic, meaning that the poverty situation is extended over a period of time.

Conflict: The term refers to the variances in opinions, which come up as a result of different value systems, cultural and religious beliefs, backgrounds, human needs and unmet human expectations. Galtung (1972) defined conflict as a scenario where there are incompatibilities between parties in a given setting. The conflict in itself may be seen as neutral, but it is how people respond to a conflict that results in it being a negative or positive conflict. Conflict is by nature inevitable, pervasive and an inherent part of all societies. In addition, conflicts emerge as a result of limited resources, power struggles and many other factors. A conflict can be categorised as arising within oneself (intra-personal), between two people (inter-personal), within a community (communal), within a country (national) or involving many countries (international). Lastly, a conflict can be economical, political, social, religious or ethnic in nature.

Violence: The term violence has numerous definitions. However, the World Health Organisation (2003, p. 6-7) defined violence as the deliberate usage of physical strength or influence that leads to death, injury, psychological harm or impeded development. Furthermore, the violence is sub-divided into three main categories, namely interpersonal violence, self-directed violence, and collective violence. The definition of

violence attempts to cover the public and private nature of violence as well as the micro- and the macro-level manifestations of violence.

Civil Society Organisations: This refers to organisations working without government influence. These organisations are non-political, non-partisan and development-oriented. In addition, the organisations represent a wide collection of community interests ranging from social, economic and political to environmental. Furthermore, civil society organisations generally extend their social services to people in contexts and conditions where the government is incapacitated or too overwhelmed to assist them.

1.8 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

This dissertation consists of seven chapters. The first section provides a general background of the research, the problem statement as well as the study's objectives. This is followed by an examination of related literature to the study and the theoretical framework, research design and methodology. Data presentation, discussion and analysis is followed by a summary and conclusion. A detailed chapter outline follows.

Chapter One presents the outline and gives the contextual background of the study. The chapter also provides a general and more focused background to the problem. It provides an overview and traces the trajectory of the main concepts of the study, namely the global crises situation, food insecurity, gender and violent conflict. This is followed by discussion of the historical background that gave rise to the status quo of poverty in Zimbabwe. The chapter also introduces the food insecurity concerns in Zimbabwe, and includes an outline of the research problem statement, and research aims and objectives. It expounds on the importance of the research (academic contribution), research design and methodology, study's limitations, as well as the structure of the chapters.

Chapter Two presents empirical and theoretical literature from past and contemporary research work along the lines of gender, food insecurity and violent conflict. The theoretical literature is structured according to the different subjects the research seeks to address. These themes include the conceptualisation of food security and food insecurity; an overview of food security measures; gendered perspectives towards land access; food insecurity; and violent conflicts – all within the context of Zimbabwe, Southern Africa and globally. The chapter will further compare information from other

studies conducted along similar lines by exploring both the conceptual and theoretical issues. In addition, the chapter contains an overview of the land reform in Zimbabwe, with a focus on land rights and gender. The section on land rights and gender is addressed by attempting to understand the complexities that lead to gender disparities, as seen by conflicting laws and longstanding traditional practices, which pave the way for food insecurity.

Chapter Three of the study provides the theoretical framework and the research methodology. The chapter will accentuate a nuanced understanding of different theories, namely, systems theory, the theory of intersectionality, protracted social conflict theory, as well as the theory of justice as appropriate frameworks to unpack the gendered perspective on food insecurity in a political and economic crisis environment in Zimbabwe. The chapter considers how these theories fit into the research. The chapter also provides a general summary of the research methodology and the information collection techniques utilised during the course of the research.

Chapter Four presents Zimbabwe's economic and political crisis in connection to food insecurity because of the predicament. It also gives a global overview of the political and economic crisis. In addition, the chapter explores a historic context of the inception of the crisis in Zimbabwe and the period when the crisis was at its peak. It also analyses the narratives from focus group discussions and research interviews with the main focus on the gendered intersection of the political and economic crisis, through the lens of the theoretical framework adopted by the research.

Chapter Five also analyses research findings but specifically investigates the research objective that looks at the role that NGOs and CSOs have played in addressing the adverse consequences that have been brought about by the crisis situation. In addition, the chapter considers the response of the NGOs, CSOs and the urban population within the Harare community to these adverse challenges. It examines the food security promotion mechanism that is in place and should be instituted to ensure food security amidst a political and economic crisis situation.

Chapter Six presents an analysis of data gathered from the research interviews and focus group discussion around the way in which food insecurity shapes the level of gender violence; how irregular gender power relations effect on food insecurity, women

empowerment, and women land ownership, with regard to food security/insecurity. This was analysed again from the different theoretical lens guiding the study in relation to the link between gender, food insecurity and violent conflict.

Chapter Seven concludes the study and summarises the major research findings. This concluding chapter of the study offers recommendations about the gendered intersections of food insecurity in a political and economic crisis situation and considers how it impacts on the prospects of promoting sustainable peace, food security and gender equality. The chapter also gives recommendations on other challenges identified during the course of the research study.

CHAPTER TWO: EMPIRICAL AND THEORETICAL LITERATURE REVIEW

2. INTRODUCTION

The chapter examines empirical and theoretical literature by international, regional and Zimbabwean local scholars, Dodson and Chiweza (2016); Berazneva and Lee (2013); Zezza and Tasciotti (2010); Reddy and Moletsane (2009); Goetz (1992); and by institutions such as FAO and WFP on issues pertaining to food security, gender discrepancies and violent conflicts. While focusing on contemporary conflict dynamics, it is important to note the observation by the Forum on Early Warning and Early Response (FEWER) (2001, p. 7) that “...there is no single cause of conflict. Nor is there often any single precondition for sustainable peace. Different factors vary in importance and reinforce or neutralise each other. The analysis of the situation must, therefore, include assessing the relative importance of the different indicators and their inter-relationship.” A literature review is important because it helps one to understand how the study findings fit into the existing body of knowledge (Bruce, 1994). In consulting Masters and PhD studies such as Muzah (2015); Mapfumo (2015); Mthembu (2014); and Chimbwanda (2014), it appeared that gender issues, food insecurity and violent conflicts in the framework of a political and economic crisis environment have been dealt with independently without investigating the interconnectedness of the different concepts. This is given much emphasis by Meadows (2008) who argued that a simple principle of a system is that it is something more than a gathering of its parts.

Studies such as the ones by Kabeer (1998, 2004) have tended to focus on rural population dynamics and not urban. Therefore, this chapter starts by looking in depth at the concept of food insecurity from an urban perspective, with an overview of food security measurement relating to accessibility, availability, stability, and utilisation. In addition, the chapter considers food security and agriculture within inner-city with specific emphasis on the concept of inner-city agriculture by women. This is followed by the different food security threats that are present and the role that NGOs and CSOs have played in trying to mitigate the levels of food insecurity and prevent escalation. Finally, the chapter ends with an overview of gender mainstreaming, the gender role in food production, and closes with a look at gender perspectives and dynamics in land rights. Overall, from a systems theory point of view – that in the words of Banathy and

Jenlink (2003, p. 40) provides “a constant yearning for understanding the wholeness of the human experience” through human history, the literature review serves as a basis for building up the discussion around the intersection of gender and food insecurity in a political and economic crisis environment.

2.1 FOOD SECURITY AND FOOD INSECURITY CONCEPTS

Food insecurity and security concerns are a daily reality for millions of people around the entire globe. The statement is constructed on the basis that for survival and energy purposes, people are highly reliant on food. Therefore, the availability of food in adequate proportions becomes of great concern. Although the manifestation of food insecurity is extreme and obvious, Webb, Coates, Frongillo, Rogers, Swindale and Bilinsky (2006, p. 1404) maintained that in some cases households experiencing food access constraints are less identifiable. Koda (2002) postulated that food security is a very wide and interdisciplinary concept that deals with issues around household food entitlement, food production, food consumption, and food distribution. It is worth noting that although the hunger phenomenon is timeless, the food security notion backdates to the 1974 World Food Conference. It was formulated on the basis of attempting to respond to global food crisis concerns, and first appeared in 1970s development literature. Scholars such as Smith et al. (2003) mentioned that similar emerging complimentary concepts of household food security literature can be dated to the 1980s. Scholars such as Maxwell, Ahiadeke, Levin, Armar-Klemesu, Zakariah and Lamprey (1999) pointed out that the concept of food security has been prominent since the time it was formulated because of the considerable attention it attracted. They purported that food security can be better understood in relation to the availability and supply of cereals. This is emphasised in literature such as that of Irani and Sharif (2016), Garnett (2014), Tomlinson (2013) and Power (2008), defining the food security concept along the lines of the supply perspective.

This definition, from the point of view of food supply, has since evolved, changing its focus towards achieving food security at personal, family, domestic, provincial, and international levels. This remains evident in Brody, Spielfoch and Aboud (2014) who noted that the genesis of the food security concept had its focus on ensuring the global availability of food as well as stabilising the price of food. However, the concept evolved with time, now having its focus directed towards trying to balance the supply

and consumption of food by vulnerable individuals and those in need of food. For an individual to be 'food secure', he or she needs to have access to adequate and quality food any time. This underscores the premise that those who do not have adequate quality food have constantly food insecurity.

A working definition for food security comes from the United States Agency for International Development's (USAID) (1992, p. 2) stated that "When all people at all times have both physical and economic access to sufficient food to meet their dietary needs for a productive and healthy life". The USAID (1992) description identify three diverse components important in the realization of food security namely: food access, food availability and food utilisation. Brody et al. (2014) further contended that food insecurity is a gender justice matter that calls for investigation. This is because most women have are likely to experience the adverse effects of conflict because of their active involvement in household food production. Consequently, given these dynamics, food insecurity becomes a gender impartiality concern. Nonetheless, concerns about gender neutrality are better elaborated using the theory of intersectionality that scrutinises the relationship between gender, sexuality, ethnicity, disability, race, nationality and class. Moreover, Yuval-Davis (2006) affirmed that the theory of intersectionality analyses the production of power and practices between genders, while analysing the social and cultural chain of command within different disciplines and organisations.

Contrary to the notion of food security is food insecurity that FAO (1996) attest as a position by which individuals are without adequate physical, economic and social access to food. Devereux, Vaitla and Hauenstein Swan (2008) further explained that food insecurity is experienced because of inaccessibility of food itself, inappropriate distribution of food, and inability to purchase the food. The WFP (2009a, p. 2) and FAO (2008) maintained that the concept of food insecurity comes in the form of "transitory food insecurity and chronic food insecurity". On the one hand, chronic food insecurity can be best understood as a long-standing or tenacious incapacity to get the least possible required food for consumption (WFP, 2009a, p. 2). This is further emphasised by DFID (2004) who stated that chronic food insecurity occurs when an individual over a time period is not able to meet his or her individual food needs. By contrast, transitory food insecurity is a temporary incapacity to get the least possible required food for

consumption, which indicates recovery ability. In addition, Barrett and Sahn (2001) explained that transitory food insecurity refers to a sudden inability to purchase or produce adequate food to meet one's physiological needs. Although both transitory and chronic food insecurity remain linked in terms of different durations, chronic food insecurity equates to moderate levels while transitory food insecurity implies acute levels (Devereux, 2006). Overall, scholars such as Jenkins, Scanlan and Peterson (2007, p. 826) asserted that the central meaning of food insecurity is based on the threat to the physical well-being and normal societal activities.

2.1.1 Food Security Measure Overview

There is no official hunger count to estimate the number of hungry people, and so there are no hard data available to estimate the extent of hunger directly. Those who argue that hunger is widespread and growing reliance on indirect measures... We regret our inability to document the degree of hunger caused by income limitations, for such lack of definitive, quantitative proof contributes to a climate in which policy discussions become unhelpfully heated and unsubstantiated assertions are then substituted for hard information (National Research Council, 2006, p. 18).

The overview measure of food security is an issue for discussion and debate. This validates Jacobs's (2009a) assertion that there is no technique for determining food security in its totality. Wolfe and Frongillo (2001) suggested that there are numerous dimensions to this multifaceted issue. However, while food security is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon, indicators have tended to be focused around specific narrowly measured aspects such as current food supply, without having to capture the complexities that come with the concept. Therefore, the 2009 International Summit on Food Security recognised pillars upon which the food security concept is essentially built. These pillars are essential to help provide a comprehensive food security gendered analysis, in keeping with the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA) (2015, p. 1) assertion that "gender analysis is the starting point for gender mainstreaming".

Clay (2002) and Pinstrup-Andersen (2009) attest that the state of food security is present when everyone, consistently have physical together with financial access to adequate as well as healthy food for their wellbeing. In addition, FAO (2004) categorises four situations relating to guaranteeing food security. These include the right amount of food availability, the consistency of supply without instabilities or scarcities, affordability to food, and quality of food. Pinstrup-Andersen (2009) mentions that these conditions gave rise to a distress over nationwide self-reliance, with an emphasis on exactly how much food is produced in a country. This is evident to what, Maxwell (1996) affirms that over the years an enormous amount of thoughtfulness has been given towards global and national food stock levels. The pillars addressed at the international summit include food stability, food accessibility, food availability and food utilisation. In measuring household food security targets, Jacobs (2009b, p. 411) mentioned that:

A food security target depends heavily on indicators and the measurement of food insecurity. Three categories of food security indicators exist with their respective strengths and limitations: food availability indicators focus on national food supply, yet pay scant attention to individual nutritional status; food expenditure and access indicators measure the monetary value of food as a proxy for food consumption, but often exclude individual nutritional status (or other anthropometric measurements); composite indexes incorporate all the available dimensions of food security into a single index, but the weights attached to components of the index might misrepresent their values in practice.

Moreover, Brody et al. (2014) suggested that these pillars help in identifying numerous causes and impacts of gendered inequalities which lead to susceptibility of women and children to hunger and poverty. Sassi (2018, p. 2) in Table 2.1 explained two different aspects of food security as well as giving definitions. The aspects are divided into two distinct categories as follows: the traditional dimensions explain the concepts of food accessibility, food availability, and food utilisation. The new dimensions include concepts of food stability, fear of how life would be if there were no food to eat, and the possible traditional dimensions of food insecurity.

Table 2.1: Dimensions of Food Security

DIMENSION	DEFINITION
TRADITIONAL DIMENSIONS	
Food accessibility	Everyone in families has sufficient resources to get proper food for a healthy diet.
Food availability	Sufficient amount of palatable and nutritious foods are inequitably available to individuals in a country and the food is in inequitable proximity for the individuals or not within a place they can access.
Food utilisation	The appropriate natural food usage, needed for food intake that provides adequate nutrients and energy needed, drinkable water and passable sanitation.
NEW DIMENSIONS	
Food stability	Consistent supply of food products accessible to people at any given time.
Fear	The perception that there will be inadequate food available to eat.
Risks	Likelihood of disruption of the traditional dimensions of food security.

Source: Sassi (2018, p. 2)

2.2. FOOD DIMENSIONS

2.2.1 Food Accessibility

According to Maxwell, Caldwell, and Langworthy (2008), it is difficult to access to food indicators, given the multidimensionality of food access. This point is further emphasised by Barrett and Lentz (2010) who identified that one class of food accessibility indicators is the livelihoods-based measure, which attempts to fully determine and monitor assets, activities and proficiencies essential to sustain a means of living. However, FAO (2006) pointed out that the components of the pillar focusing on food accessibility suggest that there should be sufficient quantities of food either in the form of imports or from domestic production. In addition, the food ought to be regularly obtainable within reasonable distance to the people's reach. In reality, however, food production and distribution systems are mostly administered by economic and political powers at all levels. This, in turn, would mean that the poor individuals or families with the least power within the particular system will not have food access, even when the food is available. Brody et al. (2014) further pointed out that women are mostly affected, directly and indirectly, by means of the unfair food access. Low societal status

and being not able to access resources make certain that most children and women are particularly prone to harsh food insecurity consequences because of inequitable global economic processes, which govern the food systems.

There are also gendered implications around food access at the household level. While looking at issues around poverty, Chen and Ravallion (2010, p. 14) noted that approximately 80 per cent of the global population survive on USD10 per day. Therefore, this implies that although food is available, individuals have a restricted capacity to buy foodstuffs, let alone access the inputs for food production. Shah (2013) pointed out the poverty gap continues to widen between rich and poor countries. And women, who are among the mainstream of the productive workers that go unpaid on the farms and in other undertakings, comprise the majority of the poor (Brody et al., 2014). This fact is emphasised by UNDESA (2010) who pointed out that men earn more than women in the formal sectors, despite having poor representation at the managerial level. Patel (2012) pointed out that food access in relation to gender inequalities is usually associated with some form of gendered power relations. In as much as food might be available and accessible, there is the chance of its accessibility being denied as a result of factors surrounding socio-cultural issues and gender inequality. This means that men and boys would be likely to benefit more than women and girls through receiving large amounts of food (Ramachandran, 2007). This point is explained further by Neogy (2012, p. 4) who mentioned that in parts of India, it is a cultural norm that male breadwinners eat first, followed by sons, which leaves women and girls to have their meals afterwards, with high possibility of there not being enough food left. Such inequalities at the household level are exacerbated further during times of food scarcity.

2.2.2 Food Availability

Generally, the measures of food security at state or national level lean towards considering collective availability by approximating the level of supplies, and the country's production and import capacity (Barrett and Lentz, 2010). The figures are then summarised in food balance sheets like those reported by FAO. In addition, FAO (2008) asserted that more of the resource side regarding food security are addressed by food availability and is determined by the food production level, and the stock levels of food. Helland and Sørnbø (2014) noted that the most commonly considered dimension of food security is food availability. However, between 1972 and 1974, the global food crisis and food security concerns were to a greater extent limited to the amount of regional

food available to meet the population's food requirements. Helland and Sørbrø (2014) further explained that much focus was put on issues concerning the food supply and many different food sources acquired from the country's local agricultural production, or through aid or food markets. In relation to Zimbabwe's agricultural sector, it has been and continuous to be a significant element of the Zimbabwe's economic growth along with the main source of food available at all levels. FEWS NET (2014, p. 5) concurred to this by mentioning that the Zimbabwe's agricultural sector continues to be a primary food source as well as revenue for many families.

2.2.3 Food Utilisation

Food utilisation is often comprehend as the manner in which the human body makes the best use of numerous nutrients found in foods (FAO, 2008). Thus, adequate nutrient intake by and vitality in people is due to various nurturing practices, preparation of food, assortment in diet and distribution of food within households. When these are put together with proper natural utilisation of consumed food, this can become a determinant of the nutritional status of individuals. Brody et al. (2014) noted that malnutrition caused by the intake of low calories is of great concern to power countries. This is against statistical evidence by Townsend, Jaffee, Hoberg, Htenas, Shekar, Hyder and Elder (2016) of an estimated two billion people across the globe suffering from micronutrient deficiencies. FAO (2013) pointed out that the highest rate of malnourishment is found in Africa with a ratio of one in four persons being undernourished.

Although a sizeable number of United Nations⁸ member state inhabitants are food insecurity of victims, developing evidence intensely show that women and girls go through this most severely, with an estimate of 60 percent of undernourished individuals being women and girls (Callister, 2018; UNECOSOC, 2007; WFP, 2009a). The impacts of inadequate food utilisation further affect pregnant women causing iron deficiency causing death of over 300 000 women yearly during childbirth (WFP, 2009a). In addition, FAO (2003a) pointed out that a research done in India presented that girls have a four times likelihood of suffering from acute malnutrition compared to boys. Furthermore, Brody et al. (2014, p. 23) pointed out that women and girls' nutritional

⁸ The United Nations is an intergovernmental organisation that was established in October 1945 after World War II, with the mission of promoting international peace and international cooperation. It has 193 members with its headquarters in New York City.

needs during childhood, adolescence, pregnancy, breastfeeding and menopause are usually ignored. It is important to identify particularly vulnerable groups of people and there is a great need to empower women to contribute to their own nutrition and food security (Dercon and Singh, 2013).

2.2.3 Food Stability

Stability in food supply is important during the course of the year and from one year to the next. This means there is a need for capacity to store adequate food for lean years to come or during times when crops fail due to climate change and natural disaster (Brody et al., 2014). FAO (2008) emphasised that although an individual's food consumption is sufficient, he or she can continue to be regarded as food insecure if he or she does not have sufficient access to food regularly. This makes people vulnerable and deteriorates their nutritional status. Food stability is also affected by weather conditions that are bad in the form of climate change, economic issues such as high rates of joblessness and increased food prices and political volatility.

Food stability and supply has been greatly affected by the macroeconomic policies on trade and investment. This has also had a negative impact on gender equality. According to the World Bank (2014, p. 1), macroeconomic policies refers to a branch of economics focused on the overall functioning of the economy. The policies include the government's spending and borrowing, taxes, credit and monetary rules, and exchange-rate determinants. As highlighted by Brody et al. (2014), the implementation of the Structural Adjustment Policies (SAPs) by developing countries has seen them lowering import tariffs and cutting down on agricultural spending. By so doing, developing countries run the risk of weakening their productive capacity and relying on imports, leading to global price hikes and destabilised food supply. This is confirmed by ADB (2013) reports of the upsurge in food prices globally for maize, rice and wheat that are staple foods for the developing and less developed countries. This food price hike is associated with the 2007/8 global food crisis propelled by global financial meltdown and fuel price hikes. It is also evident that the most affected countries are those with low domestic food productions who rely on imports (FAO, 2008).

Environmental degradation, climate change and global warming impacts on food stability are becoming more and more visible. This is emphasised by De Schutter (2013) who pointed out that the practice of monoculture has led to serious soil erosion, agro-

diversity loss and water pollution due to overuse of chemical fertilisers. This makes seasonal patterns unpredictable, leaving farmers facing shifts between flooding and drought. Climate change has an anticipated impact on food security. UNDP (2012) reported that the failure of subsistence crops would impact severely on the source of basic food for poor families, resulting in their having to pay inflated prices for food on the market. Women remain mostly affected adversely because of climate change as well as other ecological concerns because they remain obliged to travel long distances in search for water and other resources that are becoming scarcer (Brody et al., 2014). Demetriades and Esplen (2008) added to this discussion of the adverse effects on women by outlining the risks of being overburdened by work and susceptible to sexual assaults or harassment. FAO (2011, p. 2) pointed that although in theory both male and female are seen to having key facts that would allow active environmental adaptation, 47 percent of men receive the information as compared to 21 percent of women.

A circular relationship is present between food instability and conflict in that food security in itself can lead to civil war, riots and rebellion. The end of 2010 and the start of 2011 witnessed protests that began in Tunisia and then moved to countries like Bahrain, Jordan, Algeria, Yemen and Egypt. The high cost of food was widely seen as a significant factor underlying the events of the Arab Spring⁹ and civil unrest (Helland and Sørnbø, 2014). Those developments directed too much attention by policymakers and academics to further investigate the role that food insecurity and complaints related to food-price play as a conflict catalyst. Hendrix and Brinkman (2013) postulated that during the 1990s a minority group known as the Tuareg in Mali staged a revolt against the government over the mishandling of global food aid as a result of a famine. Maxwell and Smith (1992) suggested that conflict is a main food instability contributing cause, leading in turn to food insecurity. With this in mind, food insecurity can be understood as an economic and political occurrence that is powered by unfair worldwide and nationwide practises (Brody et al., 2014). This was emphasised by Helland and Sørnbø (2014) who pointed out that through governments allowing the food price to rise, food protests, which at times developed into violent food riots, were experienced in about 40 countries worldwide.

⁹The Arab Spring refers to a series of pro-democracy uprisings that were experienced in mainly Muslim states for example Bahrain, Libya, Egypt, Tunisia, Syria and Morocco. The social and political impact that the uprisings had remain significant even today (<https://www.history.com/topics/middle-east/arab-spring> accessed 21 September 2018).

The severe impact of this phenomenon is witnessed by the fact that children given birth in a violent conflict affected area have a higher chance of being undernourished (World Bank, 2011, p. 63). It is obvious that conflict adversely affects food production as well as economic activity, since farmers become evacuated from the land they own and at times are intimidated when looking after their crops or livestock (Oxfam, 2006). In addition, food access denial can be a conscious strategy on the part of the warring parties implemented deliberately against the neighbouring communities (Brody et al., 2014). Once again, it is women who have a high risk of being affected by conflict, given their responsibility in household food producing. It is these kind of dynamics that make food and nutrition insecurity a gender impartiality issue.

2.3 URBAN AGRICULTURE AND FOOD SECURITY LINK

Urban agriculture is a concept understood as intra-urban or on the peripheral also known as peri-urban of a town or a metropolitan area. Mougeot (2000, p. 10) asserted that, “the concept produces and raises, processes and dispenses a wide range of food and non-food products, while salvaging mostly material and human resources, services and products acquired in and around that urban area, and in turn providing human and material resources, products and services largely in that area”. There has been a very long history of urban farming as a town’s basic function, which makes it a phenomenon familiar to numerous people. For instance, the United Nations Development Programme (1996) affirmed how several towns in Latin American region, as well as Africa, stood self-reliant while planting perishable vegetables and fruits, while at the same time producing significant portions of grain products within restrained surrounding areas. In times of calamity, such as a war situation or economic recession, planting food in urban areas continues to be vital for the people that stay in those areas. Schrebergarten¹⁰ (meaning home gardens) were first initiated in Germany soon after the World War One (WWI) (Gustedt, 2016, p. 64). Evidently, the supposed Chinese Cultural Revolution in the 1960s came up with a set of strategies and programmes for attaining dietary self-sufficiency for their government districts, as well as cities.

¹⁰*Schrebergarten* is a German word that refers to a non-commercial garden plot or home garden for growing food plants.

In more recent years, statistics reveal that historical and global urban households have routinely been actively involved in urban agriculture. In addition, it was assessed by DGIP/UNDP (1993, p. 3) that approximately 200 million people living in urban areas were practising urban farming globally, “as a means of providing income and food to roughly 700 million people”. Furthermore, Smit (1996) noted that the use of land and programmes for food marketing were structured, and to date, big and small cities in China are among most resourceful when it comes to the production of food as a measure for food security. However, urban agriculture practice is fast growing, with widespread consequences for urban agriculture development. Nevertheless, Gustedt (2016) mentions that early urban farming studies have had their major concerns on establishing urban farming identity, as opposed to contemporary studies centred on urban farming connection with sustainability concerns. Austin and Visser (2002) noted that urban agriculture has materialised as an important practise countries such as Zimbabwe and Malawi to mention a few. Urban areas have challenging and influential structures that continually change with time. Currently, the world continues to experience crisis situations, with some situations compelling many people to formulate or adopt new ways of dealing with the crises as well as make time to participate in food production.

2.3.1 The African Context Urban Agriculture

Gallaher, Kerr, Njenga, Karanja and WinklerPrins, (2013) maintain that urban agriculture is a part of many if not the entire sub-Saharan Africa metropolises. Most people have practiced farming in African urban settings since its inception. However, colonial and post-colonial administrations time and again dejected or barred the practice for the reason that it was understood to be not matching with modern city notions (Gallaher et al., 2013). In recent years, however, this has changed in some cities as food insecurity in Africa rises. For years in Africa, food insecurity was primarily viewed as a rural problem, which was reinforced by western development theories where poverty was seen as a rural issue. However, this understanding of poverty has shifted to recognise the prominence of urban poverty as well, and that the urban poor require different coping strategies for food compared to rural residents due to lack of inputs and land. Access to food is a central challenge for urban residents (Battersby, 2011). In Africa, the issue of food insecurity has been a reality for decades for numerous low-income urban residents. Collectively, in 2011, the region receiving the most food aid was sub-Saharan Africa, which illustrates a significant need and also a dangerous

dependency (WFP, 2011). The issue is not the absence of food, but that urban residents are simply unable to afford (Prain and Lee-Smith, 2010). Household food insecurity generally increases as the proportion of income used to purchase food for the home rises. The less accessible and affordable the alternatives to buying food are, the more serious the insecurity (Prain, 2010).

2.3.2 Women in Urban Agriculture

In the past, it has been difficult to assess women's participation and contribution to urban food production as research focused on the general idea of the urban farmer, a term which many viewed as referring only to men (Hovorka, de Zeeuw and Njenga, 2009). SIDA (2003) mentions that studies in the decades past have documented women's predominance as well as leadership in the African agriculture context, with a particular increase in female urban farmers in the Uganda, Kenya, Mozambique, Zambia, Tanzania, Central African Republic, and Zimbabwe. Studies carried out in Cameroon suggested that the idea of women's role in farming, as primarily for subsistence, could be changing as data shows that women dominate both subsistence and commercial production (Lee-Smith, 2010). This is key for a comprehensive gender scrutiny, highlighting the difference between men, women, boys and girls in relation of their access to and resource distribution, prospects, restraints and influence in a given environment. In addition, "executing gender analysis will allow us to develop responses that are best matched to improving gender-based disparities and meet the needs of diverse population groups" (Sida, 2015, p. 1).

Women play a dominant role in agriculture, thus, it comes as no surprise to learn what Hovorka and Lee-Smith's (2009) maintains that most urban working men expected to be fed by their wives, through backyard farming. This backyard farming practice has been prominent in countries such as Tanzania ever since attaining independence in 1961 and continues to grow in strength, while other countries around Africa also follow the practice. However, sanctioned food and farming guidelines established for production in rural areas were unsuccessful in offering urban dwellers with enough food, and urban agriculture dramatically increased. In 1950, the portion of urban dwellers in low-income areas who possess farming land increased from 7 percent to 70 percent, and in the 1980s, the figure sat at 80 percent, with a bigger proportion of those working on the land being most female (Lee-Smith, 2010).

Women face barriers related to their agricultural practice, often a result of their low social status and lack of land rights (Lee-Smith, 2013). Household economic deficiency is another major barrier, as it is difficult for women to find the capital to purchase inputs such as soil, compost, seeds, livestock and irrigation required to develop or improve a small-scale urban farm. This is especially difficult if they are already forced to prioritise their household necessities each month. Despite the contribution that urban agriculture has made economically and nutritionally to cities, minimal attention has been given to allocating or retaining lands for urban agricultural uses as developing cities expand even further (Schmidt, 2012). For example, Dar es Salaam in Tanzania is a city experiencing rapid urbanisation, which has resulted in regular land conflicts between farmers and residents of newly developed land (Schmidt, 2012). In addition, there are no regulations or guidelines in place to govern such conflicts (Schmidt, 2012).

There is a significant opportunity to increase the food security of families and cities if women are given more support and training in urban agriculture ventures. Literature such as that of Lang and Barling (2012) and Quisumbing and Pandolfelli (2010) shows that in low-income regions of Africa, the role of female farmers could increase food output if given the proper support, credit and better infrastructure. Considering this, what would the outcome be for families and cities if training opportunities are provided to female urban farmers to assist them in overcoming the barriers that they are presented with. Many people assume that training helps an individual but it is often difficult to demonstrate and provide evidence of the impact. As mentioned above, there are many barriers for women to be actively engaged in urban food production and one way to break down the barriers is through training and capacity development. More specifically, capacity development, in terms of the procedure according to which persons, a collective, organisations and states grow, improve and organise their structures, resources and information, is reproduced in their individual and collective abilities to carry out responsibilities, resolve issues and establish and realise objectives (United Nations Development Programme, 2002, p. 99). Female farmers are often excluded from formal agricultural training, placing them at an immediate disadvantage (ETC-RUAF, CGIAR-Urban Harvest and IWMI-Ghana, 2004). This directly hinders their ability to exercise innovation and entrepreneurship and improve their knowledge base, skill set and potential to achieve maximum growth and development in all four

dimensions listed earlier: that is, social, financial, health and technical farming practices.

Urban agriculture involves an immediate household inputs investment like labour, land and capital, even for limited production. This return on their investment, such as a prosperous harvest, has a potential of motivating women in moving further than just obtaining food for household needs (Hovorka et al., 2009). Instead, providing women with the knowledge to gain entry into a business enterprise could have a significant impact on many dimensions of their lives. During an interview, a female agricultural extension officer for Nairobi County was asked what the role of women in urban agriculture was and she responded: “If they are empowered their food insecurity would reduce significantly” (Tye, 2012, p. 31). If capacity development and competencies were taught more frequently, women may have better opportunities to learn how to develop food production businesses, which would generate income for their families and help alleviate pressures that contribute to women, especially considering that most urban farmers have been women (Tinker, 1994). Women also tend to be the heads of households, which shows how critical urban agriculture is to the survival of low-income families (Tinker, 1994). In addition to this, a sense of self by women is often centred on women’s ability to feed her family. If she loses access to food and is no longer able to provide for her family, her source of power and identity may decrease (Van Esterik, 1999). Thus, for women who are usually in charge of ensuring food security in their household, the understanding of being incapable of providing for her family can be full of torment and distress (Van Esterik, 1999).

2.4 FOOD SECURITY THREATS

Considering the causes of food insecurity has become more and more sophisticated, given the phases of understanding required for a clearer conceptualisation of the concept. Nevertheless, as Kwasek (2012, p. 703) noted, the world’s food system is changing direction under the immense pressure of the ever-increasing global population growth and corresponding increase in the demand for food. These pressures include foods like meat and other by-products from animal like milk and other dairy products, which compete for land resources, water scarcity and the fight to retain arable land against the producers of biofuels, industry and urbanisation. Other food security threats include climate change, the ongoing loss of crucial biodiversity ecosystems and the

diversity of agricultural cultivators, the emerging of new plant and animal diseases, and the ever-escalating food prices (Kwasek, 2012, p. 703). This is in line with what Barrett and Lentz (2010, p. 16) purported: understanding the concept does not only focus along the lines of collective food availability, but extends to emphasising individual and household level access to food, towards conceptualisation of the food security-related risks, health care access, ranges of micronutrients along with the concerns that disrupt one's capability for proper food intake for health purposes. According to the Forum for Food Security in Southern Africa (2004, p. 1) it is clear that the southern African region is highly susceptible to a humanitarian food catastrophe during the first half of 2002. In addition, the Forum for Food Security in Southern Africa (2004) attest that this remained evident when countries like Zimbabwe, Malawi and Lesotho were declared at a state of emergency.

2.4.1 Food Security Covariate Threat

According to Barrett and Lentz (2010), the world's majority is highly dependent on market access to food. Price volatility is also a factor that is threatening food security. Zaman, Delgado, Mitchell and Revenga (2008) stated that between 2006 and 2008 there was an enormous increase in the global price of rice and wheat. Chen (2016) pointed out that when food insecurity is caused by food price hikes, this alone might not cause a conflict situation, but when combined with other factors it could be the catalyst for violent conflict to erupt. An increase in food price can instigate a conflict situation and the willingness for people to be part of the fight. This is what Maystadt, De Luca, Sekeris and Ulimwengu (2014) noted as the driving cause of conflicts experienced in Egypt, Libya, Tunisia and Yemen. Table 2.2 presents global factors that have contributed in the hike in food prices. According to WFP (2009b) there are basically two basic natures that cause global food price hikes namely the structural and temporary form. The structural form presents that demand factors include considerable incomes and fluctuating demand, growth in population and biofuels demand; supply factors include to minimum investments in agriculture and minimum growth in productivity, and minimum stocks. On the other hand, the temporary form presents demand factors to include minimum United States Dollar exchange rate, and formal investment. The supply factors include fuel prices on transport and mechanisation, minimum United States Dollar exchange rate, shocks related to weather, violent conflict and restraints on export. All these are daunting global factors that contribute to food price hikes.

Table 2.2: Global factors causing food price hikes

NATURE	DEMAND FACTORS	SUPPLY FACTORS
<p>Structural (slowly evolving factors)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Considerable incomes and fluctuating demand • Growth in population • Biofuels demand 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Minimum investments in agriculture and minimum growth in productivity • Minimum stocks
<p>Temporary (sudden-onset factors)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Minimum United States Dollar exchange rate • Formal investment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fuel price: fertiliser, transport, mechanisation • Minimum United States Dollar exchange rate • Shocks related to weather • Violent conflict • Restraints on export

Source: WFP (2009b)

2.4.2 Food Security Idiosyncratic Threat

Although in some circumstances, price hikes and war situations are likely to contribute to food insecurity for many people at times in communities that usually have adequate food, because of idiosyncratic reasons some people are just food insecure. Barret and Lentz (2009, p. 22) mentions that at times “the main factor driving individual and household-level food insecurity is relative poverty asset holdings and earnings which leave individuals deprived in the marketplace, both for earning an income and for affording food that better-endowed individuals are likewise demanding”. In addition, land assets in Africa and other developing countries are fast becoming popular, and most variety in per capita homestead sizes happens inside towns as opposed to between-towns (Jayne, Yamano, Weber, Tschirley, Benfica, Chapoto and Zulu, 2003). In this way, it is the heterogeneity inside networks that records for a huge portion of destitution

and nourishment frailty. Relative destitution is regularly connected with individual attributes that are connected to social prohibition that in like manner causes individual level nourishment frailty. On the other hand, Barrett (2005) mentions that concerns over, religion, gender and ethnicity usually lead to people enduring more regrettable terms of exchange, having more unfortunate access to assets, for example, land or water, fundamental to accomplishing individual nourishment, or just falling through the gaps in societal solidarity. Chambers (1989) further attest that regardless of segregation or marginalisation, those without power and a voice inside societies are progressively helpless against enduring food insecurity. This is an area of focus addressed by the social lens of the theory of intersectionality that considers the effects of the stereotypes, discrimination, and narratives of others on those that are marginalised (Colfer, Sijapati Basnett and Ihalainen, 2018, p. 16). However, differences in the levels of wealth and unchanging individual qualities are not by any means the only purpose behind peculiar varieties in societal food security. Krishna (2007), while making use of detailed family unit's history from a huge number of families across many nations established that high healthcare costs as well as ill health, overwhelmingly contributes to the plummeting of families into food insecurity as well as poverty. The mishap of ill health is additionally identified with poverty and marginalisation, which constrain one's capacity to put resources as preventive measure towards health care

2.4.3 POVERTY, WOMEN AND FOOD INSECURITY THREAT

In an effort to comprehend the scope of, and the capacity to change in size, urban agriculture on the African continent, Lee-Smith (2013) highlighted data from 11 towns and cities across Southern Africa and their representative percentages of poor households practising urban agriculture. The data that was collected from the research has emerged from many years of extensive research work represented in a number of bodies of literature. The research reveals the proportion of poor households in different cities that are practising urban agriculture. Percentages by country are as follows: Malawi 66 percent; Zimbabwe 60 percent; Lesotho 47 percent; South Africa 30 percent; Mozambique 23 percent; Swaziland 10 per cent; South Africa 5 percent; Botswana 5 percent; Zambia 3 percent and Namibia 3 percent (Lee-Smith, 2013). Figures from Kenya (Nakuru) show urban agriculture provide 22 percent of the general food consumption of farming family units as well as 8 percent of the overall food and nutritional needs of the town (Lee-Smith, 2013). In addition, with even higher

proportions, Tanzania (Dar es Salam) appears to generate 90 percent of the city's vegetables in addition least 60 percent of the city's milk through urban farming (Lee-Smith, 2013). Further studies conducted in East and Central Africa show that among the households involved, almost all ate more foodstuffs than that which was sold. Therefore, this suggests that urban farming does not only provide food but also helps save on expenses. There is also considerable evidence which suggests that family units that practise urban farming as financially advantages over those that do not practice (Lee-Smith, 2013).

2.4.4 CONFLICT AND FOOD INSECURITY NEXUS

There is a complex and dynamic link between conflict and food security. This comes as a result of different angles that can be perceived to relate to each other, signified as one had as a cause of conflict or as a consequence. The root causes of conflict are understood to differ considerably given the different circumstances that are present. They are seen to emanate from a combination of political chaos, institutional malfunction, economic crises, or social strains. There is a vast body of literature across different academic disciplines such as that by Doucey (2016); Mitkus and Mitkus (2014); Abiodun (2014); Malešević (2008); Bujra (2002); Ohlsson (2000), which focuses on a broad set of probable factors that lead to conflict. These include the ethnic tensions alluded to by Posen (2003) and Cederman, Wimmer and Min (2010). The latter pointed out that because of the changes that have been visible in social interactions, there has been an increase in the number of ethnic tensions. Horowitz (1985) stated conflicts that take place along so-called ethnic lines have a high likelihood of ending up in violence as compared to those associated with differences in political views and ideological opinions.

There are other factors of religious competition which Fearon (2006) outlined as a serious concern in the integration of religious groups that ends up in a conflict situation. There are also factors of real or perceived discrimination which, according to Piazza (2011), take the form of conflicts that result from real or perceived political, social, economic or intellectual discrimination. Collier and Hoeffler (2004) mentioned the presence of poor governance and state capacity as another factor causing conflict. Fearon (2005); Macours (2010); Maystadt, De Luca, Sekeris and Ulimwengu (2014)

affirmed that the competition for land and natural resources is also a factor to consider when narrowing the root causes of conflict. Sub-Saharan Africa has not been an exception to these challenges, given the multiple countries over the last decade embroiled in civil conflicts arising from competition over land and natural resources. Østby, Urdal, Tadjoeeddin, Murshed, and Strand (2011) pointed out that population pressure and rapid urbanisation has been another root cause of conflict. The rapid urbanisation process can be understood to be instigated by high youth unemployment (Urdal, 2006; Urdal and Hoelscher, 2012), as well as economic factors such as poverty and food insecurity.

Scholars such as Messer, Cohen and Marchione (2001, p. 1) claimed that by the end of the year 2000, “violent conflict and its outcome had left approximately 24 million people in 28 developing and transition countries and territories food insecure and in need of humanitarian assistance. In addition, some 35 million war-affected refugees and internally displaced persons showed high rates of malnutrition”. Generally, conflict situations leads to the crops destruction, death of livestock, land and water source destruction, and disrupts infrastructure, markets and the human resources required for food production, distribution and safe consumption. In addition, soldiers often use hunger as a weapon; they cut off food supplies and the capacity for production, starve opposing people into compliance, and appropriate food aid that is meant for non-combatants.

In trying to understand the nexus that is present between food security and conflict situations, it is judged that food security can either be a cause or a consequence of conflict (FAO, IFD and WFP, 2015; Messer et al., 2001). Given the complexities of conflict dynamics, many factors can lead to conflict. Breisinger, Ecker, Maystadt, Trinh Tan, Al-Riffal, Bouzar, SMA and Abdelgadir (2014) pointed out that some of these factors include issues of poor governance; limited access to land; poverty; unemployment; income inequality; and natural disasters. Ribot and Peluso (2003, p. 153) asserted that the term ‘access’ can best be described as “the ability to derive benefit from material objects such as persons, property, institutions, social and political, economic relations, actions, entitlement, relations of production and their respective histories that shape benefit flows”. Earlier research conducted by Brinkman and Hendrix (2011) confirmed that there is a connection between violent conflict and food insecurity,

mentioning that food security is threatening and multiplies the impact of violent conflict. Breisinger et al. (2014) estimated that 1.5 billion people live in fragile areas that are affected by violence and conflict.

2.5 GOVERNMENT, NGO AND CSO INTERVENTION IN ZIMBABWE'S FOOD INSECURITY SITUATION

The agrarian crisis that Sub-Saharan Africa has experienced in the past years has provoked development agencies, governments and civil society organisations to urgently identify policies that will aid in the fast-tracking of agricultural transformation to achieve food security (Moyo, 2016). While focusing on the Zimbabwean situation, it is evident that several approaches have been instituted in a bid to address temporal food insecurity from the GoZ and non-governmental organisations (NGOs). This has been done by means of instituting growth strategies that focus on improving the levels poverty and ensuring people have food access in rural, urban areas, so as to attain a better livelihood. An example is the case of urban farmers in Chinhoyi that Pedzisai et al. (2014) explored, mentioning that no one except NGOs seem to be helping them out. According to ZFSIP (2011), the drought relief and recovery programmes, among others, have been spearheaded to address food insecurity. Most of the programmes were instituted in a bid to address the food crisis situation, despite the fact that Zimbabwe was once known as the food basket for the SADC region (Meissner, 2002). Pazvakavambwa (2009) contended that this observation originates from an investigation that took place in 2009, glancing back at the time of 2000-2008, which saw an emotional change from a food surplus to a food shortage nation, at both family and national levels. Therefore, food aid is currently one of the basic mediations utilised in Zimbabwe to ease family food security.

Jaka (2009) noticed that there are nations that have acquired help for an extended period of time, spreading over as long as 30 years, the include countries like, Swaziland, Kenya, Uganda, Ethiopia as well as Haiti. Belder et al. (2007, p. 1) adds by mentioning that dry season alleviation programmes have been incited each other year since Zimbabwe's autonomy in 1980, making it a typical phenomenon. On the other hand, UHAC (2012) mentioned that According to UNICEF, 2 000 000 women, men, boys and girls have concerning basic needs in Zimbabwe, a figure reached from statistics in organisations in education, water, sanitation and hygiene. ZFSO (2014) attested that,

even those with food aid may need to enhance their food needs by different ways and means. Most NGOs and government mediations in Zimbabwe regularly target rural territories, so by focusing on urban societies, the programmes were meeting a significant need (Hanyani-Mlambo and Mukorera, 2013). This is evident in Wilding's (2005) assertion that the great need was for food aid, given the market pandemonium that took place in 2002. If relief had not materialised in those areas, it would have had dire consequences for the rural population, in particular the communal land farmers. However, Mwaniki (2018) suggested that there should also be increased investment in long-term intervention plans for African countries in terms of ensuring food sufficiency, dietary diversification, and bio-fortification when necessary.

Although food for work programmes were instituted by the government as a means of intervention for developmental and infrastructure rehabilitation purposes, only a handful of the programmes is believed to have brought about positive results to the rural and peri-urban population (ZFSIP, 2011). However, recent years have witnessed a shift in attention from rural areas towards urban areas. This, according to Sigauke (2002), is being done by both the GoZ and NGOs, who are progressively taking up a significant task in ensuring food security, providing shelter, and urban improvement ventures. As part of the intervention strategies, home garden have been found as the most successful and useful agrarian action. Nevertheless, it is pointed out that the interventions which brought about the most positive food security results at the household level, made use of multiple approaches which related to increasing food production as well as focusing on nutrition education (Stewart et al., 2013). This approach is what Baudoin and Drescher (2008) asserted will enable local municipalities to widen intervention approaches towards realising the Millennium Development Goals.

Given the understanding of the integral part that women play in the world's food system, most global institutions like the FAO have put their focus on looking at ways that for small-scale farmers can best provide sustainable food practices, food security, improved nutrition and economic stability (Foodtank, 2014). Although women have an integral role to play, their contributions continue to be rarely recognised in many instances. This is evident in the fact that in most of the developing countries, women still have decision-making challenges with regards to owning land and deciding strategies for their families and household, which also overlaps to affect their food

security. To redress this, organisations such as the Women Farmers, Land and Agricultural Trust (WFLAT) in Zimbabwe has been working tirelessly to provide farming training and supportive networks for women who are actively involved in the farming business so that they can successfully become part of the agricultural community. According to Foodtank (2014), in an attempt to ensure that women become actively involved in developmental programmes that provide improved food security and nutrition, FAO offered agricultural resources to 826 gardens across the country. This made a huge impact on an estimated 42 000 farmers, with 92 per cent of these recipients being women.

2.6 OVERVIEW OF GENDER MAINSTREAMING

This section of the chapter will provide a practical example of gender mainstreaming in Zimbabwe. Gender mainstreaming is defined by Crawley and O'Meara (2002) as a process that integrates issues of gender parity to all developmental stages from formulation, implementation, practice and evaluation of mainstream policies. As such, Moser (2012) and Mkhize (2012) affirmed that gender mainstreaming aims to present men and women at the same level of development initiatives and practices. This includes formulation, application, monitoring and assessment of development policies (Mkhize, 2012; Moser, 2012; Crawley and O'Meara, 2002). The equal representation of gender in development intends to encourage and promote women's participation in development (Mkhize, 2012; Moser, 2012). Women have been at the centre of community and family well-being, including in development (Mkhize, 2012) and agriculture (Mikell, 1997) in Africa. Women empowerment and gender mainstreaming have a historical origin; for example, Wollstonecraft (1996) argued for women endeavour to acquire strength, both of mind and body, and to challenge the epithets of weakness attached to women. Women empowerment is rooted in self-realisation that they can bring about change with their skills, minds and bodies. Therefore, the promotion of women's participation in development initiatives and practices helps to sustain livelihoods of households and families, communities and nations. Todes, Sithole and Williamson (2010, p. 72) added that gender mainstreaming addresses poverty and promotes sustainability. It transforms unequal power relations and introduces gender redistributive change, policy and programmes. It opens new spaces for participation through decentralisation and direct engagement with women, giving them decision-making power. O'Neil and Domingo (2015, p. 3) pointed out that "too often, strategies

to support women's decision-making focus on institutions, structures or capabilities in isolation, with limited appreciation of the linkages between them".

Gender mainstreaming emphasises that women voices and skills must be heard and seen. In Zimbabwe, gender mainstreaming has achieved institutional and structural reforms with the formation of a distinct government department liable for women matters and gender. In support, Moser (2012) argued that gender mainstreaming must address gender imbalances in different sectors of the community. In addition, the process of gender mainstreaming is a practical aspect encouraging women involvement in development policy and practices. True (2003) posited that gender mainstreaming looks at different gender perspectives aiming at scrutinising and reinventing processes of policy formulation and implementation across institutional spheres and levels. The author maintained that gender mainstreaming also addresses and rectifies persistent and emerging disparities between men and women in development. True (2003, p. 370) further stated that mainstreaming of gender is viewed by way of a reference to the existence of gender differences that shape policy processes and outcomes, and hence can be seen as an attempt to remove institutional gender barriers. Gender mainstreaming is about treating men and women as equals in community development, despite their specific gender differences.

The Zimbabwean government, in conjunction with NGOs, has been viewed positively in terms of gender mainstreaming of women in rural communities (Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development, 2015). Following the country's example, many governments globally adopted and developed gender mainstreaming frameworks, and some have been implemented as policies for gender equality and women empowerment (Johnson, 2000). For example, the South African government developed the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) to include women's voices in development and this was implemented in certain communities such as Msinga, Hibiscus Coast and eThekweni with notable achievements (Todes et al., 2010). However, Johnson (2000) added that there are still gender barriers to mainstreaming gender across the globe, especially in Australia and Africa. Integrating women in development is seen as a major concern by a range of development agencies. Hines (2013) suggested that most development agencies in Africa need to integrate women in agriculture to be development drivers by harnessing their personal skills. For example, the Rwandan

community utilises women skills in the management of natural resources and development (East African Community Secretariat, 2011). Women are being empowered to use their skills to steer development, at the same time leading and participating in development. In my research study on communities, most NGOs mainstream gender and advocate for women empowerment. World Vision, for instance, is an international NGO working in many rural areas to support women in agriculture. It further provides them with farming and gardening inputs and funds, and ensures the sustainability of gender mainstreaming projects. World Vision works hand in hand with the Ministry of Women Affairs Gender and Community Development (MWAGCD) to monitor, fund and sustain community projects. Gender mainstreaming is important for successful and sustainable development in many developing countries in which women are now included as the drivers of change. Citing the example of Zimbabwe, women involved in gender mainstreaming and development projects (gardening, sport, bakery, poultry and lending and saving schemes) generate income and sustain livelihoods for their families and communities.

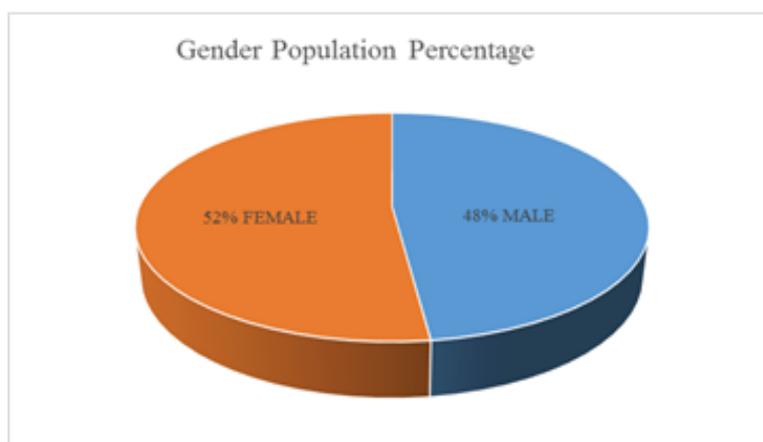
2.7 GENDER CONCERNS IN ZIMBABWE IN THE CONTEXT OF FOOD SECURITY

When the term ‘gender’ is used many people think that it is yet another discourse on women’s issues (Mgugu and Chimonyo, 2004). However, Gianettoni and Roux (2010) suggested that gender problems are similar to those of racism, in the same way that being white automatically meant being superior and being black meant being inferior. Although huge advancement has been made as of late by the administration, international partners, NGOs and civil society to advance gender equality in Zimbabwe through a wide scope of helpful interventions and regulation, large discrepancies still exist among people as far as access to wellbeing, education, active participation in the economy, cooperation in administration and basic leadership procedures, and access to legitimate protection against misuse and Gender-Based Violence (GBV). WHO (2005) affirmed that GBV has an adverse impact on both women and girls, who become survivors and experience immense physical damage as compared to men after being victimised. Khutsoane (2007, p. 13) has defined violence against women as “any act of violence that results in physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life”.

Nkoma (2013) revealed that there were few women in positions of power and decision-making in Zimbabwe due to the prevalence of traditional gender roles which assigned women to the domestic sphere and men to the workplace. Both rural and urban women are constrained by gender roles and their rate of participation in the public arena is low. With regard to rural women, most were farmers and their work was essential for assuring food security at the household level, with most women operating as unpaid family workers. The ZIMVAC (2012, p. 1) study shows that rural women are the unpaid farmers who work “16 to 18 hours a day, spending at least 49 percent of their time on agrarian activities and about 25 per cent on domestic activities”.

Nkoma (2013) added that most of the urban employed women lack the confidence to express their views in an environment where men have been the most dominant among the populace, and there is limited opportunity to expand their choices and gain access to and control of resources and institutions. Despite the vision of women empowerment, there were, and still are, gender issues that deny their full participation and engagement. Furthermore, women are still largely excluded and under-represented in the social, economic, political and governance spheres and processes of Zimbabwe. In the 2005 Human Development Report, Zimbabwe was ranked 111 out of 140 countries in terms of the Gender Development Indicator (GDI). Drivers of gender inequality include culture, religion, socialisation, statutory and common laws that still reflect patriarchal values, gender-based violence and limited women economic empowerment. According to the 2014 Labour Force Survey (LFS), the gender population percentage in Zimbabwe is 52 per cent female and 48 per cent male.

Figure 2.1: Gender population percentage in Zimbabwe



Source: Women and Land in Zimbabwe (2007)

The Zimbabwean government formulated the National Gender Policy (NGP) in 2004 and further developed this in 2013. This policy was initiated by the government to eradicate gender discrimination and inequalities in institutions of development through women empowerment (National Gender Policy, 2004). Thus, it aims at creating an enabling environment for women's and men's participation and contribution in building sustainable livelihoods and communities for developing the country. The National Gender Policy (2013, p. iv-v) mentioned that the first policy that was formulated to address gender inequalities through a range of initiatives was based on four thematic areas, namely: women in politics and decision-making, which was meant to empower women politically and assist them to be included in leadership and decision-making processes; women and the economy, was meant to foster women economic empowerment by means of employment and entrepreneurship; the education and training of women, geared to improve women's literacy and access to education, despite gender prejudices towards women; and institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women.

The above was formulated to mainstream gender in a multi-dimensional approach as recommended by the Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development. Cohen et al. (2013) argued that gender mainstreaming should be implemented in a multi-faceted approach so as to address gender disparity in various ways. This involves including gender parity in social, economic and political institutions of the society. The analysis and review of the eight years of implementation of the 2004 NGP in Zimbabwe indicated some notable achievements. According to the National Gender Policy (2013), a series of legislation has been passed to operationalise gender policy, institutional and structural reforms that saw the national gender machinery being streamlined and strengthened through the creation of a separate ministry responsible for gender and women affairs. There is the institutionalisation of processes for gender mainstreaming including gender budgeting. The policy also achieved the development and launch of a framework for broad-based women's economic empowerment and, finally, the constitutional provisions for gender equality and equity. Despite these achievements, however, representation and participation of women remains below the gender parity in education, employment, commerce and political and economic decision-making, and increasing cases of gender-based violence (National Gender Policy, 2013). The second National Gender Policy of 2013 sought to address the

shortcomings of the former policy and the emerging issues prevailing from political, economic and social changes at local, regional and global levels. To cite a regional example, “the 2008 Southern African Development Committee (SADC) Protocol on Gender and Development sets out 28 substantive targets for achieving gender equality by 2015, and so revision of the 2004 NGP was intended to incorporate these SADC targets” (National Gender Policy, 2013, p. 2).

The key developments at national level were to implement a Medium Term Plan (2012-2015), which was a national economic development strategy that introduced a development paradigm emphasising the importance of gender responsive budgets and gender mainstreaming into economic activities and committed to advancing equal participation in the productive sector (National Gender Policy, 2013). The 2011 Broad Based Women’s Economic Empowerment Framework (BBWEEF), a mechanism for women’s economic empowerment applicable across all sectors and levels of society, was also to be included in the new NGP edition (National Gender Policy, 2013). The NGP asserts that a gender-just society can only be achieved through including women in the economy; education and training of women; women in politics and decision-making; and strategies against gender-based violence. All these initiatives were to mainstream gender and include women in development. Among the concerns of this research was rural women’s response to these government efforts towards women’s empowerment and eradication of gender disparity in their communities.

2.7.1 Women and the Economy

The policy seeks to achieve economic empowerment of women, in which they have direct access and control over resources, and means and modes of production that contribute to national development. In terms of economic participation, women are still largely excluded from the mainstream economy. Amu (2005) mention that women perform 53 percent of all economic activity but their work is rendered invisible because it is not measured and is lowly paid. A UNICEF (1994, p. 47) report noted “that 90 per cent of women in Zimbabwe are farmers, informal sector workers and community organisers. In sectors such as mining, tourism, construction and manufacturing, entry barriers for women include lack of capital and lack of exposure as these sectors are dominated by men who control entry processes and resources”. The National Gender Policy (2004) states that women and men should have equivalent access to productive

resources, employment benefits and opportunities in trade and entrepreneurship, to achieve what can be termed 'womenomics' (National Gender Policy, 2013, p. 5). Correspondingly, in 2010 the Zambian government strengthened women economic empowerment through supporting women in agriculture and improving their small-scale farming (Gender-net, 2012). The community development projects are designed to economically empower women to improve their status and position in the country (Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development, 2015). Henceforth, women are being incorporated in economic empowerment through gender mainstreaming. Women economic empowerment is regarded as a tool for implementing a gender mainstreaming framework. Lehn (2009) argued that women economic empowerment is a backbone of gender mainstreaming as women gain economic power to support them in achieving social, political and other necessities of living.

2.7.2 Women Education and Training Inequality

It is generally assumed that women are regarded as less privileged in accessing education, and that attaining a higher level of education as a priority is mainly accorded to boys. Global statistics show that "millions of girls around the world are still being denied an education" (UNESCO, 2014, p. 1). Gender inequalities are intensified among the poor. "Poor girls face a significant schooling disadvantage in much of Africa and South Asia, a disadvantage that increases at lower incomes, as in Benin, the Democratic Republic of Congo, the Gambia and Togo" (Razavi, 2012, p. 74). Nziramasanga (1999, p. 173) mentioned that the Nziramasanga Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training in Zimbabwe that took place in 1999 presented its findings mentioning, among other things, that "gender difference continued at all levels of education". In relation to this study, Aribino (1996) explained that, soon after independence, most governments of developing countries reformed their education system to align them with national goals.

According to the National Gender Policy (2004, p. 3) report,

"as a follow-up, the Zimbabwean government launched the National Gender Policy in March 2004, the goal of which, inter alia, was to eliminate all negative economic, social and political policies, cultural and religious practices that impede equality and equity of sexes. One of the objectives of the policy was to promote equal chances for women and men in decision-making in all areas and all levels".

Nevertheless, in spite of these processes, there seems to be little impact in practice. For instance, in the education sector, there are far less women heads than men in primary schools around the country. At entry point to the primary level, there is an equal number of boys and girls. However, thereafter, female dropout from school at senior primary level and at university and college sees the male and female gap widen incrementally (Mataruse, 2011). Davies (1990, p. 61) attests that, “in many countries, matter about gender inequalities in education is attentive to student performance, predominantly in terms of under-achievement of girls, variances in access at different levels of schooling and failure rates in subjects taken, and these have conjured a range of clarifications and rules around gender gaps in educational outcomes”. FAWE (2004) noted that the government, based on these reports, recommended the removal of discriminatory laws and practices which hinder women’s development and their ability to participate in national life as equals. Factors that hinder or discourage women at workplaces continue to be examined and remedial measures sought. These factors include discriminatory hiring practices, wage disparities between men and women for the same work, low promotion prospects, and unsatisfactory maternity leave arrangements, among others.

The Zimbabwean National Gender Policy from 2004 to 2017 seeks to accord the right to education for all and gender parity in accessing education and training programmes till the highest level. Even though this is the aim of the policy, there is a low women outcome at tertiary education (National Gender Policy, 2013). ZIMVAC (2014) stated that in most rural communities of Zimbabwe, the majority of women are only completing secondary level and only 3 per cent are accessing tertiary education, compared to the much smaller number of men not accessing tertiary education. Similarly, Mocan and Cannonier (2012) found that in Sierra Leone, there is an increase in women education since 2002. From all these examples, one can see clearly the prevalence of gender disparity which gender mainstreaming framework is attempting to rectify.

2.7.3 Women in Politics and Decision-Making

Mainstreaming gender as a process also needs to integrate women in political positions and include gender in government through representation by and participation of women. Tesoriero (2010) argued that successful community development in poor and rural communities should ensure women empowerment in politics and decision-making

towards meeting community needs. The NGP, since 2004, has been crafting a supportive environment for gender policy in politics and decision-making positions (National Gender Policy, 2013). The Zimbabwean government strives for a 50:50 balance representation of women and men in public service institutions (National Gender Policy, 2013). There is some improvement in this sector since women are now endowed to partake in political leadership positions. This has resulted in 24 women in the Parliament of Zimbabwe's House of Assembly, 33 in Public Service Institutions and 20 Cabinet ministers (National Gender Policy, 2013). This is an illustration of successful gender mainstreaming enhancement in Zimbabwe. Even though women are being given decision-making and political power, the challenge that remained for me was to examine if all women are being similarly empowered to participate at local, grassroots and household level, or if barriers remain that hinder participation and representation of women in community development politics and decisions.

2.7.4 Gender-Based Violence

The National Gender Policy of 2013 stated that the government aims to reduce all forms of gender-based violence in schools, workplaces, homes and cultures through acting against it. The Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development (MWAGCD) set up the Anti-Domestic Violence Council in 2007 to enforce laws, increase awareness on gender-based violence and support victims of domestic violence (National Gender Policy, 2013). According to the United Nations (1993, p. 1), "gender-based violence is any act of violence that results in or is likely to result in physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to woman, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty whether occurring in public or private sphere". From this definition and my findings in the literature, it is clear there are still some forms of gender-based violence that hinder women in rural communities to participate in development projects. Whitzman (2008) stated that the forms of gender-based violence include arbitrary deprivation of liberty which denies women's access to participation outside the household sphere; psychological abuse through accusing wives of infidelity; and women's oppression through extending their feminine roles to masculine roles. Women in most rural communities have limited access to development initiatives and services due to some forms of gender-based violence (Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development, 2015). Crenshaw (1991) noted that the theory of intersectionality was birthed from an immense necessity to gain a

much deeper and more comprehensive understanding of the obstacles that black women are confronted by.

Practical examples of gender mainstreaming in some nations are based on addressing gender-based violence and enhancing women's participation. For instance, Razavi (2012) compiled a world report on gender equality and development and found that gender-based violence is denying women's access to education, economic empowerment and political power. Sida (2015, p. 1) emphasised that "gender equality is achieved when women and men, girls and boys, have equal rights, life prospects and opportunities, and the power to shape their own lives and contribute to society. Equality between the sexes is a question of a fair and equitable distribution of power, influence and resources in everyday life and in society as a whole. A gender-equal society safeguards and makes use of every individual's experiences, skills and competence". In addition, Razavi (2012) noted that some women in Tanzania were being abused by their intimate partners despite gender equality and awareness campaigns chronicled in the country. The domestic sphere is a sticky domain in mainstreaming gender despite ongoing efforts. The Zimbabwean NGP seeks to eliminate these forms of gender-based violence so as to enhance women participation in development (National Gender Policy, 2004). The policy also explored the degree to which gender-based violence disturbs women's participation in community development projects.

2.8 GENDER ROLE IN FOOD PRODUCTION

In consulting gender and development literature, scholars and NGOs such as Young (2016), Moser (2012), Moghadam et al. (2011), Momsen (2009) and the World Bank (1990) clearly show that women have not benefited much from development initiatives either at the global, national or local level. Backdating to the 80s Brydon and Chant (1989) explored the roles of women as wives and mothers within the plight of women. Kent and MacRae (2010, p. 387) further observed that women were involved in both agricultural food production and reproductive work, resulting in increased workloads compared to men. The various gender development programmes have this far proven not to be very effective, with the conclusion that they have neither improved nor added value to women's productive and reproductive activities, based on evidence of the majority of women still being poor and earning low incomes (World Bank, 1990). Agarwal (2012) concurred with this and pointed out there has been male-bias and

gender-blindness in the global food economy which has undermined women's roles in land use, manufacturing, dispensation, delivery, market access, investment, trade, price volatility and food availability.

Agarwal (2012) revealed that agriculture in the current global economy contributes less than 10 per cent of the GDP of most countries. Regardless of its contribution, agriculture continues to be a major source of livelihoods and employment for many people. This tallies with Smith's (1776, p. 140) observation that "when by the improvement and cultivation of land and labour one family can provide food for two; the labour of half the society becomes sufficient to provide food for the whole". The other half, therefore, or at least the greater part of them, can be employed in providing other things, or in satisfying the other wants and fancies of humankind. FAO (2011) pointed out that women in developing countries constitute an estimated 43 per cent of the agricultural labour force, with the percentage in Sub-Saharan African countries climbing as high as 80 per cent. It is against this background that IFAD (2009, p. 1) stated that "food production attributable to women makes them the principal agents of food security and household welfare in rural areas".

It is evident that women are, for the most part, the ones in charge of food production that benefits local consumption, including subsistence crops such as vegetables, on smaller plots and even more marginal lands. Agarwal (2012) asserted that there are certain crops identified as men's or women's crops, with men tending to produce more cash crops. However, gender roles do vary, as do tasks, thus in practice the role divisions might be blurred. An example would be that of men having to help in land preparation for the women's crop-growing. Similarly, women might be involved in weeding crops which the men had grown. Although these roles are not always clear-cut, what is clear is that women's access to capital and resources, as well as their decisions about what they grow, is limited (Guendel, 2009). Guendel (2009) also revealed that a study in rural Kenya identified men as responsible for the building of the granary, while women were responsible for hand digging, harvesting and transporting the crops to the granary. Similarly in Ghana, women farmers cultivate maize which is traditionally known as a man's crop, because yams and cassava require less external inputs and are cheaper to grow, as compared to maize (Agarwal, 2012). FAO (2017) has maintained that although the Zimbabwean government acknowledges women's food production

role, not much has been documented on the gender dynamics in crop production. Table 2.3 shows the crop yield per hectare by gender as reported by ZIMSTAT (2013), which demonstrates that women and men are in close competitive in terms of yields.

Table 2.3: Crops yield per hectare by gender

CROP	YIELD PER HECTARE	
	MALE	FEMALE
Maize	907	753
Millet	220	219
Rapoko	380	326
Rice	487	567

Source: ZIMSTAT (2013, p. 5)

2.8.1 Gendered Production Constraints

Yunindyawati, Sumarti, Adiwibowo, Vitayala and Hardinsyah (2014) have shown that women can be an asset in development, considering their fewer numbers compared with men. Moussa (2011) has described how the UN has predicted that women domestic food production in Africa would stand at 80 per cent, Latin America would be 40 per cent, and 60 per cent in the Asian Pacific. Despite the important contribution that women often make, they do not get any form of credit for much of their farming labour, which includes weeding and harvesting processing as well as food preparation. This fact is echoed by Lahiri-Dutt (2015) who pointed out that although women have a crucial role to play in making a contribution to the society, they face obstacles of having limited access to the key resources, minimal decision powers on resource allocation and use, and limited benefits derived from these resources. In addition, women often find employment on commercial farms as paid labourers. Spieldoch (2007) pointed out that women's work on commercial farms tends to be more underpaid and precarious than the work done by men. Furthermore, he asserted that women experience all forms of sexual discrimination and violence in their work environment, and women's contributions are hardly counted in areas such as livestock production and agro-forestry. This is further emphasised by FAO (2011), mentioning that to date, female farmers continue to be left out of modern contract-farming arrangements. This is against the background of lacking land rights and other resources required to guarantee a delivery flow of produce reliably.

Women are also understood as being uninformed and without power, leaving them at the bottom of the value chain. This prevents them from taking on more prominent roles such as that of buyers and sellers. Contract farming has in some cases resulted in conflicts based on whether or not land should be used for cash crops or food crops, and this has had a severe adverse impact on women. Another key constraint that women experience, as mentioned by Spieldoch (2007), is lack of control over land, considering that most titles to land are in the name of men, and that even where laws exist they are ignored and gendered social norms prevail. This is evident by the figures that show women owning less than 20 per cent of agricultural land worldwide (Spieldoch, 2007). Women who find themselves without land rights have minimal power as to whether or not land should be used for subsistence food production purposes. Considering that women also lack inheritance rights, they become much more vulnerable on the death of their husbands. FAO (2009) has emphasised the point stating that women do not only not possess legal rights, they also lack customary rights. The lack of both legal rights and customary rights is fully supported by traditional systems, which maintain norms, customs and values that give privileges to men.

2.9 GENDERED PERSPECTIVE AND DYNAMICS AROUND LAND RIGHTS

Numerous scholars such as Johnson et al. (2016); Quisumbing et al. (2015); and Meinzen-Dick et al. (2011, p. 6) have noted that “rights over land and other natural resources play a fundamental role in human society. The distribution of wealth and poverty is a reflection of underlying property rights. But reforming property rights to give poor women and men greater access to and greater control over resources is not an easy task”. This brief section explains why property rights are essential for reduction in poverty, defines the challenges faced in trying to reinforce the property rights of poor societies, and recognises probable policies for disabling these challenges. Firstly it’s important to note that land is a critical asset for the poor people in rural areas. It offers a means of livelihood through the consumption and sale of crops and other products, and in many cases, it can serve as collateral for credit or be exchanged for capital to start up another income-generating activity. Von Braun, Hill and Pandya-Lorch (2009, p. 229) mention that “the long-term security of land tenure provides an incentive to invest in production and conservation technologies that can improve crop yields and facilitate more sustainable use of land and other natural resources. People will not make such long-term investments, however, unless they have the right to plant, harvest and benefit

from those investments factors linked with rights to the land. Even within the household, if women or young people do not have land rights, they cannot make such investments”. Therefore, property rights are a tool to promote environmentally thorough management, which in turn can help to sustain the benefits from natural resources as illustrated in Table 2.4.

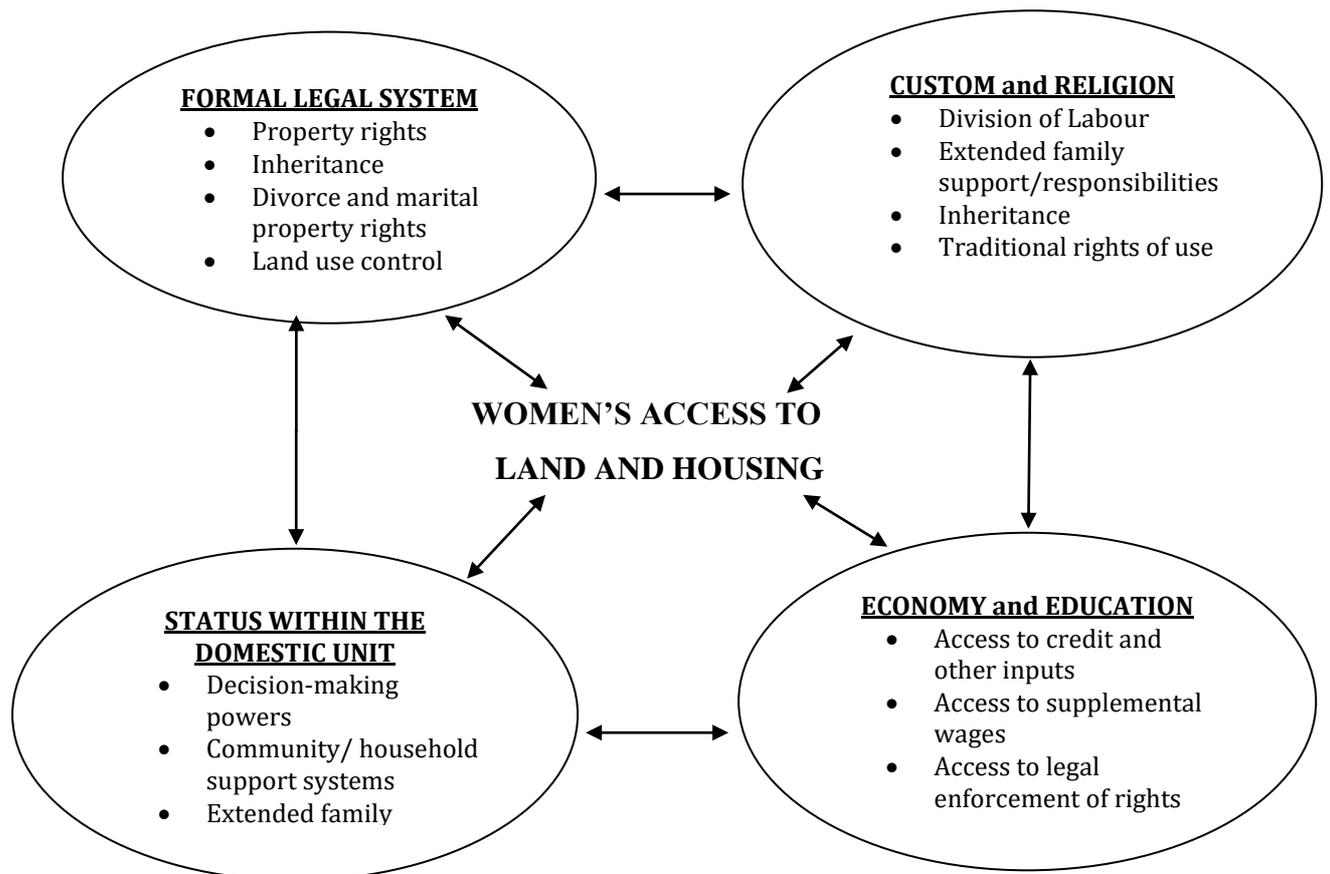
Table 2.4: Multiple Functions of Land Rights

Functions	Examples
Economic Functions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Industrious activities (farming, livestock rearing) • Sales of land and leasing • Benefits from land increased value • Stock incentive properties
Food security	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food source and income • Defence against sudden price hikes
Reduced vulnerability/ Shock mitigation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food source and occupation • Surety for credit • land sales income and rentals
Social roles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social standing/bargaining position within the household, community and nation • Participation in groups • Cultural uniqueness • Spiritual roles
Conversation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Power to make choices • Incentives for sustainable management

Source: Meinzen-Dick et al. (2009, p. 2)

The gendered discourses around land access, possession and control of land in the pre-colonial, colonial and post-colonial period have been controversial and still continue to be controversial. Thus, there is a need to understand the historical accounts in order to comprehend the gender dimension complications that are present. Tshuma (1998) pointed out that the gendered patterns of land ownership during the European Colonial Period of 1890 to 1980 did not only involve land alienation issues but also involved the restructuring of customary land tenure systems for indigenous people. It is also worth noting that patriarchy in many African countries, including Zimbabwe, has also contributed to women’s limited access to land. Bonthuys and Albertyn (2007) asserted that the patriarchy concept was used to describe a system whereby men, in the capacity of household heads held political power. Therefore, women became subordinate to men who dominated in all spheres of life (Thobejane and Murisa, 2015).

Figure 2.2: Institutions affecting women access to land rights



Source: FAO (2002b, p. 10)

FAO (2006, p. 3) mentions that “women’s access to land (one of the most important productive assets for women considering that an estimated 65 percent of women derive their livelihood from agriculture) is limited, with average arable land holdings for male-headed households being 2.73 hectares compared to that of female-headed households standing at 1.86 hectares”. At the conclusion of the Land Reform Programme, only 18 per cent of beneficiaries under the A1 model (peasant farmers) were female-headed households while under the A2 model (commercial farmers), they constituted only 12 per cent. Although the majority of labourers in the agricultural sector are women, only 20 per cent are practising farming as landowners, since the majority are men. Other constraints faced by women in this sector include limited access to credit due to lack of collateral security; lack of sustainable markets; and limited security of tenure resulting from discriminatory customary laws (UNIFEM, 2000).

2.9.1 Global context land reform

Among material resources, the greatest, unquestionably, is the land. Study how a society uses its land, and you can come to pretty reliable conclusions as to what its future will be. (Schumacher, 1973, p. 84)

Looking at the way in which land and property around the world is governed, used and owned, it is evident that different countries or nations have their own unique administrative ways. These ways are highly influenced by the country's particular socio-cultural, economic and geographic history. Over the past years, the conjunction that has been experienced between global crises in food, politics, finance, energy and the environment has driven an intense redefinition of land ownership (Borras Jr and Franco, 2012). This has seen influential international and national economic actors, from corporations to national governments and private entities, having to search for 'vacant' land, often in distant countries, that can serve as places for acquiring fuel and food production in the event of future price hikes. Land has both inherent value and social and political influence, and the struggle for acquiring land also continues to be a global phenomenon. This was confirmed by Harvey (2004) who stated that the global history of land reform has been conducted, without much of a violent struggle, between those that own land and those who do not. Moyo and Chambati (2013) maintained that results from land reform programme studies that have been conducted present a mixed view, with a number pointing out positive outcomes while others outline the devastating effects that the programme has caused on people's livelihood and food security, especially that of the rural population. Furthermore, Ghatak and Roy (2007) asserted that political, economic and social reasons are often used as a basis for justifying the need for land redistribution from the affluent to poor people. Therefore, countries with a history of social injustice with regard to land ownership would politically justify land redistribution reform. This is also in line with Dorner and Reform's (1972) point which presupposes that global land reform is a purposive change of the way in which agricultural land is possessed in favour of the landless peasants and small farmers.

2.9.2 Southern African land reform

Although conditions might vary considerably from one country to another, a common context can be identified for the politics of land around the Southern African region. An

example of this commonality is the shared history of countries within the SADC region of colonialism and the accompanying displacement and impoverishment of the rural population. Lahiff (2003) postulated that the Southern African region offers a wide range of land policies that embrace numerous forms of redistribution and tenure reform. In addition, these reforms range from consensual redistribution, forcible seizure to a market-based approach. It is worth noting that the longstanding significance of land reform within Southern Africa was mainly to address racial inequalities around the distribution of land. Lahiff (2003) pointed out that Southern Africa has experienced severe racial inequalities in a context of land holding and land struggles in the eyes of the international community. Moyo (2007) believed that Southern African land issue resolution is key for economic, political and environmental well-being. He pointed out that the capital accumulation from the colonial legacy within the region is founded on unequal access to farming resources and infrastructure, and unequal landownership triggers perpetual regional conflicts over land (Moyo, 2007).

Table 2.5: Southern Africa land reform profile

Country	Type of Reform	Type of Problem	Length of Reform	Source of Reform	Type of Land Acquisition	Role of State
Zimbabwe	Redistribution	Settler alienation, Black capitalist	18 years	Political pressure/ Squatting	State market purchases and state compulsory purchases	State driven
Namibia	Redistribution	Settler alienation	9 years	Political pressure/ Squatting	State market purchases	State driven
South Africa	Redistribution/ Restitution	Settler alienation	4 years	Political pressure/ Squatting	State compensation for restitution; state grants	State and community
Mozambique	Redistribution/ Tenure	Settler/State alienation	5 years	Post-war Crisis	Expropriation	-

Source: Moyo (2005, p. 19)

2.9.3 Zimbabwe Land Reform

Although the land reform issue was initiated at the Lancaster House Conference, early September 1979, its momentum was mostly experienced in the 1990s, making it the mantra of the era. Central to the Zimbabwe land issue was addressing the social ills from the colonial era. Moyo (2000) pointed out that the main priorities soon after Zimbabwe's independence were to promote economic efficiency, reverse land alienation, and promote equity by means of distributing land equally. However, what stands out when looking at the Zimbabwe land reform programme is how much it has contributed to the Zimbabwean crisis, given the many divergent views around the land reform process (Scoones et al., 2010; Sachikonye, 2003; Thomas, 2003; Chitiyo, 2000). These divergent views include the motivation behind the process; what transpired; and the beneficiaries of the process. This is confirmed by Scoones et al. (2010) who mentioned that there are many misconceptions around Zimbabwe's land reform programme. Musemwa (2011) maintained that the driving force to the land redistribution revolved around issues of political consideration and equity. Furthermore, Scoones et al. (2010) and Chitiyo (2000) asserted that the land reform programme came about as a result of fulfilling the promise made during the liberation struggle as well as the desire to redistribute land to the landless majority, given the racially skewed land distribution. This skewed distribution witnessed many people living on peripheral lands not favourable for agriculture. Moyo (2000) emphasised that this unequal access to prime land in Zimbabwe was a catalyst for worsening the land question.

Scoones et al. (2010) attested that the land reform strategy also sought to reduce the number of women without land ownership and improve people's livelihoods, hence bringing about some form of development balance in the country. Numerous changes have been witnessed in the Zimbabwe land reform programme, from the implementation of the programme to the land acquisition approach, selection of beneficiaries, and resettlement model types, to mention but a few. This, according to Chitsike (2003), resulted in the land reform programme in Zimbabwe attracting serious international attention, due to the unprecedented approach that was taken by the Zimbabwean government to address the issue. There has been a mixed reaction from the world towards the programme: on the one hand, the world's marginalised communities have shown admiration for the assumed bold and brave move that was taken by the government of Zimbabwe to redress the land ills. On the other hand, there has been

condemnation from some in the international community, choosing to sympathise with those perceived to be at the losing end of the exercise. Despite the bad press that the land reform process attracted, some feel that Zimbabwe has to move forward with the new agrarian structure without ignoring some form of balance appraisal.

Characterised as orderly, though snail-paced, the first phase of the Land Reform and Resettlement Program (LRRP), according to Zuwarimwe (1999), was focused on provisions around socio-economic services as well as infrastructural development in rural areas, due to the adverse impact that the war of liberation had brought about in various areas. The land reform programme was guided by the 1979 Lancaster House Agreement,¹¹ which stated that redistribution of land in Zimbabwe should begin ten years after independence. This move was viewed as a vehicle for ensuring peace and stability by the government. Masiwa and Chipungu (2004) further pointed out that the move was also intended to address equity issues with the long-term effect of alleviating women among people in rural areas. However, in as much as the first phase land reform was well planned, it had its shortcomings and failed to achieve the set goals. Much of the blame has been placed on the government for failing to pursue land redistribution plans for solving the land imbalance that existed, although a considerable amount of land was available (Masiwa and Chipungu, 2004). This was further elaborated by Moyo (2000) who noted that the first phase failed to meet its target and that only 70 000 families managed to be settled on at least 3 million hectares of land. This is as a result of the market-based approach which, according to Khan (2007), meant that under-utilised land would be offered for purchase by those willing to sell.

Zimbabwe's second phase land reform and resettlement programme came into play during the time when the government was struggling with numerous negative developments. These included the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP), which had a negative effect on the economy and general populace. This was after the International Donor Conference on Land Reform and Resettlement¹² in 1998, which saw the drafting of the Inception Phase Framework Plan (IPFP) that served as a

¹¹ The Lancaster House Agreement was negotiated between Zimbabwe and Britain, with Lord Carrington as the Chairman and the Zimbabwean delegation comprising Robert Mugabe, Bishop Abel Muzorewa and Joshua Nkomo. The negotiation covered the ceasefire, pre-independence arrangements and Zimbabwe's new constitution.

¹² This was a conference that was summoned by the Zimbabwean government from 9-11 September 1998 aimed at informing donors on land reform and resettlement issues and with the purpose of mobilising support for the Land Reform and Resettlement Programme.

guide to the second phase land redistribution and resettlement programme (Bowyer-Bower and Stoneman, 2000). Masiwa and Chipungu (2004) further noted that it was also during this time that there was a rise of new political parties, which forced the government to reconsider resuscitating the resettlement programme which had slowed down. This led to the formation of the National Land Acquisition Committee that identified and listed farms to be acquired. According to Bowyer-Bower and Stoneman (2000), 118 farms were offered in phase two land reform for compulsory acquisition, with an additional 1 million hectares meant for the inception phase. However, the government continued to experience financial hurdles with the land reform programme (Gaidzanwa, 2011; Scoones and Thompson, 2011). This was despite Robert Mugabe's argument (then President of Zimbabwe) that the former colonial government was obliged to pay farmers compensation as part of the agreement to the process (Bowyer-Bower and Stoneman, 2000). Thomas (2003) pointed out that this did not materialise, given change that saw Britain under the leadership of Tony Blair changing its policies and declining to support Zimbabwe's land reform programme financially. This, in turn, propelled the Zimbabwean government to take up a more radical approach to address the land redistribution (Human Rights Watch, 2002). After a constitutional referendum was held in February 2000 and the draft constitution was rejected, war veterans and landless villagers were angered and started a wave of commercial farm invasions, marking the beginning of Zimbabwe's crisis (Masiwa, 2004).

The Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP), also popularly known as the 'Third Chimurenga', commenced after the Constitutional Amendment in the year 2000. According to Southall (2013, p. 71), "the land reform intended to claim the historical continuities of primary resistance against colonialism in the 1890s (the First Chimurenga), and the war for liberation of the 1960s and 1970s (the Second Chimurenga)". Evidently, the land acquisition targeted two social groups: whites and those sympathetic to the MDC. Meanwhile, the state no longer took the position of evicting squatters, but rather sanctioned the use of violence and mobilised (indirectly and directly) war veterans to carry out its FTLRP policies. FTLRP was implemented without any legal backing, nor was it a part of any official national plan or strategy. Initial land occupations were wrought with confusion, misinformation and misunderstandings. As events began, government support was largely improvised. Under FTLRP, war veterans, with a degree of some state support, mobilised rural land

dwellers and led land occupations of predominantly white-owned commercial farms. McCandless (2012, p. 121) while interviewing war veterans found that “the decisions to occupy commercial farms were made on the basis of political criteria such as land belonging to core Rhodesians, anti-ZANU PF or pro-MDC”. On the other hand, Marongwe (2003, p. 166); Moyo and Yeros (2015, p. 190) noted that “while occupations focused on white farms and black elite-owned farms, NGO land, as well as peri-urban land, were occupied too. Invasions were initially peaceful, but by March, overt conflict erupted as invasions had become exceptionally violent”. The Zimbabwean government acquired land compulsorily without any form of compensation. The period saw increased violent conflict that culminated in the signing of the Global Political Agreement (GPA) that sought to bring about a lasting solution to the imminent collapse of the economy by bringing together the country's major political parties. Masiwa (2004) further emphasised that the fast-track resettlement programme was characterised by the substantive failure of the first phase and the mounting pressure from the people for land, and this led the government to legitimise violent farm invasions. Thomas (2003) noted that the speedy resettlement programme was undertaken given the failure by international donors and the British government to make available the promised financial support for land acquisition. This placed the onus on the British government to provide compensation as per agreement at the Lancaster House Agreement (Human Rights Watch, 2002).

Gaidzanwa (2014) stated that the FTLRP resulted in shifts with regard to landholding based on class, race and, to a lesser extent, gender. This was based on the view that the FTLRP in Zimbabwe was targeted towards racial parity issues rather than gender equity, because of it being the most pressing political and socio-economic issue at the time. However, emerging research by Hanlon, Manjengwa and Smart (2013), Matondi (2012) and Scoones et al. (2010) on issues of land policy continued to try and demonstrate that the FTLRP was not a complete failure as purported by some. This flies against the argument that the GPA enabled the introduction of new forms of land ownership, and that during the transitional period, there was a radical alteration of the country's political economy and how the Zimbabwean people relate to one another and to land.

2.10 WOMEN AND LAND ACCESS SITUATION IN ZIMBABWE

According to Baiphethi and Jacobs (2009), both men and women in most African countries rely on subsistence farming and some women financially rely on selling farm produce. This means that failure to secure a piece of land leads to being unable to meet their own nutritional needs, while that of their families is severely compromised too. FAO (2010) further suggested that women's access to land is critical in order to fight against hunger and women in developing countries. Regardless of level of development, gender disparities with regard to land access continue to be of significance in many countries. Although Zimbabwe's main goal for land reform has been to reallocate land to the black majority, not every black person has been afforded a piece of land.

Gaidzanwa (2011, p. 2) noted that most discussions concerning land issues have paid little attention to the issues around internal social stratification of the colonised people, in respect to land entitlement. In addition, Gaidzanwa (1995) pointed out that the equity of access that cuts across gender lines, age and social class differentiation has been regarded as unimportant. "Issues concerned with the efficiency of land-use, commercial viability, and the effects of tenure on productivity have been given much-needed attention. Although land reform in Zimbabwe aimed at redistributing land to the black majority people of Zimbabwe, the number of women beneficiaries in comparison to men has been low" (Ruswa, 2007; Utete, 2003, p. 35; Gaidzanwa, 1991). The World Bank (2008) mentioned that the composition disparity in relation to beneficiaries in Zimbabwe's land reform process is as a result of the policy-makers who continue to promote productivity while targeting men. This is in contradiction of the fact that women have generally been responsible for the everyday job of domestic labour, household upkeep and food security. Gaidzanwa (2004, p. 2) pointed out that "this bias also overlooked the presence of over 35 per cent women-headed and women-managed households that would need to benefit from the programme".

Table 2.6: Ownership of Agricultural Land by Gender

Agricultural Land	Landowner Gender		Total
	Male	Female	
Large Scale	638	118	756
Small Scale	16 431	2 722	19 153
A1	104 247	27 650	131 897
A2	16 380	1 874	18 254
Communal	593 907	435 025	1 028 932
Old Resettlement Farms	67 070	31 839	98 909
Total	798 673	499 228	1 297 901

Source: Agriculture and Livestock Survey, 2014

The unemployed, landless families, poor families with dependants between the ages of 18 and 55 years and the returning refugees were the main targeted group of people for the first phase land reform and resettlement programme (Masiwa, 2004, p. 2; Gaidzanwa, 1981). This is against the understanding that the rural poor were dependent upon government subsidies as a means to acquire inputs for their operations (Gaidzanwa, 2011). However, the inputs subsidised by the government were inaccessible because of the government department's bureaucratic processes. According to Gaidzanwa (2011), this prompted the majority of the resettled farmers to go back to their rural homes so as to practise subsistence farming for themselves. Unavoidably, this meant that if the men, who are better positioned within patriarchy, had surrendered the resettlement areas, women who had joined them into resettlement also surrendered their land. Thus, only men could negotiate their way within the government departments' bureaucratic processes.

2.11 CONCLUSION

Identified in the chapter is a deeper understanding that food is a basic need that is vital for the continued existence of human beings. With the intention of moving to a more sustainable urban standard, cities can no longer rely on food production that increase in distance from the city centres as the city populace grows. Alarming, the current era can be considered the hardest affected with food security concerns, given that there are more people who continue to suffer from chronic hunger conditions. This is due to

numerous political and economic factors that affect not only Zimbabwe but the globe as a whole. To address these issues, Howe and Wheeler (1999) stressed the capability of urban farming expressing that urban food growing gives an incredible vehicle to help development towards increasingly maintainable examples of urban living. The linkages among strife and food security were increasingly more obvious in the post-Cold War period, and were a theme of concern to peace and food security. Despite the fact that, Zimbabwe's land reform programme achieved its goal of redistributing area to the black people, the composition of the recipient populace was one-sided with respect to gender. In this way, there is a continuous need to create land reform strategies and tenurial structures that secure access to land and power over the land they are given. This suggests governments must recognise and advance the land privileges with everything being equal, regardless of whether wedded, separated, bereaved or single, and encourage women support in the structure of occupation frameworks, in recognition of the fact that women's labour is a major contributor to agriculture and food security and hence their land rights matter for development. Grigsby (2004, p. 208) defined tenure as "a bundle of rights and in this context the right to land and the resources it can produce". This chapter has emphasised that food security is linked to accessibility and affordability while demonstrating that political commitment and policy are key components to achieving urban food security. As poverty continues to increase in developing cities, so will the number of urban residents seeking survival strategies, particularly women who often hold domestic responsibilities. As women in developing cities turn to urban agriculture for subsistence and financial means, capacity-building and training become ever more important to their success.

CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

To transform specific explanations into general theoretical terms, the researcher's theoretical framework must be broad enough to capture the major elements of the historical context. That is, the set of independent and intervening variables must be adequate to capture and record the essentials of a causal account of the outcome in the case. (Bennet and George, 2005, p. 92-93)

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter of the research discusses the theoretical framework and methodology used by the study. In addition, the chapter presents the study approach, design, data collection techniques as well as the research instruments used, the sampling method and the data analysis techniques. The study focuses on the gendered plight of food insecurity in a political and economic crisis situation. The backdrop of the challenges that come as a result of political and economic challenges (even outside the context of Zimbabwe) posed a considerable challenge to the research. However, the research aim was on investigating the intersections between gender and food insecurity in a political and economic crisis environment and to consider how this might ignite a conflict as narrated by CSOs and NGOs. This chapter discusses the theoretical framework research methods and the chosen methodology. As discussed in the research background and literature review, it is evident that being poor and food insecurity often have been undesirably lop-sided on women, based on the dominant socio-cultural norms that bring about gender labour divisions at community level and among families. Therefore, the distribution of responsibilities and rights between men and women during a time that considers work or responsibility as appropriate for either gender aims to prevent inequality. In addition, it is important to make use of theories that can assist with this. This was emphasised by Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler (2011, p. 36) as well as Verma and Malick (1999, p. 6) who claimed that theories play the role of guiding the researcher as they conduct research. This help usually comes in the form of explaining and describing the relationship between human behavioural patterns and factors that affect and explain the behaviour. The chapter is made up of two main divisions. The first division looks at theories that inform the research and the second division focuses on the research methodology.

3.2 THEORIES UPON WHICH THE STUDY WAS CONSTRUCTED

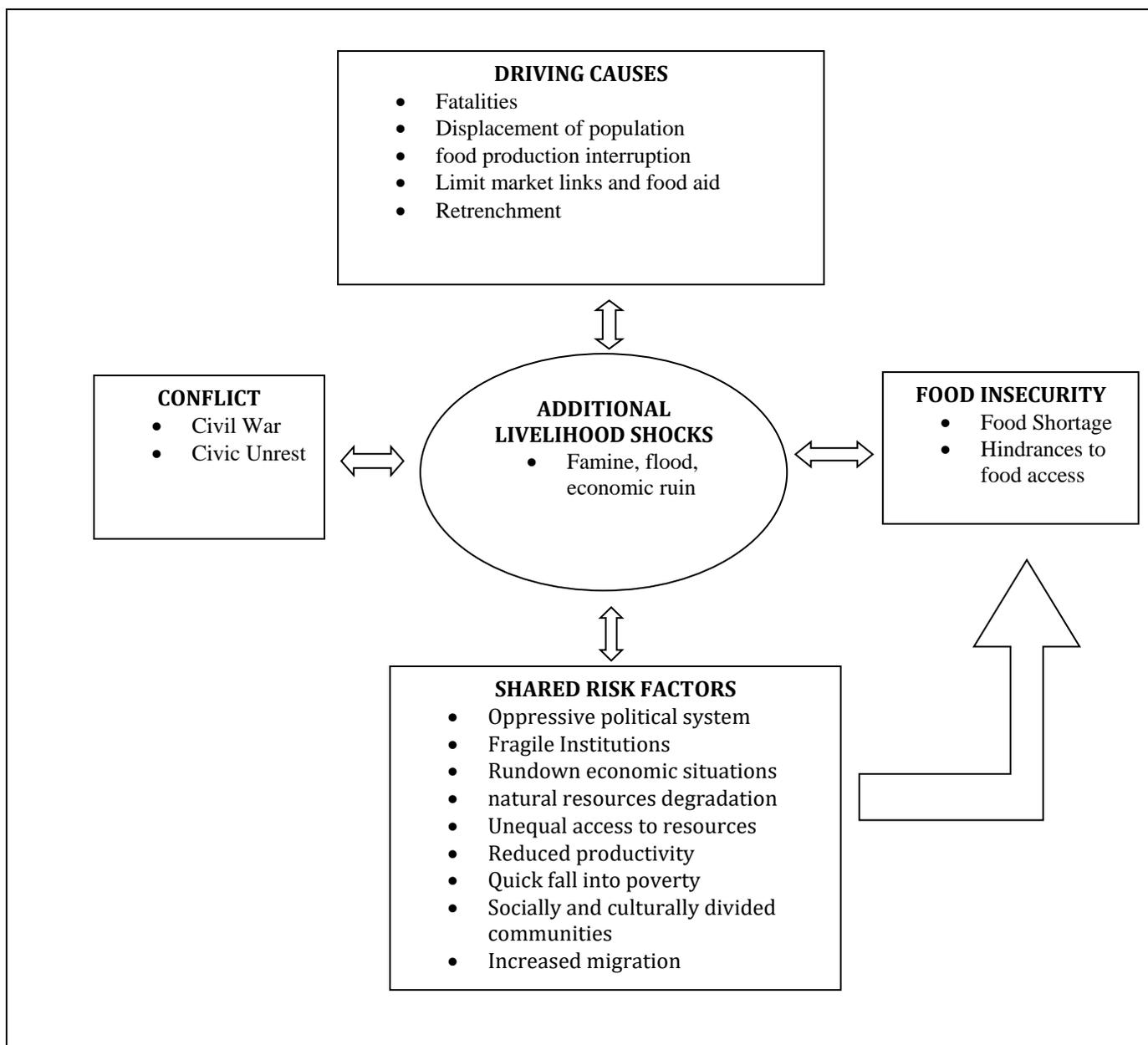
The theoretical framework used for data analysis in this research is based on systems theory, theory of protracted social conflict, as well as Rawls' theory of justice. According to Leedy and Ormod (2005, p. 4), a theory is ... an organised group of notions and philosophies meant to clarify a particular occurrence. This was also emphasised by Marczyk, Dematteo and Festinger (2005, p. 31) who posited that a theory is the conceptualisation of an occurrence that seeks to integrate all that we know about the phenomenon into a concise statement or question. The research uses more than one theory because different variables can be better understood using different theoretical foundations. This is supported by Tavallaei and Talib (2010) who maintained that the relationship among concepts, constructs and propositions components of a theory is significant if one is to understand a particular theory. However, while comparing social sciences and natural sciences it worth noting that social sciences have more competing theories as a result of the phenomenon that allows for multiple perspectives.

3.2.1 Systems Theory

Systems theory is one key theoretic position that focuses much on the practice of public relations (Gregory, 2000). Given the systems theory's relevance to the research, it was used in the study. Jay Forrester is the man behind the systems theory school of thought aimed at analysing and comprehending procedures that prove to be multifaceted. According Meadows (2008, p. 188) a system can be best understood as "an element or parts set coherently organised and interconnected in a pattern of structure that produces a characteristic set of behaviours, often classified as its purpose or function". However, naturally altering the components (the most noticeable system component) will have less consequences on changing the system's state. Therefore, there is much impact when interconnections are altered (Meadows, 2008, p. 11). As a platform for the study of human behaviour, it is useful to apply systems theory to a study such as this one. Systems theory, with regard to this research, seeks to understand how gender, food insecurity, violence, and the economic and political crisis, although relatively independent, are connected. Meadows, (1999, p. 4) attested that whether it is specified or not specified, each system has an objective. However, the variance of the existing position against that of the systems goal can be viewed as an inconsistency. Therefore, with time Meadows (2008, p. 187) mentioned systems lean towards producing limited

reasonableness, which creates system behaviour logic, but not sound in a broader perspective. As such, the effect adds to the entire challenge of altering deep-seated system processes and behaviour. Ackoff (1971, p. 662) supported this thought by stating that “a system is a set of two or more interrelated elements with properties such that each element has an effect on the functioning of the whole, and that each element is affected by at least one other element in the system”. This theory guided the research by highlighting the connection between the various variables.

Figure 3.1: Violent conflict and food security interface



Source: FAO (2002a, p. 23)

3.2.2 Theory of Protracted Social Conflict (PSC)

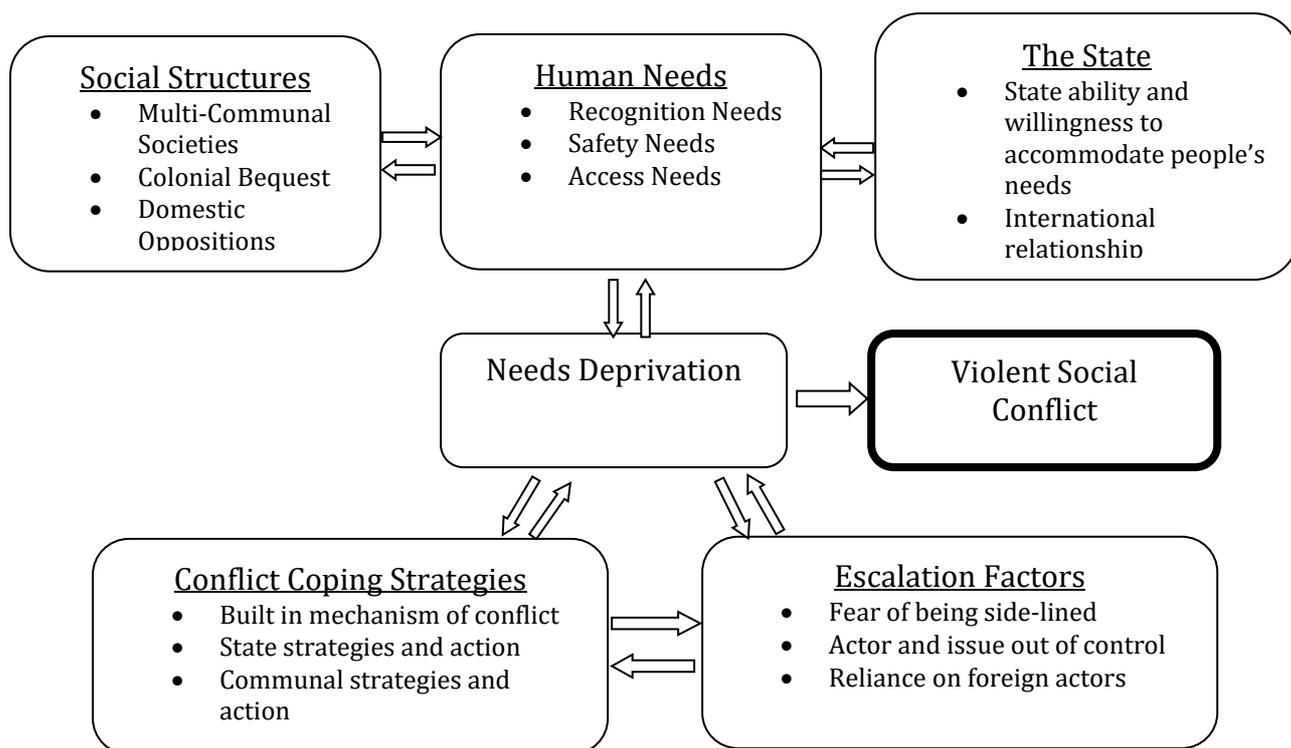
The research also made use of the theory of Protracted Social Conflict (PSC), with the basic attention that suggest that the occurrence of social conflicts are as a result of shared personality being an obstacle in ensuring that basic needs are met in different societies. According to Azar (1990, p. 93), a Protracted Social Conflict is “the prolonged and often violent struggle by communal groups for such basic needs as security, recognition and acceptance, fair access to political institutions and economic participation”. In addition, Azar (1990) indicated that colonial bequests, multi-communal environments and local historical settings play a part in the formulation of social conflicts. In addition, it is argued that conflicts occur because of different aspects such as the deprivation of human needs and poorly functioning countries (Messer, 2009; Patel and McMichael, 2009). This is against the background that the preconditions of protracted social conflict in this case around access to the resource that ensures food security, focuses on four major variables, namely human needs deprivation, communal identity, international connections, and the role of the government.

Given that needs satisfiers are often natural resources, Azar (1990, p. 9) proposed that “numerous ethnic groups, class-based groups, racial groups and religious groups uphold their specific range of necessities exclusive to them, and the groups will express grievances if deprived of the needs”. In terms of communal identity, the relationships between community groups and the government are key in protracted social conflicts, mainly when the government is controlled by a societal group that is indifferent about other people’s needs within society (Azar, 1990, p. 7). It is evident that in Zimbabwe, given the relationships between the government and other individual groups, which is mainly formed by unequal state power access and the county’s colonial history. In term of international connections, it is alluded that “the role and efficiency of a country’s capability to deal with its internal affairs is mutually dependent on networks with other countries” (Migdal, 1988, p. 21).

Therefore, in relation to the study, it is evident that access to land continues to have major historical and cultural significance and as such, this has become a source of contestation and conflict (Bob, 2010, p. 49). Furthermore, there is much focus on the fragility of women, and the politically controlling government that are not able to meet the basic human needs and consequently have led to an economic crisis. The aims are to

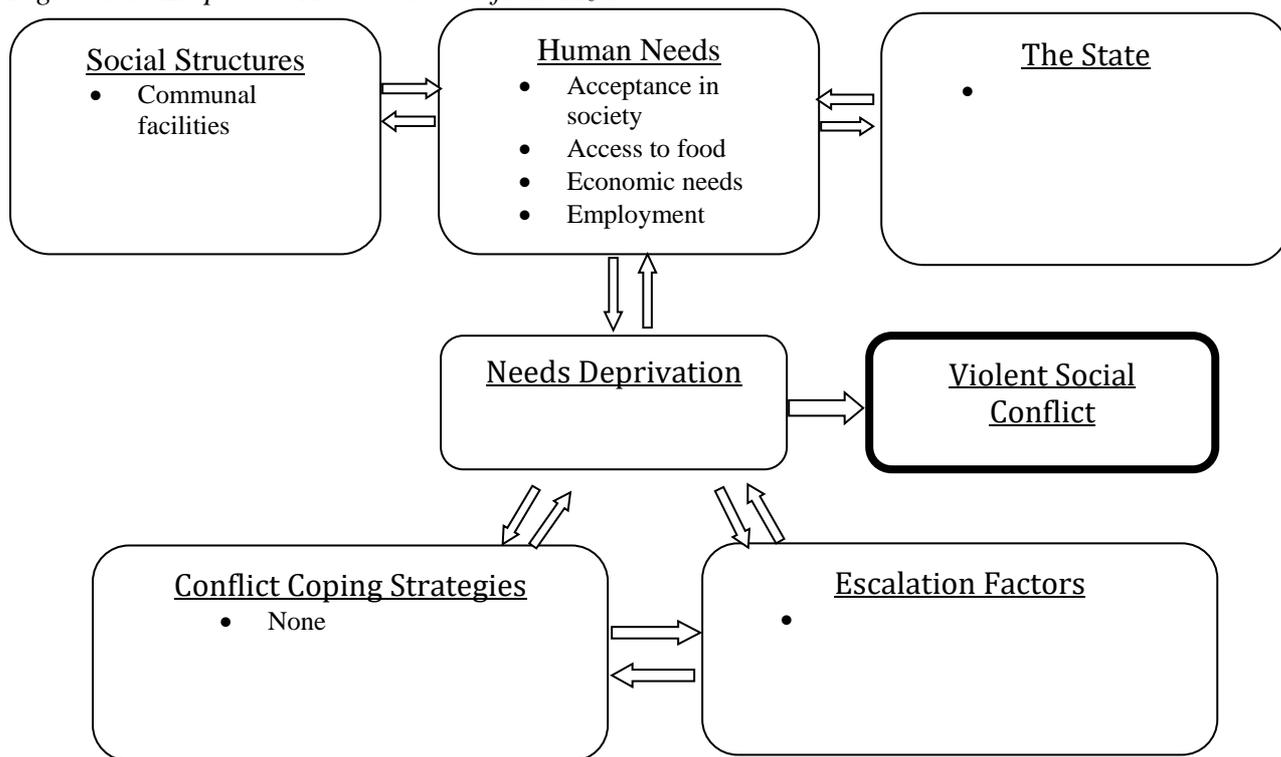
answer questions on how women land ownership can lead to food security or insecurity and how food insecurity shape the level of gender disparities in Zimbabwe. Azar's PSC theory more adequately serves as a useful theory to guide the research to test food security effects on violent conflict. Figure 3.2 illustrates Azar's (1990) theoretical model of PSC and Figure 3.3 is the research empirical model based on Azar's PSC theory.

Figure 3.2: Theory of Protracted Social Conflict



Source: Adapted from Azar, 1990

Figure 3.3: Empirical Model derived from Azar



Source: Adapted from Azar, 1990

3.2.3 Theory of Intersectionality and Theory of Justice

Lastly, in order to address the gender dimension to the study, the research made use of the theory of intersectionality, a feminist theory as well as Rawls theory of justice. According to Lindsay (2005) the intersectionality link backdates to the 1960s spearheaded by feminists who were African American. However, the intersectionality term was introduced by Kimberley Crenshaw in 1989. Carbado, Crenshaw, Mays and Tomlinson (2013) asserted that intersectionality theory offers an extensive means of comprehension of social relationships involving control as well as makes known the concealed ways of transforming the social relationships. In addition, McCall (2005) maintained that intersectionality can be look at as a structure or viewpoint employed to investigate the connections between numerous subjugative systems, developments of subject, discrimination scopes and social relationships organisation. In addition, Knudsen (2006) indicated oppression that is experienced in most society for instance, sexism, religion, racism, and homophobia, do not occur in isolation of the other. Reasonably, as asserted by Knudsen (2006), the intersectionality concept elucidates numerous oppressive interrelationships, thereby formulating an oppression system with multiple discrimination practices.

Burgess-Proctor (2006) purported that the multiracial feminism theory that informed intersectional model, has prevailed with regard to looking at gender through the perspective of distinction, while simultaneously recognizing the instrumental role of power in molding gender relations. Nonetheless, its key concern is that despite the fact that everyone is at the same time positioned in social classifications, for example, sex, race, and class, these classifications cannot be comprehended independent of the other. For example, Phoenix (2006) mentioned that tending to one classification, for instance gender, attracts individuals given its social class influence, race and sexuality. In the study conducted by Anthias (2001) (cited in Winker and Degele, 2011) establishes while using the literature on intersectionality, class and gender are comprehended as harsh structural classifications, as past accounts demonstrate the manner of deciding the allotment of assets and subsequently life possibilities. Phoenix (2006) maintained that intersectionality indicates how women's encounters and life ventures vary as shown by their social classes. Therefore, to better understand or make sense of the theory, there is a need to view the theory from five lenses, namely the political lens, the cognitive lens, the social lens, the economic lens and emotional lens.

The cognitive lens of the theory of intersectionality is mainly focused on how people in communities look at their world from a social and biological perspective (Colfer, Sijapati Basnett and Ihalainen, 2018, p. 11). The economic lens of the theory of intersectionality focuses on the gender issues in relation to natural resources management, with emphasis on tenure and rules of inheritance, employment and access to resources (Colfer, Sijapati Basnett and Ihalainen, 2018, p. 18). The emotional lens of the theory of intersectionality is focused on how an individual's abilities and sense of self is affected by marginalisation (Klein, 2016). The theory intersectionality likewise helps in clarifying how gender familiarity and life ventures of Zimbabwean women and young girls vary because of differences in places they stay in and chances they get, which is factually clear in education accomplishment and in getting equal opportunity across all genders. In like manner, the dispersion of resources, for instance, land, among men and women contrasts as indicated by the social and social arrangement of a specific communities. Along these lines, as indicated by Phoenix (2006), a comprehension of social classification requires the investigation of contrasts and similarities of a particular society. This information helps to understand how, despite the fact that Zimbabwe

appears to report progress in tending to gender disparities, the imbalances in different in other parts of the country remain.

Rawls (1971) views justice as significantly important to all social institutions. Rawls' theory of justice seeks to alleviate the problem of the social status of less prosperous social strata. Therefore, this theory problematises the social relations evident in the complexity of modern democratic societies. In addition, Rawls (1971) held the notion that any institution that acts unjustly should be done away with no matter how competent or well organised it may be. This explains that the theory strives for theoretical universalism based on the ethical construction of a social contract. This construction begins with an ideal thought experiment and ends with a clearly stated intention to prove the real applicability of the same results to all significant factors of social structures. Rawls (1971) further argued that each person holds inviolable rights, which are based on justice. Therefore, rights cannot be violated for the sake of the benefit of other members of society. However, contemporary scholars make mention that the definition of what justice really implies, although necessary, remains a daunting complex undertaking. Therefore, it is important to develop the notion while looking at the state of affairs as well as human conduct (Braswell, 2015, p. 6; Kanu, 2015, p. 78).

Rawls also mentioned that “in an equitable society the freedoms of equivalent citizenship are taken as settled; the rights verified by equity are not dependent upon political dealing or to the analytics of social intrigue” (Rawls, 1971, p. 4). This means that the needs of the group can never be taken as worthy of sacrificing the dignity or rights of any single member of the society. Thus, the theory was used to explore questions on the access of farming space and accessibility of adequate food to both genders, as well as the role NGOs and CSOS perform in addressing unequal gender power relations that lead to food insecurity.

Table 3.1: Five dimensions of fragility

DIMENSION	DESCRIPTION
Economic	Being vulnerable to danger stemming from flaws in economic fundamentals and human capital as well as macroeconomic shocks, inconsistent development and youth joblessness
Environmental	Being vulnerable to the environment, climatic and health dangers that impacts on people's lives and livelihoods. This include experiencing to natural catastrophes, contamination and disease epidemics
Political	Being vulnerable to dangers inherent in political practises, actions or verdicts; lack of political inclusiveness (including of influential people); openness, exploitation, and people's ability to embrace change and avoid domination
Security	The vulnerability of the entire security to violence and crime, involving both political and social violence
Societal	Being vulnerable to risks disturbing social interrelations that stem from both upright and parallel inequalities, involving disparity among culturally distinct or fashioned groups and social cleavages

Source: OECD (2016, p. 37)

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This section of the research explains the research methodology and design. Any research success depends on how well the research plan has been structured and adhered to. Therefore, due diligence is required in the process of designing a research plan. Nevertheless, the research methodology purpose is on laying down a research plan for the generation of useful ways to be employed to give response to the research questions and research objectives (MacMillan and Schumacher, 2010, p. 20). In addition, Wellington, Bathmaker, Hunt, McCulloch and Sikes (2005, p. 97) gave a clear definition of a methodology as the theory of acquiring information and the activity of utilizing, reflecting upon and legitimising the best strategies for directing research. The research methods are the particular schemes for acquiring the information that will give the proof base to the development of a study. O'Leary (2010, p. 88) noted that a research methodology is the overall, large scale level framework that offers standards of thinking related to specific definitive assumptions that authenticate different research schools.

3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is an overall strategy meant to connect the theoretical research inquiry to the relevant observational research. This was concurred by Leedy (1997, p. 195) who defined research design as a study plan that provides an overall framework for data collection. Furthermore, the research design is a plan that is meant to respond to the research questions through selecting the right research sites, subjects and adequate data collection procedures (MacMillan and Schumacher, 2001, p. 166). Along these lines, research design explains what information is required, what techniques will be utilised to gather and investigate this information, and how the entirety of this is going to address the study question. The two information and strategies, and the manner by which these will be designed in the exploration task should be the best in delivering the responses to the study questions while considering practical and other restraints of the research. However, distinctive plan rationales are utilised for various studies. In general, the research design is a key structure of activities, which serves as a connection between the research questions and the execution, or usage of the exploration technique (Durrheim, 2004, p. 29).

3.4.1. Qualitative Research Methodology

Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005) maintained that there are basically two main approaches to social sciences: qualitative and quantitative. Qualitative research is meant to provide perspectives of the target group through involvement and interacting directly with the research participants (Weinreich, 2009). The research is qualitative in nature and according to Patton (1990, p. 39) qualitative research is

an approach that uses a naturalistic approach which seeks to understand phenomena in context-specific settings, such as real-world settings, where the researcher does not attempt to manipulate the phenomena of interest ... it is any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification, but instead the kind of research that produces findings derived at from real-world settings where the phenomena of interest unfold naturally.

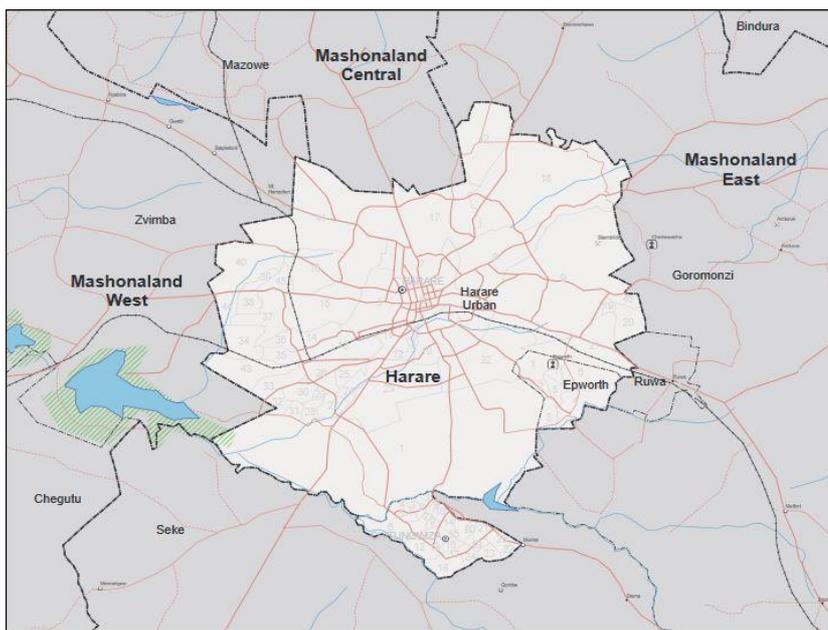
In addition, Worthen and Sanders (1987) maintained that a qualitative approach in research takes place in the natural location, with the one conducting the research being the key tool both in the collection as well as analysing of data. Furthermore, the purpose

or the aim of the qualitative approach is in providing an enhanced individual comprehension and improved awareness of the situation that people are in. This is contrary to quantitative research that has its objective based on facts collection on individual behaviour, which often results in substantiation and theory extension. However, a qualitative approach to research focuses on better comprehension of people's experiences and behaviour. Therefore, the research made use of the qualitative methodological framework because it is characterised by an ability to unpack the dynamics that influence the perceptions and behaviours in their own social setting. Thus, this research is basically interested in understanding the environment and dynamics of the political and economic crisis situation in relation to gendered perspectives of food insecurity. This makes qualitative methodology a logical and viable research approach in this type of study (Davies and Hughes, 2014). In addition, it is worth noting that the research objective was developed and explored using a qualitative approach.

3.4.2 Research Site

The study was conducted in the central urban Harare city in Zimbabwe. Harare, once in the past Salisbury, is Zimbabwe's biggest city. Additionally, CSO (2008) reports that the nation's regulatory, business and correspondence focus with an expected populace of 1.5 million individuals. Furthermore, CSO Zimbabwe (2012) also report the city of Harare contains around 46 percent of the complete urban populace in the nation and is in this manner at the focal point of the urbanization procedure. During the colonial time frame, Harare was partitioned by racial lines. The south-western part of Harare was for the most part characterised by black townships with minute stands and a high population density of households per square kilometre. As a result of stricter laws controlling movement, a large number of the occupants in those areas were transient specialists working on various projects situated between the city's focal business region and the townships. In addition, it is worth noting that city of Harare is the most politically volatile area. Figure 3.4 is a map of an urban Harare city.

Figure 3.4: Map showing an urban Harare city



Source: UNOCHA (2009)¹³

3.4.3 Study Population

The study population was drawn from within the city of Harare. Because the organisations keep a record of the people they interact with, other participants of the research were acquired from referrals by these organisations. According to Chiromo (2006, p. 260), a research population is defined as research participants who provide research questions responses. Terre Blanche, Durrheim, and Kelly (2006, p. 288), qualitative studies typically require a smaller sample size than quantitative studies. Therefore, the study population will consist of 26 participants who will make the research reach a point of saturation or redundancy.

3.4.4 Sampling and Selection Techniques

The study made use of non-probability purposive sampling and the researcher recruited participants using purposive sampling method because it is synonymous with a qualitative study. The targeted sample, in this case, NGOs and CSOs, namely ADRA Zimbabwe, CARE Zimbabwe, World Vision and Gender Commission of Zimbabwe that mainly focus on gender disparity issues, peacebuilding and conflict resolution, food security, and political and economic crisis analysis. Robson (1993) maintained that

¹³ <https://reliefweb.int/map/zimbabwe/zimbabwe-harare-province-overview-map-26-oct-2009> (accessed 14 December 2017)

sampling is a critical component. Therefore, 10 in-depth interviews took place at the participants work places. Given that the researcher wanted to understand unique organizational practices and perceptions regarding food insecurity, political and economic crises situation, interviews were conducted. The interview participants were recruited using a purposeful random sampling technique. On the other hand, the reason for using focus groups is that participants was to be able to clearly articulate the dynamics of the challenges that are present, as well as real-life experiences. Therefore two focus group discussions (FGDs) involving eight participants in Harare CBD were conducted, one group with adult male and female and another group with adolescent male and female. Purposive sampling is the recruiting strategy that was used for the study, which ensures that only the relevant participants are used for in the research. In addition, the respondents were carefully chosen based on the quality of information at their disposal.

Table 3.2: Summary of participants

CATEGORY	SAMPLE SIZE	SAMPLING TECHNIQUE	DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT APPLIED
NGOs and CSOs	10	Purposive sampling	Interviews
Community participants	16	Purposive sampling	Focus group discussions

3.4.5 Data Collection Procedure

The data collection method for the research took the semi-structured in-depth interviews and focus groups interviews form. The interview questions were structured as open-ended questions and were recorded. The recording of each session took an approximate time of 45-60 minutes. The interview data was then transcribed in a written format and analysed consistently. The focus group participants were recruited through chain referral and English, a language of command and if needed, the questions were translated to Shona, each 60 minutes long. The major aim of information gathering and analysis was to investigate and determine the originators and elements related to the study phenomenon based on the participants' perceptions. The themes associated with this

sample group are the areas they specialise in for in-depth information. The targeted sample, in this case, NGOs and CSOs that mainly focus on gender disparity issues, peacebuilding and resolving conflict, food security, and political and economic crisis analysis. It is also worth mentioning that although the research was qualitative in nature, the researcher also used secondary data sources for data analysis purposes. Secondary data included media and internet sources, published journal articles, books, published presentations and newspapers.

3.4.6 Interview and Focus Group Guide Construction

The interview guide for the research was structured in a way that interrogated comprehension of the concepts under discussion, followed by their work as an institution and how this relates to gender and food insecurity. This is against the background from Kumar (2010) who described an interview guide as a research questions list that acts as a starting point for discussion. Therefore, it follows a sequenced flow from one question to the next. In addition, the interview guide interrogates questions raised around different areas of enquiry in the research (Kumar, 2010). However, it is also worth noting that the interview schedule is restricted to aspects that are relevant to answer the research questions.

The research interview guide was divided into two, the first guide being in-depth interviews and the second being focus group discussions. Accordingly, the interview guides for both focus group discussions and individual or in-depth interviews were semi-structured and they comprised unrestricted (open-ended) and restricted (closed-ended) questions. Semi-structured interviews follow the flow of a general conversation and allow the respondent to express his or her thoughts freely (Berg, 2000). Semi-structured interviews comprise an interview plan or a list of questions as a guideline for an interview but both the interviewer and interviewee may deviate from the set of questions as and when deemed necessary (Babbie et al., 2006). Semi-structured interviews allow interviewer and interviewee freedom to develop ideas and speak broadly on topics introduced by the interviewer (Babbie et al. 2006). In this research, the interviews allowed the follow up or trace of ideas on challenges women are facing in joining and participation in gender mainstreaming projects in their wards. I asked questions on issues of gender, additional burdens and other factors that might impact on participation in order to stimulate discussion among group members. In response, the

interviewees raised political and environmental issues as barriers they face in membership and participation which were omitted by the researcher when questions were drafted. These types of questions were important in my research as they allowed a free-flowing type of conversation throughout the data collection period. Semi-structured questions allowed women to provide detailed responses on their participation and involvement in community projects and these responses were not limited to yes, no, maybe, true, false. This type of question allowed women to be analytical and think creatively as they responded to questions like for why, who, what, where, when and how. By using semi-structured questions I managed to discover more detailed, descriptive and narrative information about the women's urge to participate in gender mainstreaming projects. The respondents had the opportunity to express their emotions, responses and perceptions about participating and committing to projects and any developmental strategy at the community level that will ensure food security.

3.4.7 Personal Interviews

Interviews as a data collection tool are designed in such a way as to enable the exchange of information between the researcher and participant. In addition, they allow the researcher to study experiences and meanings as accounted for by the participants. Furthermore, Kumar and Phrommathed (2005, p. 127) pointed out that the choice of interviews looks at three basic criteria namely: the nature of what the study is investigating, in other words, the subtle nature of issues involved); followed by the geographical distribution of the study population and finally type of study population. Monette, Sullivan and DeJong (2018, p. 178) also maintained that the quality and quantity of information exchange during an interview would solemnly be determined by how shrewd and resourceful is the interviewer. Overall the aim of a qualitative research interview is to see the research topic from the standpoint of the person who is interviewed (King, 1994). A decision to use interviews over questionnaires was taken because the research study is primarily aimed at understanding people's opinions. Therefore, by making use of interviews, the researcher was able to alleviate the problems that Kumar and Phrommathed (2005, p. 114) mentioned of limited administration or application, low response rate and limited opportunity to clarify issues or views that questionnaires could have accorded this study. In addition, by making use of interviews as a method of the research data collection process, the researcher was able to give each participant in the selected sample an opportunity to narrate their own views in their own words as they saw fit.

3.4.8 Focus Group Discussions

Another method employed in the research for the purpose of data collection were Focus Group Discussions (FGDs). FGDs are discussions cautiously strategised and arranged to obtain perceptions on a precise area of interest in a tolerant or setting free from fear. In addition, focus groups discussions remain of enormous value in the gathering of qualitative information. This is because FGDs allow respondents or participants to interact with one another in articulating ideas and arguments that might not have emerged during personal interviews. Mamvuto, Matiure, Mukabera and Zireva (2013) further distinguish by mentioning focus group discussion as a group discussion to which six to twelve participants talk about a relevant topic under the guidance of the researcher who will play the role of a moderator. However, Fisher (2010) pointed out that in the case of FGDs, a group of people come up together to have a focused free-flowing discussion on a particular topic. In addition, Fontana and Frey (1994, p. 364-365) maintained that it is necessary for a focus group to be small and to include individuals from different fields or background, though it depends on the subject matter of the study. Furthermore, Richardson and Rabiee (2001) posited that FGDs participants are selected in such a way that they are able to be an asset to the discussion with the knowledge of the topic in discussion. Therefore for the purpose of the research, FGD participants were purposefully selected, particularly those who had to interact with organisations that were also participating in the research.

Krueger and Casey (2000) mentioned that ideally FGDs ought to have a maximum of eight people. This is regarded to be enough to give participants an equal opportunity to express an opinion but large enough to provide a diversity of opinions. I had to decide on the themes and topics to be discussed, as well as develop protocols for the collection of information at all stages of the discussion. Before the start of each focus group discussion, I informed the participants on how the information given during the discussion was to be used and the extent to which their anonymity will be preserved.

Table 3.3: Focus Group Discussion Distribution

Groups	Number of Participants
A	8
B	9
Total	17

3.3.7.1 Information about the research participants**Table 3.4: Informants and their organisations**

INFORMANTS	ORGANISATION DESCRIPTION
Organisation 1: WORLD VISION	Is a charitable institution which works with families and children and communities around the world in order to realise their full potential and addressing the root causes of injustice and poverty.
Organisation 2: CARE ZIMBABWE	An organisation with an overall goal of empowering disadvantaged and poor households to meet their basic needs. Their operations are there to promote sustainable livelihoods of poor and vulnerable people.
Organisation 3: ZIMBABWE GENDER COMMISSION	An organisation that propagates for a just society that enjoys gender equality through public education and research.
Organisation 4: ADRA ZIMBABWE	An organisation that believes it is an agency of change and an instrument that helps all ages, gender, race, culture, families and communities with a better life. They ensure a reasonable partnership with the needy and are pro sustainable transformation. As an organisation they accept people as the same irrespective of ethnicity, political affiliation, race, gender, and religion. In participatory development, they utilise both men and women's abilities and provide the same opportunity to individuals of differing ethnicity, religion, and cultural upbringings

INFORMANT	PERSONAL DESCRIPTION
Mr Tom	An elderly man who was once employed, but lost his job because the company that he was working for had to shut down because of the economic situation that was not favourable to its production. As a breadwinner, he has to face having to provide for his own family as well as the extended family that also looked up to him financially.
Mr John	A university graduate who faces a challenge of not being able to secure employment soon after finishing his studies. He finds himself in a situation where both his parents have reached retirement age and he should step up as the elderly child in the family in helping his siblings financially who are still going to the school and also making sure there have enough to eat.
Mrs Chinoda	An elderly widow who was a housewife, but had to face a challenge and take up the responsibility of providing for her family after the passing away of her husband. The change has come to her as a real shock amidst the political and economic challenge the country faces.
Mr Tshuma	A divorced man who works on a part-time basis, but is obliged on a monthly basis by court order to pay maintenance fees for his three children that stay with his wife. The money he has to pay is for food and school fees for his children, but the inconsistency in him getting work, questions the availability of money to send for his children.
Mrs Moyo	A married woman who has a small vegetable market where she sells tomatoes, onions, carrots, as a source of generating income for her and her husband who operated as a taxi driver. While looking at the economic situation she feels the money that her husband brings home is not enough for them as a family to meet their basic food needs, hence she also has to do something.
Mrs Sithole	A housewife that feels that it is not enough for her to be sitting at home and doing nothing looking at how the economy is. She also mentioned that the family at times has to miss a meal so that they are able to pay for other expenses like rent, lighting and water bills.

Ms Mathe	A school-going young lady who stays in a family of ten children, with only the father working it proves challenging for them as a family to get enough food because of the many responsibilities that also needs the father's attention. She mentions that at times they have to go to their relative's place who stays nearby for food.
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3.5 DATA PROCESSING AND ANALYSIS

Data analysis is an important aspect of research. This is the stage during which the researcher reflects on the data collected in order to make meaning out of it. The analysis followed a general inductive approach. As noted by Thomas (2006, p. 38), the inductive approach major reason is “to allow research findings to emerge from the frequent, dominant, or significant themes inherent in raw data, without the restraints imposed by structured methodologies”. Strauss and Corbin (1998) described the analysis of data as the interaction of information and the researcher. Anderson (2010, p. 1) noted that qualitative analysis of data is more concerned with the meanings attached to the words, actions and feelings as expressed by participants. The meanings are attached to the real world in which the participants live and are linked to existential realities. I used themes and codes to analyse the data and to capture the emerging issues. As substantiated by Taylor and Gibbs (2010), coding the information makes it simpler to look through the information, to make examinations and to distinguish any examples that require further examination. In addition, Henning (2004, p. 10) alludes that the analysis of data is a procedure that requires investigative skill and the capacity to capture and understanding information recorded as in writing.

Analysis of qualitative data can be cumbersome and requires a clearly articulated framework of analysis. Green and Thorogood (2004) noted that many researchers make use of different data analysis techniques. I relied on Krueger's (1994) framework analysis to analyse the data. Framework analysis encompasses numerous distinct and significantly connected steps. These are steps include the familiarisation, thematic framework identification, charting, indexing, mapping and interpretation. Krueger (1994) advised that the best way of handling data is to view it in a continuum that is raw data; descriptive statements; interpretation. As part of the familiarisation process, the researcher had to read the field notes several times as well as play recorded materials

several times. This allowed me to get to appreciate the flow of data. After familiarisation, I started identifying the theme. This was done through short notes and frequency of dominant ideas from the participants. This entailed the formation of descriptive statements. The emerging themes were then indexed and arranged to allow for logical presentation. Bailey (2008, p. 129) noted that both interviews and focus group discussion transcriptions require a systematic approach so as to capture the important messages coming out of the conversation.

3.6 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF RESEARCH

Research design and methods were measured to check both validity and reliability. Validity is an important notion in research linked to whether it brings about accuracy, relevance and quality to the procedure used to obtain research question answers (Kumar, 2010). This is against the background that validity denotes the empirical measure that would reflect the concepts that it intends to measure. Validity and reliability are important parts of the research process for checking whether appropriate methods were used to get the research investigation answers. In addition, as a measure of ensuring the validity of the research findings, the questions in both the interview and focus group guide were justified in relation to the study objective. This enabled the research to acquire information that brought about a true reflection of concepts under research, which examined the intersection of gender and food insecurity in a political and economic crisis environment. For the purpose of quality and appropriateness, focus group discussions and in-depth interviews took place, using basic English as the participants agreed to English and to being literate enough to use and understand it. The participants' responses were noted considering that most were not comfortable with tape recordings. The participants mentioned their reservations to being voice recorded emanated from fear that their responses might show some form of political affiliation and they did not know how the information would be used. Although I had explained that the research was for academic purpose only, they still did not give consent to being voice recorded.

The research also considered the reliability concept as a measure of ensuring data credibility. According to Kumar (2010), reliability is a concept used in research to show consistent measurements produced by a research instrument even when the instruments is used numerous times. Considerations of the reliability of my research instrument

influenced changes of my core theories to become supporting theories of research. The reliability of in-depth interviews guide and focus group discussion guides could not be determined because the experience of the participants is influenced by various factors (Bless et al., 1995). I considered triangulation of data to ensure the reliability of focus group discussions and in-depth interviews information. Collins and Hussey (2009) maintained that the triangulation of data denotes making use of multiple data sources, in a bid to promoting reliability and validity while reducing biases. Therefore, triangulation was done to ensure that the findings were more dependable by confirming with several independent sources. I interviewed different people or individuals that formed part of the research; respondents gave their own perspectives on the political and economic situation, specifically the impact it has had. Triangulation is multi-method research in which data is collected using different samples (data triangulation) and different methods (methodological triangulation) (Lewis, 2000). Data triangulation was done by interviewing people participating in community projects and non-project participants. For my methodological triangulation, I used focus group discussions, and in-depth interviews. Triangulation can be done by using the same questions in different research methods (Descombe, 2007) and I made use of the focus group interview guide for in-depth interviews with both women and men participating in the projects. This was done to ensure reliability and validity of my research findings.

3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to Gratton and Jones (2010, p. 121), all researchers are subjected to ethical consideration regardless of their research design, sampling criteria and methods of conducting their research work. Maree (2007) further emphasised that throughout data collection and presentation procedure, it is of great importance to observe research ethics. Therefore, participants in the research were at liberty to take part or not to in the research. In addition, to guarantee research quality and integrity, I sought to eliminate possible risks on participants through upholding confidentiality and anonymity of responses, specifically from interviews participants. Therefore, focus group participants consented in the use of pseudonyms. Bless et al. (1995) affirmed that an ethical researcher must protect the confidentiality and anonymity of information gathered from the respondents. With regard to confidentiality, no information was made known to a third person without the consent of the participants (Nolan, 2006). Nolan (2006, p. 104) also pointed out that anonymity entails that no information is forced from participants,

their full names were withheld only their pseudonyms were used and if they did not wish to give more information, their rights were respected. Therefore, I was respectful of sensitive issues in research questions and I studied the environment before I conducted interviews and focus group discussions.

The purpose, processes, risks, potential danger and consequences of research were thoroughly explained to the relevant research participants so that they had a complete understanding of what was expected of them in taking part in the research, as well as a knowledge of the research itself. On the other hand, the study process itself remained in line with the University of KwaZulu-Natal's research ethical codes that are set by the Ethics committee. Unstructured interviews were used and participants were at liberty to exercise voluntary consent, and also retained the option of declining to take part in the research or terminating their involvement. For gatekeeper permission, the researcher wrote a letter to the Gender Commission of Zimbabwe, World Vision Zimbabwe, CARE Zimbabwe, and ADRA Zimbabwe to seek permission to conduct research interviews. Furthermore, while reviewing documents, the researcher aimed for the highest standards of a thorough inquiry into the documentation by checking for credibility, authenticity, meaning, and representativeness. Finally, the findings of the research would be availed to participants on request.

3.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Burns and Grove (2003, p. 46) defined limitations of the study as constraints within the study capable of reducing the generalisability of the research findings that are either methodological or theoretical. A particular limitation experienced was the political climate at the time of the interviews and discussions. Participants were very wary of providing information that might be held against them and did not agree to any audio recordings of interviews for fear that this could be used as evidence against them. However, the non-recording had a negative impact in that the researcher had to do a lot of work of note taking, but overcame the challenge of missing important information by having a research assistant help in note taking.

3.9 CONCLUSION

The theoretical framework and methodological chapter was able to explain the research design, context as well as discuss the particular techniques employed in the research for purpose of collecting data and the reasons behind using the techniques. Also, the

research expounded on the philosophical assumptions that guide the study. Purposive sampling was used to choose the unit of analysis and methods of enquiry were participant observation, in-depth interviews and focus group discussions. The steps in data analysis were also given in this chapter. Other aspects of quality research such as reliability, validity and ethical considerations were discussed. The challenges faced during the research period concluded this chapter. The following section is based upon data presentation. In addition, the chapter gave detail to the stages taken during the collection of data. Furthermore, it is worth noting that sensitive issues surrounding the study with regard to informed consent and confidentiality were taken note of.

CHAPTER FOUR: AN ANALYSIS OF ZIMBABWE'S POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC CRISIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

As a preamble to understanding the nature of a political and economic crisis, this chapter introduces a general overview of the political and economic situation in Africa. This is important to the study considering that it brings about understanding as to what the crisis constitutes as well as the context in which countries function under such an environment. This is particularly relevant given the aim of the study that seeks to address how the political and economic crisis affects women with regard to land ownership. In addition, an exercise of this nature presupposes a clearer understanding of what crisis situation actually entails. This is then followed with a general outline of the political and economic situation in Zimbabwe, while focusing on both the historical and current state of affairs. It will also include looking at the effects and causes of the crisis, while exploring numerous other internal and external factors that contribute to continuation of the crisis situation. This comes against the background of Machakanja's (2010) contention that the crisis in Zimbabwe should be comprehended as a complex, interconnected, multifaceted and widespread disaster.

The chapter is divided into different sections: firstly, the chapter presents a general overview Africa's political and economic crises experience, followed by a more focused discussion of the crises situations within the study context, in this case Zimbabwe. In the course of the discussion, I highlight the position of women in this political and economic crisis, as well as that of NGOs and CSOs. In addition, the research focuses on numerous issues experienced in Zimbabwe, which include land invasion, hyperinflation, the 1992 drought, bad governance, gender in governance and election violence. Insights acquired via the different theoretical lenses outlined in the previous chapter are presented in terms of the responses acquired from research participants. Lastly, the chapter focuses on the gendered intersections of the political and economic crisis situation. Overall, the chapter is aimed at answering the research objectives with regard to investigating the intersections between gender and food insecurity in Zimbabwe's political and economic crisis environment.

4.2 GENERAL OVERVIEW OF POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC CRISIS IN AFRICA

Sub-Saharan Africa has historically been experiencing a devastating economic and political crisis which has been documented by international scholars such as Ravenhill (1986), King and Lawrence (2005) and, more recently, Adjei et al. (2014). Simon (1997) identified the current economic crisis in Zimbabwe as an example of the devastation Africa faces as a result of the adoption of the 1980s Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP). This is not a phenomenon unique to Africa, as identified by Stiglitz (2000) who viewed it as a global phenomenon. Global economic and political instability have ushered a new wave of food crisis. De Schutter (2013) argued that the food crisis is directly linked to the price hikes that were experienced in 2007/2008 because of a severe global financial downturn. However, institutions like Amnesty International (2004) use wide-ranging explanations of food crisis that describes it as the occurrence of severe food shortages throughout a country, but where deaths as a result of hunger are uncommon, along with the occurrence of severe undernourishment less than in a situation of food shortages. In Zimbabwe, however, there are noteworthy incidences of prolonged undernourishment. However, the country is in a position of not being capable of self-reliance in terms of food and relies on international aid.

The political and economic instability in Africa has had a catastrophic effect on most African countries' food security (UNECA, 2012; Clover, 2003). This is evident in the observations of scholars such as Bafana (2008) and Schaefer and Tupy (2007) that Zimbabwe's once-vibrant business sectors, such as the manufacturing industries and agricultural sector, have deteriorated in the past decade. International scholars like Maxwell (1996) and LeBlanc et al. (2005) have argued that hunger continues to be widespread even when there is adequate food supply. This contradicts the assertions of other scholars that there is not enough food in the world to cater for all the inhabitants. This has been a recurring narrative throughout my research work with questions around where people get food that is supposedly available and sufficient for all the people in the world. If anything, the status quo has become worse, as pointed out by Mugambiwa and Tirivangasi (2017) who assert that hunger continues to be an ever more life-threatening problem to humankind especially given the 'new phenomenon' of climate change.

4.3 POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC CRISIS SITUATION IN ZIMBABWE

In a case study focusing on the crisis in Zimbabwe from 2000, Anstey (2007) argued that complex internal conditions and a divided international community over the crisis made it not ready for resolution. The Zimbabwean economy has gradually agonised from lack of investment from both domestic and foreign sources. Manneko (2015) attested that the GoZ did not receive the balance of payments support from key bilateral and multilateral organisations as a result of enormous outstanding debt. As a result of an increase in production and imports that are cheap, numerous mechanised companies have turn out to be making loses forcing them to stop operation. Consequently, the shortages of cash that has daunt Zimbabwe resultantly left the people failing to access their monthly salaries, thus pushing the GoZ to introduce an alternative means in the form of bond notes. Amnesty International (2017) attested that the constant protests that were experienced in 2016 came as a result of fearing bond notes becoming a currency that is worthless, thus returning the country to the detested period of hyperinflation. In addition, International Crisis Group (2016) affirms that the challenges that Zimbabwe continues to face include shortfalls in governance, violence that is political inclined, human rights abuse and the violation of the rule-of-law. However, corruption within Zimbabwe has turn out to be widespread within its political, private and civil society sectors. Transparency International Corruption Perceptions Index presents Zimbabwe to be ranking at number 163, of the 176 nations. For Anstey (2007), the Zimbabwean situation would never be ripe for resolution as long as the despotic democracy¹⁴ remained in place, with South Africa continuing its policy of quiet diplomacy.¹⁵ Zartman (1989) differentiated between conflict and crisis, saying that while the former refers to an underlying issue in a dispute between parties, crisis refers to the outbreak of or perpetuation of hostilities. Conflicts start to be visible or recognisable when the players behaviour towards one another start to change. The behaviour might vary starting with from threats discourse that ultimately turn into violence. However, the definition of conflict might take into account players deliberately declining to participate with or recognising one another. Behaviour is compelled by tactical objectives as individuals mobilise the power they possess to acquire all they want. The behaviour can as well be moulded by sentiments such as anger, fear and frustration that sequentially shaped by the attitudes of people of the diverse groups toward one another.

¹⁴ Despotic democracy refers to a tyrannical or undemocratic rule.

¹⁵ Quiet diplomacy refers to an action of global group centered on establishing and strengthening regional or sub-regional dedication to prevent conflicts.

Isyar (2008) defined a crisis as a crucial state of affairs that abruptly takes place and disrupts the normal procedures of any system. He further mentioned that where a crisis is present, there is no war but there is also no peace. Isyar (2008) also made a distinction between crisis and conflict, saying the former often focuses on specific urgent matters and can be dissociated with deep-protracted or low-level conflicts or discord. A crisis or a series of crises can happen within a conflict. In Zimbabwe, one could cite an economic crisis whose zenith was the crash of the Zimbabwe dollar in 1997 and the political crisis that occurred following the disputed elections of 2008 as good examples of crises occurring in a conflict.

However, Zimbabwe had already started to encounter a much deeper economic downturn of unexpected proportions by the year 1999. Thus, the Zimbabwean catastrophe can be ascribed to numerous economic, political, and environmental influences. Other factors leading to the collapse included poor governance, economic negligence, and lack of international support as a result of continuous violation of human rights, elections that were mishandled and electoral processes that were manipulated (Besada and Moyo, 2008). It is saddening that the Zimbabwe crisis took place during a period in which an African Renaissance is often mentioned. According to Mbeki (2002, p. 1), the African Renaissance is a concept that suggests overcoming of economic, political and social life challenges by African people. All these factors were compounded by periods of severe drought experienced in the country. Besada and Moyo (2008) further explain that the GoZ's choice to disregard financial constraints in 1997 through issuing big pay-outs to the liberation war veterans in order to buy their allegiance and political support for the elections that were upcoming, triggered the collapse of the Zimbabwean economy. However, ZFSIP (2011) attested that while focusing on the Zimbabwean political and economic crisis, it is evident that several approaches have since been instituted in a bid to address food insecurity by the government, which include the recovery programmes and drought relief.

The programme was implemented in a bid to address the food crisis, incredible in view of the fact that Zimbabwe was once acknowledged as the food hub for the SADC region (Meissner, 2002). Pazvakavambwa (2009) contended that this fact emanating from an investigation that took place in 2009, largely drawing back to the period of the year 2000-2008. During this period there was a dramatic change at both an individual level

and a national level, in terms of food from a state of excess to insufficiency, consequently, food aid remains an interventions that Zimbabwe employed in order to relieve food insecurity within household. UHAC (2012) pointed out that according to UNICEF reports there is an estimate of two million people in Zimbabwe which includes men, boys, women and girls with severe humanitarian needs. ZFSO (2014) suggested that this means that those individuals receiving food aid, may have to look for alternative means to supplement for their food needs. Evidently, most NGOs and the GoZ food intervention programmes normally target individuals in rural areas, which implies that has minimal impact because of high rural-urban migration (Hanyani-Mlambo and Mukorera, 2013). Therefore, by putting focus on the urban population the food intervention programmes would be addressing pertinent needs. Table 4.1 shows the chronology of crises situations that have caused disturbances in Zimbabwe and have drawn much international media attention since the year 2000 till today.

Table 4.1: Chronology of Zimbabwe’s Crisis (2000-present)

YEAR	CRISIS SITUATION
2000	Fast Track Land Reform (FTLR)
2002	Zimbabwe’s Commonwealth membership was suspended, European Union and the United States of America enforce travel sanctions and freeze assets of ZANU-PF top officials
2003	International Monetary Fund suspends Zimbabwe’s voting rights
2006	Zimbabwe’s annual inflation rises above 1 000 per cent in April
2008	The electoral crisis following Tsvangirai’s reported victory and the military seizure of the Chiadzwa diamond fields
2008–2009	Power-sharing agreement and government of national unity
2009	Dismissal of national currency and dollarisation of the economy
2013	Electoral crisis and allegations of manipulation, intimidation and vote rigging
2014	Expulsion of Vice President Joyce Mujuru and appointment of Grace Mugabe as leader of the Women’s League
2016	Growing civil unrest and national shutdowns
2017	Resignation of Robert Mugabe and succession of Emmerson Mnangagwa as President through what some believed to be a coup d’etat
2018	Election results in contestation by the MDC Alliance through the Constitutional Court
2019	Zimbabwe’s anti-government protest action in Harare and Bulawayo
2019	Re-introduction of the Zimbabwean dollar and banning the use of foreign currency

Source: Adapted from Moretti (2017, p. 39)

4.3.1 The Genesis of the Crisis Situation in Zimbabwe

Politically and economically, since independence in April 1980, Robert Mugabe has remained the country's leader until his resignation after what was termed a bloodless coup. According to Sachikonye (2002), Zimbabwe during the 1980s witnessed some form of steady unification with regard to both economic and social growth. This saw Zimbabwe ranking among the topmost industrialised nations within Sub-Saharan Africa. It was during this time that the country experienced the expansion of the social and education sector, middle-income status and economic growth. According to UNCTAD (2007) reported that, Zimbabwe experienced enormous economic advancement of an estimated 2.9 per cent, which is above SADC regional average of approximately 1.7 per cent, in the decade following its independence in 1980. World Bank (2007) reported that the standard of living in Zimbabwe significantly improved during this time, with life expectancy of 59 years in 1990, before lowering to 37 years in 2005.

The crippling collapse of the Zimbabwean economy can be traced back to the 1990s, when the IMF and World Bank recommended the implementation of Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) (Moretti, 2017). However, the Government of Zimbabwe (1991) maintained that the ESAP route that was embarked on early in 1991 and was intended to run until 1995 with the main objective of reducing poverty in the country as well as sustaining Zimbabwe's higher, medium and long-term economic growth. Kanji (1995) argued that although the Zimbabwean government maintains that ESAP was homegrown, it shared the main characteristics of similar programmes that were implemented in over 40 other African, Asian and Latin American countries. ESAP included additional cuts in subsidies of consumers, reduction in government spending, and promotion of exports and import controls (Government of Zimbabwe, 1991). The Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU) (1992) noted that the World Bank claimed that the country may possibly be the first country in Africa to do well with ESAP, given its then manufacturing sector that it deemed stronger than others. However, the model of free market encouraged by ESAP was unsuccessful to resuscitate the minimal economic growth that eventually led to civil unrest, sparked by climbing annual inflation and unemployment.

Moretti (2017) attested that the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme was not able to tackle the land disparity concerns that were taken over during the colonial era,

thus it simply profited the white minority by means of policies promoting agricultural exports. The move by the Zimbabwean government to maintain traditional allies through offering gratuities to liberation war veterans, as well as getting into the Democratic Republic of Congo as a move to support the then president Laurent Kabila. This was done from an expenditure that was not budgeted for and also paved the way to economic hardship. This was followed by the growing threat posed by the Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) opposition party under the leadership of Morgan Tsvangirai before the elections, which prompted the GoZ to resuscitate the land reform programme. The Human Rights Watch (2002) reported that in the year 2000 the government enforced a land appropriation without compensation directive to white farmers. This paved the way for open intimidation of the white farmers and their workers. After years of violence, land estimate of 12 million hectares was withheld from white farmers by 2009 and only a few white farmers in the country remained (Human Rights Watch, 2002). According to Kanyenze (2011), ZANU PF's executives and devotees occupied the largest chunk of the farms intended for commercial use, leaving the rest of the population jobless and excluded by the land redistribution process. Pilosof (2016) mentions that the eviction of skilled white farmers had a disastrous consequence, witnessed by a severe decline in agricultural production, because of the new landowners' inability to run the farms productively. This was evidenced by the unproductive use of fertile land and the falling of cash-crop production, thus leading the country into structural regression and de-industrialisation (Moretti, 2017). Widespread food insecurity in Zimbabwe was exacerbated by the shrinking cereal production.

During the period 1999-2008, the economy experienced an economic decline of 51 per cent, leading to the failure of farmers to obtain loans to finance their production as a result of the collapse of the banking sector (Kanyenze, 2011). This resulted in serious food shortages on supermarkets shelves, a situation further intensified by the fact that, due to policy inconsistencies and state infrastructural decay, investors had started leaving the country (Moretti, 2017). The emergence of the informal sector was predominantly a side effect of the crisis that daunted the country. The economic meltdown, coupled with the 2008 violent electoral crisis then followed, forcing the GoZ to a power-sharing arrangement spearheaded by a negotiating team from South Africa. According to Mukhlanani (2014), the Government of National Unity (GNU) provided

some economic stability with the inception of the multi-currency approach that helped lower the country's inflation and also made basic commodities available.

Zimbabwe's economic rescue process emanated at the expense of political achievements, evident by ZANU-PF maintaining power in addition to keeping control over the electoral commission and security sector. Raftopolos (2013) purported that Mugabe had no intentions of sharing power with the MDC, a fact witnessed by the lack of progress made by GNU with regard to institution political reforms. This has also been emphasised by Chigora and Guzura (2011) who affirmed that GNU was put in place as a desperate move which sought to disrupt the political impasse that came after the March 2008 elections and to assist the country to recuperate from the economic deadlock. The discovery of the Chiadzwa diamond fields in 2008 underscores the absolute power grip of the ruling party, evidenced by the army seizing the fields (Burgis, 2016). During Mugabe's time of leadership, especially in his latter years at the age of 92, the ZANU-PF party started fracturing over Mugabe's succession although there were no signs of him stepping down. Because the country lacked a cohesive political opposition, this led to a new form of opposition characterised by protests. This is seen by the #ThisFlag movement that Pastor Evan Mawarire initiated, sparked by a viral video posted on Facebook. This movement remained independent of political parties, with its message centred on lack of basic services and anti-corruption.

4.3.2 The Peak of Zimbabwe's Economic Crisis

Though there is a large body literature from scholars such as Verney (2014), Timberlake (2013), Rose and Spiegel (2012), Lyrintzis (2011), and Cohen and Garrett (2010) on the features as well as causes of the economic crisis, it is worth mentioning that Zimbabwe for a number of decades, experienced severe economic deterioration that lead to an inflation rate of 231 million¹⁶ (Munangagwa, 2009). The hyperinflation that beset the country marked the peak of the crisis situation. Numerous scholars such as Nkomazana and Niyimbanira (2014), Pindiriri (2012), McIndoe-Calder (2009), and Makochekanwa (2007) diverge in opinion on the cause of the hyperinflation that Zimbabwe experienced. Examples are that of Wines (2006) and Hanke (2008) who blamed the Zimbabwean government for instigating the hyperinflation, given their exorbitant

¹⁶ <http://cupola.gettysburg.edu/ger/vol3/iss1/9>

expenditure as well as the unruly Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe (RBZ) printing of money. In addition, Hanke (2008, p. 2) views the hyperinflation as the trademark of Zimbabwe's economic downfall. Hanke (2008) also argued that of the worst hyperinflation scenarios that have been experienced in the world, Zimbabwe's experience is second on the list. Moyo (2010, p. 16) noted that the devaluation of the Zimbabwean dollar led to the extraordinary situation of a trillion dollars failing to purchase a loaf of bread.

4.3.3 Different Aspects to the Zimbabwean Crisis

It is critical to understand the weightier matters at stake in the political crisis so as to fully understand the occurrence of events that led to the state of affairs in which the country finds itself politically. The deepening malgovernance and human rights abuse in the country marked the political landscape during the past decades. Arguably, the first demonstration of the state's violent reaction to any opposition was the Gukurahundi massacres of the early 1980s (Mlambo and Raftopoulos, 2010, p. 5). Ngwenya and Harris (2015, p. 35) reported that an estimate of 20 000 to 36 000 individuals were massacred by the GoZ's armed forces. At the end of year 2000, violence that was politically inclined was widespread affecting the entire country. Indiscriminate beating up of the political opposition and harassment that had been prevalent increased ever more towards the run-up to the 2008 March and June presidential elections. Progressively, Raftopoulos and Mlambo (2008) affirmed that Zimbabwe went through organised militarisation. Mlambo and Raftopoulos (2010) further postulated that organised militarisation culminated in the unwarranted exploitation of human rights of individuals, judiciary system destabilisation, and overall rule of law negligence.

In addition, there have been concerns over the showcasing of human rights abuse in events such as the insensitive demolition of urban dwellers house during Operation Murambatsvina which took place in 2005, which saw hundreds and thousands of people in Zimbabwe left homeless and with their livelihoods in ruin (Vambe, 2008, p. 152). This was then followed by the 2008 election campaign, identified as gruesome period due to the widespread violent torture experienced around the country. Reeler (2008) pointed out that when looking at the state of affairs in Harare's urban area, it becomes evident that a combination of events such as Operation Murambatsvina, the total collapse of the economy, and the moves to create an electoral crisis by political factions

within ZANU-PF and their allies, resulted in the remarkable defeat of Robert Mugabe and ZANU-PF in the 2008 elections. However, as anticipated, because of the inter-party political conflict experienced at that time, the elections gave birth to a run-off of the election, which later saw the genesis of GNU. Peace Direct (2017, p. 8) affirmed that besides the political crisis experienced during that year, there was a massive deterioration of the economy, leaving the society cashless with hyperinflation that led to fuel and food shortages. The collapse of the economy witnessed the displacement of people as well as intensified land grabs as many sought for a chance to become involved in agricultural production, because of the inability to access cash and the need to fend for themselves. Kwinjeh (2008) strongly believed that the Zimbabwean political and economic crisis could have been effortlessly addressed by means of the African Union (AU) and Southern African Development Community (SADC) the taking upfront action. This simply required them to contend the standing result, then demand a transfer of power. Had this intervention happened, Zimbabwe may have developed along very different lines in the years to come.

The year 2017 saw the resignation of Robert Mugabe, after much political pressure that questioned his continuous leadership and competency in running a country in economic mayhem. There were mass protest actions against the ruling party that turned violent. The Research and Advocacy Unit (RAU) (2017, p. 1) asserted that the period that followed the Unity Accord from 1987 to the 1990s was a time where there was an absence of violence, with peace dominating. During the same period there was a firm and continuous growth in labour movements, numerous human rights groups as well as civil society organisations (RAU, 2017). The stepping down of Robert Mugabe drew mixed reactions. Many had doubts about the successor, while others were hopeful for the change that it would bring about and the positive impact on the crises the country was experiencing.

Nevertheless, the 2018 elections also witnessed political violence with many opposed to the results that were being presented. The status quo of the political crisis identified by Peace Direct (2017, p. 7) was marked by a continuation in human rights abuses, political violence and economic crisis. The genesis of this violence was based on the questioning of the authenticity of the results presented. In Zimbabwe's elections case, it always has remained a commonly held belief that the Zimbabwe Electoral Commission (ZEC) body

is compromised and has been infiltrated by ruling party supporters who will not allow anything to stand in the way of the ruling party winning the elections. Thus, it becomes of utmost importance for there to be transparency and fairness during the elections process. This questioning of election results has not been unique to Zimbabwe and has been of much concern in other African countries too. RAU (2017, p. 5) maintained that with regard to elections, the first impact to consider is that, in the very short term, it is highly improbable that this election will be free or fair. When the military takes charge of the state, this is exceedingly rarely the preliminary to establishing democratic rule. This assertion emanates from the understanding that the country has been experiencing a continuous downturn of the economy, with much disgruntlement from the people over how they are being treated by the government with regard to human rights abuses and corruption from government officials. These perpetual political events in the country are a result of ZANU-PF's will power to subdue any resistance to the country's administration while overlooking the negative impact that it might have on an ordinary citizen of the country.

Qualitative Insights on Research Objective 1 – Impact of political crisis

In a bid to try and answer the question around the impact of the political crisis that the country experienced over the years, numerous narratives have been given by the research participants to try and explain their various experiences. Looking at these narratives from a systems thinking point of view, brings out the dynamics alluded to by Arnold and Wade (2015, p. 670) of there being many system dynamic components that tend to produce even more complex effects. This speaks to the explanations that the research respondents provided. The narratives below touch on experiences that were presented as positive or negative. They are as follows:

*As an organisation, we continue to stick to our mandate of not being aligned with any political party, but continue to service everyone in any community regardless of the political party they support. However, this is not to say that we have not had any political interference in our work. Ummmh I will not mention to you who did what but all I can say is that eventualities will always be there in the line of work that we do as a result of the kind of political climate that we have in the country, but sticking to our principles is the only way that has made us survive and continue with our work. **Care Zimbabwe***

Political challenges and interferences will forever be there but the most important and productive move is not allowing them to interfere with the work you are doing. **World Vision**

Although the political crisis situation tends to interfere with how we operate or do our work, although not partisan as we are we do not give a blind eye nor a deaf ear to all that will be happening around us. Aaaah... we make sure that we keep levelheaded and stick to mandate without wavering or compromising the work that we do because of the political environment. **Zimbabwe Gender Commission**

Analysis of the above narratives endorses that these organisations have more or less similar sentiments on the political environment that has been unfavourable. Although some of the responses did not specifically mention exact incidences experienced as political interference in the work they do, it is unanimously true that the challenges have been present. They also convey their intention of retaining their sole mandate as non-partisan institutions that are not willing to compromise the work that they are engaging in. Gwaravanda (2012, p. 1) asserted that political affiliation and ambitions ought not to supersede the opinions held at grassroots level by people. From this one can assume this to be the reason behind the operations of some of the NGOs and CSOs in the country. This is against the background of acknowledging that political instability and violence have been a continuous threat in Zimbabwe. Furthermore, the narratives also confirm Peace Direct's (2017, p. 21) statement that civil societies, especially in a political crisis environment, face practical challenges in the places in which they operate.

This comes in the form of them getting clearance from the police to operate in these designated areas. As a result, trust must be built between the civil society organisations and the police, thus requiring that there not to be any fear or scepticism to jeopardise the work that they will be doing. In a way, without being obvious, the civil society organisation assumes a peacekeeping role by not entangling itself with the political mayhem, but rather seeking clearance from the relevant authorities. This avoids their operations being misinterpreted as politically inclined or inciting some form of political clash. Rather, they continue to be of service to the people regardless of their political affiliation. Orjuela (2005, p. 1) confirmed this notion by observing that we can

recognise that civil societies increasingly play a pivotal role in not involving themselves in political unrest through avoiding taking sides. Rather, they get involved as neutral players whose main purpose is educating and reminding people at the grassroots level of the importance of remaining peaceful and addressing concerns in a peaceful manner. This is in the context of understanding that the peace processes have, in turn, become an important developmental discourse component.

As an organisation although we have been actively involved in ensuring that there are gender concerns that are amplified in the country's constitution, there are limitations that I might not really finger point as such and say these ones that hinder us from having all our concerns incorporated... all I can say to you is from the several social dialogue sessions that we have had throughout our operational period the theme of justice has always been recurring.

*...we cannot really say that through the dialogues people really understand what the term justice means, but all they believe is that when justice prevails there will be peace in them and in the country as a whole. **Zimbabwe Gender Commission***

Looking at Zimbabwe Gender Commission narrative from the justice theory lens, it is worth mentioning what Dutta's (2017, p. 40) pointed out that admirable reconciliation of freedom and equality is all that Rawls (1971) argues for. The outcry for freedom and equality has taken centre stage worldwide, this is against the background of understanding the many reservations that the citizens of Zimbabwe have around how the constitution-making process was conducted, which some see as being not inclusive in nature and having many biases towards the interests of the ruling government. Rawls (1971) thought the experiment had significant suggestions on rationality. By making a choice of what is best, conceited interests one ought not to placed first, rather they should place dispositions in addition to all forms of predispositions at the expense rational thinking. This implies that all forms of discriminating and self-centered motives should be done away with and what should take precedence is ensuring that there is equal representation of everyone concerns. In other words social justice has to prevail. Despite this being difficult, it is the only starting point of ensuring that justice is realised and in turn, some force of peace can be realised. Gwaravanda (2012, p. 1) added that

the best possible scenario of public cause simply entails social discourse contributions to justice concerns in order to sensibly assess and attend to others' justice claims. This is done provided that the justice claims are expressed in way they can comprehend and supported by explanations they are able to agree to base on their personal moral opinions. However, in dealing with gender concerns, it is key to examine exactly how gender interrelates with other social characteristics which include social class and race. As such, the intersectionality concept seeks to distinguish women in order to realise the impact of social class and race on individual identities, their own personal involvement, as well as fight for power and women involvement. "Intersectionality addresses the most central theoretical and normative concern within feminist scholarship: namely, the acknowledgement of differences among women" (Davies, 2008, p. 70). Intersectionality offers a theoretical perspective and paradigm to examine the nature and consequences of systems of social inequality and, optimally, serves as a mechanism for positive social change (Hankivsky & Cormier, 2011). This is true to the concerns raised during the research process that:

*At times I feel that when we advocate for the general people of the country while pointing out pertinent issues that concern children and women like issues on domestic violence and sexual abuse, I feel that we are not heard by the responsible government departments...although I cannot say they do not hear us at all but some of the concerns need an immediate countrywide response before things go out of hand and lives are lost. **Zimbabwe Gender Commission***

*We cannot dispute that issues of social inequalities are present, but what I could also say having to zero the equalities can also prove to be difficult, that is if it can ever be achieved. However, what I can say is the best we can do is create awareness of this social ill and find ways to mitigate the level of social inequality... again I can say even doing that on its own is not an overnight process, but it calls for immediate attention. **ADRA Zimbabwe***

Nevertheless, still focused on the lens of justice, Rawls (1993, p. 249) maintained that although we would seek for some form of justice to prevail while addressing some pertinent issues in our communities, there is no need to blame each other because of self-benefits, in addition to deep-seated blunders as philosophical carelessness. Rawls

(1999, p. 4) also goes on to emphasise that their social order once the communal conception of justice is effectively regulated. This is done in order for each person to consent and distinguish that which other people accept as the underlying values of justice. This is because the accusations by implication may at some point provoke anger, bitterness and hostility thereby blocking away reasonable agreement (Gwaravanda, 2012, p. 9). Considering the case of Zimbabwe, Gwaravanda (2012) maintained that it is evident that party interests generate incorrect contradictions; prejudiced political parties that are prominent do not recognise other perspectives. In essence, the condition is not able to go further than this by involving adherence of prominent groups looking for familiarity that is able to assist them comprehend the subordinate positions as well as the marginalised. A **Zimbabwe Gender Commission** participant alluded that:

While working in different communities we have come to know different dynamics in how people react to different situations of circumstance, just because of their ideological or societal inclination... it is only now that we have come to know that even in this 21st century we still have people who are controlled not by their own independent reasoning, but by that of the societies or communities that they grew up in or the political ideologies that they subscribe to.

*Societies out there are challenged in a different way and likewise, their response or reaction to these challenges also differ from place to place. I have witnessed that in the fieldwork that we do, where in other places they take challenges lightly and figure out ways to bypass the challenge, while elsewhere it takes a lot of effort to bear or cope with the situation. **ADRA Zimbabwe***

*It is unfortunate the country finds itself in a political and economic crisis situation, where a number of young people are unemployed and spend most of their time roaming around their neighbourhood and some engaging drug abuse...to make matters even worse the majority of these unemployed youth are graduates. The mere fact that they are learned but have failed to get absorbed within the job market due to the economic challenges turns to provoke anger in them leaving room for them to be susceptible to taking part in hostile behaviour that they get exposed to within their different communities. **World Vision***

Gwavaranda (2012, p. 10) noted that by neglecting to give attention to the constraints and epistemic perspectives misrepresentations of prevailing groups, the notion of public reason covers and strengthens the freedoms of predominant groups as opposed to revealing and discouraging them. In any case, when sensibility is being employed, it must be noted that intense contrasts of perspectives are a normal phenomenon within a law based society. Therefore, these distinctions, when they emerge, must not be as a result of a party's influence, but attributed to numerous conception of what might be ethically adequate in a majority rule society. It is preposterous to enable ideological clusters to command in the constitution-production process. Furthermore, the use of Rawls' hypothesis of equity would imply that ideological clusters would enable individuals to stand up for what they think, despite the fact that this may not really be the perspective that the predominant group hold. The constitution must be founded on what is ethically attractive and not on what groups see as politically convenient for them. In turn, resistance will be maintained, accordingly setting aside shrouded political thought processes all the while. On the other hand, the expectations on political elections results and consequent political positions could be avoided by considering Rawls' hypothesis of equity. Brooke (2005) asserted resistance would guarantee a realistic political system, rather than exploiting an adversary ideological group. Therefore, Rawls' hypothesis of equity is an endeavour to acquire ethically target standards of equity.

Regarding constitution-production, Kukathas (2013) asserted that this would mean a liberal methodology in the settling of political differences. Therefore, if ethical objectivity is used, preferences would be set aside and political groups would think that it is simpler to objectify the result. Also, Cohen (2003, p. 275) referenced that the ethical agreement expands social trust and congruity, underpins social harmony, decreases the intricacy of basic leadership, urges an eagerness to participate and consequently diminishes the expense of inspection and enforcement. When consensus is permitted to come from people in general by means for ascertaining their real concerns and prevailing perspectives, it would be simpler for the final product to be trusted and doubt is an aftereffect of political groups. The justice theory would take care of narrow minded thought processes and gathering interests and enable individuals to stand up for themselves. This would thus strengthen social harmony since violence dependent on party differences will have been kept distant.

CARE Zimbabwe research participants pointed out the following:

Ever since we started operating we have understood that there are those basic human needs that we all need to be fulfilled, for example, the rights to basic education, access to a piece of land for sustenance, right to a proper shelter facility and food etc... the list is endless. But of all these rights you will notice that if they are not met there are high chances of an ongoing cry. This cry is for the needs to have these met and at times it might end up in a conflict taking place between the general people and the relevant authority that have to ensure that these rights are met.

Analysing the above narrative, it would be best to look at the protracted social conflict model that would enable the setting up of factors around protracted social conflict in Zimbabwe. In as much as there has been a long-standing debate on what exactly constitutes a need, it is important to look at it at length, so as to address key issues that emanate as a result of unmet needs. This means that it is critical to understand the human need so as to conceptualise and address or solve protracted social conflicts. Mitchell (1990, p. 150) asserted that it is of much significance to look at relationships and structures that allow or give room for needs satisfaction. Lederer, Galtung and Antal (1980, p. 3) mentioned that often when people get to realise what needs are, exactly, the insight comes not from the satisfiers but rather from the frustrations that directly result from non-satisfaction of the need. Azar (1980, p. 93) also noted the protracted and repeatedly ferocious fights by groups of people within a community for basic needs such as fair admittance to economic involvement and political institutions, security, recognition and acceptance continue to be evident.

It is also important to note that for there to be satisfaction of needs in a country's set up, institutions like civil society organisations as well as the country's political leaders need to take up a critical role to ensure this. RAU (2017, p. 2) asserted that during the lifespan of the Inclusive Government, civil society became obsessed once more with constitutional reform, rather than reform of the state, and this became highly divisive within civil society, taking the focus off the state institutions reform. This is not to denigrate the achievements of the amended constitution, but rather to point out that the cynics were right: this was a peace treaty and not a transition. The constitutional process took right up until the gate of the 2013 poll, too late to have any effect on reforming the

state, and ZANU-PF, through its prevaricating and obstructing, merely bided its time and energy in preparation for the 2013 elections. A **Zimbabwe Gender Commission** participant had this to say:

Most of our projects were affected enormously because of the political environment. We at some point had to seize operations until such a time when things had cooled down a bit and then we continued our operations. This was not to say we did not operate at all, but not at full capacity in other areas that were political hot spots. Getting to think of it the unfriendly political environment was not something that we expected to see, knowing that the people of Zimbabwe are peace-loving but for the first time since we started operating we had to go through such an experience.

The **World Vision** participant mentions that:

As for us, the political and economic environment of Zimbabwe hit us really hard on our operations and this made it really difficult to operate. This also saw our operations being perceived to have a western connotation, and we have come as western spies to get information about the country whilst disguised as an NGO helping the people of Zimbabwe.

*The political environment overlooked the impact that whatever the top is doing will have on women and children. You see politicians think about themselves and themselves alone, never do they lose sleep because of the general people in the country and how best they can help them reach their fullest potential. **ADRA Zimbabwe***

*Just like what happened in 2008 even now people are being paid to torture and beat up people in rural areas even here in Harare, and where would you report to ... because the police officers are corrupt in this country. **Mr Tshuma***

Analysing the narratives shows that the political environment around the June 2008 elections was characterised by intense violence, which is believed to have been state-sponsored (Du Plessis and Ford, 2008, p. 1). It is also worth noting the negative impact on the operations that the NGOs and CSOs take part in. For example, in some situations

civil society organisations are not able to operate without national or citizen's involvement. Harbeson (1994, p. 20) and Shils (1991, p. 4) asserted that civil societies would never be a part of the community in the event that it were totally discrete; rather it must be sustained by the state and society in general. Rigby (2006, p. 50) mentioned that "the level of self-rule that civil societies enjoy, enables it to take activities while state organizations and administrations are blocked by an absence of political will and authority among political leaders". In addition, party-political leaders inside totalitarian countries are undeniably much detached the people as opposed to others working using a majority rules system. Accordingly, they hold the capacity to control the communal and private sphere by executing regulatory strategies that stifle civil societies, downgrading it as unfit to work except if submitting to the plea of the legislature. In addition, corporatism is viewed as another risk to the self-rule of civil society (Taylor, 1990, p. 96). It is important that the arrangement of a Government of National Unity in 2009 prompted a decrease in political oppression and adjustment of the shattered economy. Furthermore, Chan and Primorac (2013) affirms that Zimbabwe's economy made a solid recuperation somewhere between 2009 to 2013, to a great extent because of this political strength, the dollarisation of the economy , and another free enterprise strategy towards the casual economy on which numerous families had come to depend on.

4.3.4 Gender and Economic Reform Programme

Evidence from the economic policy reform in Zimbabwe shows that it has not resulted in improved socio-economic welfare for the populace. Consequently, Bonga (2014) asserted that the economic decline has resulted in widespread political discontent and disaffection with the present Zimbabwean government. It is imperative to highlight that good economic policies can play a pivotal role in cleansing an economy. Economic policies may fail as a result numerous possible motives, for example absence in funding; improper implementation strategy; and lack of credibility, amongst others. Most economic policies in Zimbabwe look like statements of wishful thinking because at face value they sound good and yet, in reality, they are characterised by serious lack of a feasible and practical implementation strategy.

Table 4.2: Timeline of Economic Policies (1980–2018)

DATE	POLICY	PERIOD COVERED
1 Feb 1981	Grow With Equity (GWE)	1981
	Transitional National Development Plan (TNDP)	1982–1985
	First Five Year National Development Plan (FFYNDP)	1985–1990
18 Jan 1991	Economic Structural Development Programme (ESAP)	1991–1995
20 Feb 1998	Zimbabwe Programme for Economic and Social Transformation (ZIMPREST)	1996–2000
29 Mar 2000	Vision 2020 and Long Term Development Strategy	1997–2020
1 Aug 2001	Millennium Economic Recovery Programme (MERP)	2001–2002
1 Feb 2003	National Economic Revival Programme (NERP)	2003–2004
1 Nov 2004	Macro-Economic Policy Framework (MEPF)	2005–2006
1 Apr 2006	National Economic Development Priority Programme (NEDPP)	2006–2008
30 Sep 2007	Zimbabwe Economic Development Strategy (ZEDS)	2007–2011
19 Mar 2009	Short Term Emergency Recovery Programme (STERP I)	2009
23 Dec 2009	Short Term Emergency Recovery Programme (STERP II)	2010–2012
1 Jul 2011	Medium Term Plan (MTP)	2011–2015
1 Oct 2013	Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZIMASSET)	2013-2018

Source: Sibanda and Makwata (2017, p. 3)

4.4 GENDERED INTERSECTIONS ON THE POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC CRISIS

The accounts of the experiences of Zimbabwean women has been documented methodically in an effort to bring out clearly how at every stage of the national narrative women have engaged and been affected by the politics of the moment. This is witnessed in scholars such as Essof (2012) and Schmidt (1992) who discarded the concept of a homogenous Zimbabwean woman and instead aimed at creating a platform for different women’s stories and from within them, extrapolating knowledge that can shape and inform women’s accounts in Zimbabwe. This comes against the background that there is a need to look at poverty from a different lens that recognises the context around justice

concerns, ethnicity, race, class and other gender disparity issues that they continue to experience on a daily basis, so as to bring forth the reality of differences present. In trying to answer one of the research objectives of identifying the intersections between gender and food insecurity in Zimbabwe's political and economic crisis environment using data collected during focus group discussions and interviews. These are the themes that emerged from the discussions: women as breadwinners; poverty and land access; unavailability of land in urban areas; poverty and unemployment; domestic violence concerns; and societal conflicts.

Qualitative insights – emerging themes from the discussion

Below are some of the sentiments expressed by the focus group participants:

I have become the mother and father of my own family, if only my husband was alive he would be able to help me feed the family... zvenyika ino zvaoma (things in this country have become tough), ndashaya kuti ndoita sei manje (I do not know what to do now) because all my children depend on me and who else can help me. We need the NGOs and the International donors that go to rural areas to also come and assist us here in Harare. Mrs Chinoda

Dai ndawana pekurima muno (If only I could get a piece of land to till) my life would be better. I would not have to buy vegetables and tomatoes all the time, chero hupfu (even mealie meal) I would not have to buy urrgh... ndaingozvirimira ndega (I would just cultivate for myself). I can afford to leave a life where all things need to be bought when I have two hands to work for myself and get everything that I want through farming. Mrs Sithole

My husband was the one who provided for me and family, by providing all that we need, but because of the economic hardships, all this changed, as he found himself losing his job. Things became tough for us as a family and emotionally he became a different person than the person I used to know. Mrs Moyo

If it wasn't for the ruling government things would have been much better in the economy. Now we are suffering, while they are busy enjoying themselves and it is doing away with peace around Harare. People who support the opposition are fighting those who support the ruling party because they do not understand why such people continue to support them while we suffer like this. There are no jobs,

prices of food are always increasing, and people can't afford rent and electricity. **Ms Mathe**

Analysing the above narratives by the focus group participants reveals numerous grievances that the people are experiencing that compels one to act or react in a particular manner. While looking at it from the lens of the protracted social conflict theory, it is worth noting the inevitability of conflict eruption, in line with Jeong's (2008, p. 9) statement:

“Differences in perceived interests, values, and needs are perhaps the most basic elements in the motivations behind the social conflict. Inter-group conflict often represents different ways of life and ideologies with implications for incongruent views about relationships with others. Feelings of injustice emerge from the suppression of inherent social needs and values that have existential meanings and which cannot be compromised... Intergroup relations are constrained by a superimposed political structure in addition to their own internal dynamics. Thus the analysis of social conflict needs to focus on how group processes are linked to structural conditions such as oppressive social relations and exploitative economic systems.”

The narratives also show that most women are affected by these challenges that come as a result of an unfavourable political and economic environment. Therefore, if there be any move or action that is taken seeking to address these concerns by means of protest action or pointing of fingers on individuals or institutions, would be that the society expects justice as value or virtue that they are entitled to (Kanu, 2015; Slote, 2014; Pomerleau, 2013). Looking at this thought from the theory of social justice lens, one understands that the justice that is longed for focuses more on the relationship between individuals, the society and the entire world (Gule, 2015, p. 134; Braswell, 2015, p. 5). This can be further analysed by focusing on the lens and understanding that justice propagates the presence of social order while regulating the mutual relations. In addition, Azar and Moon (1986, p. 396) mentioned that amidst the outcry for justice to prevail, protracted social conflict occurs when people within a community do not have their basic needs met. In support of this Hendrix, Haggard and Magaloni (2009) concurred that the relative deprivation hypothesis focuses on factors that are related to

people's basic needs, perceived as entitlement and expectations. Therefore, from these conflicts might emerge when people have not achieved what they desired or when their relative marginalisation increases. This makes protracted social conflict a common challenge for everyone involved in relationships that socio-cultural-ethnic conflicting in the midst of continued underdevelopment (Azar and Moon, 1986, p. 401). Therefore, it is evident that the individuals entangled are gender-impartial communal representatives without identities, gender-specific needs, and roles. In addition, the socio, cultural, and ethnic connections are depicted as similarly gender unbiased.

It is also worth noting that “as the constitution-making process commenced, most women took advantage of the chance to renegotiate their lived reality in Zimbabwe. Women's groups were among the few effective civil society lobbies that accomplished key aims within the COPAC constitution-making process. Section 23(3) of the Lancaster House Constitution restricted the ability of women to be equal with men” (Flores and Made, 2016, p. 4). This is particularly true with regard to the ownership land. “For one to fully take advantage of a process that was deeply polarising and heavily politicised, women had needed to transcend political divisions and speak with one voice. Therefore, one of the most contentious clauses in the Lancaster House Constitution was Section 23(3), which restricted the ability of women to own land” (Ndulo, 2010, p. 194). This was underscored by the FTLRP government's failure to develop any precise rules regarding women and land.

The country's land policy after independence concentrated mainly on cultural disparities, not on gender disparities. In this regard it left the gender space void and unaddressed. According to Deere (1999, p. 14), “there are a number of obstacles that repress women in exercising their land rights that include: patriarchal post-marital residency; low levels of literacy; strong resistance from male kin; social construction of gender needs and roles; and male bias at all levels of public decision-making”. However, more deep-seated issues should not be overlooked, most importantly those centred on gender concerns. Table 4.3 clearly explains the dynamics between the disruption of the economy and the impact that this has on both men and women.

Table 4.3: Economic Disruption and Gender Concerns

	MALE	FEMALE
Traditional character	Main source of income	Caregiver
Roles	Earning income	Mother to children, wife to husband
Reaction (to male job loss)	Anxiety, embarrassment, alcoholic, drug addict, violent	depression, conflict, irritation, uselessness
Adaptation	Downfall, failure	Take action, risky low income, low-status jobs, and family care, depression
Consequences	Redundant males in households, failure, family fragmentation	Wobbly new confidence, vulnerability, family fragmentation
Interventions	Employment creation	Protection, organisation, employment
Dialogues	Male-female identity	Male-female identity

Source: Narayan-Parker et al. (2000, p. 177)

NGOs, through their role of being an educational vehicle for increasing knowledge and access to information, have played a key role in responding to challenges that women face. According to Galtung (1969; 1990), while looking at structural violence, Zimbabwe's civil environment revealed four key displays of violence that have affected women both during and since the 2000–2008 political crisis. These manifestations include social and economic violence; structural violence; cultural violence; and physical violence. Structural violence is signified by complex imbalanced power relations stuck between men and women that are strengthened by domineering guidelines, which produce emotional pain and suffering for women. The Structural Violence Approach (SVA) is an approach which focuses on how social structures of society such as politics, religion, economy, culture and tradition, together with social facts such as poverty, peer pressure, gender inequality and economic hardships, constrain, harm and shape individuals in society (Galtung, 1969). Similarly, Ho (2007)

posited that structural violence reveals how structural disparities thoroughly rob other individuals of their basic human needs and violate human rights. Ho (2007, p. 7) backs the idea that structural violence theorists describe violence as the preventable disparity between the probable capacity to satisfy basic needs and their actual accomplishment, stating that:

“Structural violence exists when some groups, classes, genders, nationalities, etc. are assumed to have, and in fact do have, more access to goods, resources and opportunities than other groups, classes, genders, nationalities, etc. and this unequal advantage is built into the very social, political and economic systems that govern societies, states and the world”. (Ho, 2007, p. 7)

With reference to issues surrounding structural violence, it is believed that there is a need to legitimise the power imbalances between men and women, together in their families and community. Moyo (2008) noted that like any social occurrences, structural violence have to be comprehend within the socio-cultural perspective in which it takes place. In the case of Zimbabwe, it is evident that interpersonal and intrapersonal violence takes place within a context of structural violence. The approach further explains the unequal exercise of power in the distribution of resources that inevitably leads to structural inequalities. Structural Violence Approach explores how structures of society act as barriers to individual participation and how the structures of a society violate human rights.

The approach complements the aims of this study in that it looks at how structures of society act as barriers or constraints and harm women’s participation in community development projects utilising the individual skills of women. Structural violence is hidden within structures of the society and has an indirect impact on people, especially the powerless people within societies such as women (Ho, 2007). This explains why some victims and survivors of violence are unaware of it, regarding it as a norm or simply how the structure functions. Galtung (1969) asserted that structural violence is invisible in certain structures of the society, such as culture, yet has a direct impact on people, disabling them in terms of having their needs met or achieving their full potential. Osirim (2003) affirms that, Zimbabwe like any other society, experiences domestic abuse and rape that is a clear illustration of the manner to which men wield control over women. Therefore, violence against women comes as a result of the structural problems such as political and economic crises being experienced.

4.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented numerous issues with regard to the political atmosphere that seems unfavourable, in some instances breeding a wave of violent conflict. A parallel theme presented is of persistent economic mismanagement and crippling policies that have trapped Zimbabwe into operating as an informal economy, financially vulnerable, and de-industrialised. This crisis situation continues to spark resentment and frustration in the populace. This is evidenced by the current protests that have wreaked havoc in the country due to the continuous increase in fuel prices as well as basic food prices, while salaries remain unchanging amidst the price hikes. Also identified from the different theoretical lens is that systems theory views the political environment of Zimbabwe as being entangled in complex dynamics that have a ripple effect. This is against the background of understanding that all the political leaders have one thing in common, which is desire to retain power by any means necessary. This is evident with the breakaway factions in the two major parties in the country, ZANU-PF and MDC. These breakaway factions had their inception in 2005 and resulted in MDC-T that is currently led by Nelson Chamisa and MDC-N led by Welshman Ncube. The opposing camps that were created had to a greater extent shown their violent tendencies through action that they instigated.

Analysis through the theory of justice lens shows that much still needs to be done within the justice system of the country and in order for people to get closure on the politically related atrocities taking place. This is evident with the recent protests that the country experienced, where the people of Harare took to the streets and video footage of people being beaten up and shot by military personnel and police was circulated social media. This is echoed by the Zimbabwe Human Rights Commission (2019) report that the protests happened after an increase in fuel prices left people in despair, and systematic torture by military and the police. However, none of the perpetrators has been brought to book, although there is overwhelming evidence of atrocities committed. This on its own leaves the victims with so many questions as to why the GoZ is not taking any action to address this.

Food insecurity and poverty may be additional contributors to the political instability and conflict, because of the fact that neither hunger nor poverty exists independently. There are additional features of the political, social and economic atmosphere that

impact the measure to which failing food security and added general grievances are articulated in a violent manner. Lalman (1987) states that the escalation of conflict in crisis situations is the outcome of choices made by rationally thinking players and stakeholders. In cases of political crisis, rationality suggests that parties to the conflict on their own or with the help of third parties, need to reflect on the conflict with the objective of coming out with a workable and viable solution in the interests of national stability. The parties can choose either to negotiate or to fight and the form that the conflict takes is determined by the option chosen, leading to peace or to violence. In addition, violence against women in the midst of political and economic crises has in recent years become widespread and severe, with calls for prompt action going unheeded. Even though the theory of intersectionality enables one to imagine the manner that oppressions come together to compound women's struggles, it might be contended that it misses the mark concerning portraying the connections inside this trap of bigger frameworks, especially as to the wellbeing and social help frameworks.

CHAPTER FIVE: ANALYSING FOOD INSECURITY COPING MECHANISMS IN ZIMBABWE'S POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC CRISIS ENVIRONMENT

... the source of protracted social conflict is the denial of those elements required in the development of all peoples and societies, and whose pursuit is a compelling need in all. These are security, distinctive identity, social recognition of identity, and effective participation in the processes that determine conditions of security and identity, and other such developmental requirements. The real source of conflict is the denial of those human needs that are common to all and whose pursuit is an ontological drive in all. (Azar, 1990, p. 146)

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter seeks to answer the research question around the responses of individuals with food security/ insecurity concerns by presenting an analysis of food insecurity coping mechanisms in the midst of the economic and political crisis in Zimbabwe, focusing primarily in response to women and children. The analysis is done in support to Korf and Bauer's (2002) assertion that, as a foundation to the discussion, the issue of food insecurity is very complex and tackling it has become core to aid interventions. According to the report by the International Federation of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (2017), livelihood adapting techniques remain reason for worry as exhaustion of assets directly lessens future efficiency and affects families' capacity to adapt to upcoming shocks, thus leading to future nourishment utilisation gaps. Wallace (2002) emphasised that adapting as well as endurance techniques have been created to investigate how individuals living in marginal circumstances can control resources in ground-breaking and intricate ways to get by in the midst of threat. While inquiring on adapting techniques has usually concentrated on either expanding income or lessening spending as a sustainable way that the underprivileged and susceptible individuals survive, Adugna (2006) pointed out it has become perceived that destitution and weakness are multi-dimensional, dynamic and not founded on access to income alone, and that individuals react to hardship in differing ways. As a result, resilient livelihood activities are recommended for both the urban and rural households.

5.2 COPING STRATEGIES

Ellis (2000, p. 13) asserted that “coping strategies are invoked following a decline in normal sources of food and these are regarded as involuntary responses to disaster or unanticipated failure in major sources of survival”. Devereux (1993) stated that the notions of coping and coping approaches or strategies are deeply entrenched in responses to the famines that were experienced in Africa during the 1970s and 1980s. As a result of the famine experience that had a severe effect in many African countries, the need was recognised for coping strategies to be put in place for the welfare of the people. Although there are debates on whether or not the coping strategies that were implemented during that time have proven sustainable, it is evident that the contemporary experience calls for contemporary coping mechanisms that are sustainable. There are also individual circumstances to consider in terms of who receives food aid and the circumstances around the supply of aid. Sometimes people receive aid in the form of food parcels during cases of famine, civil war and natural disasters like floods. It is also evident that in many of the situations surrounding food insecurity, not everyone bears the same food insecurity burden. Some bear a heavy burden while others experience very little hardship. Mostly, it is African women and children that are most food insecurity within harsh political and economic crisis environments.

Korf and Bauer (2002) pointed out that humanitarian agencies tend to perceive people who find themselves caught up in crises and political conflicts as helpless and in dire need of aid. Often humanitarian agencies experience extreme pressure to produce visible results quickly in response to a crisis situation, especially during and in the aftermath of a conflict situation (Korf and Bauer, 2002). Therefore, as a result of the food price crisis of 2007-2008, commercial food administration has become considered as unmanageable. It has been revealed that each of the causes that contribute to the food crisis is entrenched in the neoliberal base of the commercial food administration. Therefore, the disaster situation must not be considered as an abrupt occurrence, but rather as an occurrence that has been in the making for years. It is noted that “disasters, be they sudden or gradual, can offer insights into politics and society that can point to ways in which state and market functions can be understood by an alternative logic” (Holt-Giménez & Shattuck, 2011, p. 114). The chapter is devoted to mapping out the prevailing and other reasons of food politics that occurred in reaction to the food crisis

situation in Zimbabwe, while focusing in particular on the impact it has had on women. Goertz and Mazur (2008, p. 195) attested that:

“Ignoring the intersectional nature of these systems means we systematically overlook the experiences of many different groups of marginalized women, and by default focus only on the most privileged women (white, middle-class, able-bodied, heterosexual), on whom most of our theorizing and research is based”.

With this in mind, it appears that the theory of intersectionality best describes and explore the nexus between race and gender (and class) with focus on how the two prompt social classes to continue and transform (Davis 2008, p. 71). Also with regard to societal class, it is essential to understand that every person is in a social class and a person’s social political identity combines to develop a unique mode of either discrimination or privilege. According to Goldthorpe (2016) in as much as marriage and success in different areas of expertise are important, education remains one of the greatest determinants of social class. Goldthorpe (2016) proposed that class is a “social inequality that is most consequential for individuals’ material well-being and in turn, for a wide range of their life-chances and life-choices”. In this research, focus group discussions and interviews have been used to explore the concerns affecting Zimbabwe’s food security, after which various coping mechanisms are considered. In the midst of many other factors that countries around the world may be facing around food insecurity, continued efforts and strategies need to be put in place. From the interview question that focused on food insecurity coping mechanisms in Zimbabwe’s political and economic crisis environment, the following narratives emerged:

In the work that we do and from place to place that we have operated in we have noticed that there are huge differences in terms of land quality... you would find that other places have vast areas of arable land while others do not have. On the other hand, you will find out that some could have arable land, but it does not suffice to meet their needs just because it is small hence they run the risk of having their food security concerns. **World Vision**

... We know you might say but insist that Zimbabwe is one country, so why would others have arable land while others do not have. Ummm all I can tell you is regions vary and the climatic conditions also vary hence the experience that you see. I will not talk much on the historical context around why people find themselves staying in a region or area where there is no arable land. But all I

can tell you that during my time working here I have noticed that a greater population of people is concentrated in those places where there is no arable land. **World Vision**

I would like to say as ADRA Zimbabwe in places that we move around, we have noticed there has been poor rainfall and that has immensely affected the availability of adequate food for families. Also, you will notice that in an urban setup like Harare there is not much land that you can say people rely on for food, so the only way is buying and the ever increase in the prices play a negative role and have an impact on food security. **ADRA Zimbabwe**

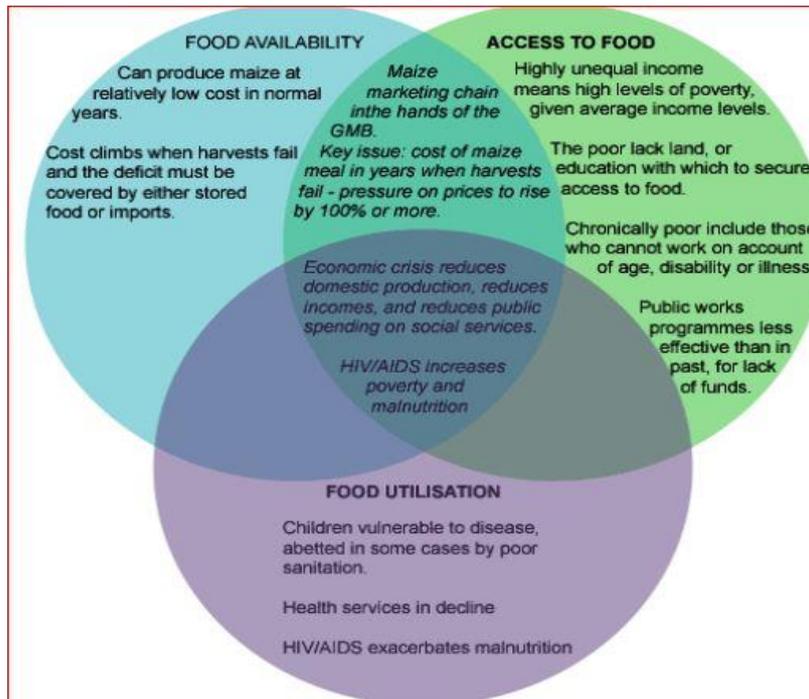
People are failing to access food based on the prices attached to the food. The economic and political instability has affected the majority of people... this is evident in that you will find breadwinners losing their job because of most of the industries are closing as a result of failing to finance their projects and lack of raw materials they use. **CARE Zimbabwe**

Inequality and corruption in the country contributed to the food insecurity experience within the country. This is because when people are regarded unequal as they function, it also means that they get remunerated differently and as a result, one faces the greatest punch when it comes to being able to afford. Again corruptions come in when others take advantage of others just because they have access to the food... [some] have access to food and the rest of the people are left out without access. **Zimbabwe Gender Commission**

From the above narratives, the common theme is that of acknowledging that Zimbabwe as a country has serious food security concerns. Different as the factors affecting food security might be, given the narratives from the NGOs and CSOs there is a need for something to be done in order for the food insecurity concerns to be met. This is important so as to avoid adverse effects like death or food riots that come when people trying to use any means possible to avoid them. At times people might resort to violence as a measure to safeguard themselves from the effects of food insecurity, which may have a ripple effect and spill over to other communities or countries that are close to the affected areas. It is worth noting that some of these factors that were raised during the

interviews were pointed out in a forum that took place over a decade ago looking at the factors affecting food security concerns in Zimbabwe (see Figure 5.1). This shows that little or no effort has been made to address these concerns that continue to trouble Zimbabwe as a country.

Figure 5.1: Factors affecting Zimbabwe’s food security



Source: Forum for Food Security in Southern Africa (2004, p. 16)

Figure 5.1 provides a general idea of the key concerns in food security. It shows food availability being affected as a result of low yields. Fluctuations in the harvest of cereal has been reported by FAO (2019) and the estimated cereal yield for 2018 was 1.94 million tonnes which is 24 per cent than that of 2017. This reduction in yield was attributed to the mid-season dry spell in January 2018. Differential access to food is attributed to high levels of income inequality, high poverty levels, as well as lack of funds in public works programmes. Lastly, the Forum for Food Security in Southern Africa (2004, p. 16) noted that malnutrition of children may possibly be a factor of inadequate attention, sanitation and health as it is of access to food. This is evident given the decline in health services because of financial cuts as well as when the trade and industry challenges take their toll, at the same time as the spread of the HIV/AIDS pandemic in the country. It is evident from this analysis that political organisations which are not capable of managing different group interests amicably, to give sufficient

certifications of gathering assurance, or suit developing requests for political cooperation, can break social orders. Below are two other narratives that came from the focus group discussions, addressing the same issue of factors affecting food security in Zimbabwe but which offer different points to those highlighted by the NGOs and CSOs.

Climate change as I understand it has robbed us of our livelihood, we should be in a land that has all food that we want at our disposal ... look at how dry the land is no rain... nothing ... how then we will have food. I do not even think that this year people will go to the rural areas kunorima (for ploughing). Ms. Mathe

... I hope I really understood what the question relates to, but I would think in the case of Zimbabwe the food insecurity factors have been more political than any other economic issue. I am saying this based on my understanding that because of the sanctions that we as a country are under we have become alienated from the rest of the world and we cannot access food like all these other countries at a cheaper price. Rather we resort to paying much more than others do. Mr. John

5.2 ROLE OF CIVICS IN ZIMBABWE'S DEVELOPMENT

In the country, pertinent types of social association can be found in civil society organisations as well as political leadership. These are viewed as significant on the grounds that they have assumed a vital job in forming the principles of political, financial, social and environmental challenge. According to the World Economic Forum (2013, p. 6), “technology, geopolitics and the markets have created opportunities and pressures, spurring the creation of millions of civil society organisations around the world, giving rise to exciting models for citizen expression both online and offline and generating increasing involvement in global governance processes”. It appears that civil society is becoming an increasingly important player internationally. De Weijer and Kilnes (2012) have noted that there is increased attention in the public space for universal public goods that has affected global civil society roles and responsibilities.

In the context of Africa, most civil society has become a prominent idea both regarding the analysis of the social bases of future political changes in Africa and of outside approach support for procedures of liberal vote based political change. In addition, civil society organisations perform a critical watchdog function in the self-governing environment, including monitoring of voting process, political violence watchdog,

corruption watchdog as well as following public views. Varshney (2002, p. 3) stated that civic associations and day to day civic engagement, if sincerely done, promotes an element of peace, while absence of this could lead to space for communal violence. Civil society organisations also enable access and sharing of resources essential to fulfil individual needs. This supports the narrative given by participants from the NGOs and CSOs interviewed:

As an organisation, we have a mandate of educating the communities that we work in on how best they can preserve the little food resources that they might be having. This is to avoid a situation whereby they have to experience the harsh outcome of a reduction in the annual harvest and food price hikes, as a result of an economic crisis. **World Vision**

... we have taken it upon ourselves to look out for women and children both in the rural and urban areas, believed to have experienced injustice in whatsoever form because of the economic and political crisis. **Zimbabwe Gender Commission**

Understanding that in Zimbabwe there are some basic human needs that need special attention, we have made sure we drill numerous boreholes not only in urban areas but also in rural areas. This has enabled the people in the various communities that we service to be able to do subsistence farming for their households as well as or the market. **ADRA Zimbabwe**

Recognising areas to reinforce CSO backing and commitment with community nourishment education programmes is significant for guaranteeing nourishment and food security Chitiga-Mabugu et al. (2016). In addition, there is a need for coordination and collaboration of CSO and government interventions to ensure that they complement each other for greater societal food and nutrition security. CSOs can likewise assume a significant role of teaching women, youth and other disregarded individuals as supporters of nutrition awareness in the societies. Chitiga-Mabugu et al. (2016, p. 55) mentioned that “through advocacy, CSOs can also help ensure more government accountability and involvement in providing food and nutritional security to poor rural and urban communities”. They can also provide monitoring and evaluation services to measure improvement regarding to reaching targets and keeping the government

mindful of the deficiencies and territories that should be reinforced or potentially improved. Moore (2006) pointed out that the intervention and construction of civil societies have come about through a background marked by fights for and over administrative matters, class battle and the everyday material possibilities of endurance, as much as character, opportunity and principles of liberal and open-minded assumed as often connected with civil society theories. Table 5.1 below shows some of the key roles that civil society organisations play.

Table 5.1: Civil Society Role in Zimbabwe

ROLE	ACTIVITY
Mobilising communities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Breed a sense of national identity, ownership and national pride. • Provide incentives for community participation, e.g. scholarships, grants etc. • Create a skills database for communities
Forming strategic alliances and partnerships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Building relationships • Networking with like-minded institutions and stakeholders (government, diaspora organisations, businesses)
Coordinating development efforts and promoting awareness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improve communication with the public on opportunities available, e.g. microfinance initiatives etc. • Improve coordination mechanisms with the government on state-led projects.
Economic and social advocacy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Negotiating better rates and fees for public services provision • More lobbying for accessibility and availability of public goods and services • Pressurising the state on the better provision of public goods and services
Helping in policy formulation and analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Investigation and technology • Compiling data and reports on alternative policy ideas, plans, goals and implementation. • Disseminating information to key stakeholders (government)
Monitoring and evaluating economic policies, management and performance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lobbying the state on faulty policies. • Ensuring a safety net for society in the face of backlashes resulting from state policies, e.g. social welfare. • Being a watchdog to the state on policymaking through the media, public demonstration etc.

Source: Zigomo (2012, p. 13)

Qualitative insights addressing Research Objective 2 – Role played by NGOs and CSOs

White (1994, p. 379) maintains that “the civil society concept has come into growth dialogue from political theory and is commonly used to describe a realm where people organise voluntarily and separately from the state, market and family spheres, to protect their interests and values”. Civil society is therefore more than its connotations; it is the circle of wilful relationship, where it functions. Policymakers would generally buy in to a regularising civil society theory as acculturated and a vital factor which makes social capital, similar to trust, participation over ethnic, religious and other divisions, comprehensiveness and open discussion (Van Rooy 1998; Putnam 1992). With the closeness of social capital, majority rules system, financial improvement, harmony and friendliness are viewed as bound to win. For example, Varshney (2002) mentions that studies of civil society and social capital uncover that comprehensiveness in methods of organising and partnering, and cooperation over ethnic restrictions, can serve to avert violence. A firm civil society may in this way be viewed as worth supporting and working up for the good of its own and for its job in empowering other improvement destinations.

Nonetheless, the research recognises that there could well be other civil societies who operate as a space where there are opposing powers. As such, supporting fairness has been the principal aim of foreign assistance to developing countries civil society. While being actively involved civil societies have a potential of promoting political cooperation and the enunciation of group-based interests, to be able to counterbalance the power of the state and hold governments accountable, as well as to create a democratic culture. But in practice, democracy aid has often been channelled to a narrow group of professional NGOs engaged in activities explicitly related to democratisation. Söderberg and Ohlson (2002, p. 18) suggested that “although civil society organisations are frequently organised along ethnic lines, an empowerment of civil society might contribute to increased ethnic polarisation”. A well working majority rule government is in itself a system to peacefully arrange and tackle clashes between groups. Nevertheless, given the crucial and critical role that NGOs and CSOs play in communities around the world that bring about positive change, Mutswanga, Dube and Gandari (2010) (cited in Mutanana and Bukaliya, 2015) noted that the level to which people share common values, and as well as regard each other's beliefs, is a significant

component of success. The participating organisations gave the following narratives in relation to the role that they play and the challenges that they face:

Although as an organisation we have a clear mission and activities that we should constantly adhere to, we often times meet political and economic obstacles along the way that stifle our operations. At times because of the economic harsh conditions, we find ourselves not operating at full capacity or end up cutting down on the number of projects that we had planned on doing.

Advocacy roles in an economy that has a lot of gatekeeping concerns are very difficult at times to fully practise. Subsequently, this will make people assume that we are weak because of the circumstances around us failing to meet people's expectations. Little do these people know that as much as we would like the best for them, it is beyond our control. **Zimbabwe Gender Commission**

As an organisation, we have come to the realisation that in order to succeed in our operations we have to plan for the worst case scenario that could hinder our operations and see to it that we strategise well in advance. This is the only way we can rest assured that our work will go smoothly without any hindrances. **CARE Zimbabwe**

The government has good and effective policies in place; the greatest change that it has is on the implementation of those policies. That is where we come in as Zimbabwe Gender Commission and make sure that these policies are instituted in such a manner that it will leave everyone happy, whether you are male or female, old or young, rich or powerful. We do this because it is the only way to ensure that no one is left out and it also makes it easy to help build relationships amongst people who are treated equally without segregation. Hmm... I can also say it is a way of ensuring that there is sustainable peace in the country. **Zimbabwe Gender Commission**

Analysing the above-mentioned roles and responsibilities shows that NGOs and CSOs have taken great responsibilities upon themselves. However, it is also evident that there are numerous obstacles that they experience as stumbling blocks in the way of their

progression. From a theoretical point of view, Azar (1979) affirmed that the country's role and the national authority are key elements in fulfilling or provoking personal and collective needs. This is particularly evident in protracted social conflicts, where the expropriation of power by the prevailing social group restricts the state's ability to meet the needs of all social groups. Azar's model can be well thought-out in the light of gender for the sake of the research.

While imitating and tolerating the public-private split as some way or another natural, Azar's comprehension of the nations' keeps up, legitimises and re-enforces the family unequal power distribution in the private versus the public sphere. Azar's contention disregards the family job just as family establishments in arranging political power, while concentrating on the job of the state, particularly in the postcolonial period. This appears to be an especially striking weakness as in many post-frontier states, more distant families have been and keep on being the regarded key players as far as (social) dedication and political and financial association. These family and connection connections frequently change or overflow into ideological gatherings in the new, post-frontier state. In addition to the fact that Azar neglects the job of the family in organizing the open circle, however he additionally covers the intra-family unit imbalances of assets and power in the private circles. This incorporates immediate and backhanded types of viciousness against women, for example, constrained prostitution, assault, and aggressive behaviour at home which is on the rise (Reimann, 2001).

5.3 GENDERED FOOD SECURITY PROMOTION MECHANISM

According to Holmes and Jones (2010, p. 1), the absence of gender-sensitive issues in social protection mechanisms influences risks tackled by the intervention and implementation practices. It is important to note that urban households experience an income shock and a drop in consumption if at least one of the following events have place: namely, situations in which a family member loses their job; experiences a substantial drop in earnings; serious illness; crop failure; loss of livestock; or a family business experiencing a substantial drop in revenue (Gaviria, 2001; Notten et al., 2012; IFAD, 2007). According to IFAD (2007), coping ability can be defined as taking measure to reduce fluctuations in income. Faced with an income or food shock, urban households must safeguard their food depletion either by buying or getting food from

other places such as friends and relatives. Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler (2004, p. 9) defined the systems of social protection as

“all public and private initiatives that provide income and consumption transfer to the poor, protect the vulnerable against livelihood risks and enhance the social status and rights of the marginalised: with the overall objective of reducing the economic and social vulnerability of poor, vulnerable and marginalised groups.”

Such social protection programmes have been used to address rising poverty and vulnerability but the degree to which gender is addressed in these policies is insignificant. According to Sall (2000), gender stereotypes inhibit women from realising their full potential. Holmes et al. (2003) stated that gender stereotypes are categorical beliefs regarding the traits and behavioural characteristics ascribed to individuals on the basis of gender. Shaba (2003, p. 5) explained further that stereotypes are the rigidly held beliefs that men and women, because of their biological makeup, possess distinct psychological traits and characteristics. Such stereotypes have serious negative economic and social consequences. To combat the food security crisis situation at national level, community level and household level there is a need for a shared level of response from all the people that have been affected.

Qualitative insights – Sustainable food promotion

*During our course of operation, we have often come to note that there is much more that needs to be done to ensure sustainability, given the challenges that the economy continues to face. We should do away with having our livelihoods highly depend upon food aid. What will happen to the recipients of this aid when there are no aid institutes completely, will that mean the end of life? **World***

Vision

*I have always said this, handidi kuramba ndichingoita munhu wekupemha (I do not want to remain a beggar). I also want to be able to feed myself and my family. Who knows maybe I can go on to even feed the nation. **Mr Tshuma***

The government should be intelligent enough to know what is happening around. Why do they have to wait for the last minute to see that the political and economic crisis has affected us? We do not have money to ensure we have

enough meals for our day to day need. So they should find a way or come up with a plan in time so that we do not end up killing each other and stealing from each other to survive. **Mr Tom**

If only I stayed kumusha (rural area) I would know that my stomach problems are well taken care of, because the donors always come and help people with food. Manje muno mutown (Now here in the urban setting) hapana chaunowana (there is nothing you will get). **Mrs Chinoda**

In analysing the above narratives, it is important pointing out that ensuring food security is more than merely giving out food aid to distressed people, but goes beyond that. It would also involve addressing political, economic, and social concerns. Pinstrup-Andersen and Herforth (2008) mentioned that in the same way as the reasons for food instability change, so do the accessible reactions. There is expanding acknowledgment that the fundamental reasons for food insecurity can once in a while be tended to by a solitary mediation. However, arriving at an accord on the best and proficient combination of external reactions is a challenge. On the other hand, understanding under what conditions certain reactions come up short or succeed, regardless of whether interventions arrive at expected populaces, what unintended outcomes may result, which exercises are corresponding or contending, and what costs, advantages and practicality factors intercessions involve remain centre subjects of progressing research on food insecurity. An officer from **World Vision** who was interviewed had this to say with regard to the food security promotion mechanism:

We all know that the economic challenges and poor rainfall has undermined the food security of the country as a whole, therefore it was upon us to assist people in the affected areas. Although it might not be able to reach out to everyone, we will try our level best to ensure that all people are covered.

5.3.1 Gendered Response to Food Insecurity

Different coping strategies are adopted within different societies, but the general sequence of adoption of progressively desperate strategies is common (Majake, 2005; Maxwell & Slater, 2003; Corbett, 1988; Watts, 2013). Coping strategies of households

are influenced by factors such as economic status, gender and age (Devereux, 2001) and are either erosive or non-erosive (Maxwell et al., 2003; Devereux, 1993; Watts, 2013). The scale of coping strategies begins with a household head experiencing anxiety about food insufficiency, leading to decisions to reduce the household's food budget by altering the quantity or variety of food consumed by the family (Maxwell et al., 2003; Ellis, 1998; Corbett, 1988). As the situation worsens, adults in the urban household begin to experience hunger due to reduced food intake to protect children and in most severe circumstances, both children and adults experience hunger (Ellis, 2000). The strategies are typically adopted in a sequence beginning with those that cause the least discomfort, followed by progressively drastic measures. Food insecure people confronting imperatives pick between utilisation of food and different other necessities while at the same time picking between food security now and later on. These exchange can bring about practices that antagonistically influence current food security. Therefore, in order to guarantee the suitability of their future people may pick food insecurity as opposed to sell beneficial resources. Essentially, Reed and Habicht (1998); Paolisso et al., (2001) mention that people now and again end up selling their food aid so as to purchase different necessities, or invest less childcare so as to create salary. Vulnerability and introduction to hazard can likewise affect people's occupation methodology decisions. According to Barrett, (2002) food insecure people regularly pick less hazardous, however lower, compensate techniques that keep them helpless. On the other hand different sub-populaces are likewise to be influenced by food insecurity in an unexpected way. Quisumbing et al. (2008) maintained that women have less assets to draw from than men. Therefore, Barrett (2002) attested that seriously intense food insecurity can bring about irreversible subjective or physical harm, prompting expanded well-being consumption, lost work efficiency, or even mortality.

These irreversible impacts of food insecurity can prompt negative criticism circles or poverty of the sort depicting low-level stability from which family units cannot escape without outside help. Comprehension and representing people's reactions to food insecurity can upgrade the adequacy of interventions. On the other hand, Devereux et al., (2008) and Maxwell et al., (2008) mention that the Coping Strategies Index, a food security measure that screens family unit reactions to declining food security, finds that adapting systems, from proportioning nourishment admission to selling beneficial resources, can be assembled reliably over nations by severity. A frameworks approach

can explain the associations between rural profitability, biological systems, nourishment instability and practices even with nourishment frailty (Pinstrup-Andersen and Herforth, 2008; Barrett, 2002). Dynamic frameworks modelling may give experiences into family reactions to food insecurity dangers and might be particularly helpful for understanding the impacts of environmental change on family unit food security.

An example of coping strategies is evident in the neighbouring country to Zimbabwe, South Africa. In a research study conducted, there were an estimated 14 million households vulnerable to food insecurity in South Africa and an estimated 2.2 million food insecure households in South Africa (Ministry of Agriculture, 2006). It is generally agreed that South Africa remains one of the most unequal countries in the world in terms of income distribution, which became even more concentrated in the hands of the few after the fall of apartheid. According to the HSRC (2004) report, the Gini coefficient¹⁷ (a measure of poverty) rose from 0.69 in 1996 to 0.77 in 2001. Poverty is a distinctly rural phenomenon with an estimated 75 per cent of South Africa's poor living in rural areas (Eastwood et al., 2006). South Africa has a well-developed system of social security compared to Zimbabwe and the reach of the social grant safety net has expanded rapidly over the past five years (Booyesen, 2004). At least 12 million South Africans in a population of more than 47 million receive some form of social grant. The old age pension, as in many countries, provides income security for older people in South Africa and it is one of the social grants in the country (Booyesen, 2004). People who qualify for an old age pension include any South African citizen of 60 years old (for females) or 65 years old (for males). The child support grant is probably the only grant that benefits the child directly. This was introduced in 1998 to replace the state maintenance grant (Booyesen, 2004). South Africa's food security, particularly for the urban and rural poor, is under threat as they grapple with the food reserves (National Agricultural Marketing Council, 2008). From July 2007 to July 2008, the year-on-year increase in the Consumer Price Index for Food was 17.8 per cent (National Agricultural Marketing Council, 2008). This is the highest rate of food inflation experienced in the country since January 2003. The urban poor are among the worst affected as they do not have food access, unlike the rural poor, who have access to land to grow food to support themselves and their families (National Agricultural Marketing Council, 2008).

¹⁷¹⁷ The Gini coefficient refers to a measure of statistical dispersion meant to represent a country's wealth distribution, and is used to measure inequality.

In seeking to better understand food insecurity coping strategies, various sources have attempted to define coping strategies. Devereux (2001) defined the term as a response to adverse events or shocks. Snel and Staring (2001, p. 10) definition addresses the broad notion of coping strategies, namely that “all the strategically selected acts that individuals and households in a poor socio-economic position use to restrict their expenses or earn some extra income to enable them to pay for the basic necessities (food, clothing, shelter) and not fall too far below their society’s level of welfare”. The definition suggests that adapting procedures include cognisant appraisal of elective plans. This depends on the suspicion that inside the restricted alternatives accessible to families, the families are resource managers with opportunity of making decision in connection to their activities (Ellis, 2003; Devereux, 1993). This does not really imply that their selection of systems is constantly effective in accomplishing their planned targets. Truth be told, the adapting methodologies frequently have unintended negative impacts. Ellis (2000) characterised adapting systems as the strategies utilised by family units to endure when stood up to with unforeseen employment disappointment. Ellis, (2000) suggest that adapting contains strategies utilised when defied by disasters, for example, drawing down on investment funds; spending food stocks; getting endowments from family members; profiting by community handouts; offers of domesticated animals and different other resources.

The methodologies sought after by family units contrast in a few angles, both inside and between families (Majake, 2005; Maxwell et al., 2003). Because of shifting degrees of riches among family units, diverse adapting practices are embraced by families at various destitution levels. Be that as it may, some adapting procedures are regular to all family units, despite the fact that the degree to which such methodologies empower a family to stay above water can rely upon the benefits available to them (Devereux, 2001). The general inclination is that the lower the family resource status, the more probable the family unit is take part in erosive reactions, for example, auctioning off of profitable resources, for example, ranch executes (Hoddinott & Skoufias, 2004; Devereux, 2001; Corbett, 1988).

Faced with an income or food shock, households may either protect their food consumption by purchasing or receiving food from other sources such as friends and relatives (Davies, 1993; Corbett, 1988). Literature distinguishes between risk

management (income soothing) and risk coping strategies (consumption soothing). The former attempts to reduce the risk impacts, for example through income diversification (Busse, 2006; Dercon, 2000). Households smooth income by making conservative production or employment choices and diversifying economic activities. In this way, households take steps to protect themselves from adverse income shocks before they occur (Murdoch, 1995). Risk coping strategies deal with consequences of risk (Busse, 2006). In this instance, households smooth consumption by borrowing and saving, adjusting labour supply and employing formal and informal insurance arrangements. Murdoch (1995) assert that these techniques take effect after adverse circumstances occur and help insulate consumption patterns from income variability.

Risk-coping strategies involve self-insurance (through precautionary savings) and informal group-based risk-sharing (Dercon, 2000; Davies, 1993). Households can insure themselves by building up assets in good years, to deplete these stocks in bad years (Dercon, 2000). Households may modify their food consumption by reducing or modifying food intake or reducing the number of consumers (Dercon, 2000; Corbett, 1988). Consumption soothing strategies generally increase as income generating strategies come under strain (Dercon, 2000). Shocks refer to sudden and unexpected occurrences (May and Woolard, 2007; Davies, 1993). The exposure to shocks triggers coping strategies and a household's coping capacity results in either failure or success to attain food security (Davies, 1993). The ability to respond to shocks is determined by the degree of vulnerability of a household (Ellis, 2003; Devereux, 2001). Households are vulnerable when they are unable to cope with and respond to risks, stresses and shocks (Ellis, 2003). The ability of households to respond to these can be substantially weakened by multiple or successive shocks (Busse, 2006). Responses to shocks and the ability to cope with vulnerability depend on the level of available assets. The inability to buffer food security shocks leads households to draw on liquidity or assets (Busse, 2006; Devereux, 2001). Without doubt, drought, floods and conflict shocks are the root causes of a substantial proportion of both acute and chronic vulnerability in the SADC region (FAO, 2003; Dercon, 2000). Shocks can have persistent effects in the presence of poverty traps (FAO, 2005; Baulch & Hoddinott, 2000). Potential shocks can affect growth of households due to the volatility that repeated shocks generate (Collier, 2007). Strategies to reduce vulnerability to shocks such as drought and other disasters should be based on a sound understanding of coping strategies (Busse, 2006; FAO, 2005).

Work shocks, according to Gittinger, Chernick, Horenstein & Saito (1990), occur when quantity or availability of work changes abruptly, for example because of illness or the effects of drought on employment. This situation of vulnerability leaves the household more susceptible to shocks such as loss of income due to retrenchment (FAO, 2003; Dercon, 2000). Households may also suffer from food shocks as a consequence of periodic drought; changes in the composition of households; and lack of access to alternative sources of income (Gittinger et al., 1990). Livelihood strategies are severely undermined by the high prevalence of rates of HIV/AIDS infections in the country. HIV/AIDS has adverse effects on the ability of households to pursue sustainable livelihoods. AIDS is likely to generate significant shocks on productive capacity, purchasing power and per capita food availability (Busse, 2006). Households affected by AIDS are at risk nutritionally and it becomes increasingly difficult to preserve health (Chaminuka, Anim, Debusho and Nqangweni, 2006). HIV/AIDS has reduced the ability of nations to prevent and mitigate food emergencies (FAO, 2005). Households and communities affected by the HIV/AIDS pandemic often devise means of coping with the pandemic itself and the associated problems (Chaminuka et al., 2006).

In response to multiple impacts, households across Zimbabwe have adapted to the conditions caused by HIV/AIDS through evolving strategies that attempt to mitigate the impacts of the epidemic (de Klerk et al., 2004). These strategies, along with behaviours such as migration or begging, indicate the nature of the household's vulnerability (Coates et al., 2006). Households under stress from hunger, poverty or diseases adopt a range of strategies to mitigate the impact of HIV/AIDS through complex multiple livelihood strategies (HSRC, 2004). These strategies may entail choices that are essentially erosive and non-erosive. Households are often forced to liquidate accumulated assets to meet medical costs of the sick or funeral expenses of the dead, compromising future livelihood and food security.

Different coping strategies are adopted within different societies but the general sequence of adoption of progressively desperate strategies is common (Majake, 2005; Maxwell et al., 2003; Corbett, 1988; Watts, 2013). Coping strategies of households are influenced by factors such as economic status, gender and age (Devereux, 2001) and are either erosive or non-erosive (Maxwell et al., 2003; Devereux, 1993; Watts, 2013). The continuum of coping strategies begins with a household head experiencing anxiety

about food insufficiency, leading to decisions to reduce the household's food budget by altering the quantity or variety of food consumed by the family (Corbett, 1988; Maxwell et al., 2003; Ellis, 1998). As the situation worsens, adults in the household begin to experience hunger due to reduced food intake to protect children and in most severe circumstances, both children and adults experience hunger (Ellis, 2000). The strategies are typically adopted in a sequence beginning with those that cause the least discomfort, followed by progressive drastic measures (Corbett, 1988; Watts, 2013; Ellis, 1998).

Coping strategies are often categorised into three stages and describe the sequential phases of coping with food insecurity (Corbett, 1988; Ellis, 2000; Maxwell et al., 2003). However, households do not always apply coping strategies in the sequence set out below (Majake, 2005; Devereux, 1993). This sequence first seeks to protect the future income generating capacity of the household, even if current consumption is compromised (Ellis, 2000). It is only as the last resort that assets critical for future survival are sold or abandoned to starve off starvation (Ellis, 2000; Maxwell, 1996). The three categories of coping strategies includes, non-erosive coping (insurance strategies), which is the first stage of coping with food insecurity marked by the initial shortage of food, or inability to provide sufficient quantities of food to all members of the household (Maxwell et al., 2003; Senefeld and Polsky, 2005). This stage is also characterised by the following taking out loans; reduction in dietary intake; consumption of cheaper foods and reduction of the frequency of meals (Watts, 2013; Corbett, 1988). When food access lessens or resources wane, adaptations employed might be dietary change; reduction in the number of meals per day (rationing); relying on wild foods; seeking wage labour to increase income; and borrowing food or money from relatives (Senefeld and Polsky, 2005; Devereux, 1993; Corbett, 1988; Maxwell et al., 2003). These strategies are considered as first stage strategies (Corbett, 1988; Maxwell, 1996). During this stage, responses developed by the population are reversible and in principle do not damage livelihoods and future productive capacity and primarily aim to prevent destitution (van der Kam, 2000). Devereux (1993) more precisely names these strategies accumulation and adaptation coping strategies.

The second stage of coping strategies is characterised by the sale of assets (non-productive and productive assets); loans; sale of large stock, land and tools (Frankenburger, 1992; Corbett, 1988; Watts, 2013). The responses in this stage are less

reversible as households are forced to use strategies that reduce their productive assets and threaten their future livelihoods (van der Kam, 2000). During the second stage, the food crisis begins to threaten asset preservation (Corbett, 1988; Watts, 2013; Hoddinott & Skoufias, 2004). The assets that are sold at this stage are those related to income generation, such as farming equipment, land and cattle. According to Corbett (1988), stage two is indicative of productive asset sales and a shift of priority from asset prevention to food consumption (van der Kam, 2000; Hoddinott & Skoufias, 2004). Sale of productive assets has severe implications for the future productive potential of households and long-term food security. Sale of productive assets leads to the last stage of coping (Frankenberger, 1992; Corbett, 1988). Erosive coping behaviours (such as selling of productive assets) cause further loss of household assets. Selling assets in response to shocks permanently lowers future food consumption (Hoddinott & Skoufias, 2004). Households that resort to unsuitable coping strategies such as selling of productive assets or taking high interest loans represent a crucial area of concern for those working with the most food insecure populations (Coates et al., 2006). The incidence of asset disposal shows vulnerability to food insecurity (Devereux et al., 2004). At stage three, the food crisis has prolonged; leading to a dire situation. Destitution, dependency on charity and out-migration are indicative of this stage (Corbett, 1988). Everything at this stage could be sold. According to Frankenberger (1992), although the disposal of all assets ensures survival, it severely jeopardises the future security of the household. At this stage all coping mechanisms have been completely exhausted and people are dependent on food aid for immediate survival (Van der Kam, 2000).

5.3.2 Gendered Increase in Food Availability

Van Berkum, Dengerink and Ruben (2018, p. 16) have noted that “over the coming decades the world’s population will grow from the current 7.5 billion to 9 billion people in 2050”. The biggest growth will occur in developing countries. It is against this background that food availability is an important condition for food security however remains distressingly constrained in various nations. A typical way to deal with improving food accessibility is expanding agrarian profitability, which can improve food security for provincial producers, landless workers and consumers. Generally, enthusiasm for and subsidising for rural advancement has been impulsive. What is more, even inside the space of agricultural advancement, considerably various methodologies exist, for instance those established in strategy change or in innovation advancement or in improved normal assets the executives, and which are driven by contrasting evaluations of the coupling imperatives to expanding profitability and proper reactions to these requirements. Most regularly, agricultural advancement intercessions centred on stimulating specialised change in production. Be that as it may, Barrett (2008) mentions that there are parallel endeavours at improving smallholder organisation, diminishing exchange expenses of advertising, and improving access to suitable innovations and gainful resources in order to invigorate smallholder showcase cooperation.

Verifying property and water rights, creating framework, limiting stockpiling misfortune, guaranteeing quality, adjusting advertising impetuses and exchange arrangements, and giving expansion or monetary administrations, for example, smaller scale protection or credit are different mediations proposed to improve nourishment accessibility. Seeley, Grellier and Bannet (2004, p. 92) pointed out that “discussions on gender and property rights are also complicated due to the multiplicity of occupation and bequest arrangements between countries and societies”. Cotula et al. (2004) and Seeley et al. (2004) further mentioned that this complexity is exacerbated by the existence of a dual legal structure, in the form of western-supported statutory law and customary law, having both common ground and, at times, contradictory jurisdictions. Moyo (2017, p. 2) added to this by stating that “property rights, access to land by women is one of the most fundamental instruments against discrimination, which lack may contribute to the vulnerable position of many women, causing them to be powerless economically”. In one focus group for this research, one of the participants said:

I do not go and buy what I need from the shop, when local tuckshops are there and they even are cheaper. The tuckshop also do not close early like the big supermarkets because they want to make money and the good thing about them is that they can give you any quantity that you want. It all depends on how much you. Hakufanane nemushop munotengeswa packet rese iwe uchida kana half (It is unlike buying from a shop where you buy a full packet when all you need is half the packet). **Mrs Sithole**

Mrs Moyo's sentiments pointing out that she no longer goes to the well established shops to buy food stuff, but rather resort to local tuckshops is similar to what Tawodzera's (2010, p.148) research respondent narrated that "I do not remember when I last bought food from the shops or supermarket. Five or six years ago, I am not sure. We survive on buying from street vendors. There you can get any quantity that you want depending on your money-if you have any amount of money, you will get something...". This therefore shows that there is a recurrence of people resorting to cheap food stuff from local tuckshops or street vendors as opposed to well established shops that are seen as expensive. This thought is also emphasized by Tawodzera, Chigumira, Mbengo and Kusangaya (2018) that the reliance on street vendors for cheap food is still continuing even now. Thus, this phenomenon is still on going, showing that people are still food insecure.

Another participant had this to say:

In Harare things have really gone bad, things are very expensive, it would be better staying in the rural areas and grow our own food and not have rent to worry about and it is only a few with connections not suffering. There is no body that you can run too and get help because we all are in the same situation. Others cannot help you because they are afraid? ndongopawo zvishoma zvandinazvo kuti tese tirarambe nekuti mari handina and I might need help also (But what else can I do a person? I will just give the little I have because I will not have the money. **Mrs Moyo**

The participants also revealed that they would rather sacrifice the little food that they have than lend money because they believed it is easier for one to return food than money. However, this line of thinking is as a result of the understanding that each person is experiencing the effects of the harsh economic environment. Therefore, people

would have to come up with alternative means or strategies that can possibly help them to safeguard their food reserves.

5.3.3 Gendered Access to Food Promotion

Women in the developing world take part in the most important functions in food production and other economic activities. Although this is the case, Padmaja, Bantilan, Parthasarathy and Gandhi (2006) affirmed that women frequently are given secondary social status and economic well-being in the family due to gender inequalities. Ingram (2011) mentioned that the notion of ‘access’ has been at the focal point of discussions about food security since the mid-1990s. It is never again just about accessibility of food yet in addition about moderateness, and the inclinations are regularly determined by arrangement or different motivating forces that impact individuals' access to that food. This has moved the concentration from exercises inside the food production framework, specifically creation, transport, handling, to the results of those exercises as utilisation of, access to and accessibility of food – all components of food security. Since access to reasonable, sound and different nourishment depends on creation as well as on factors outside the nourishment generation framework, a more extensive methodology is required when breaking down the effect of mediations planned for upgrading food security.

Qualitative insights – Access to food

*Something has to be done and now is the time, before food situation goes out of hand. We would not want to go back to that time where there will be no food at all in the shops. (*sigh*) That was really a terrible time that we experienced. If it wasn't by the grace of God we could have been talking a different story today, or I would not have been here to tell you what I am telling you... dai ndakafa (I would have died). **Mr Tshuma***

Measures through policy have to be taken by the government to ensure that there is access for food to everyone, regardless of political affiliation, race or gender.

Mr John

In line with the narratives above, Barrett and Lentz (2010) asserted that issues around the growth of the economy are directly associated with the need to enhance food security. Ahmed, Vargas, Smith, Wiesmann, and Frankenberger (2007) stated that the

advantages of development can be dispersed unevenly across families, with many confronting proceeded with food insecurity. In pretty much every nation, hindering rates are around twofold the spending rates, fortifying that most food insecurity constant nature. Besides, the fact that the rates of children under-nourishment fall quickly with increments in normal pay, mirroring the solid connection between women and food insecurity. The drivers of economic development remain fervently challenged, be that as it may (Collier 2007). Macroeconomic and socio-political strength, just as rates of interest in profitable resources including human capital and viably financial related markets, all give off an impression of being significant segments of accomplishing economic growth. Ahmed et al., (2007) mention that as the drivers of financial development are a subject of far reaching contest, so is the adequacy of various arrangements planned to help with economic development, for example, global exchange strategies and basic change programmes. On the other hand, financial development significance cannot be exaggerated. Timmer (2005) asserted that economic development in tandem with food value adjustment approaches has prompted improved food security, especially in East and Southeast Asia.

Numerous legislatures routinely intercede in food markets to attempt to impact costs and guarantee food access, to some degree for humanitarian and food security reasons, to some extent to defend their political support. Interventions through value controls, sponsorships, taxes, strategic grain reserves, or exchange limitations remain argumentative. Knudsen and Nash (1990); Timmer (2005); WFP, (2009) mention that such interventions will in general be costly to support and can unfavourably affect markets, in spite of the fact that the degree of the unfavourable impacts keeps on being discussed. Choices to coordinate intervention in food markets centre around diminishing the price gap between shoppers and producers, for instance by bringing down exchange costs and promoting private competition by improving infrastructure, information, credit access, and storage capacity. Forcefully, Barrett (2002) and Timmer (1989) mention that fluctuating costs recommend frail basic nourishment stockpiling and showcasing frameworks and can be an intermediary indicator of food insecurity.

While more significant expenses hinder access and lower costs obstruct accessibility, unpredictable costs cause economy-wide disincentives. Timmer (1989) mentions that unstable costs debilitate human and physical capital venture by producers, force

transaction costs on consumers, and increment the riskiness of investments all through the market chain. Macroeconomic adjustment plans can empower interests in profitability and shield poor family units from price hikes. Findings from the 2007-2008 food prices hike propose that worldwide coordination to end speculative accumulation, for example, releasing stocks reserve, may demoralise global price speculation. For instance, from the year 2007 to 2008 the price of rice was bust when Japan, with global encouragement, declared in June 2008 that it would sell surplus rice. By late August 2008, rice costs were half of what they had been in April the same year (Timmer, 2009).

5.3.4 Improving Gendered Utilisation

Malnutrition is a central theme in food systems thinking. Delivery of micronutrients and improving caring practices, particularly through breastfeeding promotions, appear to be among the most cost-effective approaches in reducing undernutrition and food insecurity, especially for young children (Horton, Begin, Creig and Lakshman, 2008). This is against the background of Van Berkum, Dengerink and Ruben's (2018, p. 18) assertion that "a total of 2 billion people suffer from a shortage of micronutrients". This happens essentially, in spite of the fact that not only, at all created nations (World Bank, 2016). Adding to an increasingly changed eating routine with the correct micronutrients is a significant test for the nourishment arrangement of things to come. Micronutrients can be conveyed through numerous ways. Sustaining integral nourishments, for example, iodising salt, can adequately address micronutrient inadequacies basic over enormous populaces (Horton et al., 2008). Diets can likewise be enhanced with the conveyance of extra proportions or explicit micronutrients, for example, iron enhancements for pregnant or lactating mothers.

Having numerous achievement, some social protection programmes have mainstreamed activities by giving revitalised complementary food (Horton et al., 2008; Leroy, Vermandere, Neufeld and Bertozzi, 2008). Feeding programmes give supplemental food to moderately malnourished people either as bring home apportions or in on location encouraging programmes. Notwithstanding, with billions of individuals worldwide right now or tentatively enduring deficiencies in their capacity to access and utilise adequate, sheltered and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food inclinations for a functioning and sound life, food insecurity remains a candid worldwide test. Research around there cuts across disciplinary lines and global limits. Right now, comprehension of the reasons for food insecurity is sensibly advanced. As such, the greatest flow look

into difficulties surrounding the estimation of food insecurity and the distinguishing proof and assessment of which interventions work best and under what conditions.

5.4 CONCLUSION

The chapter concludes by stressing that “one cannot ignore the basic fact that population growth, along with rising incomes and urbanisation, is the main socio-economic factor for increasing global food demand” (FAO, 2009, p. 5). In addition, Pham et al. (2015, p. 224) pointed out that “as rapid urbanisation is creating new pockets of poverty and putting pressure on health delivery systems, it is crucial to understand the land rights associated with the land conversion in order to evaluate urban farmers’ livelihoods”. In addition, UN Habitat (2010) reports that projections of the rate of urbanisation is calculated to reach 60 per cent in 2050. In essence, the increase in the urban population figures from that recorded in 2010 of 40 per cent is understood to be as a result of challenges in harnessing urbanisation for sustainable economic growth. Kreibich and Olima (2002) argued that African cities need to find appropriate home-grown solutions and models to address urbanisation teething problems. They posit that it is only then that issues of urban poverty and inequity in African cities will be realistically addressed.

Crenshaw (1989, p. 149) elucidates this idea through the analogy of traffic by mentioning that:

“Discrimination, like traffic through an intersection, may flow in one direction, and it may flow in another. If an accident happens in an intersection, it can be caused by cars travelling from any number of directions and, sometimes, from all of them. Similarly, if a Black woman is harmed because she is in the intersection, her injury could result from sex discrimination or race discrimination”.

Through this analogy, Crenshaw (1989) encourages the examination of how different systems of oppression intersect and affect groups of women in different ways. This is emphasised by looking from the social lens of the theory of intersectionality, which focuses on the effects of stereotypes, discrimination, and oppressive narratives on those who are marginalised (Colfer, Sijapati Basnett and Ihalainen, 2018, p. 16). It gained attention in the 1990s when sociologist Collins (1990) reinstated it as part of her discussion on Black feminism. Collins (1990, p. 18) defined intersectionality as

“particular forms of intersecting oppressions, for example intersections of race and gender, or of sexuality and nation”. As with her predecessor Crenshaw (1989), Collins (1990, p. 42) argued that “cultural patterns of oppression are not only interrelated, but are bound together and influenced by the intersectional systems of society, such as race, gender, class, and ethnicity. For instance, she mentioned that black women’s livelihoods are shaped by gender and race, and therefore theories focusing on race or gender alone do not sufficiently address the simultaneity of race and gender in social lives”. According to Harding (1991) this framework is interested in the fact that there are no gender relations, but only gender relations as constructed by and between classes, races and cultures. On the other hand, scholars such as Visvanathan et al. (2011) observed that “patriarchy and liberal discourses at both national and international level have left unchallenged the question of gender relations in society and often made this attendant upon a sexual division of labour and individual negotiations within the family”. Chiloane-Tsoka (2010) added to the discourse by mentioning that the negative cultural aspects in patriarchal societies make women more vulnerable, causing them to be victims of crime, HIV/AIDS and gender-based violence. Collins (1990) was hence keen on the chances and deficiencies related with the blend of gender, race and class, which takes into consideration an assessment of contrasts among women or men, instead of among women and men.

Note that the Zimbabwean circumstance hosts been portrayed by political gathering control, and this hosts brought about political gatherings overwhelming effort dialogs. Ideological groups have made their estimations and taken positions to impact the result of the proposed constitution, particularly in issues to do with official powers, land, war veterans and citizenship, among others. Rawls' way of thinking is helpful in light of the fact that it permits both ideological groups and people to be benevolent and think about the benefit of the nation, since Zimbabwe as a country is unchangeable to ideological groups. Given the complexities and complexities required inside the idea of equity itself, the idea has produced genuine contentions in the domain of political reasoning. Moreover, Rawls' hypothesis of equity guarantees fair-mindedness and decency in the selection of standards to be cherished in the constitution, and this happens when individuals give their voices in a way which guarantees equity. Along these lines, a feeling of equity is the ability to comprehend, apply, and act from an open origination of

equity where people are free and equivalent. This infers no individual or group of people will exploit the procedure for selfish benefits.

CHAPTER SIX: AN ANALYSIS ON HOW FOOD INSECURITY IS SHAPING UNEQUAL GENDER POWER RELATIONS IN ZIMBABWE

Adverse gender norms affect all women, but how they affect them depends on other structural factors. Gendered barriers to political power are compounded for women who are disadvantaged by their class, ethnicity, religion, age or sexuality. Women from marginalised social groups are less likely than those from dominant social groups to have the social and economic assets to enable them to take advantage of new opportunities for political power. (O’Neil and Domingo, 2015, p. 4)

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter aims at responding to the two broad questions highlighted in the study including the questions that seek to understand what unequal power relations are present within the Zimbabwe’s political and economic crisis environment, that have had an impact on food insecurity concerns, as well as the question on how food insecurity shapes the level of gender discrepancies that the Zimbabwean economy is currently experiencing. The chapter aims to break down the power relations and gender in order to effectively understand how gender frameworks are structured as a system of power influence, while looking at limitation, and the position that women hold within society. All things considered, before responding to the questions, it is key to understand the distinction between sex and gender, which are interchangeably used to comprehend the gender roles in a family and society. Zevallos (2014) depicted gender as how society decides and oversees sex classifications, the social implications connected to the role of people, and how people see their way of life similar to men, women or other gender position. Zevallos (2014) further clarified that gender includes social standards, dispositions and exercises that a given society thinks about proper for each person.

Newman and Grauerholz (2002) cited in Ngulube (2018, p. 14) affirmed that “gender is related with masculinity and femininity and they characterised gender as a biological grouping of male and female”. In addition, Ngulube (2018, p. 14) mention that the vast majority of people match sex and gender by expecting that if an individual is male, he will be masculine, and if female, feminine. This is not generally the situation. Significantly, they presented that understanding the differentiation and relatedness of gender and sex help us understand that male and female conduct do not consequently

exude from biological differences, but can also be socially built. Therefore, all conduct is gendered or influenced by gender. Thus, how others treat us is dictated by their convictions about gender and the other way around. Furthermore, convictions about sex likewise decide individuals' situation in the family, with others directing more power dependent on their gender (Ngulube, 2018). Therefore, different meanings of gender stress that gender and power are interconnected.

Connell (2009) asserted that gender is socially built and society uses it to coordinate itself. It includes social communication through which there are power relations. As indicated by Foucault, a French scholar in Balan (2010), power relations exist between life partners, guardians and children, managers and workers, just as individuals from society and political organizations. These power relations as include masculinity versus femininity, representing male strength and female subjection. This is truly and socially developed through gender roles. In addition Foucault considered that power relations among individuals from society are anticipated for the political framework to work (Balan, 2010). A man centric framework, which is the widely used frameworks globally, has men possessing power. This is not something about which men find themselves fighting with women, but instead it exists as a social standard that everyone knows about given our socialisation. Therefore, in the chapter, while attempting to break down the perspective on gender and food security, power relations is fundamental to the issues being tended to. The findings exhibited in this chapter are based on focus group discussions and interviews conducted.

6.2 GENDER EMPOWERMENT

Practical gender interests arise from women's position in the sexual division of labour and tend to involve struggles, not for liberation but for the ability to fulfil their roles as wives and mothers. These interests which stem from women's life experience are inductively derived. Strategic interests, on the other hand, are derived deductively, seek to change the rules under which women live, and can be attained only after practical interests have been taken considered. (Ray and Korteweg, 1999, p. 49)

According to Malholtra and Gino (2011, p. 560), there has not been much done in evaluating how chasing after power shapes the interpersonal and intrapersonal dynamics

of an individual. Increased patterns of gendered poverty and vulnerability in developing countries have resulted in the recognition that gender equality and women's empowerment significantly contribute to the attainment of socio-economic development goals. As indicated by Sen and Batliwala (2000) women empowerment prompts a developing characteristic capacity, more noteworthy fearlessness and an inward change of one's cognisance that empowers one to conquer outside boundaries. In addition, women empowerment as mentioned by Duflo (2012), includes increasing a voice, having versatility and building up public company. Mutanana and Bukaliya (2015) also emphasised that women empowerment and advancement structure the premise to the accomplishment of reasonable improvement, harmony and progress in both countries that are developed and under-developed. This view primarily stresses two significant angles. Firstly, it is a power linked to accomplishing wanted objectives yet not control over others. Also, the possibility of empowerment is increasingly pertinent to the individuals who are weak, regardless of whether they are male or female, or a gathering of people, and class. This agrees with the equity guideline which manages the circulation of riches and salary. With these merchandise, disparities can deliver a more prominent all out product: higher wages can take care of the expenses of preparing and instruction, for instance, and can give motivations to fill employments that are more popular. The distinction guideline necessitates that social establishments be orchestrated so any disparities of riches and salary work to the upside of the individuals who will be most noticeably worse off. The distinction rule necessitates that monetary imbalances be to further everybody's potential benefit, and explicitly to the best preferred position of those least advantaged (Dutta, 2017, p. 42). Malhotra, Schuler and Boender (2002) mentioned that although the concept of empowerment is not specific to women, yet it is one of a kind, in that and it cuts across a wide range of class and status and furthermore inside homes and families.

In addition, empowerment of women generally means to let women survive and let them live a life with dignity, humanity, respect, self-esteem and self-reliance. Akyeamong and Fofack (2013) and Glick and Sahn (1997) noted that studies have shown that, when women are empowered, it translates positively in the quality of life of their families, particularly their children. In any case, stereotypes are for the most part spoken to by the negative properties that result in discrimination, stigmatisation, and inequalities. Beeghly (2014) mentions that this regularly influences the powerless individuals from

society, among them, women and the poor. Nevertheless, scholars such as Rahman (2007) asserted that choosing to include men in gender empowerment work does not imply that women must dismiss their consideration from the particular needs and substances of women who, in numerous social orders the world over, keep on confronting misuse, shamefulness, and underestimation at more noteworthy levels than their male partners. Furthermore, the Centre for Women's Global Leadership (2001) posited that efforts must be intensified to guarantee equal contentment regarding every human right and key opportunities for all girls and girls who face numerous hindrances to their empowerment and headway in light of different reasons, for example, their race, age, language, ethnicity, culture, religion or handicap or on the grounds that they are indigenous individuals. In addition, Ushewokunze (2012) claimed that the Zimbabwean government's strategy on women empowerment and improvement, similar to some other approaches, is there to use as a guideline that aids choices on the empowerment of women, with the target of accomplishing judicious results that are in accordance with the global human rights structure and framework for women privileges. One of the interview respondents from **World Vision** noted that:

The issues of women empowerment go beyond what you and I think about, as a layperson you might think that when we talk of empowerment we are talking about empowering women economically, but there is also non-economic empowerment.

*As an organisation, we will never stop talking about the need to be empowered because we come across them every time in the work that we do and all we see are the challenges that majority of them face because they are not empowered economically and non-economically. **CARE Zimbabwe***

Zimbabwe Gender Commission also mentioned that:

As an organisation, we have tried our level best to make sure that women in Zimbabwe become well represented and not marginalised. They should also take up influence positions just like any other person in the country, because at the end of the day we are all equal and there is no one that should be treated better than the other ... this is the 21st century that we are in gone are the day when woman where more of a stepping stone or doormat that is not looked at by anyone and regarded as useless.

... it is high time for us all to embrace a new era not only in Zimbabwe but the world as a whole to fight against all forms of discrimination against woman. For it is only when we all have the same mind-set that we can triumph over this ill-treatment of women that we see in our communities and in workplaces.

This concurs with what Khan and Noreen (2012) affirmed that empowerment of women is inadequate and one-sided on the off chance that it gauges just imbalance and neglects to incorporate significant non-financial components of basic leadership control both at the family unit level and over women's very own bodies and sexuality. Looking at it from the theory of intersectionality lens, Lykke (2005) and McCall (2005) noted the attention on control in principle of intersectionality might be associated with systems of avoidance and incorporation in the Foucauldian feeling of intensity. With the ideas of rejection and consideration, power might be dissected as constantly moving. Instead of review avoidance scarcely as an issue of concealment, rejection includes talks of resistance and gainful power with dealings about the significance of gender, race, and ethnicity. Rawls' second rule of equity has two sections. The initial segment, reasonable balance of chance, necessitates that residents with similar abilities and readiness to utilize them have the equivalent instructive and financial open doors paying little mind to whether they were brought into the world rich or poor. Along these lines, for instance, in the event that we accept that characteristic gifts and ability are equally disseminated across children naturally introduced to various social classes, at that point inside an occupation we should find that about one fourth of individuals in that occupation were naturally introduced to the main 25 percent of the salary dispersion, one quarter were naturally introduced to the second-most noteworthy 25 percent of the pay appropriation, one quarter were naturally introduced to the second least 25 percent, and one quarter were naturally introduced to the most minimal 25 percent (Dutta, 2017, p. 42). Since the class of origin equity does not enable a class of inception to transform into inconsistent genuine open doors for instruction or important work.

Empowerment also suggests a need to gain some control over power structures. Therefore, it is against this background that it is worth noting that gender power works around social standards, which propagate the belief system of customary gender roles and support negative generalisations. This power disservices women by legitimately or

in a roundabout way restricting their chances. Essentially, Fricker (2007) attested that power is our ability to impact how society works. It very well may be practised effectively or latently by an operator or can be simply structural. At the point when power works through a specialist, one gathering controls the activities of the other or others. When simply basic, the point is to make and keep up a given social request. Therefore, this power may have no specialist, however there is constantly a social group whose activities are controlled (Fricker, 2007). For instance, we can relate this to the intensity of gender roles: a woman is bound to give a man a chance to settle on an official choice with respect to an issue dependent on her gender roles information on what activity is anticipated from her in that specific circumstance. Without a doubt, Fricker's direct depends on the disguised social request or job that has just been made and kept up.

Considered from the point of justice and equality, when the general public get to a specific level of financial advancement, the establishments remembered for the fundamental structure must fulfil two standards. One is the freedom guideline and the other is the rule of reasonable equity of chance. Moreover, Kabeer (1998) accentuated that women empowerment is the procedure to obtain the capacity to settle on the key life decisions limited through poverty especially and cultural or strict standards for the most part. As indicated by UNIFEM (2000), to produce decisions, picking up the capacity and exercise bartering power, building up a feeling of self-esteem, to verify wanted changes, confidence in one's capacity and the privilege to control one's life are significant components of women empowerment. Matshe (2009) attested that significant levels of physical capital empowerment ensure the manageability of occupations by enabling women to conform to dangers and endure stuns to their employments, along these lines guaranteeing the dependability of access to nourishment later on. This is concurred by focus group respondents who mentioned:

Eish... I do not know if I will be able to survive in this as a young lady when the situation in the country is upside down like this. Handione ndichisvika kure (Do not see myself getting anywhere). Changosara kupedza chikoro ndotororwa zvangu (What is left for me is just to finish school and get married) because I do not think I can even get a job looking at how things are in the country. ...As for a place of my own I do not even dream about it so it not even on my mind. **Ms**

Mathe

Even if I want to stand for myself and ndowana pandinoti apa ndepangu zvinonetsa, (get a place I will personally own and call mine it is difficult) just because my husband will want to be in control of that place, since he is the head of the house. Mrs Moyo

Analysing the narrative above using the theory of intersectionality, there is a distinct view that needs to be considered, which McCall (2005, p. 1773) described as intra-categorical. According to Walby et al. (2012, p. 227), the intra-categorical view is mainly focused on trying to understand the particular social groups at neglected points of intersection in order to reveal the complexity of lived experience within such groups. This basically means that there is a need to look at the small groups that have not had attention in trying to understand the challenges that people have to experience on a day to day basis. This notion is also echoed by the Centre for Women's Global Leadership (2001, p. 1) who noted that

An intersectional approach to analysing the disempowerment of marginalized women attempts to capture the consequences of the interaction between two or more forms of subordination. It addresses the manner in which racism, patriarchy, class oppression and other discriminatory systems create inequalities that structure the relative positions of women, races, ethnicities, classes and the like. Moreover, intersectionality addresses the way the specific acts and policies operate together to create further empowerment.

Therefore, in line with the study, it is essential there are gender empowerment concerns in the discourse on challenges that people are experiencing in the political and economic crisis environment of Zimbabwe. This empowerment concern is not only unique to matters on inequalities with regard to access to land and gender roles within the society. Smiet (2017, p. 19) emphasised this point by mentioning that "intersectionality as a feminist perspective insists that gender cannot and should not be studied in isolation from race, ethnicity, class, sexuality, religion or other structures of power because they do not exist in isolation from one another, but instead always intersect". This line of thinking is the reason when looking at it from the PSC lens, Azar (1979, p. 123) openly focuses to the relationship of inconsistent power circulation of assets inside and among social orders and needs disappointment among social gatherings as cause and clarification for Protracted Social Conflicts. Azar and Moon (1986) further talked about

the interlocking nexus of underdevelopment, structural hardship, and common or character cleavages where basic disparity is especially the aftereffect of political imbalance, monetary stratification, and ideological control by one social gathering over another. Azar's concept of human needs is a verifiable and rather fixed one, it unequivocally considers control incongruities. This double comprehension of human needs as a-chronicled yet intently and inseparably connected to control structures runs all through Azar's idea of necessities. Azar's idea of structural imbalance with its three highlights of political disparity, financial imbalance, and ideological control appears to be somewhat positive to talk about gender. Political disparity alludes to the uneven dispersion of political control among social powers and the mastery of the state contraption by one. Political imbalance, thusly, is firmly connected with financial differences in salary, riches and status. Azar's connection of human needs with structural disparities unmistakably opens some explanatory space to talk about covered up and undetectable women's needs and their gender explicit outcomes and suggestions for more extensive power structures. Not exclusively does Azar (1990) allude to open and direct types of intensity disparities, he additionally takes up covered up and subtler types of intensity imbalances. Azar noted, for instance, the possibility of an authoritative philosophy as he endeavoured to settle the social structure by defending the subsequent disparities.

One of the key factors contributing to food security around the world is gender inequality in communities and families. Due to power imbalances, women find themselves denied access to available food, to food production, and to land for production space. Malaba (2006) mentioned that Zimbabwe has put in a number of measures to address issues around gender inequality and amongst others is the use of Affirmative Action¹⁸ in a number of sectors within the country. Chabaya, Rembe and Wadesango (2009) noted that Zimbabwe has at all times since independence in 1980 endeavoured to achieve gender equality. This has been witnessed by continued commitment over the years to do away with all forms of gender discrimination in the society, as well as the government effort to subscribe to numerous national and international gender declarations and conventions (Chabaya, Rembe and Wadesango, 2009, p. 235). Despite this, Ndlovu and Mutale (2013, p. 76) noted that “women's

¹⁸ Affirmative action refers to the act of making an environment discriminative in nature more representative and fair.

increasing presence in governance institutions has generally not had much transformative impact on the subtle patriarchal cultures and practices in Africa. Progression in opening up spaces for women's political participation in Africa has not gone along with the diminishing of patriarchal power structures.”

IFAD (2011) perceives that a few groups are unevenly hindered in their endeavours to move out of poverty by burdens and avoidance established in the power disparity related with gender, age and ethnicity. Women from rural background are likewise exposed to issues in numerous perspectives due to gendered social structures. To this end, women from rural areas should be engaged to guarantee their privileges. Women from rural settings are better prepared to achieve change in their networks in the event that they are engaged, supporting the significance of gender empowerment programmes. In any case, Kato and Kratzer (2013) asserted that empowerment of women is a worldwide test since generally women have been minimised and oppressed levelled out of men. Boyd (1994, p. 3) maintained that “women's under-representation or lack of involvement in official efforts at resolving internal state conflicts is taken as a given in most situations. While they often bear the brunt of the war brutalities and are increasingly involved in combatant activities, they are seldom part of the inner circles of peace negotiations, peace accords, or policies at the formal level to resolve conflict.”

6.2.1 Women Leadership in Zimbabwe

Historically, leadership has carried the notion of masculinity and the belief that men make better leaders than women is still common today. Although the number of female leaders has increased, they are often named as an afterthought. Thornton (2013) and Klatt et al. (2016, p. 484) noted that however many women have executive leadership positions within the private and the public sector, this is not a reflection of the women in the workforce. Evidently, women have been affected by the history and evolution of political structures within Zimbabwe in a number of ways. Højgaard (2002) affirmed that the societal conventions regarding gender and leadership traditionally exclude women, and top leadership is viewed as a masculine domain. This is echoed by Karam (1998) who affirmed that in the political area, the first obstacle women face is the prevalence of a masculine model of political life and elected governmental bodies. The reason for this is that the political arena is dominated by men and political life in most societies is organised according to male norms and values. Shvedova (2005, p. 35)

further suggested that “the existence of a male-dominated model of politics results in women either rejecting politics or rejecting male style politics. Thus women who do participate in politics and public sector leadership tend to do so in smaller numbers, and those who do participate may face multiple hurdles to impacting decision-making and leading effectively with women’s interests”.

In many instances, women have been radically marginalised, not only as a result of the biased political system but they have also suffered inequality from gender bias in a largely patriarchal society. This is against the background that Zimbabwe is a highly patriarchal society, which traditionally placed very little value on women’s participation in activities outside the home. However, Kiamba (2008) asserted that “despite efforts made to ensure that female representation is achieved at all levels of governance, women are still underrepresented in many government and non-governmental organisations particularly in positions of power and leadership”.

According to Chinyani (2010), women’s inferior status had a negative impact on virtually every aspect of life in legal matters. Gomez and Tran (2012) noted that when women have secure property rights over land including its access, they often secure enhanced social status which contributes to their empowerment and superior influence over family rulings. However, Sibanda (2008) asserted that women passed from the guardianship of their fathers to that of their husbands upon marriage and that the government had to redress the situation. Despite this, Kiamba (2008, p. 7) noted that:

“Women continue to aspire to leadership positions in all spheres of governance both in the public and private sectors. Great strides have been made in the political realm, and women’s participation in both the freedom struggles and democratic processes of many African countries have been notable. However, this participation has not always translated into equal representation in political leadership positions. Once elections are conducted, and positions are assigned, one realises that women are no longer visible”.

Nevertheless, the breakthrough came during the liberation struggle when women fought side by side with men on equal footing, demonstrating that they were indeed a force to reckon with and thus destroying the old myth that a woman’s place was in the kitchen (Chinyani, 2010). Many policies have been fashioned by the government to redress

gender inequalities. Zvobgo (2014) pointed out that after independence, Zimbabwe reformed its educational system to align with the new national goals of independence. Since 1980, there has been an effective and concerted effort to empower women through the enhancement of women's rights and equal opportunities.

6.3 GENDER DISPARITIES IN FOOD SECURITY

6.3.1 Gender and Land

Land management in Africa and the developing world more broadly has over the last two decades been subject to serious conflicts. Like other factors that drive land conflicts, perceptions of land influence responses of a people towards land. Anthropologists have consistently indicated that these perceptions remain as diverse as our communities. Illustrating this, Povinelli (2002) cited the cases of ancient Rome and pre-colonial Australia where land was viewed as part of a people. Povinelli (2002) added that in some places ancestors were seen as part of both the living and the land. This, coupled with the increased demand for transparency in general public service delivery, has further intensified the search for effective land management tools and instruments capable of facilitating equitable access to land and efficient land market operations. In addition, there have been issues around land commodification, which have been coupled with individualisation of ownership, and have had profound effects on production systems and relationships in different societies. The effect is felt more in developing economies and more particularly by their emerging urban citizenry. This is because of the importance of land in the development of the productive sectors of the urban economy. Women plant their land more often than men and worry more about household and human resources for cultivation, including money, labour and technical advice. Cross and Hornby (2002, p. 53) suggested that "men show more concern over physical resources such as equipment and the land itself. Case studies suggest that men's approaches to farming are usually entrepreneurial and profit-driven, while women are cautious and conservative."

This position is further reinforced by the Vancouver Plan of Action of 1976 and Global Action Plan of 2000, which indicate how important land is in the urban economy. However, globally there have been many innovative initiatives to secure women's

property rights and land tenure, including rights to inherit. Regarding land tenure, Tengey (2008, p. 143) noted that:

... gender and kinship relations play a central role in the way in which land rights and productive relations are determined. Under the customary land tenure system, control over resources follows clearly defined gender-segregated patterns based on traditional norms which operate in such a way as to limit the rights of women as compared to men. To a large extent, women's access and control over productive resources including land are determined by male-centred kinship institutions and authority structures which tend very much to restrict women's land rights in favour of men.

According to Gudhlanga (2010), the dominance of men is not only a sexual and social problem but also a political one directed at maintaining existing power relations which subordinate women. Quisumbing and Pandolfelli (2010) mentioned that even where legislation is in place, lack of legal knowledge and weak implementation often limits the ability of women to exercise their rights. The UN (2002) reports that women are deprived in numerous statutory and standard land residency frameworks. This is against the background of having powerless property and contractual rights over land, water and other resources. Generally, all wedded male individuals from a society have the privilege of access to arable plots, and the privilege of distribution remains with local government authorities and conventional leader working within the framework of the Rural District Council Act (1988) and the Communal Lands Act (1982). This is echoed by Rugege (2003, p. 172) who mentioned that "traditional leaders in most parts of Africa always played a role in the allocation and management of communal land for residential, agricultural and grazing purposes". In the case of Zimbabwe, traditional leaders are for the most part viewed as the caretakers of the land and other assets in their particular jurisdictions (Dodo, 2013; Matondi, 2010). The huge scale business part was described by freehold residency with the privilege to individual and corporate proprietorship and the capacity to utilise the property both as insurance and to put resources into its asset value. Along these lines, the absence of security in land residency lessens motivating forces to put resources into improving the land, bringing about lower efficiency.

In any case, the land reform programmes presented when the new century rolled overlooked for, in addition to other things, to alleviate the restricted access to arrive by women through the presentation of standards. The arrangement position is that women ought to comprise 20 percent of every one of those assigned enormous scale cultivating land, otherwise called A2 cultivating land (Government of Zimbabwe, 2014). In addition, women were more qualified for apply for agricultural land in their own privilege under the A1 town plans. This was a change from the conventional standard, wherein women could only access land through their spouses, fathers or other male family members. This has engaged women to have power over land as a production means. Notwithstanding every one of these adjustments in the approach, women's entrance to the land stayed restricted because of an assortment of elements. Utete (2003) mentions that here is proof that, of the 96 percent of Zimbabwe's farming area gained under the land reform programme, only 10 percent of that land went to women. This notion is further explained by Doss, Grown and Deere (2008, p. 3) who asserted that:

The gender asset gap arguably provides a much firmer basis for understanding gender economic inequality and women's empowerment than just a focus on income or wages and maybe a more powerful indicator of progress than others toward Millennium Development Goal 3 (Promoting gender equality and empowering women). Besides being a measure of opportunities (that is, through the ability to generate income or additional wealth) or outcomes (net wealth), ownership of assets is critically important to women's bargaining power and hence their economic empowerment.

In its pursuit for equality, feminist theory has normally set aside all distinctions in class, gender, ethnicity, religion and race, and in this manner would in general liken equity with equality, and along these lines left immaculate orderly contrasts and disparities that exist among women. Intersectionality stresses the need to think about every one of the components at play in personality development. However, in the event that old ideas of women's liberation are to be considered politically ethnocentric and imperialistic, this raises the worry that intersectionality will as a result cause the breakdown of the general stage that women's activist scholars have used to voice the worries of all women comprehensively (Davis, 2008). In addition, Davis (2008) contended this is actually the contrary impact that intersectionality will have. As indicated by Davis (2008, p. 72) intersectionality "guarantees practically widespread relevance, valuable for

comprehension and dissecting any social practice, any individual or gathering experience, any basic game plan, and any social setup". Intersectionality tries to see how social structures, for example, gender, race and class work. In its endeavour to see how these structures work, it catches the intricacy of the collaboration of these social structures. All things considered, the examination displayed how land circulation has affected on food insecurity with regards to sub-Saharan African and limited it to the instance of Zimbabwe. Bob (2010) noted that access to and availability of land resources is vital to guaranteeing genuine and stable improvement in one's social, financial and political prosperity, particularly in helpless societies that are inclined to fragility and conflict.

6.4 GENDERED SOCIO-POLITICAL CONTEXT

A decade of a socio-economic and political crisis in Zimbabwe has impacted negatively on people's livelihoods both in the rural and urban areas. Zimbizi (2007) claimed that women empowerment in man-centric societies has accomplished less progress than anticipated because of a profoundly settled in man centric framework which is delayed in changing itself and a decrease in the financial and political national system. Post et al. (1996, p. 438) asserted that the male centred social customs found in patriarchal societies allocate power and privileges mainly to men. Women have generally found themselves with relatively less social standing than men. The sexual division of labour exerts a strong influence on the relative amounts of power and influence possessed by men and women within the family, clan, tribe and larger society. According to Abbott et al. (2006, p. 84), Chirwa (2008, p. 348), Khumalo (2008, p. 43) and Makombe (2009, p. 27), in these patriarchal male-dominated societies, women shoulder the primary responsibility for housework, nursing children and meeting the needs of the families. Post et al. (1996, p. 438) further pointed out that societies around the world and throughout history have varied greatly on how they arrange the sexual division of labour. Distinctions between women's tasks and men's tasks have been accepted as proper by society and have been reinforced over time by habit and custom.

According to Barnes, Mutwira, Mvenge, Pape, Prew and Pwiti (2001, p. 11), sexual division of labour was not manipulative. In Stone Age society, there was relatively equitable sexual division of labour where women gathered food and men hunted. During

this period there was little or no exploitation of women by men. In the Early Iron Age economy, this division of labour became deeper and more exploitative. Sexual domination became apparent because women tended to be assigned the more laborious and arduous tasks, particularly cultivating the fields and child rearing, while men were mostly involved in creating wealth and surplus production as herders, miners, blacksmiths or traders. Men justified this control of surplus as resulting from their greater physical strength. Abbott et al. (2006, p. 60) alluded to the views that in most societies men are accorded a disproportionate share of social, political, economic and cultural power. Abbott et al. (2006, p. 60) further argued that the socialisation processes in the families transmit patriarchal ideas of male domination and female subordination. Girls come to see themselves as less important than boys. According to Halford and Leonard (2001, p. 11) “through the differential treatment of boys and girls from a very early age, sex roles determine what boys and girls do and even identities of how boys and girls see themselves come to mirror stereotypes and thus perpetuate them. These stereotypes and the roles they play are understood to be oppressive to women since they prevent women from achieving their full potential”.

Nonetheless, it is in the urban regions where the circumstance has been generally terrible, especially among the poor whose obtaining power has reliably been disintegrated by falling real wages, hyper-inflation and the rising cost of living. The lingering destructive impact of the structural adjustment programme of the 1990s, which brought about huge conservations and the breaking down of the open welfare framework, was aggravated by the current monetary emergency which left most of the urban poor unfit to arrangement and feed themselves. Be that as it may, there is expanding acknowledgment that it is the idea of imbalance, instead of the degree of disparity, which decides the probability of fierce clash. Research has discovered that a portion of these disparities that line up with social, ethnic or strict characters are bound to bring about inhumanity (Melvin, 2007). This is particularly the situation when there are multidimensional flat imbalances, where socially characterized gatherings experience various types of prohibition from political, monetary, social, security, equity, and social domains. Frequently these types of disparity, prohibition and underestimation cooperate and compound each other: inconsistent access to land and characteristic assets, for instance, may result from the absence of access to power and basic leadership. A solid feeling of aggregate foul play, because of real or saw rejection

dependent on social or social character, can expand a gathering's sentiments of estrangement from the more extensive society. This may prompt antagonistic vibe and hatred. After some time, such strains can encourage bunch preparation and fuel fierce clash. It is not just the generally denied who may incite violence, be that as it may, yet additionally the advantaged who dread losing force and advantages.

Melvin (2007) further attested that administration reactions are significant in deciding if disappointment turns vicious. In the event that the state responds cruelly to peaceful fights, rather than trying to address rejection, at that point the odds of vicious clash are more probable. Rejection and disparity as a reason for strife might be associated with the breakdown of the implicit understanding, talked about under political and institutional components. The Zambia Association for Research and Development (ZARD) (1998) depicts a gender issue as one which emerges when a feeling of complaint and foul play is felt by women. For example, when just male needs are addressed to the detriment of women's needs. Given that the writing on imbalance and strife is by and large situated inside the political economy of advancement, the talk is confined to struggle speculations that have a conspicuous bearing on or source in this improvement field, including improvement financial matters, new development hypothesis, verifiable political economy and political theory (Cramer, 2005, p. 2). Among different potential methods for sorting out and ordering speculations of contention especially inner war, intra-state struggle or common war, three are especially valuable. Table 6.1 provides a superior clarification in the distinctive pattern of violent, where one isolates all speculations at a branch point where an essential decision of viewpoint is made among possibility and derivation. A second recognises denied rational-actor perception and balanced on-screen character speculations. A third cuts the pack three different ways: into perception, or stories, underscoring conduct, thoughts or relations.

Table 6.1: The role of inequality in a different schema for violent conflict analysis

Approach	Analytical characteristics	Affinity with inequality-conflict linkages
Inherency	Violence is an ever-present option in social life, and it takes rather little to be “chosen” over non-violent action.	Violence does not especially need structural inequality, but some forms of collective inequality might be relevant as sources of coordinated interests leading to violence. Coercive balance is of primary importance.
Contingency	A violent collective action is a rare event, produced by an uncommon combination of factors heavily influenced by contingency or “accident”.	Inequality is an important source of perceived relative deprivation but requires a delicate combination of other factors to lead to violence. The virulent effect is more important, coercive balance less so.
Ideas	Beliefs, values, ideologies are the key to violent conflict as to other social actions.	Ideas and ideologies influence the politicisation of or by contrast the legitimisation of (or diversion from), inequality. More critical for some than others as a driving force of conflict.
Behaviours	People are driven by inherited behavioural reflexes.	Violence may stem from some innate aggression but competition rather than inequality is a more likely key.
Relations	Systematic, institutionalised social relationships are the source of violence or violent conflict.	Inequality may trigger violence as either the basis of comparison (envy) or the product of direct relations of exploitation.
Deprived actor	Hearts and minds, grievances, preferences and sympathies are what matter. It focuses on expectations that are formed relative to others.	Grievances and anger or frustration are generated by discrepancies in conditions and expectation shortfalls, leading (sometimes) to violent political reaction.
Rational actor	Opportunities, costs and benefits, and resources are key. Objectives are not formed relative to others.	Increasing inequality may lead to rising absolute deprivation, and this may possibly lead to rebellion if collective action constraints are overcome. On balance, high inequality will not lead to rebellion (not providing sufficient opportunity).

Source: Cramer (2005, p. 3)

Eckstein (1980) contended that all speculations of contention organized at a central level either the importance of possibility in releasing aggregate viciousness or that of intrinsic penchants to brutality. Aggregate brutality driven by possibility is, as indicated by this system, to a great extent compelling, however this does not preclude some purposive, reasonable impact. On the other hand, speculations focusing on a natural demeanour toward aggregate viciousness underscore level-headed estimation over nonsensical, emotional upheavals. Moreover, from the point of view of possibility, war and different types of aggregate viciousness are rarities or strange and they are delivered by phenomenal conditions that work, normally, through what has been known as the dissatisfaction animosity nexus (Naim, 1998). Nevertheless, the following are some of the gender concerns that the research addresses.

6.4.1 Unfairness in the distribution of resources

There is a general notion that presupposes that access to land is an essential for any endeavours for agrarian change in African social orders. In any case, Wiggins (2003) noticed that the absence of land rights deny women and girls the privilege to financial empowerment and their battle for value and correspondence inside a man centric culture. Among the essential reasons distinguished for inconsistent financial work relations between the gender, is female family unit headship. A critical assortment of research like that of Paumgarten (2007); Shackleton and Shackleton (2004) attests that female-headed family units are less fortunate than male-headed families, in light of the distinction in access to assets, just as the distinction in salary levels between the two family types. Therborn (2004) also affirmed that in other societies women either have minimum or no rights at all to inherit property or money if it happens that their husbands or fathers pass away. In addition, Therborn (2004) noted that it gets more complex and impossible for women to file a divorce when they are physically and mentally abused by their husband. Others can relate to this view given the narrative that will be later discussed on GBV concerns by the research participants. Therefore, the glaring manifestations of these unequal relations are the failure of women to access basic resources like land, education and participation in politics. World's Women (2015, p. 121) concurred by noting that equal participation of women and men in politics is central to more inclusive and democratic governance. In trying to understand women's access and rights to land, in the case of city of Harare where the study was conducted, the incidence of poverty is currently at its peak, given the political and economic

climate that is in the country, and with not as much land people can use for subsistence farming, given that it is an urban area. However, while looking at the gendered dimension of food security, it is worth noting that traditionally women have minimum say or no say at all in the economic affairs of their own household. This is in line with food provisions in rural areas where it is evident that the GoZ and some NGOs assist with contributions like maize seed and fertiliser during the farming season so that people there are able to farm for themselves. However, this is not the case in urban areas like Harare. Therefore, the biggest challenge identified is that the majority of women do not have access to these inputs. **Mrs. Chinoda**, a group participant, explained that:

Now that we stay in urban areas, they assume that well all have jobs that offer us enough so that we feed our families. As we all know in rural areas they get inputs like your seeds and fertilisers during the farming season from the government and NGOs, here in Harare we do not get anything. This makes my life worse because, my husband has many wives; he does not earn much so when he takes money for food to give the other women, he leaves me to suffer with our four children. This is really hard for me.

The interviewed organisations concurred:

*In our work, we have come across households mostly in the rural areas, with married women who work tirelessly to make ends meet and for survival with their children. Although they are married at times you would find out that the husband has abandoned the family for another wife or has travelled outside the country for greener pastures, but forgets to send whatever it is he gets back home. This leaves the wife in a desperate situation. **Zimbabwe Gender Commission***

It is clear that the focus group participant is surviving in a polygamous marriage. She has no access to the inputs because she stays in an urban area. Her husband takes the money he earns to the other wives, and she has to find a means to sustain herself and the children. Another group participant also explained:

With a spouse like mine who passed away ten years ago, life has never been easy for me and my family. And the harder I try to make a living by selling fresh vegetables in town we end up being chased away or arrested by the municipality police. At times they want us to pay them so that they can let us go. So imagine

having to pay them with the little money I will be having or end up losing my stock. The situation makes my life much more difficult than it already is. **Mrs Chinoda**

These women are side-lined because the city of Harare is an urban community. This has exposed the majority of the women into poverty, a fact that has been confirmed by the latter participant. Therefore looking at it from the theoretical lens that Azar contends, he mentions that as far as political access needs are concerned, there is a need for the effective participation of individuals in political, market, and decision-making institutions. This is mentioned by Reimann (2001, p. 19-20) saying “if women’s needs are socially constructed, then the same holds true with men and their (material and non-material) needs. This is to also say that men’s need for political participation is far from being homogenous and may be more predominant in the post-settlement phase than in the pre-escalation and escalation situation, where a culture of terror paralyses everyday life and makes (effective) political participation impossible and somehow irrelevant for the everyday survival of most men and women”.

6.4.2 Gender-Based Violence

Gender-Based Violence is understood to be rampant in most communities. “In Zimbabwe gender-based violence is seen particularly in acts of domestic violence where rights are violated because of physiological make-up and gender roles performed” (Human Rights Bulletin, 2011, p. 1). The Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development (2015, p. v) reported that “the levels of Gender-Based Violence continue to be a concern and a major barrier to women's active participation in development. Regardless of the enactment of numerous gender responsive laws and policies, such as the Domestic Violence Act of 2007, women and girls in Zimbabwe continue to be the victims in 99 percent of GBV cases especially within the private sphere”. Women’s gender oppression is viewed by feminist social constructionists on the basis of race, gender and social class and, moreover, as a qualitative and complex process of discrimination.

According to the ZDHS 2010-2011, 42 percent of women in Zimbabwe have either experienced physical, emotional or sexual violence or both at some point in their lives. Women are mainly under attack in their homes and society in general. In addition, the

Human Rights Bulletin (2011) reports that cultural and traditional practices have perpetuated the subservient position of women, which makes them more vulnerable.

The **Zimbabwe Gender Commission** participant had this to say

Gender-based violence is an area that we will continue to tackle until it comes to an end. We will not tire advocating on behalf of the victims of the gender-based violence and also make sure that the perpetrators are brought to book...I believe it is only with the help of the relevant government that we can triumph in this fight against this abuse.

A participant from **World Vision** mentioned that:

There are several cases where during our fieldwork we had to encounter victims of gender-based violence, but because it is not our core job to deal with gender-based violence issues, we only managed to advise them to approach the relevant authorities that will be able to assist them.

A focus group participant confirmed that there are many domestic violence and rape cases which are received from the area under study. A woman group participant lamented:

It not easy staying with an abusive spouse because if they beat me I cannot report to the authorities because they will arrest him. If he gets arrested there will be no food for my family and people will blame me for that. I have no choice but to let it go. God knows.

The woman cannot report her husband because she is economically dependent on him. She is also worried about how her husband's relatives will treat her. This concurs with what the Human Rights Bulletin (2011, p. 1) "spousal abuse is the most common form of gender-based violence. Therefore, as a result of the patriarchal nature of Zimbabwean society, women are affected more by gender-based violence than men". Another focus group participant also mentioned that cases of rape, particularly rape by close relatives are on the increase. These are rapes by close relatives, especially uncles, brothers, stepfathers, fathers and neighbours. It would seem the cases that they have received are tip of the iceberg considering that many cases are only reported after an awareness campaign has been carried out. A woman participant had this to say:

Rape cases are there in many family, especially on the young girls. It is the fathers and uncles who usually commit these and they get away with it because

they threaten the young girls. If it comes out later they will not believe the child and will look at her in a bad way because they benefit from what the accused offers for their survival as a family. Mrs. Moyo

I know of my neighbour's child who was raped by an uncle of hers who is a businessman and known around the community and in the political sphere, but the story just went cold and he still moves around a free man. What I do not understand is whether or not the issue was reported or the uncle had to bribe the family or police not to get arrested. Ms. Mathe

Watts and Zimmerman (2002, p. 1232) affirmed that any form of violence against women is violence that is directed towards women and girls. Another focus group participant disclosed that the majority of the cases are resolved through a round table system, wherein family members sit together to try to solve the matter at the family level. Asked why they do not tip off the police if they happen to know these cases, a group participant shouted:

Vanobhadharwa! (They will be bribed!)

I believe in gender equality and I have a son and a daughter... and there should be no difference between women and men. If I am addressing other people I always say this, but also truly, inside I think it would be better to be a man because they have a lot of advantages than us women. As a woman, there is a lot of pressure to carry out the workload.

However to ignore to overlook the way that men as a gathering are commonly advantaged basically by prudence of being men is, seemingly, to not see the wood for the trees. However, a more clear comprehension of how domineering manliness and the disguised desires identified with it can get controlled in progressively gendered control, orders uncovers what number of people are not served by such imbalances, and are frequently hurt (Connell and Messerschmidt, 2005). Seeing intersectionality can support people better comprehend the structure of male centric society, by interfacing it to different types of mistreatment, in light of class and age. It is likewise important that when people from various foundations are to cooperate, at that point there is separation.

This is not constrained to separation and provocation between gender, yet in addition men will separate other people so as to excel and to exceed expectations themselves in the establishment. Discussing watchmen and all the more influential people, it is guileless to introduce an examination which paints every single special man as patriarchs or all individuals with control as undermined past recovery. Actually some influential men have additionally taken dynamic jobs for gender uniformity in social changes (Chopra, 2011; Hearn, 2011). For instance, you will discover that numerous urban women in nations like India have been imposing women's activist activists, affecting dynamic approaches, for example, laws against assault and aggressive behaviour at home (Stephen, 2009).

6.5 CONCLUSION

The chapter concludes with an analysis of how the concepts discussed demonstrate that gender signifies power relations that exist in different areas such as family and society, which influence and affect any sphere of life. Political change for gender equality requires a personal change in individual men, but there is also a need for organisation, peer support and strategic collaboration between like-minded men, as well as collaboration with women. There is further a growing concern from contributors of the narrowness of looking at economic and political empowerment, as “women’s bodies, desires and pleasures are left almost completely unaddressed by mainstream women’s empowerment policies and programmes” (Cornwall and Anyidoho, 2010). Also, “the strategy of gender mainstreaming has been emptied of its political meaning and instead of being seen as a tool, has become an end in itself” (Harcourt, 2010). It only portrays women as more hardworking, caring, mindful and responsible than men and good for developmental investment (Cornwall and Rivas, 2015). Cornwall has also pointed out that there is the need to go beyond the normative limitations of essentialist identity politics to build a network of the alliance to incorporate the other vulnerable individuals as not all males benefit from the ‘patriarchal dividend’ that has always been associated with men as the beneficiaries (Cornwall and Anyidoho, 2010).

According to the United Nations (2002), “achieving greater equality between women and men will require changes at many levels, including changes in attitudes and relationships, changes in institutions and legal frameworks, changes in economic institutions, and changes in political decision-making structures”. Kabeer (2013) posited

that this has led to the initiation and formulation of conventions and protocols that seek to promote the participation of women in influential decision-making positions. Zimbabwe is also a signatory to regional protocols that are in accordance with the international conventions aimed at promoting gender equality in the African region (Mawere, 2013). These include the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights of Women in Africa, the African Union (AU) Protocol on the Rights of Women in Africa, as well as the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development and its Addendum on the Eradication of Violence against Women and Children. Luescher-Mamashela (2009), argued that the objective of these protocols is to increase the participation of women in national governance structures in the African Region. Negative perceptions deter female students from participating in governance structures. Kearney (2000) proposed that if women conform to their feminine qualities, they would not be able to attain the characteristics required for one to be a leader.

From the narratives of the research participants, it can be seen how they mention groups of men within Zimbabwe that have figured out how to get politically significant in testing man centric society in their lives, in homes, work environments and networks. A significant fixing is by all accounts making spaces to examine and address the connections between gender disparity and other control asymmetries to fabricate further understandings of how gendered persecution works, which additionally supports solidarities across sex and class lines and to cooperate with women to make political action. Chhachhi (2009, p. 13) mentioned that addressing gender inequalities in social protection programmes is relevant because of their potential to create new forms of inequality or "undermine or reinforce or intensify existing gender inequalities".

Land use conflicts is a theme that has emerged from the narratives of the research participants. Land use conflicts may be defined as competitive demands of present to future uses of the land, causing a negative impact on other land uses. Darly and Torre (2013) mentioned that and use conflicts as the forms of expressions of opposition to a decision that leaves part of the local population unsatisfied. Mostly, the conflicts arise from the proposed changes, which perceived by some actors as contrary to their interests and wishes, like technological development and extension of infrastructure. With regard to the study, it is important to look at this dynamic, because of it is a phenomenon that is unique to urban areas that have numerous developmental projects that end up interfering

with the little pieces of land that people might be owning for subsistence farming. Examples of the developmental projects include construction projects like (roads, railways, airports, dams) and or the expansion of a business scale (industries, firms, warehouses) to mention but a few. In addition, Deininger and Castagnini (2004) asserted that many land conflicts result from the failure of the prevailing land tenure systems to respond to changes in demand for land. The demand for land reforms as a result of demographic as well as economic factors. In that respect, existing tenure systems that are recognised by law need to be responsive to the various community value systems and traditions (Deininger and Castagnini, 2004). It is clear from the literature that a traditional system should be facilitated to evolve into a system capable of preventing and or resolving land conflicts (Yahya, 2001).

Furthermore, the most heightened plan for land reform endeavoured to isolate the standard and statutory law and to distinguish the sources of women abuse because of the use of each of these laws. Neither did the land organisations look to comprehend the compound impacts of utilising both as systems managing land distribution in the land reform. Statutory law regards women as minors while customary law perceives the age of the majority share rule. In any case, because of the predominance of men in the land reform process and in the positions where the significant choices are made and in the executing structures, customary law won. Jirira and Halimana (2008) asserted that, the most optimise plan of attack land reform programme did not create any legitimate and arrangement structure that endeavoured to fuse legacy issues using the experiences of customary law. The two arrangements of laws became pertinent and appropriate on account of the nonappearance of sex touchy wanting to provide food for widows, single, separated or wedded women. The concurrent use of standard and customary laws brought about women not being treated as equivalent residents with equivalent rights to guarantee land, credit and help from the administration, land reform organization foundations and different partners in the land reform process.

Aside from the violence women experience in their private circles, more viciousness is experienced in the public circle as assault and torment. Mashiri (2013) referenced gender based brutality is an obstruction to improvement as it restrains the acknowledgment of maximum capacity which is basic to advancement. In the ongoing past, political race related political violence in Zimbabwe has seen women being

assaulted and constrained into prostitution (Human Rights Bulletin, 2011, p. 2). This is additionally resounded by the RAU (2009) who report that the overcomers of the freedom war reliably indicated huge rates of poverty among the people in question, and this was not really amazing given that the whole populace was hauled, enthusiastically and reluctantly, into the battle. Mashiri (2013, p. 95) additionally included by referencing that 36 percent of the unfortunate casualties seen were women and this was against the foundation of the finding that about 1 grown-up in 10 beyond thirty years old was probably going to be an overcomer of gender based violence. In any case, there is requirement for casualties of gender based violence to stand up and look for equity.

Likewise, the power relations in gender can likewise be found in the operators of socialization through their jobs as teachers, reinforcers, and disseminators of sex job information (Lytton and Romney, 1991). In any case, this does not just include the specialists transmitting their insight into gender jobs in a joint effort with their beneficiary; it additionally includes the entire social and social structure that oversees these mutual standards and qualities. Moreover, Fricker (2007) alluded to Thomas Wartenberg's idea of social arrangement, which demonstrates that the noteworthiness of social power is to impact social control, regardless of whether through a specialist or simply fundamentally. His thought is that power is socially arranged. Subsequently, any power relationship relies upon the coordination with social others just as on the working of shared foundations, which means, and desires. In a similar vein, Foucault's view is that power ought to be comprehended as a system of relations that enveloped the entire society (Balan, 2010). Unmistakably, this part has carried us to a comprehension of the development of gender job socialization and the strategic manoeuvre inside it. In this way, this implies sex is a social development that relegates diverse statuses to people.

CHAPTER SEVEN: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

As noted in the introductory chapters of this research, the political and economic crises in Zimbabwe continue to shape numerous social, economic and political outcomes in the country. Noted in the study is that there has been a gradual decay in state and public relations, which draws back to the post-independence period up to the present. Also, Zimbabwe's political and economic crises have evolved over the years in phases with the current year 2019 re-introducing hyper-inflation. In most cases, the outcomes have been adverse to the general populace, requiring quick remedial intervention. However, the aim of the research was to investigate the intersections between gender and food insecurity in Zimbabwe's political and economic crisis environment. Secondly, the research aimed at addressing the dynamics of how the political and economic crisis affects women's land ownership.

Thirdly, the research aimed to ascertain the role of NGOs and CSOs in addressing gender disparities in food insecurity in a political and economic crisis. Lastly, the research investigated the levels of gender disparities as a result of food security or insecurity. Overall, findings from the analysis reflect that food insecurity concerns are a real threat to peace, both for the rural and urban population in Zimbabwe. Adding to this argument, it is worth noting that findings also reveal that not only is owning land satisfying but possessing land means one is able to compete for social, political and economic needs. This chapter concludes the discussions on the intersection of gender and food insecurity in a political and economic crisis environment in Zimbabwe, by first looking at a summary of the research findings and then providing recommendations. A broad summary of the research is drawn from the conclusions of each chapter and summarised to give an overall picture of how the research objectives were met. Overall, the chapter's arguments are all based on the research objectives.

7.2 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

The findings revealed in Chapters Four, Five and Six led to the following conclusions. Firstly, the research study sought to investigate the intersections between gender and food insecurity in Zimbabwe's political and economic crisis environment. These major

themes investigated in the study, different as they might appear are closely intertwined. The significance of the interconnection of the themes provides a common focus, in this case, exploring factors linked to food insecurity. The research has used systems theory to emphasise the unifying principle revealed by the integration of various independent themes. Therefore, a contextual understanding of food insecurity in Zimbabwe cannot be achieved in isolation of the political and economic crises environment. This combines with an understanding that this environment acts as a catalyst that either heightens or slows down the levels of food insecurity in the country.

Critically analysing this from the theoretic lens, the nature of violent conflicts as presented, discussed and analysed, shows that there have been some dramatic changes that have assumed various forms with no clear motive. The Protracted Social Conflict theoretic lens best explains this from an angle that emphasises the continuity of civil or communal unrest. This best explains the planned demonstrations that continue in the country today, seeking to bring back that which people feel has been lost and to do away with people who have failed to manage the crises situation. With regard to coping mechanisms in response to food insecurity as discussed and analysed, findings from the study reveal there has not been adequate food available year-round for most urban households within Zimbabwe. Many households have experienced food shortages leading to a need to apply consumption coping strategies. In addition, most household income has also been insufficient to meet food requirements. A critical analysis of inadequate food has displaced people to look for better livelihoods outside the country.

Most of the research participants attest that they are experiencing ‘income shock’, as a result of the current economic crisis in the country. The income earned does not match the prices of basic commodities and transportation. In as much as emergency intervention is necessary, it is important to note that there are numerous problems associated with finding ways to increase food availability, improving the nutritional status of the country, feeding the country’s population, mitigating the level of conflict and poverty in both developed countries and developing countries. Pswarayi and Reeler (2012, p. 24) noted that “fragile states, failed state, or complex emergencies are all terms that can or have been applied to Zimbabwe, and there can be a considerable argument over which is more applicable”. Zimbabwe has suffered serious socio-economic decline and extremely large numbers of Zimbabweans have left the country both as migrants

and refugees. There have been high levels of organised violence, particularly during elections, and there is a sustained political crisis. Critically analysing, it is worth noting that land conflicts have emerged from interrelated causes including increasing population, land values, irregular public land allocation, historical injustices, lack of security and ownership problems. The main causes of land conflicts can be classified as social, economic, political and institutional. Research findings reveal that there are those factors that are cross-cutting that need to be given much attention such as tenure, ethnicity, corruption and historical factors. Some of the participants attest to the issue of corruption during the land distribution as it is a hurdle to their land ownership.

The research reveals that the challenge that face Zimbabwe are incomparable and the cost of failure to manage the situation is huge. Critically, analysis from the protracted social conflict lens suggests immense efforts are needed to address the challenge. The research participants attested to the need to involve everyone in addressing the challenges. This is against the understanding that people must be empowered and the principle of accountability fostered, especially to those that contribute to the country's political and economic crisis. The investment of the individuals in the recuperation and formative procedure ought to be extended and made increasingly compelling, especially through elevating expanded access to advancement assets and advantages, making good conditions for decentralised basic leadership and empowering more prominent enterprise at all levels. Specific consideration ought to be given to the control of populace development, to household monetary the board, viable assembly and usage of human and characteristic assets. Extraordinary consideration additionally needs to keep on being given to defense of open venture strategies, insurance of nature, improvement of global aggressiveness, agrarian structures and enhancement of creation, and improvement of arrangement plan and usage as a rule with the end goal of meeting the food security difficulties of the 1990s in a naturally economical way.

In addition, the exploration looked to investigate the effect of the political and financial emergency condition on land possession by women and the findings uncover that the talk of women and land stays at the focal point of women's developments and gender activists' systems of gender uniformity, destitution mitigation and women's empowerment. The research uncovers that despite the fact that women's entrance to, proprietorship and control of land do not promise them improved financial and political

positions, these are in a general sense significant. This is against the foundation that the issues of land in Zimbabwe keep on moulding the financial and political scene of the nation. Obviously, pioneer land isolation and land strategies have formed the double economy described by profoundly inconsistent land possession designs that were acquired by the post-frontier government at freedom in 1980. The land was not redistributed in the initial years of freedom for different reasons. The land change strategies were paralleled by talks of gender uniformity in the recently autonomous state.

The administration made present-day organisations and laws to advance gender uniformity, however this ended up being mere political talk as the administration offered authenticity to standard practices. Toward the start of the 21st century, women in Zimbabwe had constrained access to land, restricted land possession, uncertain land rights and separation from the constitution. This was against the foundation of a legislature that lectured the good news of correspondence, “land to the individuals” and had marked global shows on women's privileges. Ngulube (2018, p. 17) recommended that “negative generalisations focusing on females can bring about sexism and the conviction that the female status is sub-par compared to the male”. This conviction is propagated by frameworks of male-controlled society, male-ruled social structures whose standards work and have become the standard to which individuals follow, all through every single social organisation. Sexism prompts the mistreatment of women and in this manner the confinement of social and financial opportunities.

In view of this, I would see it conceivable to reason that by and large, the FTLRP decreased the chances or spaces for women to be enabled and contracted the equitable spaces for authentic interest of women being developed through procedures by denying them rights, extending gender disparities and fuelling their destitution. The advocates and implementers of the FTLRP were childish in giving women parcels and neglected factors that would improve the usage of land by women. Most women in Zimbabwe still have unclear and shaky land rights thus their control and produce is undermined. Fundamentally breaking down, the contentious 99 years leases are accepted as imperfect and cannot be utilised as surety. Therefore circumstance of women has been compounded by absence of framework, specialised administrations and agrarian sources of information.

In my view, the inability to address the destitution of women has more extensive antagonistic outcomes as far as tending to HIV and AIDS, nourishment instability, majority rules system, supportability and the general advancement of the nation. Note that understanding the gaps regarding gender in the FTLRP is only a single pivotal advance in any reconstitution of post land change approaches in Zimbabwe. In my view, any land change arrangement that may be taken in Zimbabwe ought to be guided by a constitution that ensures women's privileges to property and the double laws ought to be amended in light of the fact that it doesn't bode well to give women rights that can be negated by standard laws. Other essential angles in planning future land change arrangements should consider human and women's privileges based approaches in conceptualising, actualising and assessing land change strategies and laws in a climate of resilience against restricting political perspectives and points of view regarding various racial, class, ethnic and local classifications of individuals in a vote-based Zimbabwe.

Thirdly, the investigation looked to consider the role of NGOs and CSOs particularly with respect to gender and uncertainty in a political and monetary emergency condition and the findings uncover that the major, and generally broad, suspicion about rustic and urban advancement of NGOs and CSOs, from an audit of the NGOs, is that NGOs and CSOs adopt an elective strategy to improvement. This implies the NGO and CSO approaches address various issues by utilising various procedures. In many perspectives, NGO exercises are viewed as subjectively unique in relation to those of government and other global organisations. However the study did not find numerous examples where NGOs and CSOs have embraced exercises not attempted by the administration. Additionally, the study demonstrated that most NGOs do not see the formation of elective advancement alternatives as a component of their job. When asked whether their association's exercises were implied essentially to fill in gaps for government, or to accomplish something else from government, most respondents showed they were filling gaps, a couple said they were accomplishing something other than what is expected, while some affirmed both. As one of the respondents clarified, "the administration needs more assets to reach all over the place, so we help out". Some discernment regarding why NGO exercises are regularly restricted in scope focus on government relations. This is against the understanding that the proposal is made that administrations regularly will not endure any NGO exercises which 'rock the boat'.

Once more, the aftereffects of the investigation do not bolster this conflict in the Zimbabwean setting. Or maybe apparent NGO-government relations are not 'normal' if government imperatives were felt by NGOs to be very restricting.

Zimbabwean NGOs and CSOs communicated suppositions during interviews about their essentially oppositional job since they felt that NGOs and CSOs were propping up the legislature by giving alleviation where government arrangements have fizzled. They are starting to affirm they are in a situation to make requests on the legislature. They accept that the Zimbabwean government has fizzled on account of wastage in cash, debasement, and incapacitating administration, and that legislature will never be in a situation to assume control over the administrations that NGOs presently give. All things considered, NGOs and CSOs have become lasting foundations that represent the individuals where the legislature has fizzled. It ought not to be astonishing that such a large number of NGOs and CSOs go about as specialist co-ops inside a help advertise, and there is nothing especially amiss with this. There is no explanation that NGO staff individuals ought to be held to better expectations of optimism, duty, viability or even profound quality than different parts of the populace. As one of the respondents in Meyer's (1997) study noted, the individuals currently working in the mushrooming NGO division are similar ones who were beforehand in business or the open area. Without a doubt, it would be all the more astounding if, given the developing interest for rustic improvement venture usage from a wide range of contributor organisations, such 'help industries' did not appear. There is a genuine risk that off base and glorified views of NGO limits and imperatives will prompt development of inappropriate arrangements.

The greater part of the NGOs and CSOs, as referenced by Orjuela (2005), have not only a critical task to carry out in peacebuilding but also a 'correlative job' to that of the GoZ. This is obvious in their enthusiastic endeavours to construct harmony in the voting public and bring issues to light of the underlying foundations of contentions and requirement for goals, connect ethnic cleavages, campaign political pioneers and the universal network, as alleviation and improvement work in the war territories, which has been made conceivable through outside guides. In any case, in the midst of all the work is the greater inquiry concerning what should be possible about the problems engaged with the remote help for such municipal endeavours; with the challenges to characterise

and bolster common entertainers, the inconsistent guide relationship and the danger of intensifying clashes inside the beneficiary society. Fundamentally, this inquiry must be seen against the foundation of the issues dissected in this investigation, which are pertinent not exclusively to Zimbabwe but which are part of worldwide examples of post-pilgrim relations among rich and giver offices and more unfortunate governments, associations and people groups. It is difficult to perceive how contributors, being responsible for the cash, are accountable for setting the motivation, planning the guidelines and starting changes in the social orders they intercede in.

In conclusion, the examination tried to look at the degrees of gender inconsistencies because of food security/weakness in Zimbabwe and findings uncover that women have encountered unfriendly impacts of the emergency. The high death rate because of infections related to ailing health has affirmed these impacts on women and children. Given women's commitment to nourishment of the next generation and readiness, their job in the public eye as bearers of children and parental figures, the expanding number of female-headed families around the world, and their lopsidedly poor monetary status, women need inclusion in dialogues of nourishment uncertainty and its impact on well-being, sustenance, and conduct. Gaps remain, however, in understanding the course of affiliations and causality of nourishment frailty and its relationship to poverty. Likewise, Nzomo (2002) kept up that women's commitments have for quite some time been disparaged. Poverty frequently adds to the flare-up of brutality and threats; much of the time, it is instrumental in impelling men to shield bunch interests, respect, and aggregate jobs.

It is imperative to note that GoZ has embraced and keeps on pursuing various activities to help women ranchers through upgrading their gainful limits; guaranteeing their budgetary consideration through inventive credit plots that do not expect them to give insurance; supporting the institutional improvement of their cooperatives; and reinforcing their strength to start numerous activities with social assurance. The Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development (MWGCD) is probably the most grounded column set up to propel empowerment of women in rural areas. The Ministry has embraced women's monetary empowerment as a key technique for accomplishing long haul financial improvement and destitution decrease objectives. This procedure has become a key need for GoZ to accomplish MDG III and reasonable

financial development. MWGCD has accomplished two significant endeavours to reinforce its gender across the board framework setting gender central focuses in all administration services and parastatals and creating general rules on sex mainstreaming, an apparatus for all gender central people and government authorities. The present national gender strategy (2013-2017) in Zimbabwe does not particularly target women in rural areas yet handles gaps that emerge for provincial women. The National Gender Policy puts a solid emphasis on gender correspondence and value and furthermore plans to build gender responsiveness of environmental change adjustment and relief systems. Various strategies from the farming part are still being worked on including for environmental change. The National Climate Change Response Strategy set up in 2013, examines the inconsistent access, control and responsibility for assets by women and men, likewise recognising its effects on women's ability to adjust to environmental change. It therefore provides a decent establishment to utilising the green atmosphere assets to step up financing for rural women's empowerment.

Alkire et al. (2013) declared that advancing gender equity and women's empowerment by crossing over the gender gaps in agribusiness has been distinguished as a positive method for adding to women's empowerment and the way of life of their youngsters, especially in the worldwide south, where women's privileges have been mishandled and their commitments undermined. This is against the foundation that women likewise assume a key job in safeguarding request and typicality amidst chaos and destruction. In the midst of contention, when men take part in the war and are executed, vanish or take shelter outside their nation's borders, it is women who are left with the weight of guaranteeing family jobs. Women battle to ensure their families' well-being and security, an assignment which draws on their capacity to adapt even-minded to change and misfortune.

Findings likewise uncover, as clarified by Liu and Fang (2006) that women have battled against a manly type of authority for a long time. Gender differences on property rights can likewise be seen as women frequently face separation casual, standard and casual frameworks of property rights. Men stay focal beneficiaries and holders of property rights in patrilineal networks under standard land residency frameworks and in the formalised property relations inside the statutory land framework. Such uncommon gender classification in all property rights frameworks is socially adopted. Thus, Lorber

(2005) attested that successfully putting individuals into gender classifications, makes some type of social parity.

Research findings reveal that food insecurity in terms of nourishment has severe implications on individuals' wellbeing. Along these lines, it has been clear that the healthful prosperity of, for the most part women and youngsters, has been undermined tremendously. Results obviously present a multifaceted dilemma on the best way to value women's commitments to neighbourhood and the nourishment arrangement of the family unit without getting back women's customary duty regarding nourishment provisioning. In spite of the fact that the Fast Track Land Reform Programme was an honourable motivation, it did not guarantee law-based results for women. It is obvious that the programme was limited and driven by different factors, for example, political practicality, in this manner could not completely address women's anxieties for land proprietorship and control. In a sense, the Fast Track Land Reform Programme decreased the chances or spaces for women to be engaged and contracted the majority rule spaces for real investment of women being developed procedures by denying the rights to arrive, enlarging gender imbalances and eventually fuelling their destitution. The advocates and implementers of the Fast Track Land Reform Programme needed to consider carefully the women spaces and tend to factors that would improve the usage of land by women. Women in Zimbabwe still have vague and uncertain land rights, thus their control of land and its produce is undermined (Bhatasara, 2011, p. 327).

Endeavours to lighten both urban and other issues identifying women as makers and suppliers of nourishment are considered. In any case, results from the exploration additionally show that the absence of familiarity with the particular and various jobs and commitments of people to agricultural production and food security brings about what has been called 'gender visual deficiency'. This oversight will, in general, accomplish more damage than anything else. When women living in urban areas approach assets, notwithstanding money related and institutional limit requirements, they feel that these conveyance mishaps need cross-examination and treatment, which can be accomplished through coordination with key partners. Where plans and food security methodologies do not bear results, different options as alternatives to these national plans should be presented, with the assistance of outside assistants to battle hunger. It is in the

administration's enthusiasm to endeavour to find out additional information, to build up its ability and restore its pledge to serve the individuals.

Awareness campaigns are being conducted regarding the privileges entitled to women and children. The Harare People Group is likewise being taught about gender-based violence, laws and systems of helping women and children. Findings likewise uncovered that the Ministry (MWGCD) is guaranteeing the execution of the national Gender-Based Violence (GBV) systems and approaches. The Peoples group are likewise instructed on the referral framework and methodology on GBV. Also, there are recognitions of International Women's Day, International Day of Families and 16 days of Activism against GBV in accordance with national, local and global prerequisites. Besides, the Ministry cooperates with other government divisions like the Victim Friendly Unit, the Social Services Department, the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education. One member portrayed how the multi-sectoral approach is proving helpful in meeting the Ministry's targets. This incorporates mindful battles and instructing the network on the different laws that ensure women and children against gender-based violence.

Research likewise shows that the intensity of information is gainful for women as well as for both their families and their networks. Consequently, it is critical to improve the information and aptitudes that women have by giving them openings in both agricultural and non-agribusiness. A comprehension of gender as a factor in food security shows that nourishment frailty is a multi-dimensional issue, in that it is formed by poverty, assets, condition, infection, catastrophic events and a political setting which now and again prompts struggle circumstances. In addition, the research survey has recognised the worth and viability of a gender focal point in understanding why food security is a gendered issue. It is gendered in light of the fact that nourishment is both a human and a social issue that affects the prosperity of a populace, and people are socially characterised by their social jobs in connection to delivering, getting to and using nourishment. Furthermore, with the consideration that there is power in women's knowledge that is beneficial to both their individuals and the society, it is significant that this information should not be dormant, but rather be actively surfaced to fight issues of poverty as well as contribute to equality for women with men.

7.3 SUGGESTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was also driven by the fact that most women have taken the lead role in safeguarding food security within homes in the midst of daunting political and economic challenges. The following recommendations are meant to contribute to academic literature on possible ways that can be employed to improve the lives of Zimbabwean women in both rural and urban areas, given the harsh economic and political environment:

1. The government of Zimbabwe in collaboration with NGOs and CSOs needs to come up with developmental and sustainability programmes that will probably require enforcement of strict measures or policies governing the fiscal spending of the country. The programme also has to be non-discriminating based on gender as well as social class. Jacobs (2009a) concurs with this thought by mentioning that national food security targets can lead to more operational and pro-poor policy reactions and competence in financial expenditure.
2. The government of Zimbabwe has to take upon itself to investigate and adjust to the reality that most households are now female-headed and this is difficult to accept for some given the 'traditional' patriarchal notion that others still uphold. Thus, such patriarchal thought systems need to be broken down and tremendous effort need to be put in to support women in Zimbabwe fully without any prejudice.
3. Zimbabwean urban planners have to explore the prospects of including urban agriculture into existing policy documents and zoning schemes of urban centres. For such policies to be effective, there is probably a need to include procedures that promote social justice, equity and entitlement to food and other resources; the improvement of the urban environmental and sanitation systems, including public participation; and actively involve urban food producers in submitting their challenges and developing workable solutions to these challenges. FAO (2010) concurs to this by emphasising that policy makers and planners should recognise that women should participate in both urban and rural development on an equal basis with men and fully share in improved conditions of life in urban and rural areas. They also should recognise that the integration of women's roles and needs in the development paradigm is a precondition for successful urban and rural development planning and programme execution.

4. Generalised interventions have limited impact on women and vulnerable households regarding land tenure, given the diverse conditions of poverty. Therefore, policies or frameworks meant to deal with the manner in which land is occupied should take into consideration diverse contexts within urban communities. This is because the policies continue to render women invisible in the quest to land ownership. To be efficient and effective, land policies and related interventions should be as flexible as possible and should target specific those that have been disadvantaged. Thus an understanding of women's discrimination and needs regarding land ownership could provide an opportunity for new ways and means of formulating and evaluating gendered policy.
5. Zimbabwean politicians have to find ways of improve women's capacity to create income to maximise the benefits of women's incomes for household food security and nutrition. The approach of empowering women should aim at improving women's productivity both in paid work and in domestic production so that women can increase their incomes without sacrificing their time, children's welfare, or their own health.
6. Currently, intersectionality is considered key to social equity work. Therefore, NGOs, CSOs and community members are supposed to participate in more active conversations focused on the differences in experience among people with different social challenges. Without an intersectional lens, actions and engagements that aim to address injustice towards a group of people may end up prolonging discrimination towards other groups.
7. There is a need for a stable political environment in which a diagnosis of, and response to, food insecurity problems can take place. This is based on the understanding that food insecurity is at times responsive to sound political resolutions, and its existence and persistence can also be due to political causes.
8. The Zimbabwean government also has to get involved in setting up monitoring and evaluation systems that focus on impact assessment during and after periods of political and economic crises. This will enable them to measure the extent of

the adverse effect of the crisis situation and develop feasible solutions to address the situation in case it occurs again.

9. NGOs and CSOs need to ensure that aid money goes to those who really need it and does not disappear through corrupt means. Therefore, development programmes as well as interventions need to be aware of the communities that their beneficiaries live in as well as the power structures that regulate the communities. This is complicated exercise and money cannot simply be handed over to resolve the food insecurity challenge, but a sustainable solution to food insecurity and its impact on people's livelihoods.
10. As the research points out the clear linkage between food riots that are related to price and state-wide instability in certain circumstances such as the Arab Spring, more research must be done to improve our understanding of this relationship. Further research should elaborate on the set of conditions necessary for food-price riots to exponentially snowball into a threatening force or protracted social conflict.
11. In addition, there is also a need for gender-related programmes, which Mutswanga, Dube and Gandari (2010) have described as those programmes which target women and men to address equality. A gender-related programme is based on an analysis of gender relations, unlike women projects which tend to focus only on the situation of women. In developing gender-related programmes, one has to study the contextual factors influencing gender inequality, and in this case, the factors are women not participating in decision making at the local level, gender-based violence, the illiteracy rate among women regarded as poor, as well as cultural factors.
12. Furthermore, it is worth noting that provoking land reforms is desirable in order to come up with a legal framework that offers civil rights to women in land reform. This can be done by identifying inferences and influences of the conditions, actions and the distribution processes for women that are married, single, divorced or widowed as compared to the male counterparts. This has to point out the space between the tangible resources directed towards application

and the policy declarations. Thus there is a need for policymakers in Zimbabwe to critically address the negative impact that comes as a result of gender inequalities.

Overall, the ability to understand either the effects or source of urban food security, primarily in less developed countries, is important for global advancement. As such, the study has proposed that the fundamental explanation to the cause of food security over and above the effect of food security is to avail arable land for the households experiencing food insecurity. This may appear ordinary, but it is a significant argument that explains why revenue generation has to be at the centre of all developmental moves. Lastly, further research is to be conducted on all the discussed themes given that it is in exploring and addressing the interconnection of all that is looked at in this dissertation that a probable way to improving the economic and political crises environment in Zimbabwe and other developing countries towards development might emerge.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: ETHICAL APPROVAL LETTER FROM UKZN



12 February 2018

Mr Terry Tafadzwa Kuzhanga 210556862
School of Social Sciences
Edgewood Campus

Dear Mr Kuzhanga

Protocol reference number: HSS/0088/018D

Project title: Intersections of gender and food insecurity in a political and economic crisis environment: A reflection from some NGOs and Civil Society organisations in Zimbabwe

Full Approval – Expedited Application

In response to your application received 30 January 2018, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the 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 a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

Dr Shamila Naidoo (Deputy Chair)
Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

/pm

cc Supervisor: Professor Maheshvari Naidu
cc Academic Leader Research: Professor Maheshvari Naidu
cc. School Administrator: Mr N Memela

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Professor Shenuka Singh (Chair)

Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building

Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000

Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 3587/83504557 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 260 4809 Email: ximbap@ukzn.ac.za / snymnm@ukzn.ac.za / mohunp@ukzn.ac.za

Website: www.ukzn.ac.za

1910 - 2010
100 YEARS OF ACADEMIC EXCELLENCE

Faculties/Campuses: Edgewood Howard College Medical School Pietermaritzburg Westville

APPENDIX 2: GATEKEEPER PERMISSION FROM ADRA



2 PRINCESS DRIVE /CNR ENTREPRISE ROAD
P.O.BOX HG 100 HIGHLANDS, HARARE, ZIMBABWE
TEL: 263-4 776786/88/93.
EMAIL: info@adrazimbabwe.org
PVO 24/1968

Terry Kuzhanga
University of KwaZulu Natal

September 5, 2017

Dear Terry,

RE: PhD RESEARCH GATEKEEPERS REQUEST

Your application seeking permission to be allowed to conduct an interview or administer a questionnaire at ADRA Zimbabwe has been noted and approved under the following understanding that the:

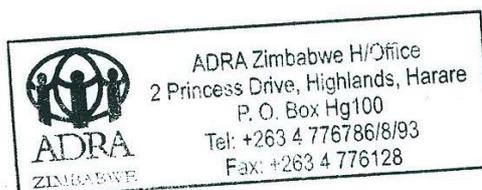
- research will not take a large amount of our time and will be conducted at a convenient time and date to be arranged.
- process and information will be used strictly for the purposes for which it has been granted, i.e. for study and academic purposes.
- That it will not delve in political activism or against the ethics, principles and values of ADRA Zimbabwe.

You will need to make your own appointments with the relevant person(s) that would be interviewed. If you need any further clarifications, please feel free to contact the undersigned.

I thank you and wish you the best.

Sincerely,


Britone Chitakunye
HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGER



APPENDIX 3: GATEKEEPER PERMISSION FROM ZIMBAMBWE GENDER COMMISSION

All communications should be addressed to "The Chairperson, Zimbabwe Gender Commission"
Telephone: +263 4 701 101
mmukahanana1@gmail.com



Zimbabwe
Gender
Commission

First Floor
Pax House
89 Kwame Nkrumah Ave,
Harare

8 September 2017

Dear Terry Kuzhanga,

RE: GATEKEEPERS CLEARANCE REQUEST FOR PHD STUDIES

Your application seeking permission to be allowed to administer questionnaires and conduct an interview at the Zimbabwe Gender Commission has been noted and granted. You will have to make appointments with the relevant person(s) that would be interviewed and given out questionnaires. If you need any further clarifications, please let us know.

Best wishes, thank you

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Caroline Matizha'.

Caroline Matizha

Technical Advisor: Zimbabwe Gender Commission



APPENDIX 4: GATEKEEPER PERMISSION FROM WORLD VISION



World Vision

Zimbabwe

59 Joseph Road/Off Nursery Road
Mount Pleasant
P.O. Box 2420
Harare, Zimbabwe

Tel: 301715/301709/369027/8
fax 301330
e-mail: zimbabwe@wvl.org
website: www.wvl.org

Date: 5 September 2017

The Manager

World Vision International

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is Terry Kuzhanga and I'm currently doing a research project for a PhD in Conflict Transformation and Peace Studies at the University of KwaZulu-Natal titled: *"Intersections of gender and food insecurity in a political and economic crisis: A reflection from NGOs and Civil society organizations in Zimbabwe"*.

Subject to approval by the University of KwaZulu-Natal Ethics committee, the study will be using a questionnaire and interviews to assess information relevant to the study. Therefore, I'm writing to ask your permission to be allowed to conduct an interview or administer a questionnaire at your organisation. This should not take much of your time and can be conducted at a convenient time and date to be arranged. All I will need is to arrange a suitable time with you for the interview or to come and give out the questionnaires. I will also be asking the staff members if they would like to take part in filling out the questionnaire.

All answers and results from the interviews and questionnaires will be kept strictly confidential, and the results will be reported in a research paper available to all participants on request after completion. If this is possible, please could you inform me and confirm in writing that you are allowing me with the help of my research assistant **Mr. Michael Kuzhanga** to conduct the interviews and give out questionnaires in your organisation with staff members taking part. This will enable me to get my ethical clearance to start my research

I would be grateful to get a favourable response from you. Thank you

Yours sincerely,

Terry Kuzhanga

APPROVED/NOT APPROVED

[Signature]

DATE

25/09/2017

LIVELIHOODS & RESILIENCE MANAGER

World Vision Zimbabwe is in agreement with the proposal on condition that the information collected will only be used for the intended academic purposes.

APPENDIX 5: GATEKEEPER PERMISSION FROM CARE ZIMBABWE

care

CARE Zimbabwe
Mailing Address:
Box HG 937
Highlands, Harare
Zimbabwe

Offices: 8 Ross Avenue
Belgravia, Harare
Zimbabwe
Tel: 263 4 708115/708047
Fax: 263 4 708115

12 October 2017

Dear Terry Kuzhanga

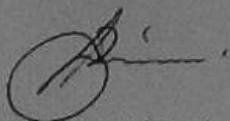
RE: Permission to interview CARE Staff for a research project

In response to your letter dated 20 August 2017 in which you requested permission to be allowed to conduct interviews with CARE staff for a research project with University of KwaZulu-Natal, please note the following:

- You can interview CARE staff provided they give their consent and the time for interviews does not negatively affect their duties,
- The questions asked staff do not compromise CARE values including the non-political, non-sectarian identity of CARE, and
- CARE or its staff will not be quoted in any way in a report arising from the interviews.

Thanks for showing interest in the work CARE does complimenting government and other partners in facilitating development and humanitarian assistance to communities in need.

Yours sincerely,



Levison Zimori
Program Quality Manager

APPENDIX 6A: INFORMED CONSENT FORM (ENGLISH)

Informed Consent Form

Dear Participant,

My name is Terry Kuzhanga. I am a PhD candidate studying at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College Campus. The title of my research is: **Intersections of gender and food insecurity in a political and economic crisis environment: A reflection from some NGOs and Civil society organizations in Zimbabwe**. The aim of the study is to investigate Zimbabwe's political and economic crisis environment's and further look at how it links to gender, food insecurity and its potential to ignite violent conflict. I am interested in interviewing you so as to share your experiences and observations on the subject matter.

Please note that:

- The information that you provide will be used for scholarly research only.
- Your participation is entirely voluntary. You have a choice to participate, not to participate or stop participating in the research. You will not be penalized for taking such an action.
- Your views in this interview will be presented anonymously. Neither your name nor identity will be disclosed in any form in the study.
- The interview will take about 20 minutes
- All participants will be provided feedback on request.
- Provisions for counseling services details will be given to participants should they need to visit a counselor for any reason after the interviews.
- The record as well as other items associated with the interview will be held in a password-protected file accessible only to myself and my supervisors. After a period of 5 years, in line with the rules of the university, it will be disposed by shredding and burning.
- If you agree to participate please sign the declaration attached to this statement (a separate sheet will be provided for signatures)

I can be contacted at: School of Social Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College Campus, Durban. Email: tkuzhanga@gmail.com; Cell: +27603327728;

My supervisor is Professor Naidu who is located at the University of KwaZulu-Natal School of Social Sciences, Howard College Campus, Durban. Contact details: email naiduu@ukzn.ac.za; Phone number: +27312607657

DECLARATION

I..... *(full name 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 understand the intention of the research. I hereby agree to participate.

I consent / do not consent to have this interview recorded (if applicable)

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

DATE

.....

.....

APPENDIX 6B: INFORMED CONSENT FORM (SHONA)

Vadiwa,

Zita rangu ndinonzi Terry Kuzhanga, mudzidzi arikufundira kuita chidzidzo chepamusoro chaDokotera wedzidzo pachikoro chepamusoro chinotwa icho University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College Campus. Musoro wetsvakirudzo yangu unoitwa iwo: **Intersections of gender and food insecurity in a political and economic crisis environment: A reflection from some NGOs and Civil society organizations in Zimbabwe**. Donzvo rekuita tsvakirudzo ino ndeyekuongorora mamiriro ezvematongerwo enyika nezveupfumi muZimbabwe zvakare ne kutarisa kusangana kwedzidzo pakati pevanhurume nevanhukadzi maringe nekusachengetedzeka kwezvekudya pamwe nekukwanisa kwazvo kukonzera mhirizhonga. Ndinoda kuti tive nehurukuro kuti mukoverane neni maonero uye nemanzwisiro enyaya yatinenge tichitaura nezvayo.

Zviziviso:

- Mhinduro dzamuchapa dzichasevengeswa patsvakirudzo, dzinechekuita nedzidzo chete kwete zvimwe zvinhu.
- Huvapo henyu patsvakirudzo ino, kuburikidza nekuzvipira kwenyu kuva pano. Makasununguka kubatirana neni patsvakirudzo ino, kana kuraba uye kurega kana muchinge maona zvakafanira kwamuri. Hamusungirwe kuti murambe muchienderera mberi imi maona musisakwanise kuenderera mberi.
- Miwono yenyu pamibvunzo ichange yakavanzika, uye haibuditse kuti ndiyani akataura kutii patsvakirudzo.
- Mibvunzo yandichabvunza ichatora nguva inoita iyo maminetsi makumi maviri.
- Umwe neumwe achazvipira pahurukuro ino, anekodzero yokupiwa tsvakirudzo ino mushure mekunge akumbira kuiona.
- Pakagadzirirwa munhu anoongorora nezve kubatsira vanenge vabatikana zvikuru nehurukuro yatinenge tinayo. Kana varipo pakati pedu vanotiona mushure mekunge tapenza kutaura.
- Humbowo hwehurukuro inohuchange hwakachengetedzwa kwenguva inoita iyo makore makumi mashanu, zvichienderana ne mitemo yepachikoro. Kana nguva iyi ichinge yapfuura tinozopisa hubowo uhu kuti pasawan umwe anoshandisa zvisizvo.
- Kana tichitenderana nezvose zvataverenga pano, ndinokumbira tisaine sehumbowo hwekutenderana nebasa ramuchange muchiita pabepa ramuchapiwa.

Munokwanisa kundibata panzvimo inotevera: School of Social Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College Campus, Durban. Email: **tkuzhanga@gmail.com**; Nhamba dzenhare dzinoti: +27603327728;

Mudzidzisi wangu anoitwa iye Professor Naidu anobatika paUniversity of KwaZulu-Natal School of Social Sciences, Howard College Campus, Durban. Contact details: email **naiduu@ukzn.ac.za** Nhamba dzake dzerinhare dzinoti idzo: +27312607657

The Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee contact details are as follows: Ms Phumelele Ximba, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Research Office, Email: **ximbap@ukzn.ac.za**, Nhamba dzake dzerinhare dzinoti idzo +27312603587.

Ndinotenda zvikuru nerutsigiro rwenyu patsvakiridzo ino.

CHIBVUMIRO

Ini..... (Zita rakazara) ndinobvumirana nekunzwisisa zvakanyorwa pano, uye netsvakirudzo inoda kuitwa pano. Zvakare ndinobvuma kuve umwe wevanhu anobatirana nemi patsvakiridzo ino.

Ndinonzwisisa kuti ndakasununguka kurega kuenderera mberi netsvakiridzo ino kana ndaona zvakafanira. Zvakare ndinonzisisa donzvo yetsvakiridzo ino, uye ndinozvitendera kubatirana pamwechete nemi patsvakirudzo ino.

Ndinobvuma / Handibvumirane nazvo (kana zwichibvira)

Siginicha yenyu

Zuva

.....

.....

APPENDIX 7A: FOCUS GROUP SCHEDULE

FOCUS GROUP SCHEDULE

Welcome and thank you for volunteering to take part in this focus group. You have been asked to participate as your point of view is important. I realize you are busy and I appreciate you sparing time to be part of the discussion. My name is **Terry Kuzhanga**, Doctoral student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. As part of the fulfilment of my academic degree, I am supposed to carry out a research thesis. In due compliance with this requirement, I have chosen to do a research titled:

“Intersections of gender, and food insecurity in a political and economic crisis: A reflection from NGOs and Civil society organizations in Zimbabwe”.

Introduction: This focus group discussion is designed to assess your thoughts and feelings on the link or connection between Zimbabwe political and economic crisis and food insecurity. The focus group discussion will take not more than one hour. May I tape the discussion to facilitate its recollection?

Anonymity: Despite being taped, I would like to assure you that the discussion will be anonymous. The tapes will be kept safely in a locked facility until they are transcribed word for word, then they will be destroyed. The transcribed notes of the focus group will contain no information that would allow individual subjects to be linked to specific statements. You should try to answer and comment as accurately and truthfully as possible. I and the other focus group participants would appreciate it if you would refrain from discussing the comments of other group members outside the focus group. If there are any questions or discussions that you do not wish to answer or participate in, you do not have to do so; however please try to answer and be as involved as possible.

Focus Group Discussion Ground rules

- The most important rule is that only one person speaks at a time. There may be a temptation to jump in when someone is talking but please wait until they have finished.
- There are no right or wrong answers and can all questions and answers come via the discussion chair.
- You do not have to speak in any particular order
- When you do have something to say, please do so. There are many of you in the group and it is important that I obtain the views of each of you

- You do not have to agree with the views of other people in the group
- Does anyone have any questions before we begin?

Ice Breaker

- First, I'd like everyone to introduce themselves. Can you tell us your name?

1. Introductory question

I am just going to give you a couple of minutes to think about your experience on how you daily work to ensure you have access and can afford adequate food for sustenance. Is anyone happy to share his or her experience?

2. Focus group questions

- What do we understand by food insecurity?
- What measures have been there to ensure food security in our communities?
- How can you link gender and food insecurity?
- How has Zimbabwe's political and economic environment affected food security?
- What has been the impact of food insecurity on both man and women?
- Has there been any form of violent conflict in our communities that has been ignited as a result of food insecurity?
- What has been the role of both man and women in our communities to address food security concerns?

3. Concluding question

- Of all the things we have discussed today, what would you say are the most important issues that would address on ensure food security concerns in our communities?

Conclusion

Thank you for participating. This has been a very successful discussion and your opinions will be a valuable asset to the study. I would like to remind you that any comments featuring in this report will be anonymous. Please remember to maintain confidentiality of the participating individuals by not disclosing their names.

APPENDIX 7B: FOCUS GROUP SCHEDULE (SHONA)

FOCUS GROUP SCHEDULE

Tinoda kukuchingamidzai mese nekukutendai kuti mazvibvumira kuti muve pagungano rino nhasi. Takudanai pano kuti muve munokoverana nesu miwono yenyu, nekuti yakakosha kwatiri. Ndinovimba kuti mumwe nemumwe vedu pane kwatinobata bata kwakasiyana, asi ndinotenda nekuzvipira kwenyu kuti muve pahurukuro yatichaita nhasi uno. Zita rangu ndinoitwa **Terry Kuzhanga**, mudzidzi arikufundira chidzidzo chepamusoro chaDokotera wedzidzo pachikoro chepamusoro chinoitwa icho University of KwaZulu-Natal. Kuburikidza nezvinodiwa padzidzo iyi, ndinofanirwa kuita tsvagirudzo nekunyora zvinenge zvabuda mutsvakirudzo iyi. Zvichiendera nezvinodikanwa patsvakirudzo iyi, ndakasarudza musoro wenyanya unoti iwo:

“Intersections of gender, and food insecurity in a political and economic crisis: A reflection from NGOs and Civil society organizations in Zimbabwe”.

Mavambo: Ungano ino yakagadzirirwa kuti, tinzwe nekuongorora maonero, mafungiro, nezvamunonzwa maringe nekupindana kwakaita matongerwo enyika yeZimbabwe, nezveupfumi hwenyika zvisina kumira zvakanaka, pamwe nekusachengetedzeka kuripo panyaya yezvekudya. Ungano ino haitore nguva inodarika awa imwechete. Ndinotenderwa here nemi mose kuti nditepe hurukuro yedu, kuzoitira kuti ndirangarire zvese zvatinenge takurukura nezvazvo?

Zvakavanzika: Zvisinei nekuti ndichatepa hurukuro ino, ndinoda kukuvimbisai kuti hurukuro ino haina achazivakuti ndivanani vangavaripo pahurukuro ino. Zvese zvinenge zvatepwa zvichachengetwa panzvimbo yakachengetedzeka, uye zvichadudzirwa sezvazviri, kana ndapedza kududzira ndichaparadza zvese. Zvinyorwa zvinenge zvabva padudziro yegungano rino zvichange zvisingabuditse nyaya inenge yakanangana nenhanganyaya imwe chete. Ndinokurudzira kuti, zvakakosha kuti tipemhinduro kana miwone yedu nemazvo uye nechokwadi chedu chose. Ini nevamwe vese varipagungano rino tinokurudzirwa kuti tizvidzivise kukurukura maererano nemhinduro dzinenge dzataurwa pano pedu tega mushure mekunge tabva ino. Kana umwe wedu ane mibvunzo kana hurukuro yaasingashuvira kuti tinge tichipindura kana kukurukurwa nezveyo, anotenderwa kusapindura kana kukurukura nezvayo. Asi tinokumbirwa kuti toedza nepatinogona kuti tipindure mibvunzo yose nekubatirana pamwe chete paungano ino.

Mitemo yegungano rino:

- Zvakakosha kuti tese tizive kuti paungano ino, tinotendera munhu umwe chete ataure panguva imwe chete. Kuda umwe wedu anogona kunzwa chidikwa chekuti pindirewo ataure, asi

anofanira kumirira kusvikira arikutara apedza kutaura.

- Hapana mhinduro yatingati yezvokwadi kaba isiyo, asi tinokurudzirwa kuti mibvunzo yose nemhinduro zvipfuure nepana sachigaro wegungano ino.
- Kana tichitaura hapana nzira yakatarwa yekutaura nayo, saka takasununguka kupa miwono yedu.
- Kana tichinge tine chekutaura, takasununguka kuti titaure. Nekuwanda kwedu pagungano rino, zvakakosha kuti mumwe nemumwe wedu awane mukana wekutaura kuti tive nemiwono yakasiyana siyana.
- Takasununguka kuti tisawirirane nemiwono yevamwe varipagungano rino.
- Pangaite mumwe pakati pedu angaite mubvunzo here tisati tavamba hurukuro yedu?

Nzira yekunyevenutsa vatauri

- Chekutanga, ndinokumbira kuti tizivane. Tinokumbira kuti umwe ne umwe atiudze zita rake?

1. Mubvunzo wekutanga

Ndinoda kupa mumwe ne mumwe wenyu nguva pfupi kuti tifunge maringe nezvatakambosangana nazvo muhupenyu zvinechekuita nekuwana zvekudya zvakatifanira kuti tirame. Pakati pedu pane akasununguka kuti taurira here zvaakasanga nazvo muhupenyu hwake?

2. Mibvudzo yegungano

- Chii chatinonzwisisa panotinonzwa nezvekuita nekusachengetedzeka kwezvekudya?
- Ndeapi matanho arimo munharaunda muno maringe nekuchengetedzeka kwezvekudya?
- Munokwanisa here kusanganisa nyaya dzinechekuita How can you link gender and food insecurity?
- Mamiriro ematongerwo enyika nezve hupfumi hwenumo munyika yeZimbabwe zvakonzora chinyi maringe nekuchengetedzeka kwezvekudya?
- Kusachengetedzeka kwezvekudya kunova nemutsindo wakadini kune vanhukadzi uye nevanhurume?
- Munharaunda muno, makambosangana here ne mhirizhonga maringe nekusachengetedzeka kwezvekudya?
- Munharaunda muno, nderupi rupando rwevanhurume ne vanhukadzi kuedzesera kugadziridza

mamiriro ezvekuchengetedzeka kwezvekudya?

3. Mibvunzo yokupendera

- Pane zvose zvatange tichikurukura pamusoro pazvo muzuva ranhasi, chinyi chamungati chakakosha pakugadziridza nyaya yekuchengetedzeka kwezvekudya munharaunda medu?

Mhedzisiro

Ndinotenda nekuvapo kwenyu pagungano rino. Hurukuro yedu yabudirira zvikuru uye miwono yenyu yakakosha zvikuru kutsvakirudzo yandirikuita. Ndinoda kukuyeuchidzai kuti miwono yenyu inenge irimo mutsvakiridzo yandichaita ine mazita akavanzwa. Ndatenda

APPENDIX 8: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR THE GENDER COMMISSION OF ZIMBABWE

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR THE GENDER COMMISSION OF ZIMBABWE

1. What is the primary responsibility of the Gender commission of Zimbabwe?

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2. As a ministry what is your understanding of food insecurity?

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3. Is it the Organizations primary responsibility to address the welfare of women, especially concerning their food security?

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4. How has Zimbabwe’s political and economic environment affected the organizations primary responsibility?

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5. How often do you have gender sensitization programmes that educate and address gender concerns on food security during political and economic crises?

Once a month
 Never

twice a month
 Other (please specify)

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6. What are the challenges that you encounter when trying to address gendered issues during political and economic crises?

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7. Do you have monitoring structures in place to monitor challenges women face, which affect their food security?

Yes

No

If, response is Yes please explain your answer.

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8. From your experience, what needs to be done to avoid violent conflict from igniting due to food insecurity grievances?

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9. What can be done for women to mitigate situations where they have no adequate food supplies for sustenance purposes, especially during a time of political and economic crisis?

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THANK YOU SO MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION

APPENDIX 9: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR NGOs & CIVIL SOCIETY ORGANISATIONS

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR NGOs & CIVIL SOCIETY ORGANISATIONS

1. What is the primary responsibility of your organization?

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2. As an organization what is your understanding of food insecurity?

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3. Is it the organizations primary responsibility to address the welfare of women, especially concerning their food security?

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4. How has Zimbabwe’s political and economic environment affected the organizations primary responsibility?

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5. How often do you have gender sensitization programmes that educate and address gender concerns on food security during political and economic crises?

Once a month
 Never

twice a month
 Other (please specify)

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6. What are the challenges that you encounter when trying to address gendered issues during political and economic crises?

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7. Do you have monitoring structures in place to monitor challenges women face, which affect their food security?

Yes

No

If, response is Yes please explain your answer.

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8. From your experience, what needs to be done to avoid violent conflict from igniting due to food insecurity grievances?

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9. What can be done for women to mitigate situations where they have no adequate food supplies for sustenance purposes, especially during a time of political and economic crisis?

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THANK YOU SO MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION

APPENDIX 10: Extract of Article 25(1) of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights

Article 25

1. Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control.
2. Motherhood and childhood are entitled to special care and assistance. All children, whether born in or out of wedlock, shall enjoy the same social protection.