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Zimbabwe Food Security Desk Research: Manicaland Province

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Summary

This report presents the findings of a desk research of the food security situation in Manicaland Province. The desk research was complemented by primary data collected for a market study in the same province. The desk research focused on greater understanding of food accessibility, availability, utilization, nutrition, and gender and intersectionality issues, as well as lessons learned from past food assistance programs. A central aspect of the research is to understand factors behind food security or lack thereof in Manicaland Province. Through this study, we identify the risks, opportunities, constraints, and impacts on the achievement of outcomes in human development influenced by the agriculture and food security sectors.

Manicaland Province is a food deficit area. The province experiences acute food insecurity due to a number of factors that include poor rains, unfair pricing mechanisms, high input prices, lack of access to markets, land tenure insecurity, limited availability of agricultural extension services, and animal diseases. As a result, households in Manicaland Province are abandoning farm-based livelihoods.

Food access is mostly affected by policy and infrastructure challenges. Policy trials and inconsistencies, high transport costs, distance to markets, isolation of some areas during the rainy season, exchange rate-induced price variability, and cash shortages affect food accessibility in the province. Due to gender roles and time use, more women than men are affected by inaccessibility of food.

Limited dietary diversity resulting from a cereal-based diet contributes to nutritional deficiencies. Undernutrition and malnutrition rates are high. Owing to this situation, there are a number of state and non-state actors implementing food assistance programs in the province, using in-kind, cash/food for assets, cash transfers, and vouchers—all with the aim of producing long-term food security and dietary impacts, better management of shocks and stresses, and putting households on a resilient pathway.

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List of Acronyms

AGRITEX	Agricultural Technical and Extension Services
CNFA	Cultivating New Frontiers in Agriculture
CSB	Corn Soya Blend
DFID	Department for International Development
DFSA	Development Food Security Assistance
ENSURE	Enhancing Nutrition, Stepping Up Resilience and Enterprise
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FEWSNET	Famine Early Warning Systems Network
FFP	Food for Peace
FTLRP	Fast Track Land Reform Program
GBV	Gender-Based Violence
GMB	Grain Marketing Board
GMO	Genetically Modified Organisms
GoZ	Government of Zimbabwe
HCT	Humanitarian Country Team
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organization
LSA	Lean Season Assistance
MLAWCRR	Ministry of Land, Agriculture, Water, Climate and Rural Resettlement
MT	Metric Ton
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
ORAP	Organization of Rural Associations for Progress
SAFIRE	Southern Alliance for Indigenous Resources
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
RDC	Rural District Council
WFP	World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organization
WV	World Vision
ZESA	Zimbabwe Electricity Supply Authority
ZimVAC	Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee
ZRBF	Zimbabwe Resilience Building Fund

I. Introduction

Background, Justification, and Objectives of the Research

Zimbabwe is a landlocked low-income, food-deficit country in southern Africa. The country has been facing numerous challenges since the late 1990s; these have negatively affected the food security situation. Among these challenges are widespread poverty, HIV and AIDS, limited employment opportunities, liquidity challenges, recurrent climate-induced shocks, and economic instability, all of which have contributed to limited adequate access to food (WFP, 2017). The agricultural sector, which is the primary livelihood for 70 percent of the population, was dominated by large commercial farms until the Fast Track Land Reform of 2000. Now 90 percent of farmers are smallholders, who work 73 percent of the agricultural land (Moyo, 2011). Smallholder farming is characterized by low productivity, lack of access to markets, lack of competitiveness, limited access to extension services, finance, and inputs, as well as frequent experience of adverse weather events. Land tenure is also a major constraint to production, especially among women. Only 20 percent of women involved in agriculture are landowners or leaseholders, which places them at a disadvantage because they lack collateral for accessing credit (Chingarande, 2009). These challenges have exacerbated Zimbabwe's food security situation to "serious," according to the 2017 Global Hunger Index (where it ranked 108th of 119).

Between 2009 and 2014, an average of 1 million people (8.3 percent of the population) were food insecure, of whom 38 percent were chronically food insecure. A five-year trend analysis of food security in Zimbabwe reveals that the number of food insecure people has been increasing, from 2,629,159 people in the 2015/16 season to 4,071,233 people in the 2016/17 season. And although the 2017/18 season saw a drop to 1,052,768, it was followed by an increase to 2,423,568 and 5,529,209 in the 2018/19 and 2019/2020 seasons, respectively (SADC, 2019). Food insecurity is a complex problem with direct and underlying drivers that involve many sectors and contextual factors. The definition of food and nutrition security by the Committee on World Food Security (2012) is "when all people at all times have physical, social and economic access to food which is safe and consumed in sufficient quantity and quality to meet their dietary needs and food preferences and is supported by an environment of adequate sanitation, health services and care allowing for a healthy and active life."

In this context, USAID's Office of Food for Peace (FFP) began providing recovery and development support following the relative stabilization of the economy in 2010. However, the period of stabilization did not last long and recurrent economic and environmental shocks continued to affect the country. FFP awarded two development food security assistance (DFSA) projects in 2013: Amalima and Enhancing Nutrition and Stepping Up Resilience (ENSURE). Amalima is implemented by Cultivating New Frontiers in Agriculture (CNFA) in Matabeleland North and South provinces, and ENSURE is implemented by World Vision in Manicaland and Masvingo. Both programs work with rural communities to improve food security, nutrition security, and resilience to recurrent shocks and stressors.

FFP is considering the design of new DFSA activities in Zimbabwe in the provinces of Manicaland, Masvingo, and Matabeleland North. This food security review is intended to inform the design of a potential solicitation and to serve as a publicly available resource for potential implementing partners for applications. This report is focused on Manicaland Province. It provides background on the food and nutrition-security situation and recent trends in the province; relevant strategies, initiatives, and

programming in the area; key gaps and priorities for improving food and nutrition-security; and an analysis of implications USAID should be aware of for program design in the province. This review and analysis will guide both USAID/FFP and applicants' strategy for food assistance and resilience in Zimbabwe, with a particular focus on Manicaland Province. It serves to provide potential USAID/FFP partners with analyses of context, stakeholders, lessons learned, and best practices as they relate to food and nutrition-security, nutrition, poverty, and resilience in Manicaland Province.

Methods

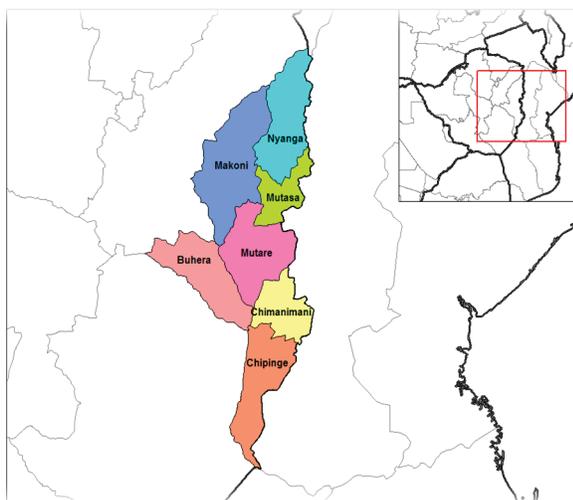
This review is based on desk research about aspects that are relevant to food security in Manicaland province. The review presents insights from a provincial perspective to ground future food security programming in evidence. To complement the information available, the research team conducted focus group discussions and key informant interviews drawing on experts in a variety of programming areas that are relevant for food security. Individual interviews were also undertaken with local leaders and heads of organizations in the public, private, and civil society organizations in Manicaland Province. Members of the Mutasa District Rural District Council (RDC) levels discussed the provincial food security issues with the research team, also informing the aspects presented in this review (see Annex I for further details).

2. Contextual Overview and Analysis

Description and Analysis of the History, Context, and Operating environment

Manicaland has an area of 36,459 square kilometres, with seven administrative districts: Buhera, Chimanimani, Chipinge, Makoni, Mutare, Mutasa, and Nyanga (see Figure 1). The province is located in the east of Zimbabwe, and is a strategic gateway to Mozambique. It has a population of about 1,861,755, which is approximately 13.6 percent of the national population (ZIMSTAT, 2017). The province has a population density of 42 persons per square kilometer, against a national average of 31 persons per square kilometer. Manicaland Province forms a barrier mountainous belt that influences the weather patterns, which in turn has an influence on a range of economic activities and commercialization in parts of the province. The province is endowed with perennial rivers, including the Odzi River, which stretches from Nyanga District through Mutasa and Mutare West districts and drains into the Save River, which borders Manicaland and Masvingo provinces to the south. Other perennial rivers include the Pungwe and Honde in Mutasa and Mpudzi, Muroti, Mukuni

Figure 1. Districts of Manicaland Province



and Sakubva in Mutare. A number of seasonal streams are found in all three districts. The river systems provide significant potential for economic development centered on river systems and dams. The major dams include the Osborne Dam (fourth largest inland dam in Zimbabwe), which is found in Mutasa District. In Mutare District, the Mukwada, Marange II, and Mpudzi dams are key to agriculture and other commercial activities that influence the function of the markets in the province.

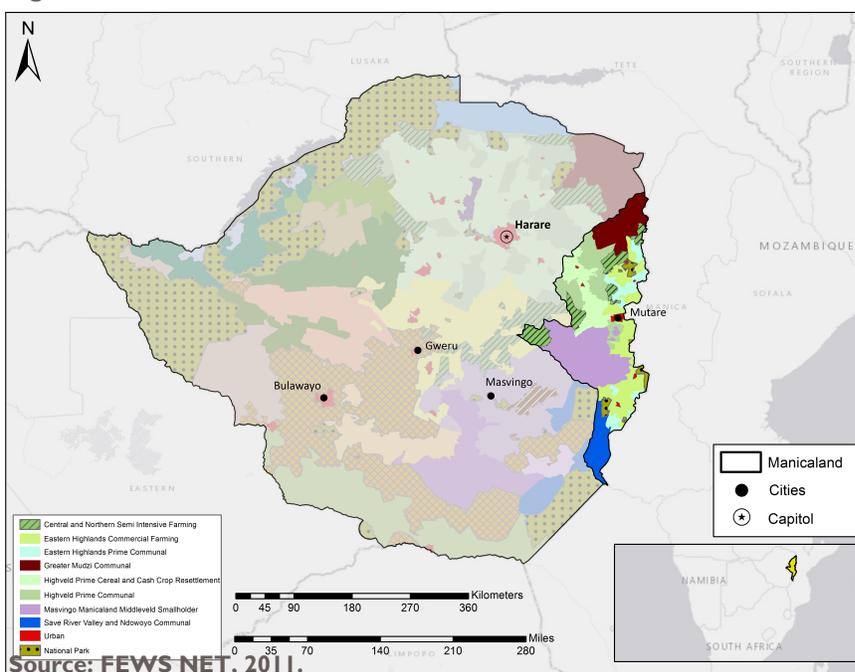
The province spans all the five natural regions, creating the opportunity for a range of agricultural activities from the high rainfall areas of Vumba Highlands in Region I to the dry and hot areas of Middle Save in Region V (see Figure 2 for livelihood zones). Agricultural production consists of subsistence and commercial activities. Tea, coffee, timber, horticulture, seed potato, and dairy farming account for most of the agricultural output. The drier parts of the province grow cotton, sorghum, and millet. The landscape in Manicaland—particularly, Nyanga, Vumba and Chimanimani areas—are mountainous and differ significantly from the rest of the country as it offers beautiful scenery. Mount Nyangani, at 2,592 meters high, is the highest mountain in Zimbabwe. However, in spite of this beauty, Manicaland has some of the most densely populated communal areas with high incidences of poverty, such as Buhera and Chimanimani (Chimonyo et al., 2013).

Agriculture and Livelihoods

Analyzing food security in Manicaland in the context of climate change and extreme events such as Cyclone Idai and recurrent droughts and floods is a complex exercise. The dimensions of the food security problem and the status of the province food insecurity vary geographically (per district and natural regional agro zone), by level (at household level), temporally (inter- and intra-seasonally), and socially (urban and rural households, income-related). It is all the more difficult to assess food insecurity in a province that has a strong agricultural sector with temperate, tropical, and arid conditions that influence the production of edible foods at the commercial level and for personal consumption. Manicaland has particular strong commercial agriculture area that include: Irish potatoes, horticulture produce, fruits (tomatoes, citrus, apples, avocados, mangoes, pineapples), hake fish production, nuts (macadamia), coffee and tea production, timber, and dairy and beef cattle.

In Manicaland, with all the agro-ecological zones, farmers practice subsistence and commercial agriculture. Makoni, Mutasa, and Mutare areas are under NR III, having potential for reliable high-yielding crops like maize, soya beans, sunflowers, groundnuts, and paprika. In the NR II, major crops and horticultural products are

Figure 2. Livelihood zones in Manicaland



practiced in Nyanga, Chimanimani, Chipinge, and parts of Buhera largely by smallholder farmers in communal, resettlement, and commercial farms now under A1 and A2. Models A1 and A2 are the two resettlement models that were used under the Fast Track Land Reform Program. The former was intended to decongest communal areas, while the latter aimed at creating a cadre of commercial farmers and was based on the concept of full cost recovery from the beneficiary.

Much of the maize grown in Manicaland comes from Mutasa District and eastern Mutare District, which falls under NR II and III. Honde Valley is well known for producing sugarcane, bananas, vegetables, and fruits such as avocados. The good soils and very high average temperatures in Rusitu Valley in Chimanimani provide the core resource for horticulture and fruit production. In areas that cover western Mutare District and much of Buhera and Chipinge District, subsistence farming prevails without access to Save River for irrigation water (Magumbate, 2010). Rural households in NR IV and V hardly produce above their subsistence levels, owing to poor soils and erratic rainfall patterns. These farmers on their own hardly have sufficient means of survival as crop failure is high—one out of every three years—which elicits food assistance provided by international non-governmental organizations (INGOs) (Ministry of Agriculture, Lands and Resettlement, 2018).

Smallholder irrigation development impacts household and food market supply. Some of these kinds of development are found in Mutema, Nyanyadzi, and Osborne as large schemes, whereas NGOs fund small village schemes supporting nutrition gardens. Some of the NGOs also work with communities on livestock programs. There are also productive practices that farmers are investing in, such as apiculture. In Mutasa and Chimanimani, there are approximately 2,100 honey farmers helping to sustain more than 30,000 people. According to the *Financial Gazette*, honey businesses for villagers of Domborutinhira, Chidazembe, Inyashuti, and Muchena of Mutasa District have the potential to generate more than \$900,000 annually from 878 beekeepers, who have an average of three hives producing an average 20 liters per harvest.¹ Most of farmers harvest at least three times per year. The challenges common to both NGOs and government departments included political interference in day-to-day activities that sometimes derailed implementation of livelihoods programs, as politicians try to use livelihoods as leverage.

Natural Resources and Agribusiness in Manicaland Province

Since 2006, the significant interest in diamonds by small panners has made Manicaland the diamond province of Zimbabwe, which obscures the fact that Manicaland is also home to a range of important economic resources central to Zimbabwe's development. The existence of the diamonds has had a minimal economic impact on the life of the Manicaland people. The natural resources with all the agro-ecological zones make Manicaland Province a potentially highly productive region. However, there are high rates of poverty within the districts (Chiredzi, Chipinge, Buhera, and Chimanimani), despite the fact that the province, with its savanna lands and tropical and temperate climate due to altitude, provides a variety of agricultural commodities. These include macadamia nuts, Irish potatoes, hake fish, dairy products (Nyanga and Chipinge), avocados, bananas, pine fruits, horticulture (mostly Rusitu valley), tea, and coffee. Manicaland has the largest diverse agricultural commodities in Zimbabwe, and the capacity to provide commodities and therefore incomes all year round.

¹ <http://www.financialgazette.co.zw/honey-flowing-in-the-fields-of-manicaland/>

Investment in ethanol production was and perhaps remains a major investment at large scale after land reform. Land owned by smallholder farmers has been targeted for ethanol production in Chipinge. No firm solutions have been found for the arguments for and against these investments: the loss of land, limited participation of the local population in new employment, and few local opportunities (Chipinge) to provide services to the company. It should not be forgotten that historically Manicaland had plantation agriculture in Chipinge, Nyanga, Chimanimani, and Mutare playing a significant role in the economy. Dominant companies with such a history include Tanganda Tea Company (Chipinge and Chimanimani), Dairiboard Zimbabwe (Chipinge), Cairns Holdings (Rusitu Valley), and Macdom and Ratings investments as part of the Greenfuel group (Chipinge). The motor industry also provides the premium to market developments in Manicaland, with assembly plants in Mutare for big companies such as Quest Motors.

However, smallholders in the province have been actively involved in the production of bananas in Rusitu, Burma, and Honde Valley. The banana investment is currently spreading to fields in Chipinge and Mutema areas by Matanuska, where they are assisting local farmers with banana plantations. These local farmers realize significant incomes that are above the poverty datum line and much higher-level income than ordinary civil servant pay. This is in addition to the variety of fruits that are recovering, such as mangoes and pineapples, while vegetable production is being resuscitated by Cairns (a food manufacturer and distributor) in Chipinge, Chimanimani, and Buhera. In addition, potato production in Nyanga has a ready-guaranteed market at Cairns. Despite political contestations, smallholders in different crop value chains are forming cooperatives, at times with the assistance of the companies and NGOs to break the constraints and are becoming competitive.

Infrastructure to Enable Accessibility to Food in Manicaland Province

The road network is central to the infrastructure of Manicaland, backed by railway systems that go all the way to Beira in Mozambique. A road infrastructure with a reasonably maintained railway systems can facilitate the movement of food. The gateway to Beira through the Forbes Border Post provides important infrastructural resources to potentially boost the economy of the province. Manicaland is therefore well positioned to be a first recipient of food that is imported, before being redistributed in the northern and southern parts of the country. The road from Mutare to Harare was significantly improved and was being developed into a superhighway. The main road network has had regular maintenance; however, much of the internal road system connecting the districts requires rehabilitation. The poor state of feeder roads reflects the depressed economic activities in many of the districts. In addition, the effects of Cyclone Idai on the road and bridge network means that Chimanimani, Chipinge, and Buhera require urgent road and bridge rebuilding. Improving rural accessibility for productive road networks can increase the amount of food assistance and trade.

Mobile phone coverage is almost 100 percent by all network providers, which makes it possible to have mobile cash transfers for households to locally purchase their own food. This is critical because currently the country does not have hard coin or paper cash in circulation—a national monetary policy decision to curb inflation. Mobile cash is key, given that over 90 percent of money transactions are on one network, EcoCash. EcoCash is a mobile phone-based money transfer, financing, and microfinancing service launched by Econet Wireless for its customers in Zimbabwe. It allows users to deposit, withdraw, transfer money, and pay for goods and services from a mobile handset.

The energy infrastructure exists through the national grid systems owned and run by the Zimbabwe Electricity Supply Company (ZESA). However, during production of this report serious load shedding meant areas were put off grid network for up to 18 hours has had a negative effect on economic activities that require electricity. Manicaland has more independent power producers (IPPs) setting up mini-hydro-power stations than any other province. These need to be scaled: the waterfalls are ideal for hydro-power generation. Already, the Gairezi power plant has been planned and will deliver 30 megawatts (mw) of energy at a cost of \$105 million. The Chisumbanje ethanol plant has been connected to the national grid and is contributing 50 mw of energy from bagasses, which is very significant if all that energy were prioritized for Manicaland. However, it is all nationally shared, which means “origin” as a basis for prioritization is not a key consideration in the policy of the Government of Zimbabwe (Borras, 2008).

3. Sectoral and Thematic Review and Analysis

The 1992 USAID Policy Determination defined food security as having three major dimensions that this report considers: availability, accessibility, and utilization.

Food Availability

Availability of food refers to the physical presence of food, whether in markets, on farms, or through food assistance. This section therefore considers food availability from this perspective.

Food Availability through Agricultural Production

The variations of rainfall influenced by the extremes of the climates presents Manicaland as a province with resource fortune, as well as distress. Buhera District, for example, with dry-land agriculture production, experiences deficits in food annually. Manicaland is not considered to be a major grain production area, except for subsistence. This provides a threat to a large population of the province, as they have to be centrally fed from the state as corporate markets are not involved in social redistributive programs that includes food provision. Maize remains the crop grown by the majority of households. For example during the 2018/19 season, 82 percent of households grew maize, 11 percent grew sorghum, 7 percent grew pearl millet, and 3 percent grew finger millet (ZimVAC, 2019). While many households try to produce cereals, the performance of maize has been low compared to small grains such as sorghum and millet.

Land, Production, and Food Security in Manicaland Province

Access to land and land tenure have a bearing on production levels and food security. Although literature on the beneficiaries of the FTLRP is dated, the scenario has not significantly departed from what was observed in 2003. The FTLRP restructured agrarian relations in favor of a diverse group of farmers; however, struggles over land continue to be underpinned by class, gender, age, and ethnicity (Mkodzongi and Lawrence, 2019). Although statistics on land ownership by age could not be

established, Scoones et al. (2019) has reported the experiences of young people who have been left out of land redistribution, perhaps attributable the myth that young people are not interested in farming. Some young people who fail to secure viable livelihoods in cities have decided to go back to the countryside to try farming but have faced challenges of access to land. As a result, they have been forced to stay with parents or the extended family in order to gain access to a piece of land for farm-based livelihoods (Scoones et al., 2019). Despite differences in culture and belief systems across the various provinces, women and young people in all provinces have not had access to land as much as men. Statistics for Manicaland Province show that female-headed households did not benefit as much as the male-headed households from the fast track land reform exercise for both the A1 and A2 models (Table 1).

Table 1. Gender and Access to Land in Manicaland Province

District	A1 Model			A2 Model		
	Females (#)	Males (#)	Total (#)	Females (#)	Males (#)	Total (#)
Buhera	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/a
Chimanimani	272	1,684	1,956	8	95	103
Chipinge	482	2,833	3,315	32	350	382
Makoni	960	2,748	3,708	33	282	315
Mutare	218	1,335	1,553	13	145	158
Mutasa	154	623	777	7	31	38
Nyanga	104	529	633	4	58	62
Total	2,190	9,752	11,942	97	961	1,058

Source: Presidential Land Review Committee Report (2003, p. 71).

Interviews with stakeholders revealed that people have land but are facing serious challenges that are forcing them to give up on farm-based livelihoods that no longer provide enough income and access to food. Such challenges include unfair pricing mechanisms, high input prices, climate change, insecurity of tenure, and lack of access to markets, resulting in some farmers giving up farming because of the losses they incur every agricultural season. The ENSURE and Amalima Baseline Survey also observed the challenges of lack of equipment, fertilizer, inputs, water, fuel limited access to vaccines, and preventive services (USAID, 2015).

Land tenure insecurity is extremely high in the country, and agricultural production has suffered as a consequence. Very few farmers, especially A2 farmers, have secured 99-year leases, thereby fueling suspicion that only politically connected individuals can secure them. The leases have also been problematic and in most cases unworthy as collateral for bank loans (Mkodzongi and Lawrence, 2019). Productivity has also been affected by double rootedness: A study by Mugabe et al. (2010) in Chimanimani District revealed that some of the families that had been resettled under the FTLRP had not abandoned the land that they had in communal areas, resulting in double rootedness whereby farmers have access to two different land plots in two different areas and travel long distances between the communal and fast track land and consequently are unable to fully utilize the land. Table 2 shows the production statistics reveal that since 2017, there has been a decrease in average household grain production, as reported by ZimVAC (2019).

Table 2. Manicaland Province Maize and Small Grains Production Figures, 2017–2019

Commodity	Maize (kg)			Small grains (kg)		
	2016/17	2017/18	2018/19	2016/17	2017/18	2018/19
Production in 000kg	335.1	274.3	164.6	30.9	11.1	11.5

Source: Authors' analysis based on ZimVACs 2016–2019.

Community-level production constraints also include poor irrigation systems, roads, market access, limited availability of agriculture extension services, and input supplies (USAID, 2015). The FAO Country Program Framework (CPF) (2012–2015) reports that because of land reform in Zimbabwe, farmers have become more heterogeneous both in production orientation and productivity, requiring varied approaches to adequately satisfy their needs. At the same time, the country experienced a brain drain, which has affected the quality of agricultural research and extension. The need for extension services has also been expanded by climate change and variability, which has caused crop and animal diseases of diverse nature. All these circumstances have differential impacts on male and female farmers, creating a need for extension service provision that caters to both gender groups. Furthermore, the number of extension workers is not commensurate to the numbers of farmers, affecting the service they give to the farmers. The findings of an impact evaluation of the ZRBF program in 2018 revealed that communities in Zimbabwe's provinces, including Manicaland, still exhibit low levels of resilience, expressed in terms of various outcomes: high rates of poverty, as measured by the multi-dimensional poverty index, and poor rates of food security, as measured by the food consumption score. The three types of capacities—absorptive, adaptive, and transformative—were noted to be low as well, as evidenced by lack of savings and limited access to formal and informal support services; limited diversification of livelihoods and low production of climate-resilient crops; low access to key basic services such as veterinary and agricultural extension (AGRITEX) services; and low access to markets and infrastructure (Oxford Management Policy, 2018). Development partners have therefore introduced farmer-to-farmer extension to complement public extension in delivering extension services to smallholder farmers (Dube, 2017).

Compared to the 2018/19 agricultural season, the production patterns for 2019/20 showed the following: extremely low yields per hectare; low food diversity; high process of the good produced locally; and inability of the grain marketing board (GMB) silos to move food where it is needed, due to severe depletion from its main silos. The average household cereal production in the province in 2018/19 agricultural season were 164.6 kg maize and 11.5 kg small grains. There is a 141 percent decrease in cereal stock (ZimVAC, 2019).

ZimVAC (2019) attributed the food deficit in Manicaland Province to various factors, including:

- Droughts that have affected crops and caused death of livestock, especially cattle used as draught power
- Quail birds that target seeds, affecting yield
- Unaffordability of agricultural inputs for communal farmers
- Use of retained seed with reduced vigor
- Rising prices of basic goods

- Animal and crop diseases
- Effects of cyclones, which have affected production yield levels as well as access to and availability of food

Food availability in Manicaland Province has been affected by Cyclone Idai, which affected Chimanimani and Chipinge (IPC, 2019). Extensive damage to crops and livestock resulted in up to 270,000 people being food insecure (ZimVAC, 2019). Chimanimani District was also affected by fall armyworm (ZimVAC, 2019), which destroyed crops and led to poor harvest. Food availability in the province is not good, as shown by 556,824 people in need of food assistance (FEWS NET, 2019). Table 3 shows an estimated need for food assistance in the form of cereals based on the population in need.

Table 3. Cereal (Food) Requirements in Manicaland Province as of 2019

District	Population in Need	Required Cereal (Metric Tons)
Mutare	161,932	23,966
Chimanimani	72,129	10,675
Nyanga	77,407	11,456
Buhera	199,725	29,559
Mutasa	119,178	17,638
Makoni	171,863	25,436
Chipinge	199,545	29,533
Total	1,001,779	148,263

Source: ZimVAC, 2019.

The province contributed 15 percent of maize and 22 percent sorghum to national cereal reserves. The sorghum contribution mainly came from Chipinge, Buhera, and Mutasa, with contributions of 46 percent, 25 percent, and 13 percent respectively (Agricultural Sector Survey, 2019). Buhera District lost over 40 percent of maize due to poor rains, flooding, and extremely high temperatures (FEWS NET, 2019). This includes a total of 10 percent of small grains. An estimated 1,600 MT of maize was produced in the district (IPC, 2019). Total cereal production for the district was 9,500 MT—66 percent below the previous year (FEWS NET, 2019).

Food Availability through Food Assistance

The province had several food assistance programs implemented by the Government’s Department of Social Services, international donors, local NGOs, INGOs and United Nations (UN) agencies. These agencies use different approaches, including social protection, resilience building, emergency recovery and long-term development initiatives to promote food security. The modalities used include in-kind, cash/food for assets, cash transfers, and vouchers. While only two programs are detailed here—the ENSURE project and the Zimbabwe Resilience Building Fund—the Stakeholder Mapping report sheds more light on food security programs in the province beyond these two.

ENSURE Project

Since 2013, USAID has been funding the ENSURE project (2013–2020) in Manicaland Province (Buhera, Chipinge and Chimanimani), a \$55 million project targeting 215,000 households implemented by World Vision, Care International, SNV (an international development nonprofit), and Southern Alliance for Indigenous Resources (SAFIRE) and aimed at nutrition improvements, increased income, community resilience, environmental sustainability, and gender equality. The project supports pregnant and lactating mothers and children under five years of age, with a particular focus on those under two years, as well as vulnerable households through in-kind food assistance. Food/cash for assets is also used as a means of supporting resilience-based infrastructure and environmental projects as well as agricultural production. The aim is to reduce high levels of stunting in the province.

Zimbabwe Resilience Building Fund

One major type of support toward resilience programming is the Zimbabwe Resilience Building Fund, a long-term development initiative with the overall objective of contributing to increased capacity of communities to protect development gains in the face of recurrent shocks and stresses, enabling them to contribute to the economic development of Zimbabwe. The ZRBF is supported by the Ministry of Lands, Agriculture, Water, Climate and Rural Resettlement (MLAWCRR), the European Union (EU), the Embassy of Sweden, the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), and the UK Department for International Development (DFID). The interventions are all aimed at achieving increased resilience capacities of communities to withstand shocks and stresses. The fund also supports national surveys critical for resilience programming, such as livelihoods and vulnerability assessments, poverty surveys, and agriculture-related surveys. This objective is reached through multi-stakeholder implementation of three interlinked multi-sectorial outputs:

- Application of evidence in policy-making for increased resilience, which is achieved by setting up an independent base of evidence for program targeting and policy-making (including monitoring and evaluation) and promoting capacity assessment and building of central and local government partners to improve application of evidence.
- Absorptive, adaptive, and transformative capacities of at-risk communities increased and improved via the setting up of a multi-donor fund that allows partners to come together around the resilience framework and principles to improve adaptive, absorptive, and to a certain extent transformative capacities of targeted communities.
- Timely and cost-effective response to emergencies rolled out via existing safety net and other relevant programs, which is achieved by setting up a risk-financing mechanism that provides appropriate, predictable, coordinated, and timely response to risk and shocks to benefitting communities, from a resilience perspective.

Food Access

Factors Determining Food Access

Access to food refers to the ability of households to procure a sufficient quality and quantity of food (USAID, 2016). Issues of policy and infrastructure play a significant role, as Zimbabwe's food markets respond to particular policy inducements. The drought and floods have also been significant factors,

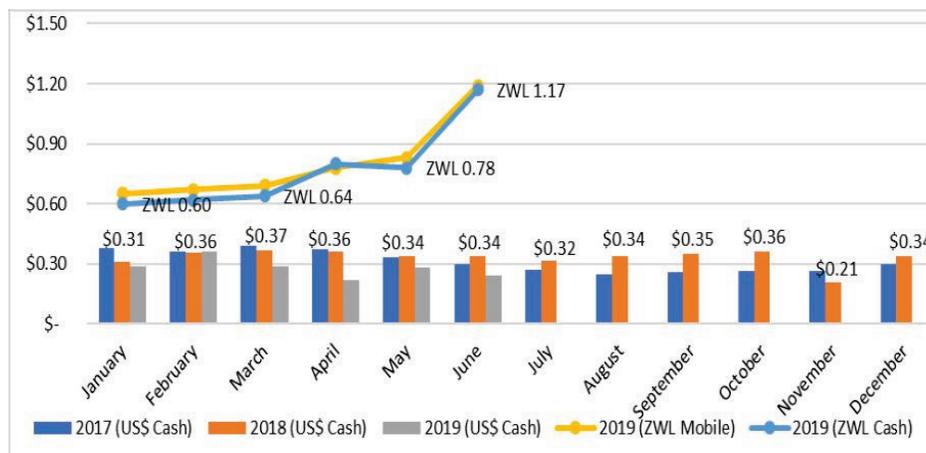
especially due to existing serious food challenges. In general, Zimbabwe has opened up the economy to imports since 2000 though in some recent years, such as in 2016, it has tried to control what the country could import. However, lack of production and related impacts on manufacturing has meant that the country has remained open to imports. The competitiveness of actors at the production base measured against product origin makes Zimbabwe one of the most expensive countries to produce food (FAO, 2011). Market liberalization reforms led to a tremendous increase in agricultural production costs, particularly for stock feeds, fertilizer, transport costs, and agricultural equipment, compared with agricultural prices. In fact, the dollarization of the economy and attempts to reverse it in 2019 have created serious inflationary and exchange rate problems. The low productivity of the economy has significantly impacted the agriculture sector. Key challenges relate to policy challenges, inconsistencies, and reversal, with national budgetary plans suffering from these reversals. Key economic actors are left in confusion as they try to maneuver through these rapid policy changes and regulations, which are unleashed without adequate time to understand and adjust production systems. Therefore, province markets face several key challenges.

Manicaland has food grain storage depots in all seven districts. The Government has a strategy for national storage through the GMB silos: at the appropriate time for building district food stockpiles, it moves grain to depots that manages the distribution through the Department of Social Welfare. In general, the means securing food through enhancing domestic production, importation, and public stockholding. Domestic production serves as an insurance against these risks associated with imports, but also has its own risk of unstable production influenced by climate shocks, which, in the case of Manicaland, destroyed food on the land and in the granaries and homes when Cyclone Idai affected Chimanimani, Chipinge, and parts of Mutare and Buhera districts. Stockholding is an effective measure to mitigate sudden food shortages, but it is effective only in a short run. A coordinated system of production, storage, and enhancing food in the markets is essential in order to attain food security effectively at an affordable cost.

Food Costs²

In Manicaland, key factors cited as affecting food availability include the cost of the food that fluctuates constantly because of a volatile exchange rate that is a national economic matter. In the province, commodities are priced differently, depending on whether one is buying in RTGS, bond cash,

Figure 3. Maize Grain Price Trends



Note: These figures represent averages across districts surveyed and do not refer specifically to price levels observed only Manicaland markets.

Source: WFP, 2019.

² More information about the market context in Manicaland Province is available in the Zimbabwe Market Study: Manicaland Province Report, available at <https://www.rta.chesn.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/01/RTAC-Zimbabwe-Market-Study-Manicaland-Province.pdf>

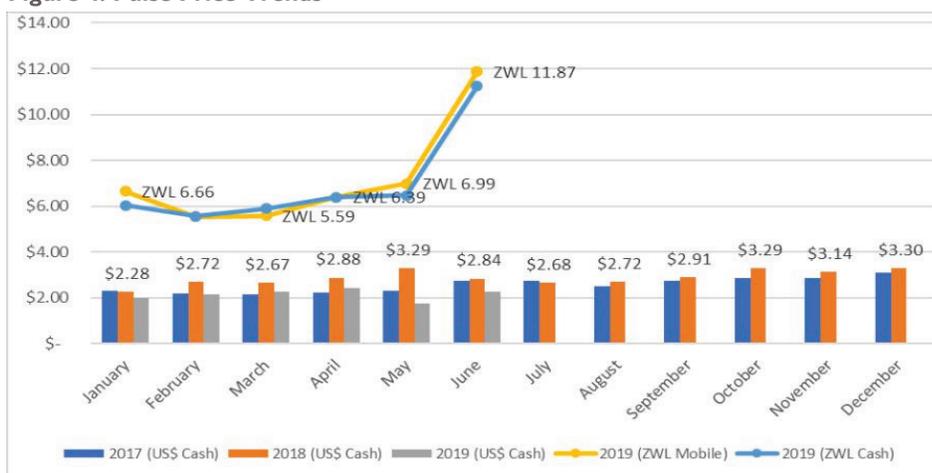
EcoCash, or U.S. dollars. Furthermore, despite the pronouncement of a mono-currency system in July 2019 through Statutory Instrument 142, traders are still trading in U.S. dollars. In 2019, there was a rapid rise in the price of food, while income-earning opportunities were fewer because of the costs of business, including trade, which was a main preoccupation of people in the province. There has been a significant rise in the price of maize meal, bread, and cooking oil, which has forced many to seek these food items in Mozambique (usually through informal channels). Across most of the food retailing, there is informal price standardization determined by trade competition in the markets.

Between July and September 2019, food availability and access (particularly to maize) was feared to be affected by the enactment of Statutory Instrument 145 of 2019 (Grain Marketing Control of Sale of Maize Regulations, 2019), which made the GMB the sole buyer of maize as people held on to their stock, awaiting changes in policy or better still promotion of underhand dealings at the black market in search of attractive producer prices. The Statutory Instrument was repealed in September 2019, allowing free trade of maize by both individuals and companies. Overall, there was a sharp increase in ZWL prices of maize grain in the month of June 2019 compared to May 2019, by an average of 46 percent (WFP, 2019). This had implications on food access to the most food insecure households as affordability became an issue, making it difficult for them to access essential food commodities from the markets.

A survey conducted by the World Food Programme (WFP) across different markets in Zimbabwe (including Manicaland) in June 2019 found that maize grain was reported to be available in the market at an average price of ZWL\$1.17/kg for bond note payments and ZWL\$1.19/kg for mobile money payments (Figure 3). The average maize grain price in June 2019 was reported to be 33 percent higher compared to ZWL\$0.78/kg reported in May 2019 for bond note cash payments. In June 2019, maize meal, which is an alternative to maize grain, was reported available at an average price of ZWL\$2.01/kg for bond note payments, which is 40 percent higher compared to May 2019 and 3 percent lower than prices recorded in the mobile money payments, averaging at ZWL2.07/kg. In June 2019, sorghum was being sold at an average price of ZWL\$1.17/kg for bond cash payments and at ZWL\$1.17/kg for mobile money payments (WFP, 2019). Annex 2 presents maize grain price information as collected by WFP and partners for a variety of markets in October 2019 (round 16th) in the framework of the emergency market monitoring efforts. Prices in Makoni, Chipinge and Chimanimani were higher than the national average. Prices for other markets are not available.

For sugar beans (Figure 4), the WFP 2019 survey revealed that sugar beans were available at an average price of ZWL\$11.24/kg, which is 42 percent higher compared to ZWL\$6.48/kg recorded in May 2019.

Figure 4. Pulse Price Trends

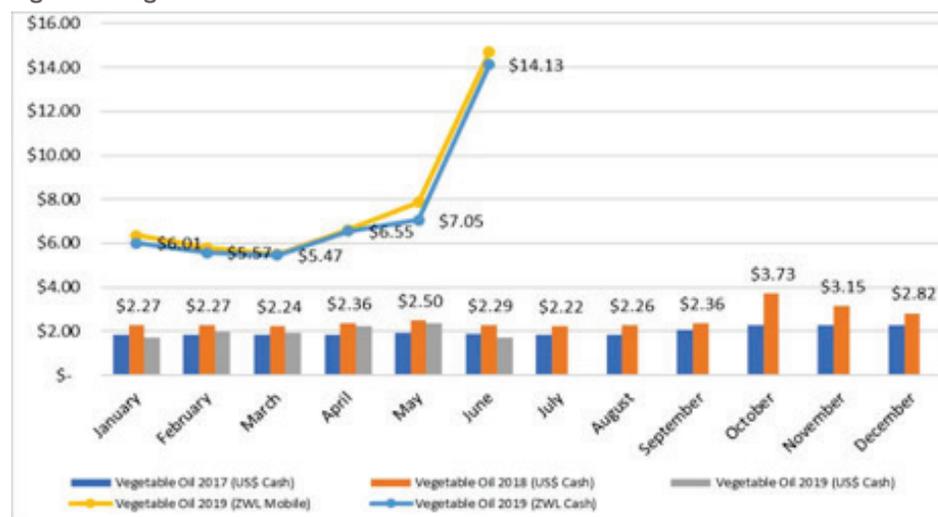


Note: These figures represent averages across districts surveyed and do not refer specifically to price levels observed only Manicaland markets.

Source: WFP, 2019.

During the same period, mobile money payments were being charged at 5 percent higher than those in bond notes, citing commission charges of money withdrawals by money traders. Mobile money payments increased to an average of ZWL\$11.87/kg from ZWL\$6.99/kg in May 2019—a 75 percent increase compared to June 2018's at ZWL2.99/kg. Sugar beans remains the most easily accessible source of protein to poor households compared to meat probably due to its easiness to produce and also its adaptability to diverse climatic and environmental conditions. In October 2019 (Annex 2) the price of pulses in Makoni, Mutare, Chipinge and Chimanimani were below the national average. Prices for other markets are not available.

Figure 5. Vegetable Oil Price Trend



Note: These figures represent averages across districts surveyed and do not refer specifically to price levels observed only Manicaland markets.

Source: WFP, 2019.

Vegetable oil was observed to be selling at an average price of ZWL\$14.13/L for bond note purchases and ZWL\$14.70/L for mobile money payments in June 2019 (Figure 5). These prices are 100 percent and 87 percent higher than prices observed in May 2019 for both bond and mobile money payments respectively. On average these prices are 92 percent higher when compared to May 2019 prices (WFP, 2019). In October 2019 (Annex 2) the price of vegetable oil in Mutare, Chipinge and Chimanimani were below the national average. Vegetable oil was slightly more expensive in Makoni. Prices for other markets are not available.

Another WFP survey of the Cyclone Idai-affected districts of Chipinge and Chimanimani in June 2019 revealed that maize grain was available in all surveyed markets in Chipinge and was being sold at an average price of ZWL\$1.23/kg for bond note payments and ZWL\$1.26/kg for mobile money payments (Table 4). Also in Chipinge, maize meal was being sold at an average price of ZWL\$2.00/kg for bond note payments and ZWL\$2.10/kg for mobile money payments. In Chimanimani, maize meal was selling at an average price of ZWL\$2.40/kg for cash payments and at 4 percent higher for mobile money payments, averaging at ZWL\$2.50/kg. Vegetable oil was readily available in all the markets surveyed (WFP, 2019).

Table 4. Commodity Prices in Cyclone Affected Areas

District	Maize Grain		Sugar Beans		Vegetable Oil	
	ZWL Cash	ZWL Mobile Money	ZWL Cash	ZWL Mobile Money	ZWL Cash	ZWL Mobile Money
Chimanimani	1.23	1.38	14.00	15.00	16.21	18.11
Chipinge	1.23	1.26	8.56	10.46	10.86	10.54
Overall	1.21	1.26	11.24	11.87	14.13	14.70

Source: WFP, 2019.

The official proclamation of the Zimbabwean dollar as sole legal tender through Statutory Instrument 142 of 2019 led to significant price spikes for commodities pegged in ZWL\$. Prices of most food commodities on the market remained stable in USD terms but very high in terms of the recently introduced Zimbabwean dollar (WFP, 2019). Where traders were afraid of accepting the USD, the ZWL\$ equivalency pegged at the black-market exchange rates have been observed pushing the price beyond the reach of the poor majority and vulnerable households (WFP, 2019). This reality calls for a rethinking of the mode of transfer for either cash or in kind for the emergency food assistance being given to beneficiaries under the cash-based programs to ensure that they are protected from the rising food inflation.

Economic Shocks

At a national level, the most prevalent economic shocks reported by rural households were food price changes (93 percent) and cash shortages (81 percent). The statistics for Manicaland Province are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Types of Economic Shock Experienced in Manicaland Province

Economic Shocks	Proportion of households experience the shock in Manicaland Province	National (%)
Food price changes	93	93
Livestock price changes	66	60
Cash shortage	74	81
Loss of employment	7	6
Drought	40	47
Livestock death	26	30
Livestock diseases	20	
Crop pests	42	
Human-wildlife conflict	5	

Source: ZimVAC, 2019.

With respect to environmental shocks, the major shocks were drought (40 percent) and crop pests (42 percent). To this effect, market availability of farm produce such as maize grain, small grains, cow peas,

and sugar beans was noted to be low in 2019 compared to 2018 due to low production as a result of drought (WFP, 2019).

Household Coping Strategies

When households encounter food security challenges, they cope by either changing consumption patterns or employing some strategies at their disposal to increase their access to food. The coping strategies have been classified into three categories of stress, crisis, and emergency, based on their severity according to the WFP technical guidance note on Consolidated Approach to Reporting Indicators of Food Security (CARI)—November 2015.

Table 6. Categorization of Coping Strategies

Category	Coping Strategies
Stress	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Selling household assets to buy food • Spending savings on food • Borrowing money from formal lender to buy food • Selling more livestock than usual to buy food
Crisis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reducing non-food expenditure to buy food • Selling or disposing of productive assets to buy food • Withdrawing children from school because of hunger
Emergency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Selling house or land to buy food • Selling last breeding livestock to buy food • Begging to get food

Source: ZimVAC, 2019.

Food Utilization and Nutrition

Food utilization refers to the ability of individuals to properly select and absorb nutritious food and is closely connected to stability, which is the capacity to sustain acceptable nutrition over time (USAID, 2016). The results of the Zimbabwe National Nutrition Survey (2018) show that Manicaland Province has a household diversity score of 6 food groups out of 12. This indicates that there has been no significant change since the ENSURE and Amalima Baseline Survey in 2015, whose results indicate that in Manicaland Province, consumption of grain was high while consumption of legumes, nuts, eggs, and meats were low (USAID, 2015). Dietary diversity was lacking particularly among women of age 15–49 years and children under 5 years of age. The proportion of households that had not consumed vitamin A-rich foods and protein-rich foods from animal and plant sources in Manicaland Province was 5.4 percent and 23.2 percent, respectively (Zimbabwe National Nutrition Survey, 2018). The ENSURE Gender Analysis further established that food taboos for pregnant women played an important role in limiting consumption of some foods, particularly consumption of eggs (USAID, 2014). Fifty percent of women age 15–49 years in Manicaland Province had diets that met the required minimum diversity (Zimbabwe National Nutrition Survey, 2018). This calls for interventions addressing dietary diversity since improving women’s diets means improving their health and ability to work for themselves and their families and, ultimately, contributes to gender equality outcomes. It also contributes positively to pregnancy outcomes and children and infants’ health and nutrition.

Given that diets are mainly cereal based, where food is available, it is not necessarily nutritious, causing people to suffer micro-nutrient deficiencies (iron, iodine, folate, vitamin A, and zinc). Undernutrition and malnutrition rates are high, especially in rural districts where diets lack diversity—maize being the main staple—and are poor in essential nutrients (SADC, 2019). Coupled with the low production levels highlighted earlier in this report, crop yields for all commodities except small grains do not last for a year, with six months, October to March as the most difficult months for households in terms of access to food, as households do not have their own stocks and are accessing all food from purchases. As a result, Manicaland Province has the highest prevalence of global acute malnutrition, severe acute malnutrition, stunting, and overweight in Zimbabwe (ZimVAC, 2019). The Global Acute Malnutrition prevalence is at 0.53 percent and the Severe Acute Malnutrition prevalence is at 0.5 percent (ZimVAC, 2019). Manicaland Province still registers high prevalence of stunting among children between 0 and 59 months old: above the World Health Organization (WHO) thresholds of 20 percent, at 34.8 percent (ZimVAC, 2019). This proportion has increased about five percentage points with respect to 2015 levels (30 percent as reported in the 2015 Demographic Health Survey).

Social Factors

In general, women in Zimbabwe face the highest risk of becoming food and nutrition insecure, despite the fact that they play critical roles in food production, processing, marketing, and preparation (FAO, 2015). Women continually face competing demands on their time and are hard pressed to ensure the food of their families and communities. Strategies addressing food often fail to recognize the different roles men and women play and give inadequate consideration to the broader social and cultural environment in which women live. Women have largely been marginalized in terms of socioeconomic empowerment. When violence starts, it is women who are largely disadvantaged as they have to retain the responsibility for providing for the families.

Women should be placed at the forefront of economic activities to support addressing some of the cyclic political and economic conflicts affecting their access to food. Women, when faced with challenges do not give in easily and try to seek for solutions in the context of unemployment, food shortages, and so on. Women are also especially vulnerable to food shortages in the event of a poor farming season. While government and donors try to make food available to both women and men, discrimination in access to food aid has been reported (Human Rights Watch, 2003). Despite efforts to eradicate biased practices, it is almost impossible for food providers to monitor an entire country to ensure equal access to distributions. Interviews with stakeholders and food assistance beneficiaries revealed that in many cases, beneficiaries of food aid are women who congregate at distribution points where they are given a lecture on the importance of food and are then sometimes encouraged to vote for specific political parties.

One of the most enduring community-based institutional structures are the bereavement societies or burial societies. They have organized structures based on villages, have their own functional committees, and members pay without compulsion. Rural communities compensate for their resources' poorness through community resource pooling. In the event of death in a rural community, every member voluntarily provides help to the bereaved family in various ways, including offering a plate of mealie meal, firewood, or labor. In rural communities, moral support is provided by neighbors and in respect of the departed, the whole village suspends major chores such as farming for an agreed numbers of days. They are effective in bringing people together, making them a unique institutional formation for community social cohesion. These societies have been in existence for a long time and provide an

avenue for bringing community healing, integration, and cohesion in times of crisis. Skills development is a prospective entry point for addressing social conflicts that are founded on resources. For the people to engage in productive livelihoods activities, they should have appropriate tools. Usually poor people fail to engage in economic activities or explore resources within their reach simply because they do not have the basic working tools. This then tends to worsen conflicts because people without economic assets have nothing to lose and may end up engaging in the different conflicts. With the unemployment rate of over 90 percent and with more and more school leavers failing to be absorbed in formal employment, there is need to encourage youth to venture into self-employment and equip them with the necessary skills. Respondents indicated significant success and appreciation for micro-income-generating projects. However, sustainability of these projects hinges on the ability of the community to run the projects effectively and efficiently. Entrepreneurial skills are a major driver for any successful projects. These skills determine how efficient the projects are run as well as the ability of the community to expand and sustain the projects. It is these sets of skills bases that can facilitate the people of the province to engage in economic activities, design projects that tap into diamonds (polishing and cutting), or be service providers at tourist enterprises, etc.

4. Review of Lessons Learned

Good Practices from USAID/FFP and other Donor Programming

A good practice promoted by the ZRBF program is the building of evidence to inform both policy and programs, including production of analytical products such as the Multiple Hazard Index Mapping of the country; Correlation Analysis between hazards and wellbeing outcomes; Problem Tree Analysis to understand root causes of the problems identified in the areas that are prone to multiple hazards; and Gender, Climate and Livelihoods Analysis in some of the more vulnerable areas. A major critique of the ZimVAC surveys showed that they do not include all variables typically needed to measure resilience, such as the social capital index and data to compute bonding and bridging social capital separately as well as data to compute transformative capacity. These deficits should be addressed (USAID, 2018).

There is limited recognition that certain market factors and functions play significant roles in determining household food security and nutrition. Above market pricing for maize creates access challenges for the producers who are net consumers of grain, due to low productivity. Currently traders and processors shun engaging smallholder farmers due to high transaction costs. There is insufficient investment in processing, storage and value-addition, which limits the opportunities for smallholders to engage in national and regional markets.

The GMB is mandated to ensure the maintenance of the strategic grain reserves as physical stock of 500,000 tons and 450,000 tons in funds to enable the importation of grain for the country. Due to funding and storage challenges, the GMB has failed to maintain strategic grain reserves or stock. The utilization of the strategic grain reserve is also not transparent, and a comprehensive Cereal Balance Sheet incorporating all the key sources of cereals i.e. production, stocks and imports is not shared with the stakeholders to facilitate informed decision-making.

Inadequate response to climate and disaster risk. The food systems in the country have largely been unsustainable. The majority of the farmland lies in Natural Regions IV and V, which are not suitable for rain-fed crops, possibly with the exception of drought-resistant small grains. Extensive livestock and wildlife management are recommended for these dry regions. There is also an inadequate use of climate-resilient agricultural practices such as conservation agriculture. The input programs are also not promoting agricultural diversification due to the focus on maize even in areas that are not suitable for it.

Dwindling sources of income and employment. While the food security status of the majority of Zimbabweans (rural and urban dwellers) depends on the market, indications are that about 40 percent are unable to meet the recommended threshold for food security and nutrition. As the majority (76.8 percent) of the population are young, falling below the age of 35, the opportunity and imperative are high for employment creation; however, as the ZimVAC assessments demonstrate, food insecurity and malnutrition are correlated with lack of income to purchase the diversity of food in recommended quantity and quality for nutritious diet. A compounding factor is the currently increasing rate of HIV/AIDS infection of young age groups, ranging from 3.8 percent, 7.5 percent, 15.8 percent, and 23.7 percent among the 10–14, 15–19, 20–24 and 25–29 age groups, posing additional and specific food and nutrition needs (Ministry of Health and Child Care, 2017).

Lack of sustained advocacy to enhance awareness on food and nutrition security issues. Acceptance of practices that prevent malnutrition requires longer-term behavioral change and requires continued focus on nutrition-sensitive and specific approaches to encourage behavior change over the long term. There is growing evidence that multi-sector interventions have great potential to reduce stunting in children; however, it is always not possible to galvanize organizations to adopt nutrition-sensitive approaches in their programming.

Low coverage of high-impact nutrition interventions. The stunting reduction through the MCBM (multisectoral community-based model) piloted in four districts and now being implemented in 19 districts needs to be scaled up to the 60 districts. While the Government is committed in principle to implement nutrition interventions, this is often not supported by an enabling fiscal space, with very limited resources being availed for implementation of nutrition activities. Thus, nutrition programs are heavily donor-dependent. In particular, procurement of nutrition commodities for the treatment of severe acute malnutrition (SAM) and prevention of micronutrient deficiencies are heavily dependent on UNICEF. A good practice in the ENSURE program was the centrality of gender and resilience in addressing food insecurity challenges. Significant achievements were registered in terms of behavior change on gender-related norms on food consumption, task sharing, appreciation of the nutritious value of small grains, exclusive breastfeeding, and involvement of women in tasks traditionally meant for men in food-for-asset projects.

Lessons learned on food assistance, particularly regarding quantities of cereals and pulses, include that although beneficiaries felt that the quantities were sufficient, they preferred all children under five to benefit from ENSURE because pregnant mothers found it difficult for children of such ages to watch them eat. They were then forced to share with all children in the household who were not supposed to benefit from the ration, resulting in ration dilution. Furthermore, in the absence of in-kind food assistance targeting other household members, the whole family would share the ration meant for pregnant and lactating mothers and children under two. As a result, the ration would not last for the intended duration and would not serve the intended purpose of reducing stunting. Due to the cost of cooking oil, beneficiaries also used the vegetable oil meant for the corn soya blend (CSB) to prepare

other meals and prepared CSB without vegetable oil. An increase in pregnancies by those households wishing to benefit from the program was also noted.

Conclusions

The Government of Zimbabwe has joined other countries throughout the world in ratifying key international instruments that safeguard the right to food and seek to improve food and nutrition security. The commitment is further demonstrated by the development and implementation of several national policies and strategies that create an enabling policy environment. These policies include a comprehensive Social Transfer Policy Framework, the Food Deficit Mitigation Strategy, the National Food Fortification Strategy, and the Drought Mitigation Strategy and Action Plans. The policies and strategies signal a transition by policymakers toward a long-term developmental approach to asset creation activities that respond to a wide variety of shocks and stresses. However, a gap remains on the implementation of high-impact interventions for the prevention of malnutrition in provinces such as Manicaland that are food insecure. The situation in Manicaland Province has been worsened by the effects of Cyclone Idai on infrastructure, which affected livelihoods and resilience. Policy changes and inconsistent implementation of such also present serious challenges for farmers.

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Raft of policy measures in different sectors that are linked

- Comprehensive African Agriculture Development Program (CAADP), 2013
- Food Deficit Mitigation Strategy
- Infant and Young Child Feeding Policy, 2013
- National Food Fortification Strategy, 2014
- National Nutrition Strategy for Zimbabwe, 2014–2018
- PMTCT & Paediatric HIV Prevention, Treatment & Care National Plan, 2014–2018
- Reproductive Health Policy and Maternal and Neonatal Health Road Map, 2007–2015
- Scaling Up Nutrition (SUN)
- Social Transfer Policy Framework
- Zimbabwe Drought Risk Management Strategy

Annex I. Organizations Interviewed

Table 7. List of Organizations Interviewed

Organization	Area / field of work
Provincial Food and Nutrition Security Committee (PFNSC)	Communication and managing work of development partners in the province
Provincial Administrator for Manicaland	Coordination of development planning and administration of government policies
International Institute for Rural Development (IIRD)	Implementation of sustainable development projects in Mutare rural, Makoni, Mutasa, and Chimanimani districts
Ministry of Rural Development Zimbabwe	Public sector
Ministry of Lands and Agriculture	Public sector
Ministry of Youth	Public sector
Ministry of Health and Child Welfare (MOHCC)	Public sector
Nutrition Action Zimbabwe (NAZ)	Local NGO, nutrition
District Administrative office	Public sector coordination of all government programs and personnel
Agricultural Technical and Extension Services (AGRITEX)	Extension coordination
Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare (MPSLW)	Public sector
Public Service Commission (PSC)	Public sector
Mutasa Rural District Council	Local Council
Social welfare	Social welfare

Annex 2. Food prices in October 2019

Table 8. Maize Grain Prices, October 2019

Maize Grain							
Market	Availability	USD	Rands	Bond Notes	Mobile Money	Bond 11/10/2019	%Bond Note Price Change
Chimanimani	15%					ZWL 2.31	
Chipinge						ZWL 2.76	
Makoni	12%	\$0.23		ZWL 2.86	ZWL 3.52	ZWL 2.35	22%
National Average	10%	\$.32	ZAR 5.71	ZWL 3.16	ZWL 3.36	ZWL 2.34	13%

Source: Extracted from WFP, 2019 (page 1).

Table 9. Sugar Bean Prices, October 2019

Sugar Beans							
Market	Availability	USD	Rands	Bond Notes	Mobile Money	Bond 11/10/2019	%Bond Note Price Change
Chimanimani	51%			ZWL 25.64	ZWL 31.59	ZWL 11.11	131%
Chipinge							
Makoni	44%	\$1.84		ZWL 25.82	ZWL 28.82	ZWL 22.17	16%
Mutare						ZWL 15.67	0 %
National Average	61%	\$2.43	ZAR 33.40	ZWL 32.64	ZWL 33.94	ZWL 22.80	16%

Source: Extracted from WFP, 2019 (page 3).

Table 10. Vegetable Oil Prices, October 2019

Vegetable Oil							
Market	Availability	USD	Rands	Bond Notes	Mobile Money	Bond 11/10/2019	%Bond Note Price Change
Chimanimani	79%	\$1.63	ZAR 25.00	ZWL 20.88	ZWL 22.97	ZWL 19.17	9%
Chipinge						ZWL 19.08	
Makoni	92%	\$1.53		ZWL 23.01	ZWL 26.50	ZWL 25.04	-8%
Mutare						ZWL 18.76	0%
National Average	96%	\$1.66	ZAR 22.58	ZWL 23.02	ZWL 25.55	ZWL 21.65	3%

Source: Extracted from WFP, 2019 (page 4).