ZIMBABWE COUNTRY ANALYSIS

WORKING DOCUMENT

FINAL DRAFT

3 October 2014
4.1 Overview ............................................................................................................. 43
4.2 Analysis of Issues ............................................................................................... 44
  4.2.1 Agricultural Production and Productivity ...................................................... 44
  4.2.2 Environmental Sustainability and Climate Change ......................................... 49
  4.2.3 Climate Change ............................................................................................ 51
  4.2.4 Disaster Risk Management ............................................................................. 54
4.3 Summary of Challenges and Opportunities ....................................................... 55
4.4 Options for Action ............................................................................................... 56
5 Food and Nutrition Security .................................................................................. 59
  5.1 Overview ....................................................................................................... 59
  5.2 Analysis of Issues ............................................................................................ 59
    5.2.1 Food Availability ....................................................................................... 59
    5.2.2 Food Access ............................................................................................. 61
    5.2.3 Food Utilisation ......................................................................................... 62
  5.3 Summary of Challenges and Opportunities ....................................................... 64
  5.4 Options for Action ............................................................................................ 65
6 POPULATION AND BASIC SOCIAL SERVICES ..................................................... 66
  6.1 Overview ....................................................................................................... 66
    6.1.1 Education .................................................................................................. 66
    6.1.2 Health ...................................................................................................... 71
    6.1.3 HIV and AIDS .......................................................................................... 77
    6.1.4 Water, Sanitation and Hygiene .................................................................. 80
    6.1.5 Social Protection ...................................................................................... 92
  6.2 Summary of Challenges and Opportunities ....................................................... 96
  6.3 Options for Action ............................................................................................ 98
7 GENDER EQUALITY AND WOMEN’S EMPOWERMENT ...................................... 100
  7.1 Overview ....................................................................................................... 100
  7.2 Analysis of Issues ............................................................................................. 101
    7.2.1 Women’s Economic Empowerment ............................................................ 101
    7.2.2 Access to and Control of Resources ............................................................ 102
    7.2.3 Financing for Gender Equality ................................................................. 103
    7.2.4 Gender Based Violence ............................................................................ 104
    7.2.5 Women’s Leadership and Decision Making ............................................... 105
    7.2.6 Gender Mainstreaming and the Gender Management System .................... 106
  7.3 Summary of Challenges and Opportunities ....................................................... 107
## COUNTRY FACT SHEET

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Zimbabwe</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>Southern Africa, north of the Tropic of Capricorn between the Limpopo and Zambezi rivers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area</td>
<td>390,757 km².</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bordering Countries</td>
<td>Botswana, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa and Zambia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Resources</td>
<td>Platinum, diamonds, coal, iron ore, copper, zinc, chrome, gold, silver, magnesium limestone, arable land.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Provinces and Districts | 10 Provinces:  
Bulawayo Metropolitan, Harare Metropolitan, Manicaland, Mashonaland Central, Mashonaland East,  
Mashonaland West, Masvingo, Matebeleland North,  
Matabeleland South and Midlands  
62 administrative districts. | |
| Population         | 13,061,239 where 52% are women and 48% are men.                                                                                           |
| Capital City       | Harare with a population of 2,123,132.                                                                                                    |
| Local Authorities  | 31 urban authorities comprising cities, municipalities, town councils and town boards and 60 rural district authorities.                   |
| Political System   | Republic.                                                                                                                                |
| Languages          | Chewa, Chibarwe, English, Kalanga, Koisan, Nambya, Ndau, Ndebele, Shangani, Shona, sign language, Sotho, Tonga, Tswana, Venda and Xhosa. |
| Main Sources of Revenue | Taxes which contributed 93.6% of total revenue in Q1 2014³.                             |
| Main Exports       | Minerals and Tobacco.                                                                                                                     |
| Most Productive Sectors | Agriculture, Mining, Financial Services and Telecommunications.                                                                        |
| Land Wealth        | 8.6 million hectares of potentially arable land and more than 5 million hectares of forests, national parks, and wildlife estates⁴.       |
| Mineral Wealth     | Platinum, gold, asbestos, coal, nickel, iron, copper, lithium, emeralds and diamonds.                                                   |
| Economically Active Population | 5,120,540 of which 11.1% classified as unemployed⁵.                                      |
| GDP growth rate    | 4.5% in 2013⁶.                                                                                                                           |
| Total Foreign Debt | US$8.934 billion⁷.                                                                                                                        |

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AIDS</td>
<td>Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AMTO</td>
<td>Assisted Medical Treatment Order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ART</td>
<td>Antiretroviral Therapy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARV</td>
<td>Anti Retro Viral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AU</td>
<td>African Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEAM</td>
<td>Basic Education Assistance Module</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFID</td>
<td>Department for International Development (UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECD</td>
<td>Early Childhood Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMIS</td>
<td>Education Management Information System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agriculture Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FPL</td>
<td>Food Poverty Line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FTLRP</td>
<td>Fast Track Land Reform Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GBV</td>
<td>Gender Based Violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GoSA</td>
<td>Government of South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GoZ</td>
<td>Government of Zimbabwe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV</td>
<td>Human Immunodeficiency Virus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRBA</td>
<td>Human Rights Based Approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HSCT</td>
<td>Harmonised Social Cash Transfers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and Communication Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPV</td>
<td>Intimate Partner Violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IOM</td>
<td>International Organisation for Migration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRBM</td>
<td>Integrated Results Based Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDGs</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MMR</td>
<td>Maternal Mortality Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTP</td>
<td>Medium Term Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NERs</td>
<td>Net Enrolment Ratios</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGOs</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organisations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSDS</td>
<td>National Strategy for the Development of Statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSS</td>
<td>National Statistical System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PICES</td>
<td>Poverty, Income, Consumption and Expenditure Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PMTCT</td>
<td>Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RBM</td>
<td>Results Based Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SADC</td>
<td>Southern African Development Community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STERP</td>
<td>Short Term Emergency Recovery Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TCPL</td>
<td>Total Consumption Poverty Line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNCT</td>
<td>United Nations Country Team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNFPA</td>
<td>United Nations Population Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UPR</td>
<td>Universal Periodic Review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USAID</td>
<td>United States Agency for International Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WASH</td>
<td>Water Sanitation and Hygiene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZANU-PF</td>
<td>Zimbabwe African National Union - Patriotic Front</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZDHS</td>
<td>Zimbabwe Demographic Health Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZIMSTAT</td>
<td>Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZimVAC</td>
<td>Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINWA</td>
<td>Zimbabwe National Water Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZNASP</td>
<td>Zimbabwe National HIV and AIDS Strategic Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZUNDAF</td>
<td>Zimbabwe United Nations Development Assistance Framework</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PREAMBLE

In line with programming requirements for United Nations Development Assistance Frameworks (UNDAFs), the United Nations Country Team (UNCT) and the Government of Zimbabwe (GoZ) agreed to implement the rollout process for the 2016-2020 Zimbabwe United Nations Development Assistance Framework (ZUNDAF). The 2012-2015 ZUNDAF implementation is due to end in December 2015. Programming for the ZUNDAF comes against the backdrop of harmonized elections that ushered in a ZANU PF Government, a new constitution and a new economic blueprint, the 2013-2018 Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (Zim Asset).

In designing the Country Analysis Report, the United Nations Resident Coordinator’s Office (UNRCO), the UNCT, together with the Office of the President and Cabinet provided guidance in conducting the exercise and development of the report. The guidance was that the report ought to be strategic, focusing on macro themes that are aligned with the Zim Asset and the UN’s comparative advantage in Zimbabwe. The process and methodology of developing the report included focus group discussions, consultations, technical review meetings and a Validation Workshop. Participants included the UNCT, Government officials, Development Partners and Civil Society.

Through consultative and participatory processes the Country Analysis Exercise and Report was structured around seven thematic areas as follows:

i. Governance and Human Rights
ii. Economy, Employment and Poverty Reduction
iii. Agriculture, Lands and Environment
iv. Population and Basic Social Services
v. Food and Nutrition Security
vi. Gender and Women’s Empowerment
vii. Cross Cutting Issues.

The report starts with an introduction and a summary of the Zimbabwe’s economic and political context. This is followed by sections covering detailed thematic analyses, which each include an overview and an outline of challenges and opportunities along with options for action. The last chapter is on Cross Cutting Issues that are meant to be mainstreamed across the whole ZUNDAF planning cycle. This structure was adopted to accommodate the fact that theme based chapters tend to focus on depth rather than breadth and cross cutting themes will help to provide linkages across programming areas. The Country Analysis Report provides acts as one of the main background documents for the 2016-2020 ZUNDAF rollout process.

A critical issue to note is that the report may lack in depth analyses in all areas due to the fact that important data sets were not released until after the submission of this report, calling for a heavy reliance on the 2012 Census. This left editorial authority for the inclusion of new data sets with the UN Programme Management Team. Finally, this document serves to be a working document to be used as evidence based reference in development programme planning.
1 INTRODUCTION

The Zimbabwe United Nations Development Assistance Framework (ZUNDAF) is the UN’s strategic programme framework designed to support national development priorities in Zimbabwe. This Country Analysis Report is an integral part of the rollout for the 2016-2020 ZUNDAF. The Country Analysis exercise was facilitated by the United Nations Country Team (UNCT) in collaboration with the Government of Zimbabwe (GoZ) through the Office of the President and Cabinet. This current Country Analysis Report recognizes the findings and conclusions of the 2010 Country Analysis Report and further expounds on new developments, challenges and successes experienced in Zimbabwe since then.

This Country Analysis Report is evidence based, comprised of a comprehensive literature review and broad based consultations involving the UNCT, the GoZ, Civil Society, and Development Partners. It is intended to inform the elaboration of the 2016-2020 ZUNDAF which will be results based and aligned to national priorities in a manner which positively transforms the lives of Zimbabweans. Cross cutting issues which include Gender Mainstreaming, Environment, Disaster Risk Management, Science, Technology and Innovation, Data for Development, Human Rights Based Approaches, Capacity Development, Integrated Results Based Management and Evidence Based Advocacy and Communications are dealt with through the analysis of challenges and opportunities across different sectors and themes. A chapter has been committed to these cross cutting issues. The UNCT will particularly focus on the areas where added value can be efficiently provided to the GoZ.

1.1 General Economic and Political Country Context

After a protracted armed struggle, Zimbabwe became an independent and majority ruled constitutional Republic on 18 April 1980. This was after attaining political independence from Great Britain, in 1965. Zimbabwe inherited the 1979 Lancaster House brokered constitution which Zimbabwe had used to conduct elections every five years until 2013, for the election of Parliamentarians, Senators and the State President. Among the unresolved contentious issues from the Zimbabwe liberation struggle was the redistribution of land from about 4,500 commercial farmers8 to 7.5 million Zimbabweans in 19809. Up to 1980, large scale commercial farmers held 15.5 million hectares of arable land as compared to 1.4 million hectares for the small scale communal farmers10. After independence, land reform focused on settling people on land acquired from white commercial farmers on a ‘willing seller, willing buyer’ basis, as per the 1979 Lancaster House Constitution, carried over from the previous government. However, this provision proved relatively expensive and failed to accord an opportunity to access land for millions of Zimbabweans, especially the landless, rural and poor. During the first two decades after independence, the Zimbabwean population became increasingly restive, demanding that land be more equitably redistributed. The Government then embarked on the first phase of the Land Redistribution Programme. The Programme’s overall objective was to resettle 162,000 households on 9,000,000 hectares. That would have represented a transfer of about 23% of families from the

8 Marongwe, N, 2000, A Case of Land Occupations in Zimbabwe, Harare: Zero Publications...
9 National Statistical Office: 2000
congested communal lands on to new land. However, owing to the resource constraints and limited implementation, only about 48,000 households of the 162,000 had been resettled by 1989\textsuperscript{11}.

By 1997 a total of 71,000 households had been resettled on 3.6 million hectares, from the original target of 162,000 households\textsuperscript{12}. By the mid-1990s, about 500 indigenous commercial farmers had graduated into fully-fledged commercial farmers. About 80\% of them had bought farms with their own resources while the remainder rented government leasehold farms (Zimbabwe Government, 1998). The Government explanation for the slow-down in reform in the 1990s was that land acquisitions through the “willing seller, willing buyer” approach had become too expensive. The approach also significantly limited the scope of matching land supply with the demand for resettlement. This slow redistribution of land partly contributed to the “land occupations” in 2000.

Between 1980 and 2013 nineteen amendments were effected to the Lancaster House Constitution, including the Constitutional Amendment Number 18, of December 2007 which ushered in a new era of harmonized elections. The March 2008, harmonised elections simultaneously covered local government, parliamentary, senatorial and presidential elections. However, results were disputed and failed to produce a peaceful political and economic environment in the country. This led to the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) mediation, under the facilitation of the South African President at the time, Thabo Mbeki. The mediation negotiations culminated in a power sharing agreement in an effort to end the resulting impasse. On 15 September, 2008 the three major political parties from the March 2008 harmonized elections signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU), the Global Political Agreement, which formed the basis for the formation of an Inclusive Government that governed the country between 13 February 2009 and 31 July 2013. Through the Government of National Unity (GNU), Zimbabwe experienced some level of political and economic stability.

The GNU crafted the Medium Term Plan (MTP) 2010-2015, which aimed to provide the overarching national development framework from mid-2010 to mid-2013 as the country’s premier economic and social policy document, aimed among other things, at establishing macro-economic stability, transforming the economy, reducing poverty and creating jobs. According to the MTP, in 2010, Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is estimated to have contracted by a cumulative 50.3\%, official inflation peaked at 231,000,000\% in July 2008, capacity utilisation in industry fell below 10\% by January 2009, poverty remained widespread, infrastructure had deteriorated, job losses and skills flight in industries increased\textsuperscript{13}, the economy had become more informal and severe food and foreign currency shortages were experienced. The country also faced sanctions from some Western countries and the cessation of funding from the Bretton Woods Institutions. This situation still causes economic hardship to Zimbabwe today.

To reduce the negative effects of the economic meltdown, Zimbabwe adopted a multicurrency payment system in February 2009 which in itself marked a significant shift in economic policy. The GNU further developed and implemented the Short Term Emergency Recovery Program

\textsuperscript{11} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{12} Ibid.
At the peak of the economic crisis, there were unprecedented levels of hyper-inflation, a sustained period of negative Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth rates, massive devaluation of the currency, low productive capacity, loss of jobs, food shortages, poverty, massive de-industrialisation and general despondency.

15 Confederation of Zimbabwe Industry Reports.
Asset is a policy document which includes strategies to improve social services, physical infrastructure, food security and value addition in line with comprehensive efforts to indigenise and grow the economy. Key drivers for the projected growth targets through Zim Asset are mining, agriculture, tourism, and enhanced support for small to medium scale enterprises. A strong collaborative partnership among Government ministries, development partners, private sector, civil society and citizens, which includes Zimbabweans living in the diaspora, would be required to achieve these targets.

With the Zim Asset targeting the growth and expansion of the economy, the results should yield job creation and an improvement in livelihoods. Its policies also include the introduction of Special Economic Zones, value addition and the establishment of the Sovereign Wealth Fund as well as the upgrading and rehabilitating of key infrastructure and utilities. Value addition in various economic sectors is set to unlock US$5 billion worth of revenue from international trade annually. Achieving these milestones will require an enabling policy framework, strong governance management and leadership as well as collaborative efforts to attract required funding, requisite capacities and meaningful participation of citizenry and development partners.

Notwithstanding strides attained in the nascent recovery of the economy, business activity has decelerated since 2013, on the back of emerging vulnerabilities and lingering challenges that had a dampening effect on the economic recovery momentum. In this regard, real GDP growth has since decelerated to an estimated 4.5% in 2013 and is projected to further decline to 3.1% in 2014. As developments since the beginning of 2014 indicate the economy is experiencing severe stress. Succumbing to the above challenges, growth contraction is becoming evident through the performance of the following high frequency economic indicators during the first half of 2014:

- Increasing number of company closures and scaling down of operations, particularly in the manufacturing industries, accompanied by significant job losses in all sectors. This has been accompanied by growing discord in labour markets especially with regards to the enforcement of labour laws that require reforms and harmonisation to improve the labour relations environment and stimulate more job creation and retention.
- Underperformance of revenues which were consistently falling below targets during the first half of 2014. First half revenue collections were US$1.736 billion, which was 3.5%, lower than US$1.805 billion recorded in the same period in 2013. In particular, Value Added Tax collections, which are a proxy for economic activity, declined by 15.1% during the first quarter of 2014 compared to the corresponding period in 2013. However, annual broad money growth increased from 1.17% in December 2013 to 7.66% in June 2014.
- Imports declined by 24% to US$1.252 million in the first half of 2014 from US$1.547 million in 2013 during the same period.
- Weak performance of the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange, reflected through the decline of both industrial and mining indices, as well as a falling total market capitalisation, which lost 20.6% from US$5.2 billion to US$4.2 billion as of 31 March 2014.
- Decline in both imports and exports by 13.2% and 24%, respectively, in the first quarter of 2014 relative to the same period in 2013. Of concern, was the decline in essential imports, raw

---

16 ibid
materials, equipment and machinery which are critical for supporting production as well high levels of consumptive imports.

- Slippages towards deflation, where there is negative inflation combined with contraction of credit/liquidity.

1.3 Progress towards Attaining GoZ Priorities and International Development Goals

Since the last Country Analysis Report in 2010, overall performance towards the attainment of International Development Goals has been noticeable. Of the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the GoZ has identified Goals 1, 3 and 6 as national priorities. Positive trends are mainly found in MDG2 on Achieving Universal Primary Education, MDG3 on Promoting Gender Equality and Empowering Women and MDG6 on Combating HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Other Diseases. Some of the largest challenges remain in MDG1 on Eradicating Extreme Poverty and Hunger, MDG5 on Improving Maternal Health, where all the targets under those goals are unlikely to be met by the 2015 deadline. It can be argued that one of the most notable GoZ achievements since the last Country Analysis Report is the crafting and adoption of a new Constitution with new legal and institutional provisions which seek to improve governance, delivery of justice and human rights, sustainable development, gender equality, youth and women’s empowerment and the creation of an enabling environment which attracts funding, creates confidence and improves competitiveness for economic growth.

The Zim Asset implementation has the potential to positively impact development priorities and objectives set if the GoZ uses lessons learned during the political and economic challenges since 2008 and the economic stabilization achieved by 2013. The 2013-2018 Zim Asset in alignment with the 2016-2020 ZUNDAF have the potential to effectively deal with both national and international development priorities as espoused in the topical themes of the 2014 Zimbabwe Country Analysis Exercise which include Governance and Human Rights, Economy, Employment and Poverty, Agriculture, Lands and Environment, Food and Nutrition Security, Population and Basic Social Services and Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment. The cross cutting themes include Gender Mainstreaming, Environment, Disaster Risk Management, Science, Technology and Innovation, Data for Development, Human Rights Based Approaches, Capacity Development, Integrated Results Based Management and Evidence Based Advocacy and Communications.

2 GOVERNANCE AND HUMAN RIGHTS

2.1 Overview

Promotion of good governance and respect for human rights are requisite pillars for ensuring sustainable development and the building of a resilient nation. An important development towards creating good governance and respect for human rights principles was the recent promulgation of Zimbabwe’s Constitution on May 22, 2013. Good governance is one of the national objectives set out in the Constitution to guide the work of the State and all citizens, institutions and agencies. Chapter 2 Section 9 (1) of the Constitution provides that, “The State must adopt and implement

---

20 Constitution of Zimbabwe (amendment number 20 of 2013).
policies and legislation to develop efficiency, competence, accountability, transparency, personal integrity and financial probity in all institutions and agencies of government at every level and in every public institution”. Similarly, the Declaration of Rights is contained in Chapter 4. Section 44 of the Constitution stipulates that, “The state and every person, including juristic persons, and every institution and agency of the government at every level must respect, protect, promote and fulfil the rights and freedoms set out in this chapter”. Further, Section 56 of the Constitution on equality and non-discrimination and Section 80 on the rights of women bring in a new Constitutional dispensation that recognises and enforces women’s rights and entitlements of citizens. The inclusion of fundamental principles and rights at work under Section 65 is expected to ensure the rights of workers are recognised in law and in practice as well as improve relations in the labour market, which is often a source socio-economic instability. The adoption of the Constitution provides clear potential to promote good governance and respect for human rights in Zimbabwe.

Currently the GoZ is also reviewing 400 laws\(^\text{21}\) to align them with the Constitution. The justice delivery system provides avenues for the enforcement of said laws and human rights therein. Key institutions mandated with the protection, enforcement and promotion of human rights include the Zimbabwe Human Rights Commission, the Gender Commission, the Zimbabwe Electoral Commission, the National Peace and Reconciliation Commission and the Constitutional Court. The GoZ requires financial support from development partners and collaboration from all sectors of the economy and levels of society to support these institutions.

2.2 Analysis of Issues

2.2.1 Local Government

Zimbabwe’s local government system is generally regarded as well-established and mature. However, over time the system has been negatively stressed by political and economic factors. Structures, systems and overall performance dramatically declined to an extent that in 2008-2009 the cholera outbreaks led to at least 4000 deaths, mainly in Harare, due to service delivery capacity failures, especially in the provision of water, sanitation and supporting infrastructure, amongst other factors. A 2013 Capacity Assessment Report of Local Government noted that despite the structural failings of the system, the sector was slowly recovering. The report suggested that focus should be on enhancing policy and legal consistency, optimising Human Resources systems, structures and performance re-establishment, strengthening municipal financial capacities and performance at the Ministry of Local Government Urban and Rural Development and in Councils, modernising spatial planning service/practice, enhancing knowledge based local government to deliver quality services and finally engaging citizens.

2.2.2 Electoral Capacity Building

Since independence, the country has successfully held at least eight national elections as stipulated by the Constitution. Over the years, however, there have been contestations around the elections. The Government of Zimbabwe, in collaboration with development partners realised the need to enhance the capacity of electoral management, as part of strengthening the governance architecture in the country. During the 2008-2013 Global Political Agreement, the reconstituted Zimbabwe Electoral Commission was supported to effectively discharge its mandate, in line with their five-

\(^{21}\) Ministry of Justice Legal and Parliamentary Affairs.
year strategic plan launched in 2010. The primary focus was on strengthening the institutional, structural, administrative and operational systems and processes, as well as improving the Information and Communication Technology and general communication set ups. There has been a marked improvement in the technical capacities in the management of the last national elections.

2.2.3 National Peace and Reconciliation
The Government of Zimbabwe has been supporting peace building and reconciliation initiatives since independence in its quest to ensure a peaceful environment and coexistence amongst its people. Since 2003, peace building initiatives were accelerated culminating to the formation of the Organ for Healing, Reconciliation and Integration (ONHRI), as part of the peace architecture during the Global Political Agreement period. This mechanism provided avenues for dialogue, consensus building and assisted in breaking the impasse on some of the contested national issues. Building on the gains registered by ONHRI and earlier peace and reconciliation interventions, the country established the National Peace and Reconciliation Commission (NPRC) as provided in the 2013 Constitution of Zimbabwe. The establishment of the NPRC is a key milestone in strengthening the national peace infrastructure. Collaborative initiatives between communities, Government, Civil Society Organisations, private sector and other stakeholders, form the foundations of a cohesive and resilient society. An integrated programming approach is essential to foster collaboration between stakeholders and also build a practical nexus between sectoral interventions such as livelihoods, disaster risk reduction and conflict prevention as key pillars for building a socially cohesive and resilient nation.

The interrelationships between and the strengthening of local and central government, parliament and the legislative branches as well as electoral capacity building and national peace and reconciliation initiatives implemented thus far, have moved Zimbabwe forward in the Governance and human rights arenas. However, much more still needs to be done to strengthen parliament, local authorities and the public sector in social services delivery, access to justice, delivery of justice and institutional accountability. There is also need to continue efforts to sustain the peace and stability achieved after the 2013 harmonised elections and building the capacities of all institutions involved in the delivery of governance and human rights endeavours in Zimbabwe. The UNCT and development partners have shown a comparative advantage in this area and have an opportunity to continue to deepen efforts to engage government, the private sector, citizen organisations and non-state actors and assist with technical support and resources to advance the objectives of governance and human rights as espoused in the 2013 Zimbabwe Constitution.

2.2.4 Representation and Accountability
Zimbabwe’s political system consists of a set of formal and informal political arrangements as well as certain values and institutions of democracy and governance such as the legislature, judiciary and executive, interest groups and political parties\textsuperscript{22}. Section 2 of the Constitution of Zimbabwe asserts that “this Constitution is the supreme law of Zimbabwe and if any other law is inconsistent with this Constitution that other law shall to the extent of the inconsistency be void.”

One of the key governance and human rights provisions of the Constitution is the right to representation. Although equality among men and women is enshrined in the Constitution and it

\textsuperscript{22} Sachikonye et al., 2007, Consolidating democratic governance in Southern Africa- Zimbabwe. EISA Research Report, No.30
calls for equal representation of women and men in all institutions in public and private sectors, the representation of women in key decision making arenas in Zimbabwe governance institutions is still weak and requires both advocacy and leadership to change. One glaring example of the need for equitable representation in the Zimbabwe National Assembly is in the current Parliament. Table 2.1 below shows the distribution of seats by gender at the National Assembly from 2000 to 2013. Although there is some marked progress in the participation of women in national governance, the required target of equal representation is still far from being achieved. The proportion of women in the National Assembly escalated fivefold to more than 30% in 2013 compared to 2008 elections due to the quota system entrenched in the Constitution. Although this is not yet at parity in terms of African Union and SADC targets, this is a significant improvement and a critical mass in terms of Beijing Platform for Action.

**Table 2.1: Distribution of Seats in the National Assembly by Gender from 2000 to 2013.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Election Year</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>% Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>31.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>5.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union Website (2014)  
http://www.ipu.org/parline/reports/2361.htm

A more poignant example of inequality is women’s representation in local government which did not have the advantage of a quota system in the Constitution. Women’s representation in local authorities declined from 19% to 16%, in the 2013 election, reinforcing the need for stronger political advocacy, accountability and leadership on women’s representation. Representation and accountability should also be understood in light of the need to strengthen governance in other areas like tripartism and civil society in order to effectively address socioeconomic and political challenges.

2.2.5 Citizen Participation in Local Democracy

Local government is the sphere in which most citizens operate and to a large extent influences the capacity of national governments. This democracy gives all citizens the freedom to participate in making decisions that are locally appropriate and serve the needs of the local community. A broad base of participation in the electoral process is fundamental to having a working democracy. Electoral process is one of the many ways in which individual citizens may express their views at the local level and play a pivotal role in strengthening decentralised governance. For example, 3,480,047 people participated in the 2013 national harmonised elections. Also citizen participation in the way public and local authorities are run ensures accountability and more effective and efficient service delivery. There is still need for wider citizen participation in local governance and evidence based advocacy and communications to allow for accountability in how local authorities and public institutions operate in Zimbabwe.

The current poor performance by Zimbabwe’s public institutions and rampant corruption within local authorities signify the limited participation in local democracy. Currently the public citizenry and other non-state actors lack legal means and advocacy space to claim their rights from duty bearers, hence Zimbabwe has not yet fully created capable institutions that ensure participatory democracy, effective service delivery, good governance and respect of human rights. The answer to these challenges lies in the upholding of people’s Constitutional rights, creation of capable institutions and effective political leadership.

---

23 Ibid  
institutions, and the opening up of advocacy space for the citizenry to participate in local democracy. These steps are essential towards creating an environment for establishing Constitutionalism, which is the next step after making a new Constitution. There is urgent need for advocacy and awareness building across the country for the population to fully appropriate the potential good governance and human rights dividends that are latent in the Zimbabwe Constitution and help them fully participate in the development process articulated in Zim Asset.

2.2.6 Constitution and Access to Justice

The commitment to good governance and respect for human rights is demonstrated at the highest level of government through various institutional structures that are provided for in the Constitution, aimed at supporting democracy and combating corruption and crime. If fully upheld and effectively interpreted the Constitution of Zimbabwe has the potential to transform the socio-economic and political aspirations of Zimbabweans and ensure resilient and sustainable development of the country. A fully functioning and effective justice delivery sector is the foundation for the rule of law. Key stakeholders in the justice delivery chain in Zimbabwe include the judiciary, the National Prosecuting Authority, Zimbabwe Prisons and Correctional Services and the Zimbabwe Republic Police and legal practitioners, all of which are constituted under the Justice Law and Order Sector Coordination Mechanism.

A major challenge in Zimbabwe’s justice system is the limited access to justice and inadequate access to government legal aid services. Although the Ministry of Justice Legal Aid Directorate has started a process of decentralisation, it is still not adequate for the whole country. In such circumstances, the poor and vulnerable population especially women, children, youth, unemployed, landless and people living with disability cannot access justice due to the prohibitive costs. Specifically for women there are social and cultural practices, norms and attitudes that become systemic barriers to their access to justice. The underlying causes are attributed to the constraints in financial, human and capital resources that reduce the ability of the justice law and order institutions to effectively deliver justice. The judiciary faces capacity limitations which have negatively affected the quality of case management. For communities, the root cause is attributable to extreme poverty and lack of any gainful employment to pay legal fees which significantly limits their ability to access justice.

Inadequate policy, legislative and institutional frameworks for accessing justice have also compounded the inability of the judicial system to deliver justice due to the minimal application of normative standards on justice derived from international, regional and national instruments. It is partly for these reasons that a number of laws impacting justice delivery in Zimbabwe have to be aligned with the Constitution. In view of these constraints, the government with support from

---

26 The country’s Constitution provides for the set-up of independent commissions that are aimed at supporting democracy in the country. These include: the Zimbabwe Electoral Commission, The Zimbabwe Human Rights Commission, Zimbabwe Gender Commission, Zimbabwe Media Commission, the National Peace and Reconciliation Commission.
27 Institutions for combating corruption and crime include the Zimbabwe Anti-Corruption Commission and the National Prosecuting Authority.
28 During the Country Analysis Focus Group Discussions, members of the Ministry of Justice, Legal and Parliamentary Affairs confirmed that the Legal Aid Directorate has recently established offices in Mutare, Masvingo and Gweru. Prior to this, the Directorate only had offices in Harare and Bulawayo.
30 Ibid.
development partners has embarked on several projects to build capacity in the judiciary systems and strengthen the justice delivery system. While on one hand, these efforts have yielded positive results, on the other hand they have also shown that large capacity gaps exist and require further strengthening and as well as funding for improvement. One such project is the support for the strengthening and promotion of human rights and rule of law through enhancing capacity of institutions in the Ministry of Justice and Legal affairs, effective from 2008-2011. Key areas of support were on the drafting of the Constitution, strengthening electoral systems and processes, police and other institutions for the promotion of the rule of law, clarifying land tenure and property rights, establishing of the Organ for National Healing, Reconciliation and Integration and the composition of the Inclusive Government. Another project of positive impact was that of enhancing justice delivery and human rights for all effective from 2012-2015. Such efforts need to be sustained and strengthened particularly in support of the decentralisation of the judiciary to serve rural communities, the poor and underserved populations in the country. Support in this area holds promise to the success of the Zim Asset.

2.2.7 Management and Accountability
Zimbabwe experienced political stability and peace after the 2013 elections. However this was not matched with the delivery of good governance and human rights for the population on the part of public and private sectors of the economy. The current downward spiral of the economy after the 2013 elections can partly be attributed to poor management and accountability at central government, city councils and local authorities. Although the intent is enshrined in the Constitution, there are still no effective measures to implement and demonstrate the efficacy of supporting institutions to deliver human rights and economic accountability to Zimbabweans.

In the economic governance arena, Zimbabwe still has to demonstrate how the constitutionally mandated institutions and provisions will facilitate economic growth and address the current low levels of public and private sector investments, including instilling confidence for local and international investments. The current review of laws and institutional mechanisms to ensure accountability to the Constitution is a positive beginning. However, the real test will be in how long it will take and how deep consultations will be with stakeholders, including social partners, for these Constitutional provisions to be fully implemented. This will then be buttressed by how various institutions will demonstrate their capabilities by transparently enforcing the law, providing checks and balances in the delivery of governance and human rights to all people and across all sectors. The Government must quickly address negative perceptions about the poor management of the economy and lack of accountability by public institutions.

Poor service delivery and weak public sector management systems have been found to be a key factor in constraining the delivery and achievement of development effectiveness. Inadequate structures and personnel to drive the systems as well as weak monitoring and evaluation systems are to blame. To address this, extended support is available to the country’s Integrated Results Based Management (IRBM) Programme and Accountable Service Delivery (2014-2016) that is aimed at improving efficiency and effectiveness of the public sector. The IRBM Programme is

---

34 Ibid.
aimed at improving the management of development results, public service delivery and accountability to citizens. It incorporates the e-Government initiative, which focuses on the utilisation of Information Communication Technologies (ICT) to improve operations and performance of the Government in dealing with citizens, businesses and other integral parties. Support to IRBM through UNDP began in 2005 where most efforts were concentrated on setting up structures, building awareness and learning. However the need for strengthening the policy framework, planning systems and operationalisation of the IRBM and e-government processes needs further support. The current support focuses on developing leadership and management skills to deal with public sector administration issues to promote more open and transparent governance based on better access to information and application of technologies. For the next ZUNDAF rollout this will be a distinctive area where the UNCT can add value and provide unique support.

The Government of Zimbabwe is also extremely concerned about the unacceptably high levels of corruption at most public institutions and local authorities and fears this will hamper the implementation of the Zim Asset and general economic growth. There are negative corporate governance issues and practices that have been observed in State Enterprises, Parastatals and local authorities related to perceived weaknesses and malpractices pertaining to board appointments, management and performance, CEO selection, performance and remuneration. Consequently, the public enterprise sector is now the major driver of employment costs in the economy. To address these challenges, the government recently released the Corporate Governance Framework for State Enterprises, Parastatals and Local Authorities to guide government and public sector business and curb all forms of corruption in the management of the state institutions and agencies. Under this framework, among other measures, members should be appointed on merit ensuring gender representation and regional considerations. Other measures pertain to proper CEO appointments and prudent administration of salaries, allowances and procurement practices of public enterprises and local authorities. The Government will require urgent support from development partners and more robust participation of citizenry and non-state actors in order to quickly bring about stability in this sector and consequentially in the macroeconomic environment in Zimbabwe.

2.2.8 National Dialogue and Inclusive Participation Across All Sectors
It can be argued that one key measure of a healthy democracy with checks and balances is how far a country facilitates all arms of government, private and public sectors to effectively and transparently interact with the citizenry, social partners, civil society, and international communities in the governance of the country. The current Constitution, if upheld and made to work for its people, can effectively bring about robust engagement and inclusive participation of all sectors and communities in Zimbabwe to implement the priorities of the Zim Asset. Currently civil society, the media, workers and employers, youth and women’s groups have not yet found inclusive space to fully engage with the Government in resolving the country’s challenges. Efforts aimed at strengthening mechanisms and processes of socioeconomic dialogue under the Tripartite

Negotiating Forum need to be strengthened and continued. The current employment and labour laws need to be reformed for worker-employer relationships to improve, and thus promote industrial productivity. This area of inclusive dialogue is a pivotal opportunity for development partners to play a role by bringing experience, resources and lessons learned elsewhere to help Zimbabwe as the Constitution is operationalised. Inclusive dialogue is a sign of a budding democracy and accountable governance.

At the political level the Government has effectively used the lessons learned from the last decade of political polarisation to enshrine in the Constitution provisions for national dialogue, peace and reconciliation. These provisions should be operationalised as an ongoing programme to maintain and deepen the current peace and quiet prevailing in the country. With political peace prevailing, the country can turn its focus to the economic development agenda of Zimbabwe. This dialogue should be extended to the socioeconomic sphere of Zimbabwe which will have a positive knock on effects to improve the governance and human rights environment in the country. Labour, civil society, small scale businesses, local authority residence associations, youth and women’s groups should be supported and invited in this national inclusive participatory and democratic dialogue, independent of political party affiliations.

To ensure national dialogue and participation, through a Cabinet Resolution, the Government of Zimbabwe established the Inter-Ministerial Committee on Human Rights and International Humanitarian Law in 1993, whose mandate was to assist the Government to draft state party reports as required by the various treaty bodies that Zimbabwe is party to, as well as to advise the Government on ratification and domestication of other treaties. In addition, the Justice Law and Order Sector Coordination Mechanism was established to improve coordination, dialogue and service delivery within the sector. Zimbabwe has ratified most of the key UN, African Union, international and regional human rights instruments and has also made voluntary assumptions to implement these. However, some key instruments are yet to be ratified and Zimbabwe has not fully domesticated some of the ratified treaties due to limited capacity within the Government where most attention has been paid to reporting. In addition, the UNDP and other development partners worked with the Government of Zimbabwe to strengthen human rights, good governance and the rule of law through capacity building and informed policy dialogue with relevant stakeholders, including state institutions, civil society organisations and donors. This is an example of a positive initiative that should be continued in the next ZUNDAF rollout, and further extended to other socio-economic arenas of Zimbabwe in order to address the current economic hardships the country is experiencing.

2.3 Summary of Challenges and Opportunities

Ineffective enforcement of democracy and human rights in Zimbabwe are a major root cause of some of the socioeconomic challenges currently facing the country. The broad challenges and opportunities around governance and human rights are summarised in Table 2.2 below. Currently, the public citizenry, labour and other non-state actors lack legal means, access, communication

40 Ibid.
41 GoZ and UNDP, 2006, *Support for the Strengthening of the promotion of Human Rights and Rule of Law through enhanced capacity of Institutions in the Ministry of Justice, the Judiciary, including traditional courts and other stakeholders in Zimbabwe*, Project document.
channels and advocacy space to claim their rights from duty bearers. These inefficiencies are reflected in the current poor performance of the economy, weak institutional management, rampant corruption and unaccountability in Zimbabwe’s public institutions and local authorities as well as in high poverty levels, particularly in rural areas. A combination of these challenges is hitting the poor and vulnerable population especially women, children, the unemployed, child headed households, the landless, the stateless, workers and people living with disabilities.

Many of the challenges around governance and human rights emanate from various causes such as the inadequate policy, legislative and institutional frameworks for access to justice including the domestication of international and regional human rights instruments, the constraints in financial, human and capital resources that reduce the ability of the justice law and order institutions to effectively deliver justice as well as inconsistency and lack of clarity in some key government policies, including the indigenisation and the agriculture policies. The judiciary faces capacity limitations which have negatively affected the quality of case management. The current poor service delivery and weak public sector management systems in Zimbabwe also reveal the inadequacies in the structures and personnel to drive the systems as well as the weak monitoring and evaluation systems to ensure accountable results and measurable performance by many public and private institutions driving the economy.

The new provisions of the Constitution hold promise to deliver good governance, equitable access to justice and respect for human rights for all Zimbabweans. Currently, the Government of Zimbabwe is also reviewing 400 laws to align them to the Constitution. Further, the Government recently launched the Corporate Governance Framework for State Enterprises, Parastatals and Local Authorities to guide the Government and public sector businesses to curb all forms of corruption in the management of the state institutions and agencies. There are also opportunities in accelerating ongoing UN initiatives aimed at strengthening human rights, good governance and the rule of law through capacity building and informed policy dialogue with relevant stakeholders. The next major challenge is political will to implement these initiatives and enforce the laws that are meant to be strengthened by these initiatives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges</th>
<th>Opportunities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Poor management and accountability practices</td>
<td>• Constitutional provisions for improving governance and human rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Limited national dialogue and inclusive participation</td>
<td>• Improved national dialogue after the harmonised elections</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Limited representation in decision making processes</td>
<td>• Accelerating on ongoing successful initiatives and programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Limited capacity of the justice delivery system</td>
<td>• New Governance Framework for State and Public Enterprises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Limited access to justice by the poor and vulnerable populations</td>
<td>• Potential for government to create new positive perception on good governance and human rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Inadequate capacity for enforcement and implementation of Constitutional provisions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.4 Options for Action

The GoZ requires technical and financial support from development partners and collaboration from all sectors of the economy and levels of society to support law enforcement and justice delivery institutions and mechanisms that ensure the Constitution becomes effective and that all Zimbabweans enjoy good governance and human rights.

To effectively stop, and then decisively reverse the economic downward trend which threatens to produce negative growth in 2015, the Government requires bold, consistent and effective measures especially in the key economic sectors including agriculture, mining, tourism, trade, industry and commerce. Taking advantage of the Constitutional provisions and laws enacted in accordance with the Zimbabwe Constitution there is a window of opportunity for the Government to immediately implement policy measures that focus on the following economic, governance, management and accountability imperatives:

- Management and accountability: how effectively policies are formulated, aligned and consistently implemented with clarity and certainty in all sectors.
- Economic governance: revamp institutions to facilitate economic growth and address current low levels of public and private sector performance in order to stimulate confidence that inspires local investors and attract foreign direct investments.
- Institutional capacity and performance: review institutional mechanisms to ensure accountability to laws and build capable institutions that deliver results based management.
- Rule of law: make the laws of the land count and facilitate law enforcement agencies to deliver equitable justice and enforce checks and balances in the delivery of good governance and human rights. This will include strengthening all mechanisms of state, non-state actors and development partners that will engage in constructive dialogue that holds duty bearers and rights holders mutually accountable and focuses on service delivery, accountable use of resources and results based management at all levels of the economy.

The Government, with the support of development partners should also continue the work to strengthen the national policy framework, planning systems and operationalisation of the IRBM and e-government processes. This will go a long way to improve accountability and management, while increasing confidence and public image of public administration in Zimbabwe.
3 ECONOMY, EMPLOYMENT AND POVERTY

3.1 Overview
As the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (Zim Asset) indicates, Zimbabwe experienced a deteriorating economic, political and social environment since 2000. The deep and long economic and social crisis was characterized by a hyper inflationary environment, deindustrialization marked by a sharp drop in capacity utilisation and closure of industries, large scale job losses, poor service delivery as a result of the ‘brain drain’ and a sharp drop in Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The GDP dropped by approximately 50% in 2008. To address the declining economy, the government through different institutions developed several short, medium and long term policies and programmes. These included the Millennium Economic Recovery Programme 2000 - 2002, and the National Economic Revival Programme in 2003, the National Economic Priority Development Programme in March 2006 followed by the Short Term Emergency Recovery Programme (STERP I) in 2009 and the Three-Year Budget and Macroeconomic Policy Framework (STERP II) in 2010.

In the Government of National Unity, the country adopted the five-year, 2011-2015 Medium Term Plan (MTP) aimed at maintaining macroeconomic stability and restoring the economy’s capacity to produce goods and services competitively, building upon the gains achieved since the launch of STERP in March 2009. After the July 2013 harmonised elections, the government adopted the Zim Asset to guide national development up to 2018. The Zim Asset is meant to provide an enabling environment for sustainable economic empowerment. The implementation of the Zim Asset is built around four strategic clusters that will enable the country to achieve economic growth. The four clusters are Food Security and Nutrition, Social Services and Poverty Eradication, Infrastructure and Utilities and Value Addition and Beneficiation.

The Government has initiated actions to set the agenda for sustainable economic transformation which includes aid coordination and debt management, promotion of domestic and foreign investment, private and productive sector support and trade promotion, youth and women economic empowerment, promotion of value-addition and entrepreneurship in the informal economy, Cooperatives and Small and Medium Enterprises promotion, local economic development, beneficiation and competitiveness enhancement, especially in extractive industries, harnessing the Diaspora through promoting mutually beneficial circular migration and investment of remittances, reorienting training and skills development, infrastructure (energy, water, transport) rehabilitation as well as exploring new opportunities in the green economy.

The government is also working towards creating a conducive macroeconomic environment that promotes domestic and foreign investment. For example, the operating business environment remains challenging on account of the difficult and costly operating costs environment in the country and confusion over the implementation of indigenisation and economic empowerment regulations. The Ministry of Finance and Economic Development has put in place various programmes and measures to improve fiscal and external sustainability, and increased financial sector stability through the Staff Monitoring Programme (SMP) supported by the International Monetary Fund (IMF). The SMP seeks to:

i. Strengthen fiscal sustainability by ensuring expenditure is kept in line with fiscal revenues, protecting investment in infrastructure and priority social spending and gradually clearing outstanding domestic arrears.

ii. Rebuild international reserves.

iii. Increase financial sector stability by implementing financial sector reforms and tightening the regulatory framework.

iv. Advance the structural reform agenda, including tax policy and administration and increase transparency in minerals revenues.

Zimbabwe’s performance under the Staff Monitored Program has been broadly satisfactory. Yet, despite the progress made in some fronts, the socioeconomic challenges Zimbabwe is facing are formidable. The economy is under severe stress, due in part to policy uncertainties and implementation and institutional efficiency.

3.2 Analysis of Issues

3.2.1 The Economy

The state of and challenges facing the economy are well documented by the Zimbabwean government and development partners. The real GDP growth in Zimbabwe has decelerated from 10.6% in 2012 to an estimated 4.5% in 2013. This trend is threatening negative growth in 2015 as shown in figure 3.1 below.

**Figure 3.1: Economic Growth Prospects in Zimbabwe**


The “severe liquidity constraints” in the economy are one of the key factors hampering economic growth and support for social protection initiatives and basic social service delivery. The Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries (CZI) survey results show that manufacturing companies identify lack of financing (working capital) as the number one reason for their less than 50% capacity utilisation. According to the same CZI survey, capacity utilisation levels declined

---

44 Focus Group Discussion with Government Ministries.
progressively from 56% in 2011 to 44.6% in 2012 and 39.6% in 2013 as indicated in figure 3.2 below.

Lack of liquidity and investor confidence in Zimbabwe is one of the biggest challenges facing the Zimbabwean economy at the present time and possibly for the foreseeable future. A growth rate of only 9.01% in domestic credit during April 2013 to April 2014, compared to 27.70% and 42.90% in 2012/2013 and 2011/12 respectively indicates the worsening liquidity situation in the market. It also indicates banks’ increasingly cautious lending strategies in view of not only the liquidity crunch, but also the increasing incidence of non-performing loans, which have played a role in the demise of some banks. In the same report, it is recorded that non-performing loans to private sector have increased to 16.63% as at March 2014, compared to 13.47% in 2012 and 15.92% in 2013 during the same period.

Overall, credit to the private sector has declined to US$3.6 billion as of 30 June 2014 compared to US$3.7 billion in 2013. Without credit, business is bound to struggle as manifested in low capacity utilisation and in company closures and retrenchments as seen in Table 3.1. The most affected subsectors are the printing and general engineering, with more than 10 companies closed in each respective subsector over the period July 2011 to July 2013.

What is urgently required by the Zimbabwean economy is immediate capital injection in all productive sectors. For the injected resources to boost economic recovery, capacity utilisation has

---

**Figure 3.2: Manufacturing Capacity Utilisation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>57.2</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>39.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries, 2013. Annual CZI Manufacturing Sector Survey

---

**Table 3.1: Company Closures during July 2011-July 2013**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subsector</th>
<th>Closed Firms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Air conditioning and refrigeration</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baking</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothing</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furniture</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General engineering</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturers of processed food</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metal fabrication</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milling</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubber industry</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slaughtering &amp; abattoirs</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>94</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


---


to improve to above 60%, manifested by good corporate governance that turn out profits, create employment and boost exports.

The government, which under normal circumstances would institute stimulus measures to remedy liquidity problems, is itself suffering from the same problems. Zimbabwe currently experiences unprecedented limited fiscal space and the inability to use monetary policy as a tool to access resources on the domestic and international markets. Both factors cause the country to be less competitive and unattractive to marshal resources for both public and private sectors, including concessional funding support. Financial restrictions and the national debt have not only negatively affected the country’s access to international funding but also negatively affected Public Enterprises and government related companies ability to access competitive markets for minerals, particularly diamonds, resulting in sub competitive prices being realised. Lack of private and public sector investment is one of the biggest setbacks to stimulate economic growth and generate employment. This poor access to financing will reverberate across all sectors especially agriculture, mining, tourism, trade, commerce and industry. Consequently, negative impact on social sectors especially education, health and the general delivery of social services is inevitable.

The government is ineligible to access new financing from multilateral institutions as it is in arrears with its repayments of this external debt. A detailed breakdown of the total external debt stock is shown in the Table 3.2 below. Total external debt including arrears but excluding penalties has been increasing since 2007 and as of 31 December 2013 it was US$8.934 billion. Accumulated public guaranteed external debt stood at US$6.964 billion as of 31 December 2013.

Table 3.2: External Debt Outstanding by Debtor (US$ millions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>End Period</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Long Term External Debt</td>
<td>4,032</td>
<td>4,464</td>
<td>4,951</td>
<td>5,175</td>
<td>6,096</td>
<td>6,607</td>
<td>7,370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>3,054</td>
<td>3,465</td>
<td>4,037</td>
<td>4,095</td>
<td>4,638</td>
<td>4,929</td>
<td>5,012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Enterprises</td>
<td>790</td>
<td>824</td>
<td>856</td>
<td>938</td>
<td>1,093</td>
<td>1,198</td>
<td>1,356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monetary Authorities</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>1,002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short Term External Debt</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>1,198</td>
<td>1,382</td>
<td>1,289</td>
<td>890</td>
<td>1,564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total External Debt</td>
<td>4,607</td>
<td>4,690</td>
<td>6,289</td>
<td>6,695</td>
<td>7,385</td>
<td>7,497</td>
<td>8,934</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This includes all arrears and excludes penalties.


The use of other countries’ currencies makes it impossible for the government to print money and stimulate growth, a strategy which other countries use. The country requires huge cash inflows, but lacks the options to achieve this objective. The government has no room for manoeuvring monetary policy as highlighted above and the domestic financial institutions have no capacity to generate cash flows. The country is faced with massive challenges of acute liquidity shortages which cascade to affect the economy in its entirety. Interest rates are high and uncompetitive, a result of the shortage of funds in the market, another factor which is negatively affecting the economy as a whole.

---

The use of the U.S. dollar is affecting the competitiveness of Zimbabwean manufactured goods. The weakening of the South African Rand against the dollar makes Zimbabwean manufactured goods less competitive and more expensive as compared to South African goods. The country relies heavily on imported goods. The current balance of account deficit as of 31 December 2013 was 28.7%, up from 24.4% in the previous year as reflected in Figure 3.3 below. The country’s import bill has continued to escalate on account of relatively more expensive local products and supply gaps in the economy. On the other hand, the export performance has remained subdued, reflecting the underlying challenges facing the economy. Moreover, the country continues to rely on a narrow export base mainly dominated by mineral exports with limited value addition.

Figure 3.3: Imports, Exports and Trade Balance


3.2.2 Structural Bottlenecks

The structural bottlenecks include the deterioration of infrastructure in the form of road, rail, electricity, sanitation, as well as water provision for domestic and industrial use. Infrastructure development has been constrained by declining levels of public investment on infrastructural projects, external debt burden, sluggish economic growth, and unsustainable levels of employment costs on the national budget, which have resulted in relatively lower capital expenditures. Deficits in the provision of adequate infrastructure have culminated in Zimbabwean products being uncompetitive on regional and international markets, resulting in depressed export earnings, shortage of liquidity, reduced aggregate demand for goods and services, a ballooning current account deficit, overall slow-down in economic activity and ultimately low budget revenues.

The transport sector faces challenges owing to resource constraints, obsolete equipment, corruption, mismanagement, vandalism and absence of a robust corporate governance policy. Currently there is no effective and efficient public transport system in the country. The private transportation system is under stress from overregulation and corrupt practices. This negatively impacts the ability of the nation to efficiently move people resulting in poor productivity and employment generation. Poor investment and the lack of adequate budget support negatively impact government programmes aimed at poverty reduction and social protection, as well as initiatives for health care, education, food and nutrition, especially for the rural and poor households. Weak integration into regional economic markets has hampered the growth of exports and the movement of people and goods from the country.

3.2.3 Performance of the Public, Private and Informal Sectors

The public sector is experiencing cash flow challenges. In 2014, first half revenue collections were US$1.736 billion against a target of US$1.847 billion resulting in a negative variance of 6%. The ratio of employment costs to total expenditure remains high and unsustainable as capital spending is limited to only 3% of total spending for the quarter. Some critical infrastructural projects have been on hold due to a lack of funding. Budgetary constraints have led to the freeze on employment in the public sector. In addition, the sector has shown deep institutional

---

53 Ibid.
weaknesses that have taken the form of poor corporate governance, convoluted reporting lines and structures, lack of transparency and accountability, as well as general managerial failures. These factors have resulted in perennial losses and unending reliance on fiscal hand-outs and budgetary allocations, even in cases where the entities should be able to operate viably and declare dividends to the Government. Poor performance of the public sector drags down the whole economy and negatively affects the social sectors. Poor public sector financial injections dramatically diminish the Government’s ability to support productive sectors and cross cutting initiatives to bolster disaster risk management, social protection, resilience, sustainable agriculture and the environment. Without substantial new investments in the private and public sector, it is difficult to see how to stimulate the economy and turnaround the fundamentals that help to generate employment and improve cash inflows and reduce the liquidity crunch the country is currently experiencing.

The macroeconomic factors discussed above have resulted in the continued shrinking of the formal private sector and a ballooning informal economy characterized by low productivity and serious under and unemployment. Capacity utilisation levels in the manufacturing sector are also declining on the back of reduced domestic economic activity. The manufacturing subsector was operating at capacity utilisation of 39.6% in 2013 and is projected to deteriorate during 2014. A sizeable number of companies are downsizing, retrenching and some going into liquidation. The trend continues downward, with few concrete policy initiatives to stop this deteriorating situation.

The principal reason given for this underutilisation of capacity is the lack of working capital finance, a result of the serious liquidity challenge and the precautionary lending approach which is being adopted by banks. The other reason is the low local demand for locally manufactured goods. This is a result of the influx of imported products which are of reputable brands and/or are cheaper and also indicates that systems are not in place to tap potential revenues. The third reason for low capacity utilisation is the antiquated machinery and machinery breakdowns which make local factories uncompetitive in both cost and quality. Increasing shortage and unreliable supply of electricity and water can be cited as the fourth reason, with competition from imports cited as the fifth reason.

The private sector saw 94 companies close shop in the two years from July 2011 to July 2013 as shown previously in Table 3.1. The manufacturing sector leads all other sectors in the number of retrenchments and layoffs. Reasons given for retrenchments are lack of company savings, restructuring, viability challenges and the imperative to downsize. The picture given is one of a sector that is going through deindustrialisation and decapitalisation.

The manufacturing sector requires an urgent rescue plan that includes the injection of finance, new management structures, local and international partnerships and an overall linkage of this subsector to the rest of the economy to revive its fortunes. The longer it lays dormant the harder it will be to turn it around, as the equipment and machinery become obsolete, labour migrates and product substitution takes place, especially from foreign markets. In the next cycle of recovery in this sector, there is opportunity to review and recycle the types of priority manufacturing companies.

54 Ibid.
55 Ibid.
56 Ibid.
Neither all the dormant companies can, nor should they be revived as some were producing goods which are no longer relevant to the market. This consideration has a bearing on how Zimbabwe will improve its competitiveness on the regional and global stages. Moreover, there is also an urgent need to harness and develop Information and Communication Technology (ICT) for economic growth that will improve the prospects of knowledge based economy and technology based businesses going forward. ICT for economic growth would leverage the country’s highly educated and technologically savvy workforce, particularly in the youth demographic that has emerged from the many tertiary institutions across the country.

Roughly 3.7 million people in Zimbabwe are involved in the informal sector where 54.6% are females. The informalisation of the economy presents both opportunities and challenges. The 2011-2012 Poverty, Income, Consumption and Expenditure Survey (PICES) report estimated that the total value for the sector (including agricultural production by households) at US$1.7 billion (US$810.0 million from informal non-farm activities and US$446.7 million from households engaged in agricultural activities), constituting 19.5% of the 2011 GDP. Further, the report showed that 50.5% of those employed in the informal sector in Zimbabwe are aged between 15 to 34 years, where 53.2% are male and 48.3% are female. This reflects the role played by the informal sector in Zimbabwe in generating jobs for the youth. The downside is that the sector is not being regulated for the purposes of generating income and decent employment.

The mining sector remains one of the key drivers of the economy with growth projected at 4.2% in 2014. Developments during the first six months of 2014 indicate that output for gold, platinum and diamond were subdued necessitating the downward revision. Revenues from this sector were 15.4% lower than the same period in 2013, falling from US$502 million in 2013 to US$435 million in 2014. The sector lacks long-term funding, is hampered by intermittent power supply and rising labour costs, thus affecting mining output. In addition, the potential of the sector is likely to be restricted by mineral prices, which are projected to remain depressed in 2014. As reflected in Table 3.3 below, the output of gold and platinum were subdued in the first 2 months of 2014 due to a decline in international prices.

Table 3.3: Mineral Output from 2012 to 2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gold (kg)</td>
<td>14,743</td>
<td>14,065</td>
<td>15,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Platinum (kg)</td>
<td>10,524</td>
<td>13,066</td>
<td>14,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palladium (kg)</td>
<td>8,136</td>
<td>10,153</td>
<td>11,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nickel (tons)</td>
<td>7,899</td>
<td>14,057</td>
<td>15,020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diamond (carats)</td>
<td>12,015,000</td>
<td>10,528,459</td>
<td>10,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chrome ore (tons)</td>
<td>408,000</td>
<td>355,142</td>
<td>450,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coal (tons)</td>
<td>2,922</td>
<td>4,980,228</td>
<td>5,500,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In general, developments during the first four months of 2014 have seen continued under-performance with regards to diamonds, threatening attainment of the forecast overall 11.4% mining sector growth. Some mines have remained “no-go-areas” for Zimbabwe Revenue Authority officials, Minerals Marketing Corporation of Zimbabwe monitors and Zimbabwe Mining Development Corporation inspectors, hence stocks, sales and production figures remain unknown and at best unverified.  

The inadequacy of electricity is a major cause of concern, particularly for beneficiation. Many promising new investments in the mining industry are on the government plans, like platinum, gold, nickel and chrome, but the problem of securing funding for these major investments is proving to be almost impossible without financing. Major mature companies that are already invested and could expand their operations significantly if conditions were right, point to continuing threats to the security of their rights and problems with power supplies as primary constraints.

In the past 3 years the mining sector held promise to lead in the recovery and economic growth of the Zimbabwean economy. However over the same period, though difficult to prove beyond any doubt, the appearance of bad corporate governance and official government reports of “no-go-area” companies have not generated confidence in this sector and is cause for concern that there seems to be no clear and decisive political will and management action by the Government to stamp out leakages in this sector which has the capacity to substantially contribute to turn around the economy. This has painted a negative international impression that impacts the ability of the Government to access any foreign direct investment. In the absence of hard data, transparency and increasing sluggish performance, it is difficult to erase public perceptions that this sector is riddled with corruption, tax evasion and malpractices that rob the economy of billions of dollars that could have been invested into public and social sectors.

3.2.4 Employability and Job Losses
Using the broader definition of unemployment, 10.7% of Zimbabweans are unemployed as of 2011 compared with 11.4% who were unemployed in 2004. In 2011, 14.5% women were unemployed and 6.6% men were unemployed meaning the unemployment rate of women was more than twice that of men. Urban areas have the highest levels of unemployment which stands at 26.1% compared with rural areas at 3.4%. Given that the majority of Zimbabweans live in the rural areas the major form of employment of Zimbabweans is in agriculture, indicating high levels of vulnerable employment. Youth (15-34) are most impacted by underemployment resulting in low paying informal sector jobs and activities, which keep them poor.

Youth unemployment warrants special mention. Figure 3.4 shows that urban unemployment is much higher for the 15-34 youth age group than it is for the rural youth age group. Youth in urban areas had an average of 34% unemployment as compared to an average of 5% unemployment in

---

60 Ibid
61 Unemployment refers to the population aged 15 years and above who during the seven day reference period did not work and had no job or business to go back to but who were available for work. According to the 2013 Zimbabwe Economic Policy and Research Unit, this broad definition is more appropriate for Zimbabwe because it recognizes the different nature of the Zimbabwean job market. Unlike the strict definition that focuses on those actively seeking employment, the broad definition acknowledges the limited methods of job search and the limited job opportunities available to Zimbabweans especially those in rural areas.
rural areas. The unemployment situation is particularly worse for female youths, with one in five being unemployed. The cost of a youth cohort that is discouraged and inactive is high and can translate in a threat to socioeconomic development. Many young people have migrated to neighbouring countries and elsewhere in search of economic opportunities, depriving the country of skilled and productive labour force. Moreover, with many parents and youth in general being unemployed, children are forced to work in order to complement household incomes and livelihoods. 10% of the children aged 5 to 14 years constitute child labour in the country.\footnote{ZIMSTAT, 2011, \textit{Labour Force Survey.}}

Underemployment is the greatest challenge in Zimbabwe, where highly skilled people are working in low paying jobs or low skill jobs and where people are working part-time when they prefer to be full-time. For example in 2011, of the 5.4 million population who were employed aged 15 years and above, 18\% worked for less than 40 hours during the reference week.\footnote{Ibid.} Underemployment was most prevalent within the accommodation and food service industry at 32\%, followed by 30\% in wholesale and retail trade, and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles sectors. This time-related underemployment was highest mainly among informal sector workers, domestic workers and communal farmers/peri-urban farmers. It is partly for this underemployment that the highest poverty is found among households whose head is a communal (81.7\%) or resettlement farmer (80.3\%).\footnote{ZIMSTAT, 2013, \textit{Poverty, Income, Consumption and Expenditure Survey 2011/2012.}} The informal sector employment is characterised by unfavourable working conditions such as low incomes, lack of job security and social protection. For periods between 2004 and 2011, only 2.7\% of workers in informal employment earned incomes that are above the Poverty Datum Line compared to 17.4\% of those in formal employment.\footnote{ZIMSTAT, 2011, \textit{Labour Force Survey.}} The same report shows that 9\% of all employed persons had medical insurance with 6.7\% being in formal employment while only 2\% in informal employment had medical insurance.

The civil society, which includes National Non-Governmental Organisations and International Non-Governmental Organisations, have yet to quantify its contribution in the employment creation and the development of micro, small and medium enterprises for youth, women, the unemployed, retrenches, people with disabilities and rural poor. With better coordination, collaboration and partnerships among the organisations and between them and the Government, Zimbabwe can benefit hugely from this sector that has been thriving in Zimbabwe since 1980. There is little research and no available statistics to understand the role of this sector and to improve its contribution to the national economy. As part of the overall turnaround strategy, resources should be put into this sector for both research and investment to target employment creation and possibilities of generating tax revenue.

### 3.2.5 Migration

Zimbabwe has a long history of migration and has been both a sender and receiver of migrants. Inward migration has mostly been from nearby countries such as South Africa, Malawi and Mozambique for both economic and political reasons. Outward migration from Zimbabwe can be categorized into five phases; migration of political exiles to neighbouring countries and abroad and labour migration to South Africa, flight of white Zimbabweans during the war of liberation and after independence (1970-1990), internal migration, particularly rural to urban, migration of skilled professionals occasioned by the IMF/World Bank economic structural adjustment

\footnote{Ibid.}
programme and beyond (1992-2005) and the exodus following the onset of economic challenges at the turn of the new millennium (2000-2014).

The turn of the millennium saw a phenomenal increase in outward migration characterized by many challenges which include irregular and undocumented migration, lack of mechanism for social protection of migrant workers especially for key populations and such as female and domestic migrant workers, lack of up-to-date engendered statistics on labour migration\(^{66}\), lack of effective mechanisms for harnessing remittances for investment and development, reintegration and opportunities for returning labour migrants and human trafficking\(^{67}\) among others.

Although the exact number of people who have emigrated is not known, it is estimated that 2 to 3 million Zimbabweans are working and living in the Diaspora\(^{68,69}\). Of this total, 1 to 1.5 million Zimbabweans are conservatively estimated to be living in South Africa alone\(^{70}\), with at least 20\% estimated to be ‘irregular’. 10.6\% of children have at least one member of the household living abroad\(^{71}\) and in Zimbabwe’s high migrant sending areas (including Chiredzi, Chipinge, Gwanda, Bulilima and Plumtree), more than 80\% of households have at least one family member who is an irregular migrant\(^{72}\).

Regarding the exodus of skilled professionals, 20,000 health care professionals are assessed to have left the country since the turn of the new millennium\(^{73}\). Although less systematically documented, outward migration has also had a severe detrimental impact on the education sector, the civil service and the private sector\(^{74}\).

The most recent migrants predominantly to South Africa (2005-2010) are referred to both as the ‘third wave’ and ‘survival’ migrants tending to be the most vulnerable and earning, working and remitting less than other migrants\(^{75}\). Of those that have been profiled at Government of Zimbabwe


\(^{67}\) The Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women held its fifty first session in Geneva from 13 February to 2 March 2012, during which Zimbabwe presented the status of its implementation efforts. Among the recommendations for the country was the need for Zimbabwe to comply with article six of the convention on human trafficking, especially against women. One recommendation emphasised the need for the country to address root causes of trafficking, provide training to law enforcement agents and the judiciary, establish systematic monitoring of trafficking trends and data, improve cooperation with other countries on issues relevant to human trafficking as well improve access to medical and legal services. Zimbabwe has since acceded to the December 2013 Palermo Protocol and has proceeded to domesticate the protocol through the Trafficking in persons act of 2014, however implementation of this act is still at embryonic stages and there is a need to provide technical capacity to the government of Zimbabwe to speed up the implementation of this act.


\(^{71}\) ZIMSTAT, 2014, Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS).


\(^{73}\) IOM, 2010, Zimbabwe Health Worker Survey.

\(^{74}\) GoZ, ZIMSTAT, IOM, 2009, Migration – A Country Profile.

IOM migrant border reception centres, over a third earn less than 100 USD per month and expend over 50% of their income on food and rent, remitting 27% of the remainder home. Furthermore, the vulnerability of the third wave is also manifest in the number of individuals who have experienced physical assault (38%) and targeted xenophobic violence (6%) during migration cycles.

Remittances from migrant labour have an impact on development, exceeding foreign direct investment and constituting more than twice the national aid budget for Zimbabwe. According to the National Budget Statement, $US1.6 billion was received through formal remittances in 2013 alone although this represents a 15% decline from $US2.1 billion in 201276. The total figure would be higher if non-formal remittances are included77 and due to a broad range of factors including the illegal status of a number of Zimbabwean labour migrants the contribution of the diaspora to the country’s economy through formal remittances flows remains an underutilized opportunity, particularly within the region. In South Africa alone, the number of Zimbabweans remitting through formal banking channels dropped from 27% in 2005 to only 11% in 201078. Improvements to the regulatory environment governing labour migration both in Zimbabwe and in neighbouring countries would improve the level of formal remittances, for example, by regularising the status of migrants through improved access to passports and work permits, and therefore enabling them to open bank accounts79. Given that Zimbabwe is both a receiving and sending country, there is need for policy measures for the governance of labour migration, protection and empowerment of migrant workers and for ensuring that migration is linked to development and growth.

The UN can - in collaboration with government efforts aimed at improving institutional, legislative and regulatory frameworks and in support of regional integration for better migration governance and protection of migrants - enhance migration dialogue and information systems, strengthen social security for migrant workers in the framework of bilateral agreements with sending and receiving countries, integrate the diaspora into national development discourse and finally support mutually beneficial circular migration by improving accessibility to travelling documents and regional, continental and international instruments on migration. Collaboration with the diaspora networks and organisations can also contribute towards national development, for example, through short-term skills and technology transfer and return programmes to support education, training and private sector recovery. Other issues that need action include addressing the growing challenges of child and human trafficking as well as refugees, both transiting and settling. For the ‘survival’ migrants alternatives to high risk, irregular migration need to be identified and pursued through, for example, micro enterprise development and skills training in high migrant sending areas.

---


77 World Bank, 2008, Migration and Remittances Factbook.


79 Ibid.
3.2.6 Infrastructure, Transportation, Energy and Water

The energy and water sector is estimated to have grown by 5% in 2013 according to preliminary numbers from ZIMSTAT\(^\text{80}\). In 2014, the sector is projected to grow by 3.9% due to the ongoing rehabilitation at major powers stations. The current production of electricity is less than the installed capacity and supplies are augmented by imports. The inadequate supply and high cost of electricity has negatively affected the productive sectors. As a result, some industrial and mining companies have suspended their expansion plans. Nevertheless, in 2013, power generation slightly improved compared to 2012. This improvement is attributed to ongoing rehabilitation works at Hwange and small thermal power stations, as well as scheduled maintenance works at Kariba Power Station. Generation capacity for 2013 was 9,314.8 GWh which is above 8,962.7 GWh realised in 2012\(^\text{81}\). The same report, ZIMSTAT projects that in 2014, total electricity production to be 9,388.2 GWh, spurred on by the rehabilitation project at Hwange and small power stations. This growth will also be supported by improved revenue collection from the ongoing programme of installation of prepaid meters.

Energy and water are key enablers to productivity and socio-economic development but the sectors have experienced challenges largely due to dilapidated and obsolete pumping, generation and transmission equipment and infrastructure as well as inadequate financing and capitalisation and other structural bottlenecks.\(^\text{82}\) The potential for solar and other renewable energy sources is yet to be fully exploited. The country is also challenged with lack of access to clean, safe and potable water due to aged infrastructure, rural-urban migration\(^\text{83}\), the growth of informal peri-urban settlements and resettlement schemes as well as high levels of pollution of water sources. The effect of lack of access to safe, clean and potable water and energy is an increased burden and safety risk for women and girls who do most of the household tasks such as cooking, cleaning, caring for the sick, children and the elderly. The priority is, therefore, to rehabilitate and upgrade water and sewer infrastructure, as well as to develop new water sources in order to service current and new settlements. Local authorities should invest more in water resources management, taking advantage of Joint Venture Partnership and similar arrangements and also leveraging income from service charges and other assets such as land. Currently, most local authorities in Zimbabwe cannot provide adequate, clean and hygienic water, which has caused diseases and hampered productivity in industries. As populations expand and move into built up municipalities no long term funded projects are in place to solve the water problem in towns and cities.

Transportation, particularly road and rail, are a key element of the country’s economic infrastructure that enables and facilitates economic activity. Zimbabwe’s road network was once considered among the best in Africa and it was a significant contributor to the growth of the Zimbabwe economy. The railway network was a major factor in trade and economic growth within the region. Within Zimbabwe, it connects all major mining areas, heavy industrial centres as well as the major agricultural collection centres and provides much of the transport of mineral exports to seaports in the region. The use of rail for the transport of freight also improves road safety and

\(^{80}\text{ZIMSTAT, 2014, Quarterly Digest of Statistics, 2\textsuperscript{nd} Quarter 2014.}\)

\(^{81}\text{Ibid.}\)

\(^{82}\text{GoZ, 2013, Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-economic Transformation (Zim Asset).}\)

\(^{83}\text{629,953 individuals are reported to have migrated out of their provinces of birth and taken residence in other provinces, with Manicaland and Masvingo being the lowest migrant receiving provinces and Harare and Bulawayo (urban) being the highest receiving provinces (Chapter 3, National Census Report 2012).}\)
reduces road damage and congestion. The aviation industry provides international and local air transportation links and is particularly beneficial to the tourism industry.

There are opportunities for advocacy and technical support on the role of public utilities and the private sector in creating and maintaining the infrastructure in the extent to which it promotes productive economic activity by businesses and households, and to the extent to which it unlocks bottlenecks, improving productivity and competitiveness as well as achieving sustained economic development. Job creation potential exists in the rehabilitation and upgrading of transport networks through public works and local economic development programmes.

3.2.7 Science, Technology and Innovation

Science, Technology and Innovation are pivotal to Zimbabwe’s development. The second Science, Technology and Innovation Policy released in 2012\(^{84}\) underscores the importance of this sector to all sectors of the economy. Zimbabwe has a well-established history in the use of conventional biotechnologies\(^{85}\) such as breeding, fermentation, and development of vaccines especially for animal diseases, artificial insemination, embryo transfer, tissue culture and the use of organic pesticides. There are also opportunities for learning and utilizing emergent technologies and accelerating development in areas of biotechnology, Information, Communication and Technology, nanotechnology and indigenous knowledge systems. It is for these reasons that a comprehensive biosafety framework in the form of the National Biotechnology Policy, the National Biotechnology Authority Act and the National Biotechnology Authority of Zimbabwe were put in place. These provisions and institutions allow the country to take advantage of breakthroughs in molecular and engineering technologies without compromising its long term human health, environmental and socioeconomic interests.

Information Communication Technology (ICT) remains one of Zimbabwe’s fastest growing sectors anchored by rapid technological development and competition\(^ {86}\). ICTs are cross cutting and 21\(^{st}\) century economies are based on how countries are able to exploit the potential of ICTs. In 2013, growth in the sector remained as initially projected at 3.7% and the sector is becoming one of the highest contributors of GDP. The growth forecast is underpinned by innovation, and hence, massive investments in network, grid expansion and upgrading. During the second quarter of 2013, total investment in the sector grew by 0.9% compared to the first quarter, with subsequent increase in both mobile and internet penetration rates. Moreover, due to competition in the sector, a number of promotional packages have been launched and these have consequently increased the time spent on call and ultimately revenue for the sector increased by 4.3%. In 2014, the sector is expected to register a positive growth of 4%, anchored by product development and innovation. Data and internet services are anticipated to be the major revenue drivers in the sector going forward, with voice becoming complementary. This growth is reflected by a major investment shift towards a comprehensive infrastructure expansion of broadband fibre network to all corners of the country.


\(^{85}\) “Biotechnology” means any technique that uses living organisms or parts of organisms to make or modify products, to improve plants or animals, or to develop micro-organisms for specific purposes’ National Biotechnology Authority Act (Chapter 14:31) No.3, 2006, Page 1.


35
The uptake of internet in Zimbabwe has been rapid from 4.4 million subscriptions in 2012 to 5.5 million subscriptions in 2013 giving an annual growth rate of 23%. Internet subscriptions as of March 2014 were 5.6 million and the internet penetration rate was 43.1%. There has also been a significant uptake of voice mobile services with the country reaching 13 million mobile subscribers in under 10 years. Mobile penetration rates increased from 97% in 2013 to 106% in 2014. In Zimbabwe’s budding ICT sector there is great opportunity to review and develop innovative technologies and research to support key sectors of the economy including agriculture, tourism and mining and make the country a competitive player on the regional and global knowledge based economy. Currently the sector has established models for ICT enabled learning environment for the education sector, Community Information Centres, e-farming applications and other e-government programmes.

Amidst these positive developments, progress in the sector has also been undermined by shortage of financing and supply of electricity affecting smooth utilisation of ICTs. Other challenges that are clearly articulated in the 2012 National ICT Policy Framework include the inadequate communications infrastructure, inadequate ICT facilities, inadequate ICT skills especially in the shortage of skilled human resources in unrolling ICT, unsatisfactory and in some cases overlapping institutional arrangements, inadequate financial resources, inadequate data management systems in place due to legislation that mandates legal requirements for the use and management of data. Opportunities need to be explored to further enhance access and usage of ICTs, which should include a focus on addressing the gender gap. Only 18% of women and 24% of men aged 15-24 years had used a computer during the last 12 months while 22% of women and 31% of men had used the internet in that same period.

While still nascent, the use of telecommunications and introduction of tele-cash in micro, Small and Medium Enterprises sector hold positive promise that has not been fully exploited, especially in the rural and hard to reach areas across the country. During the next ZUNDAF rollout there is opportunity to support this budding sub-sector which has potential for employment creation and the chance to boost money flow and improve business activity in that sector. Civil society has made some innovative inroads that require further research and financial support.

3.2.8 Rural and Urban Poverty
Zimbabwe is experiencing high and widespread poverty and inequality which is presenting major challenges to the country’s economy and people’s wellbeing, including the rural, urban and working poor. Poverty in Zimbabwe is measured using a per capita consumption approach that uses the Total Consumption Poverty Line (TCPL) and Food Poverty Line (FPL). 62.6% of Zimbabwe households are poor as displayed by the per capita consumption expenditures below the TCPL. Of these poor households, 76% live in rural areas compared to 38.2% in urban areas. Using the FPL, 16.2% of Zimbabwe households are experiencing extreme poverty. The results show that 22.9% of these extremely poor households are in rural areas compared to 4% in urban areas.

---

88 Ibid.
89 ZIMSTAT, 2014, *Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS)*.
90 Total Consumption Poverty Line (TCPL) is the minimum consumption expenditure required by an individual to meet the basic food and non-food requirement per month.
91 Food Poverty Line (FPL) is the minimum consumption expenditure necessary to ensure each household member can consume minimum food requirements of 2100 kilocalories a day.
areas. Besides understanding the prevalence of poverty in terms of head count, it is essential that we also appreciate the intensity of the problem measured by the poverty gap index as well as the degree of inequality among the poor measured using a poverty severity index. Table 3.4 below shows that poverty is far worse and widespread in rural areas than urban areas.

The poverty gap index among people in rural areas is 42.8% compared to 15.5% in urban areas. Among the rural poor, the degree of inequality is also widespread indicating a 25.4% poverty severity index as compared to 7.2% in urban areas. This indicates that poverty in rural areas is not only widespread, but it is deeper and more severe than in urban areas.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3.4: Poverty Indices by Place of Origin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Prevalence % of Poverty Indices</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Residence</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>People</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: ZIMSTAT, 2013: Poverty and Poverty Datum Line Analysis in Zimbabwe 2011/12*

In terms of trends, household poverty prevalence in Zimbabwe in 1995 was 63.3% and came down to 60.6% in 2001 but has since slightly risen to 62.6% in 2012. As reflected in Figure 3.5, although a decrease in rural poverty was recorded in the Income, Consumption and Expenditure Survey in 2001 from the 1995 levels, after sixteen years, the situation has been reversed to original levels of 1995. However, the country has done well in terms of addressing the levels of extreme poverty over the years. The spectra of high poverty levels and the neglect of meaningful investment in rural areas is caused by poor investment in infrastructure and lack of resourcing for rural based economic pillars including agriculture and livestock development. While the urban economy is de-industrialising, the rural economy is getting more underdeveloped, both suffering from lack of public sector investments and well executed policy framework across sectors and ministries.

**Figure 3.5:** Household measured Prevalence of Poverty in 1995, 2001 and 2011.

---

There is significant variation in prevalence of poverty among households within and across provinces. Matabeleland North, Mashonaland Central, Matabeleland South, Manicaland and Mashonaland West provinces have poverty prevalence levels of above 70% \(^{94}\). However, Matabeleland North Province has the highest rate of poverty with the prevalence of household poverty standing at 81.7% and extreme poverty at 36.9% as seen in Table 3.5. In fact, compared to other provinces, Matabeleland North is the most affected province in terms of each poverty index with a poverty gap index of 44.8% and a poverty severity index of 28.3%. As reflected in the Table 3.5, those provinces with a high prevalence of poverty are also those with the most severe poverty.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Percentage of Poor Households</th>
<th>Poverty (%)</th>
<th>Extreme Poverty (%)</th>
<th>Poverty Gap Index (%)</th>
<th>Poverty Severity Index (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Manicaland</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>70.6</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>32.2</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mashonaland Central</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>75.4</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mashonaland East</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>67.0</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mashonaland West</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>72.4</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matabeleland North</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>81.7</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>44.8</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matabeleland South</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>70.8</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midlands</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>67.0</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masvingo</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>63.7</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulawayo</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harare</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Zimbabwe</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>62.6</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of geographic location, rural poverty is more prevalent in communal areas (79.4%) followed by resettlement areas (76.4%) \(^{95}\). Of concern and reflected in Table 3.6, is that a household whose head has communal or resettlement farming as main activity is more likely to be poor or extremely poor compared to households headed by permanent or even causal employees. This

\(^{94}\) Ibid.
\(^{95}\) ZIMSTAT, 2013, Poverty, Income, Consumption and Expenditure Survey 2011/2012.
statistic is worrying as more than 67% of the population resides in rural areas and are largely dependent on farming⁹⁶.

**Table 3.6: Prevalence of Household Poverty by Main Activity of Household Head**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Activity</th>
<th>Place of Residence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permanent paid employee</td>
<td>41.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casual/temporary employee</td>
<td>66.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employer</td>
<td>32.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communal Farmer</td>
<td>81.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resettlement Farmer</td>
<td>80.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other own account worker</td>
<td>72.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>72.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In terms of gender, overall incidence of poverty in male headed households (62.9%) is comparatively similar to female headed households (62%) as shown in Table 3.7. Although on average, female headed households are worse off in terms of poverty, when it comes to extreme poverty, male headed households constitute 17% which is higher than in female headed households at 14.7 %, showing that there is substantial poverty amongst male headed households as well. Table 3.7 also shows that female widows experience high levels of poverty at 68.9% compared to 54.7 % of males.

**Table 3.7: Household Poverty by Male Headed and Female Headed Households.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Headship</th>
<th>Prevalence (%)</th>
<th>Poverty Indices (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poverty</td>
<td>Extreme Poverty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Headed</td>
<td>62.9</td>
<td>17.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>De facto</td>
<td>65.7</td>
<td>18.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>54.7</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never married</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Headed</td>
<td>62.0</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>De facto</td>
<td>61.6</td>
<td>13.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>49.5</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>68.9</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never married</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The causes of poverty are multifaceted and exhibit a complex interaction of structural chronic poverty\(^\text{97}\) combined with transient\(^\text{98}\) poverty. Various literature\(^\text{99,100}\) link structural poverty to colonial history of Zimbabwe that created inequalities between blacks and whites. The bottlenecks for black Zimbabweans included access to economic and natural resources, unequal access to land, education and employment opportunities. These historical bottlenecks still perpetuate the levels of poverty particularly in rural areas. In addition, the consequences of the Liberation War in the 1960 to 1980s exacerbated the economic hardships. Poverty was systematically generated and sustained in the colonial period and the consequences of this system continue to the present day despite attempts by government to redress the situation since independence in 1980.

Over the years, many factors have also generated transient poverty which is also build on top of structural chronic poverty. These factors include climate variability and change causing increased frequencies of droughts and floods, negative impact of a declining economy, limited employment and job opportunities, under-employment, HIV and AIDS, unreliability of agriculture especially in communal areas and resettlement areas and unsatisfactory quality of education particularly in rural areas.

### 3.3 Summary of Challenges and Opportunities

The economy is faced with massive challenges that are reflected in Table 3.8. Behind some of the economic challenges in Zimbabwe are the restrictive measures that have been put in place by some donors and have impacted on the country’s ability to access international funding. There is also macroeconomic mismanagement, poor governance structures, convoluted reporting lines and structures, lack of transparency and accountability and corruption. In addition, the inconsistency in interpretation and application of policies particularly the indigenisation policy, the land and agriculture policies are a deterrent to foreign investment. Another underlying cause of the economic challenges are negative perceptions which have direct negative correlation to its marketability internationally especially in critical sectors of tourism, mining, agriculture.

The acute liquidity shortages are cascading to affect the economy in its entirety, thereby placing huge burdens on the social and productive sectors of the country. Interest rates are high and uncompetitive, a result of shortage of funds in the market, a factor which has a negative effect on the economy as a whole. There is a continued shrinking of the formal private sector and a balloonining informal economy characterised by low productivity and serious decent work deficits. Capacity utilisation levels in the manufacturing sector are also declining on the back of reduced domestic economic activity. The result of this situation is the loss of jobs and erosion of tax revenue base for the government. The underperforming economy is the principal cause of unemployment, especially for youth. As such, in an economy characterised by a slowdown in economic activity,

\(^{97}\) Structural chronic poverty emanates from the socioeconomic, political and cultural dynamics and institutions. It is experienced over the long term and is often transferred inter-generationally.

\(^{98}\) Transient poverty is due to cyclical or temporary factors and is experienced over shorter periods of time such as droughts, economic reform programmes, inflation, technological changes etc.


\(^{100}\) Chipika, J. T., 2007, *Greener Pastures in the City – Fact or Fiction?: A Think Piece on Urban Poverty and the Current Food Crisis in Zimbabwe: Causes and Consequences.* Produced for The Center for Applied Social Studies (CASS) University of Zimbabwe, Regional Hunger and Vulnerability Project (RHVP).
declining per capita income and high unemployment and underemployment it is no surprise that poverty is high and becoming more widespread and more severe, particularly in rural areas.

Table 3.8: Economy, Employment and Poverty Challenges and Opportunities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges</th>
<th>Opportunities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Liquidity constraints.</td>
<td>• Provisions in the Constitution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Low average incomes, savings and investment.</td>
<td>• Zim Asset operationalization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• High and increasing unemployment and poverty.</td>
<td>• Price stability in the multicurrency system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Industrial infrastructure decay.</td>
<td>• Prospects from Zim Asset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Declining average industrial capacity utilisation.</td>
<td>• Enabling migration policy and governance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Company closures and scaling down of operations.</td>
<td>environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Shrinking formal sector and tax revenue base.</td>
<td>• Human resource capital and the youth demographic dividend.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Power and water challenges.</td>
<td>• Harnessing the informal and rural economy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Large Government external debt burden.</td>
<td>• Growth in ICT use and application.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Weak corporate governance in public and private sector.</td>
<td>• Reengagement with key players in the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Limited engagement with international community.</td>
<td>international community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Infrastructure rehabilitation and upgrading.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Green economy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are prospects from the Constitution in terms of creating an environment for improved governance and accountability and increased business confidence that should stimulate economic activity in all sectors including agriculture, mining, tourism, and service sectors. The foundation of the economic stabilization policies will be based on government’s consistency in emphasising macroeconomic stability, poverty reduction and development in general. Other opportunities include the political stability that exists after harmonised elections and the prospects that can be realised from the implementation of the Zim Asset.

3.4 Options for Action

After the 2013 elections major challenges have included policy inconsistencies, reversals and uncertainties, liquidity crunch, debt overhang and low levels of investment. The Government needs to expeditiously increase policy clarity and create certainty in business investment policies including the indigenisation and agriculture policies. Efforts should be put to create positive perceptions that help generate confidence for foreign direct investments.

The objectives of the Zim Asset are aligned to the MDGs and fit very well into the planned draft Sustainable Development Goals and the ZUNDAF rollout plans. However, the success of Zim Asset hinges on addressing underlying structural rigidities and bottlenecks inhibiting the rehabilitation of infrastructure and other key enablers like energy and adequate supply of clean water. It also requires the unlocking of domestic and foreign investment, conducive investment policies, improved governance and economic performance by public sector institutions, the speedy
resolution of the country’s debt, and effective efforts to stop corruption and maladministration. Without improved performance at the state enterprises and a decisive check on corruption, the Zim Asset will remain heavily compromised, as any growth will largely remain confined to the informal sector which will consequently remain shallow.

The manufacturing subsector requires an urgent rescue plan that includes the injection of finance, new management structures, local-international partnerships and an overall linkage of this subsector to the rest of the economy to revive its fortunes. The longer it lays dormant the harder it becomes to turn it around because the equipment and machinery become obsolete, labour migrates and product substitution takes place, especially from foreign markets. In the next cycle of recovery in the manufacturing sector, there is opportunity to review and recycle the priority types of manufacturing companies that are needed in Zimbabwe.

There are clearly direct connections and interlinkages between the economy and other thematic and sectoral challenges affecting Zimbabwe. For example, the poor economic fundamentals bring huge burdens to social sectors and overstretch basic social delivery systems. This in turn has a direct negative impact on poverty alleviation strategies and the development of resilience programmes by the Government. Poor Governance and poor respect for upholding human rights and of rule of law and the effectiveness of a justice delivery system negatively impacts access, availability and equitable handling national resources, basic social services like health and education, food and nutrition and the advancement of women’s empowerment. During the ZUNDAF rollout such cross thematic issues should be explored and brought into the planning cycle of the ZUNDAF, in relationship with the Zim Asset policy pronouncements.

Finally, the potential of young people must be harnessed and therefore the skills mismatch, effective school to work transition and entrepreneurship development need to be addressed. Aggressive job creation strategies and programmes in sectors, such as agriculture and ICT are crucial, not only youth but for all, if poverty is to be reduced.
4 AGRICULTURE, LANDS AND ENVIRONMENT

4.1 Overview

Zimbabwe is a land locked country and relies mainly on agriculture and mining. Agriculture is considered the backbone of Zimbabwe’s economy as it provides more than 70% of employment. However, 2013/2014 estimates indicate that it contributes about 13% of the national Gross Domestic Product annually. Zimbabwe does not have a functional long term agricultural policy as the one that was crafted in 1995 to cover the period up to 2020 was rendered non-operational by the changes brought about by the land reform programme. A draft agricultural policy, developed with assistance from FAO, is currently going through approval processes. However, there are key strategic policies that guide the sector. These include: policies reflected in the Zim Asset, the Zimbabwe Agriculture Investment Plan, the Land Reform Policy, the Environmental Management Act and other sectoral plans. Zim Asset policy on agriculture is to ensure food and nutrition security at household and national level, increased agriculture production, productivity and product quality. Agriculture is considered a key driver to economic development and growth. Similarly, the 2013-2017 Zimbabwe Agriculture Investment Plan has the objective ‘to facilitate a sustainable increase in production, productivity and competitiveness of Zimbabwean agriculture through building capacity of farmers and institutions, improving the quantity and quality of public, private and development partner investment and alignment.’ The Zimbabwe Agriculture Investment Plan is structured on the following four pillars:

i. Increasing production and productivity through improved management and sustainable use of land, water, forestry and wildlife resources.

ii. Increasing participation of farmers in domestic and export markets through development of an efficient agricultural marketing system and an enabling environment for competitive agricultural production, investment and trade.

iii. Ensuring food and nutritional security by facilitating a cohesive multisectoral agricultural response.

iv. Improving agricultural research, technology dissemination and adoption.

The land issue under the Land Reform Policy - the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP) since 2000 has not been fully addressed. The land reform policy created small to medium sized land holdings (A1 and A2 farms) from what were previously large scale commercial farms into smallholder plots and farms. The implementation of the FTLRP brought in significant changes in the agrarian sector with the most notable being shifts in agricultural production and marketing patterns, although such changes are considered common where extensive land reforms were implemented. There are concerns particularly relating to the inadequate security of tenure, inadequate development of support institutions, inconsistent procedures of land administration, and unclear compensation models for current and future displaced farmers and their workers.

105 Ibid.
The current land use policy in Zimbabwe does not incorporate climate change. Although there is designation of land into land use categories such as forests and woodlands, rangelands and agricultural land in the resettled and communal areas, there is limited implementation of these restrictions\textsuperscript{106}. In addition, Zimbabwe has many underutilized small to medium sized dams and dilapidated small irrigation schemes that could be used as a basis for increased productivity and production of high value commodities by smallholders\textsuperscript{107}. Hence, the Government is currently finalising a new Irrigation Policy to guide irrigation development and procedures in the sector.

The Environmental Management Act (Chapter 20:27) provides for the sustainable management of natural resources and protection of the environment. In terms of implementation, the 2013 Government has created the Ministry of Environment, Water and Climate in recognition of the threat of climate change on the economy and livelihoods and particularly on agriculture, land and the environment. A Climate Change Response Strategy\textsuperscript{108} is currently being finalized, which will ensure that climate change response is mainstreamed in all sectors. For agriculture, land and environment, the strategy provides a framework for strengthening and implementing the climate and disaster management policy, promoting conservation agriculture, rehabilitating irrigation, promoting drought high yielding and heat tolerant varieties and finally promoting biofuels and renewable energy.

4.2 Analysis of Issues

4.2.1 Agricultural Production and Productivity

4.2.1.1 Small Grain Production and Productivity

Figure 4.1 shows that area planted to small grains has been fluctuating since 2000 reaching a peak in 2009, after which it has been decreasing till 2013. A similar trend has also been observed in the recent Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee (ZimVAC) assessments. Fewer households planted small grains in the 2012/13 season compared to the previous season because people find the small grains unpalatable and too labour intensive\textsuperscript{109}. Production and yield have also followed a similar

\textsuperscript{109} ZimVAC, 2013, Rural Livelihoods Assessment.
trend since 2000. The low yields for small grains are attributed to poor rainfall season and the widespread use of retained seed in 48% of households\textsuperscript{110}.

It is now understood that some of the key policy drivers of crop production trends in the country are controlled prices for agricultural inputs and commodities\textsuperscript{111}. For example, controlled prices of maize and wheat led to a gradual switch by the large-scale commercial farmers from producing them to other non-price controlled crops such as tobacco and cotton\textsuperscript{112}. Further, low productivity that is prevalent for most commodities is due to the lack of domestic and foreign investments into agriculture with the deteriorating economic conditions, recurrent droughts and overreliance on rain fed agriculture\textsuperscript{113}.

4.2.1.2 Maize Production and Productivity

Maize is Zimbabwe’s staple food and most commonly grown crop by a majority of households\textsuperscript{114}. It is partly for this reason that food security is usually associated with maize production. Figure 4.2 shows the maize production trend from 2000 to 2013, which reflects an unstable trend over the years, with cycles of sharp increases in some years and sharp declines in others. This generally can be attributed to the turbulent climatic conditions, particularly in 2002 and the impact of high food prices experienced in 2008 in combination with poor rainfall conditions.

The fluctuations in maize yields have also followed the same pattern as the production trends as shown in Figure 4.3 below. Several crop assessment reports show that yield decreases are largely affected by poor rainfall season quality and widespread use of retained seed\textsuperscript{115,116}.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{maize_production_trend.png}
\caption{Maize Production Trend (2000-2013)}
\end{figure}

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{maize_production_area.png}
\caption{Areas Planted, Production and Yield Trends for Maize from 2000-2010}
\end{figure}

\textsuperscript{110} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{112} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{113} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{114} 80% of households grew maize in 2012/2013 season compared to 79% in 2011/12 season. Groundnuts came next with 32% of households planting the crop, 6% lower than last season. (ZimVAC, 2013, Rural Livelihoods Assessment).
\textsuperscript{116} ZimVAC, 2013, Rural Livelihoods Assessment.
A positive picture has been observed for the 2013/14 season in terms of maize production which has mainly been a result of a good normal rainfall season that impacted positively on the agriculture season in general. As indicated in Figure 4.4 and Table 4.1 below, the 2013/2014 season had significant positive impact on maize production in all provinces except for the peri-urban areas.

Total national maize production was 46% higher in 2013/2014 than in 2012/13 with Matabeleland South recording the greatest rate of increase of 78% followed by Midlands and Masvingo each with 58%. Such a scenario shows that even the most vulnerable and dry areas have potential for increasing maize production under favourable rainfall conditions, in combination with other factors.

Table 4.1 below is comparing total maize production, yields and area planted the 2012/2013 and 2013/2014 seasons across provinces. Total area planted to maize increased in all provinces with Matabeleland South recording the highest rate of increase at 63% and Manicaland with the least rate of increase at 13%. Mashonaland West and Mashonaland Central had the highest average yields for maize at 1.28 T/Ha and 1.27 T/Ha respectively. Despite an increase in national maize yields for 2012/2013 compared to 2011/2012, the country still has

**Figure 4.4: Maize production (MT) by Province**

high productivity gaps compared to regional averages, for example in Zambia (2.54 t/ha), Malawi (2.21 t/ha) and South Africa (4.16 t/ha).\(^{117}\)

### Table 4.1: Maize Production, Yields and Area Planted by Province

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Total Production (T)</th>
<th>% chng</th>
<th>2012/13</th>
<th>Average Yields (T/Ha)</th>
<th>% chng</th>
<th>2012/13</th>
<th>2013/14</th>
<th>% chng</th>
<th>Total Area Planted (Ha)</th>
<th>% chng</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mash West</td>
<td>175,002</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>224,362</td>
<td>265,714</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mash Central</td>
<td>157,050</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>144,083</td>
<td>193,320</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mash East</td>
<td>98,732</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>156,719</td>
<td>201,589</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manicaland</td>
<td>138,454</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>189,663</td>
<td>217,648</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midlands</td>
<td>100,740</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>239,856</td>
<td>351,829</td>
<td>32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masvingo</td>
<td>49,570</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>150,213</td>
<td>216,062</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mat North</td>
<td>36,204</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100,566</td>
<td>131,273</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mat South</td>
<td>17,010</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>47,251</td>
<td>127,239</td>
<td>63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peri-urban</td>
<td>20,037</td>
<td>-7</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>-40</td>
<td>12,523</td>
<td>16,354</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>798,596</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>1,265,236</td>
<td>1,721,028</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** GoZ, Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanization and Irrigation Development, 2014 and Second Round Crop and Livestock Assessment Report, 23 April 2014.

The greatest contribution to national maize production comes from communal areas followed by A1 farmers. As reflected in Table 4.2, the communal areas contributed 38% in 2012/13 and 45% in 2013/2014 seasons. Maize produced in the communal areas more than doubled during the 2013/2014 season, although the yields in this sector are still very poor. The average maize productivity in small scale farming areas averaged 0.79 MT/Hectare between 2009 and 2012.\(^{118}\) The productivity gap is very high compared 2.54 MT/Hectare in Zambia, 2.21 MT in Malawi and 4.16 MT in South Africa.\(^{119}\)

### Table 4.2: Sectoral Contribution to Maize Production (MT)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Production (MT)</th>
<th>% Increase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2012/13</td>
<td>2013/14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>303,521</td>
<td>636,274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR</td>
<td>78,500</td>
<td>131,137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSCA</td>
<td>28,571</td>
<td>47,103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>188,120</td>
<td>322,663</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>179,811</td>
<td>285,667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peri-urban</td>
<td>20,073</td>
<td>18,644</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>798,596</td>
<td>1,456,153</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### 4.2.1.3 Livestock Production

As reflected in Table 4.3 below, almost all provinces recorded marginal increases in cattle numbers except for Mashonaland Central which experienced a drop for 2013/14 compared to the 2012/2013 levels. Sheep production seems to be a challenge in half of the provinces located in the wetter regions. This is also reflected at a national level, where the country experienced a drop in sheep production numbers during the 2013/14 season.

### Table 4.3: Livestock Numbers by Species by Province

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Cattle</th>
<th>Sheep</th>
<th>Goats</th>
<th>Pigs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mash West</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mash Central</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mash East</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manicaland</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midlands</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masvingo</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mat North</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mat South</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peri-urban</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Constraints to livestock production include diseases and the shortage of feed and water\(^{120}\). Opportunities, however, exist for improving livestock production in communal areas through breeding technologies and other technologies. There is also need for promotion of strategies to improve feed resource base including environmental conservation and improving nutritive value of the feed supported by improved extension services.

### 4.2.1.4 Land Management and Productivity

Land management and productivity under the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP) is mixed. A detailed study\(^{121}\) points to the gains and positive changes in livelihoods under land reform particularly of vulnerable populations such as women. However, such gains have also come with costs to land management and productivity. From a climate change perspective, it is estimated that a significant portion of the 8 million hectares of land distributed and cleared for crop production has led to the reduction of forests and woodlands which act as carbon sinks\(^{122}\). Additionally, the land reform exercise has also seen changes in tenure arrangements that govern ownership and management of rural land. Ownership of all rural land is now vested in the State, with beneficiaries being issued with instruments that range from “offer letters”, permits and 99 year leases. Lack of tenure is thought to be one of the major reasons why the resettled farmers do not have stewardship of their land resulting in high levels of deforestation and land degradation.

Studies show that agricultural production for some key commodities declined in volume as well as value terms since 2000 when compared to average outputs during the 1990’s although these declines are not uncommon where extensive land reforms were implemented\(^{123}\). The same study showed that crops that are traditionally considered as large scale commercial crops suffered significant declines. For example, when compared to the 1990s’ average production, only maize and wheat amongst the main food crops recorded declines (31% and 27%, respectively). Other food crops such as small grains, edible beans and groundnuts, recorded significant average

---


\(^{121}\) *Zimbabwe Takes Back its Land*. It draws on the substantial research and fieldwork on the 2000 land reform in Zimbabwe which has been carried out in the past decade, detailed research on the 1980s land reform, and fieldwork with farmers was carried out in Mashonaland Central and Mashonaland East Provinces in 2010 and 2011 with teams of researchers from the University of Zimbabwe and the Zimbabwe Women Farmers Land and Agricultural Trust.


\(^{123}\) Mujeyi, K., 2010, *Emerging agricultural markets and marketing channels within newly resettled areas of Zimbabwe*, in *Livelihoods after Land Reform in Zimbabwe Working Paper 1, Livelihoods after Land Reform Project, PLAAS, South Africa*,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mash West</td>
<td>739,442</td>
<td>773,569</td>
<td>132,135</td>
<td>130,021</td>
<td>105,789</td>
<td>111,003</td>
<td>81,217</td>
<td>85,278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mash Central</td>
<td>514,966</td>
<td>509,289</td>
<td>40,746</td>
<td>38,977</td>
<td>281,645</td>
<td>268,877</td>
<td>62,668</td>
<td>65,790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mash East</td>
<td>540,440</td>
<td>566,893</td>
<td>30,839</td>
<td>30,006</td>
<td>191,063</td>
<td>196,661</td>
<td>28,921</td>
<td>37,597</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manicaland</td>
<td>586,619</td>
<td>629,901</td>
<td>105,022</td>
<td>100,462</td>
<td>748,945</td>
<td>891,532</td>
<td>48,390</td>
<td>50,809</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midlands</td>
<td>689,175</td>
<td>712,693</td>
<td>91,330</td>
<td>93,796</td>
<td>531,034</td>
<td>499,703</td>
<td>22,576</td>
<td>26,904</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masvingo</td>
<td>1,039,013</td>
<td>1,039,666</td>
<td>17,084</td>
<td>17,904</td>
<td>357,612</td>
<td>368,722</td>
<td>24,403</td>
<td>25,623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mat North</td>
<td>574,918</td>
<td>610,708</td>
<td>33,148</td>
<td>34,176</td>
<td>996,586</td>
<td>1,030,708</td>
<td>16,845</td>
<td>17,687</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mat South</td>
<td>556,619</td>
<td>525,387</td>
<td>74,696</td>
<td>76,265</td>
<td>551,326</td>
<td>574,068</td>
<td>30,990</td>
<td>32,539</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>5,213,019</td>
<td>5,368,105</td>
<td>525,000</td>
<td>521,607</td>
<td>3,764,000</td>
<td>3,941,274</td>
<td>316,000</td>
<td>342,227</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

increases of 163%, 282% and 43%, respectively. The declines in the major staple cereals, maize and wheat, have been due to substantial reduction in the cropped area within the large scale commercial scale owing to the land reform.

The decline in productivity can also be linked to high levels of human mobility, with affected populations migrating internally and internationally as a livelihood coping strategy. For example, in 2012 a total of 629,953 persons were reported to have migrated out of their provinces of birth and taken residence in other provinces\textsuperscript{124}. Manicaland and Masvingo provinces were among the lowest migrant receiving provinces, and Harare and Bulawayo the highest\textsuperscript{125}. Given the profile of cross border migrants in South Africa, being predominantly male and of 28 years on average, this can also be correlated to decreased levels of productivity in agriculture.

On the contrary, the study on “Zimbabwe takes back its Land”\textsuperscript{126} found that the 2000 land reform had contributed significantly in agriculture production among smallholder farmers despite their limited resources. In this case, the Government had fared well in meeting its target on land allocation particularly by gender. For example, it set a target of 20% of farms being allocated to women, and of the 146,000 smaller A1 farms, 18% were allocated to women-headed households\textsuperscript{127}. Women were now increasingly inheriting land, which follows directly from campaigns to ensure that married couples had both names on the letters granting them their farms. In fact, despite the economic and political problems, the research found out that the 2000 land reform farmers quietly expanded their farms, supporting themselves and providing an increased amount of food.

4.2.2 Environmental Sustainability and Climate Change

Zimbabwe has an abundant and diversified natural resource base consisting of both land and water resources including minerals. The forestry resources cover approximately 66% of the total land area\textsuperscript{128}. However the ecosystem has come under threat in the past decade caused by many socioeconomic and political factors. For example, in 2010, total forested area in Zimbabwe was 15.6 million hectares at a forest loss rate of 327,000 hectares per year\textsuperscript{129}. These figures suggest that the rate of deforestation is now three times the estimated average over the period 1985 to 1992. In fact, from 1990 to 2010, the country was among the top ten countries with the largest annual net loss of forest area. Table 4.4 shows the forest cover trends in Zimbabwe.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Land Cover Category</th>
<th>Area (1000 Ha)</th>
<th>1990</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Forest</td>
<td>22,164</td>
<td>18,894</td>
<td>17,259</td>
<td>15,624</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{125} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{127} Ibid.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Land Type</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Other Land</td>
<td>16,529</td>
<td>19,791</td>
<td>21,426</td>
<td>23,061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inland Water bodies</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39,076</td>
<td>39,076</td>
<td>39,076</td>
<td>39,076</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Human activities are major threats to Zimbabwe’s environment. In the past decade the impacts of climate change associated with devastating droughts and floods have exacerbated these threats to the environment. The challenges associated with environmental degradation are largely caused by deforestation, soil erosion, land degradation as well as air and water pollution.\(^\text{130}\) It is reported that the rate of clearance of woodland in both the commercial and resettlement areas has increased markedly following the changes in land tenure associated with the Land Reform Programme.\(^\text{131}\) Factors contributing to the high rate of deforestation and degradation across the country include clearance for agriculture, over-exploitation for fuel wood, expansion of urban and rural settlements, infrastructure development, inadequate land use planning, elephant damage in some national parks and safari areas and frequent late dry season fires.\(^\text{132, 133}\) For example, the clearing of forests for agricultural expansion (which is the major reason for loss of forest biodiversity) has resulted in a 12% increase of agricultural land.\(^\text{134}\) Other causes of deforestation and forest degradation include population pressure in communal areas, effects of veldt fires, collection of non-timber products for medicinal purposes, commercial timber and tobacco curing.\(^\text{135}\) The other challenges relate to information management and effective and timely implementation of environmental policy and legislation.

The lack of updated environment statistics is a major challenge, suggesting a lack of a comprehensive and centrally managed information management system. Perhaps the ongoing preparations of Zimbabwe’s fourth state of the environment report will provide a much better insight in terms of trends and status of the sector for better planning and management purposes. Enforcement of the Environmental Management Act (Chapter 20:27) has been a challenge due to the lack of both human and financial resources.\(^\text{136}\) The differences in interpretation of the statutes across government institutions compound the implementation challenge. Similarly, the successful implementation and enforcement of environmental statutes is hindered by low levels of awareness amongst the judiciary and the police.\(^\text{137}\)

Other challenges in environmental sustainability are mainly due to highly sectoral and compartmentalized understanding of development issues, competing demands of economic and industrial development and resource conservation, pollution control and, capacity of Government

---


\(^{132}\) Ibid.


\(^{134}\) USAID, 2012. Zimbabwe’s Biodiversity and Tropical Forest Assessment (118/119).


\(^{137}\) Ibid.
departments to integrate environmental concerns in their plans and strategies which are severely constrained by poor management and a lack of information.

4.2.3 Climate Change

The Zimbabwe economy and livelihoods are under stress due to a number of socioeconomic, environmental and political factors. Climate variability and change are compounding the impacts of these multiple stressors on people’s wellbeing and livelihoods. The country’s dependence on rain fed agriculture coupled with its low adaptive capacity makes the impacts profound. However, the government has demonstrated its commitment to addressing the climate change challenges by creating the Ministry of Environment, Water and Climate and developing a National Climate Change Response Strategy (currently being finalised)\(^{138}\) to ensure climate change is mainstreamed in all sectors of the economy.

Whilst the most important variables for understanding climate were traditionally rainfall and temperature, wind is becoming an equally important parameter. Zimbabwe has experienced a warming trend particularly towards the end of the twentieth century, with the annual mean temperature increasing by about 0.4\(^\circ\)C since 1900\(^{139}\). In fact, the 1990s decade has been the warmest during the last century and it was experienced more during the dry season. There have also been increases in both minimum and maximum temperatures over Zimbabwe. Reports from the Zimbabwe Meteorological Service show that daily minimum temperatures have risen by approximately 2.6\(^\circ\)C over the last century while daily maximum temperatures have risen by 2\(^\circ\)C during the same period.

**Figure 4.5:** National Rainfall Deviation.

Rainfall is highly variable in Zimbabwe in both spatial and temporal terms as demonstrated in Figure 4.5 above. Although Zimbabwe does not show any aggregate long term trends in levels of rainfall, it appears that the timing and amount of rainfall received in any given season are becoming increasingly uncertain. In addition, from 1950 to 2010, the length and frequency of dry spells during the rainfall season has been increasing while the frequency of rain days has been decreasing. It has been generally observed that competing responses (such as an increasing number of dry

---


days, coupled with increases in rainfall intensity), working at different timescales, tend to mask climate change signals in time averaged total rainfall across the country. Catchments such as Mzingwane Catchment have recorded a 15.3% decrease in annual rainfall over the 1900-2000 period as seen in Table 4.5 below.

Table 4.5: Rainfall in Zimbabwe Currently and During 1900-2000.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Catchment</th>
<th>Current Average Rainfall (mm)</th>
<th>% Decrease in Rainfall between 1900-2000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mzingwane</td>
<td>473</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Save</td>
<td>778.7</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanyati</td>
<td>716</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Runde</td>
<td>591.9</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gwayi</td>
<td>608.3</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mazowe</td>
<td>825.7</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manyame</td>
<td>806.4</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Moyo E.N., 2013, Evidence of Climate of Change in Zimbabwe, Presentation made at the Parliamentarian Workshop, Harare. [Data source: Met Office]

Although requiring further detailed and comprehensive study, research now shows that climate change has caused a shift in Zimbabwe’s agro-ecological zones. For example, this research shows that Chinhoyi and Chivero have shifted from natural region II to natural region III. Furthermore, natural region I has reduced in size, natural region II has shifted further east and natural region III has shifted to the north. These indications have significant impacts to the livelihood zones and patterns of the country and consequent impacts on people’s livelihood strategies, especially within agriculture.

At a global level, the level of confidence is very high to support that agriculture production and food security, water resources and other ecosystems will suffer greatly from the impact of climate change. Most studies conducted in Zimbabwe using different Global Circulation Models and crop models show declining trends in maize and sorghum yields under climate change. Maize yields are expected to decrease by 12% to 25%. Despite, the high tendency for maize production in the region, the crop is highly susceptible to erratic, poor or irregular rainfall occurrences particularly at flowering stage. In addition, the inter-annual variability of the maize

The growing season is critical in determining its development and growth\textsuperscript{146}. Recent vulnerability assessments in Zimbabwe show that areas regarded ‘excellent’ for maize will decrease from the current 75\% to 55\% by 2080 under the worst case scenario\textsuperscript{147}. A reduction in sorghum yields by 22\% has also been calculated\textsuperscript{148}. An important finding in these studies is the critical effect of temperature rather than the rainfall variability. Soil conditions as well as crop variety will be critical in minimising the losses\textsuperscript{149}. A most important aspect is the difference between the well fertilised crops and those with low fertility which are affected by very small amounts. The differences in impact are due to the major stress of soil fertility and not water shortage.

Besides the agriculture sector, climate change will also affect groundwater systems, surface waters, environment and the economic sectors. Surface waters will suffer from high losses of evaporation caused by high temperatures emanating from climate change. It is predicted that water lost through evaporation will increase between 4 to 25\% in the river basins due to climate change\textsuperscript{150}. Some studies have also investigated the differentiated impacts of climate change by age, gender and health, demonstrating that responses should be evidenced based\textsuperscript{151}. These studies have indicated that vulnerability to climate variability and climate change is place and context specific and people are affected differently within and/or between countries\textsuperscript{152}. Therefore adaptation to climate variability and change will depend on the opportunities created at different contextual environments. For example, a study found that access to resources, security of rights and tenure, farm size and soil fertility as well as health status are some of the important factors that support adaptation to climate change\textsuperscript{153}. Of those affected in southern Africa, the poor and those living in marginal areas as well as women and children will suffer the most\textsuperscript{154}.


\textsuperscript{147} Murwira, A., 2013, Assessing vulnerability to climate change in Zimbabwe: Chirezi District Case Study, University of Zimbabwe, Geography and environmental Science, GIS and Earth Observation Centre- Paper presented at the Seminar of Climate Change and VAA in the SADC Region.

\textsuperscript{148} Dimes, J. P., Cooper, P., and Rao, K. P. C., 2009, Climate change impact on crop productivity in the semi-arid tropics of Zimbabwe in the 21\textsuperscript{st} Century. Available at http://www.waternetonline.ihe.nl/challengeprogram/p78\%20dimes\%20climate\%20change.pdf

\textsuperscript{149} Ibid.

\textsuperscript{150} Brown et al., 2012, Page 9.

\textsuperscript{151} Swedish Cooperative Centre: Climate change and Gender Impacts in Zimbabwe (ii) Meeting the Health Needs of People Living with HIV and AIDS in the framework of Climate Change in Zimbabwe: Case of Support Groups of People Living with HIV and AIDS in Mashonaland by Verengai Mabika, Development reality Institute. These have been summarised in Brown et al., 2012, Page 9.


4.2.4 Disaster Risk Management

The concept of disaster management has evolved from that referring to civil defense to civil protection, into what is comprehensively understood to be Disaster Risk Management (DRM) bringing about positive changes on how disasters are understood and addressed in Zimbabwe. DRM is described in the Disaster Risk Management Bill, 2011 as the systematic development and application of administrative decisions, organisation, operational skills and responsibilities to apply policies, strategies and practices for DRM. DRM specifically implies elements of information management, prevention, mitigation and strengthening resilience, preparedness and response and early recovery. Zimbabwe faces disaster risks which are triggered by natural and anthropogenic hazards. These hazards are classified into hydro-meteorological, geological, biological, technological and those related to environmental degradation.

Drought is the most common hazard and accounted for six out of ten top major disasters between 1991 and 2013 as shown in Table 4.6. Evidence suggests that the frequency and magnitude of extreme events such as droughts and floods will increase in future in association with global warming. The 2001 drought stands out as the having the highest number of people affected at a total of close to half of the country’s population (6,000,000 people). The impacts of droughts are multiple and long lasting affecting all facets of the economy and cuts across all sectors. The most vulnerable areas are those found in regions IV and V, with women and children, single headed and child headed families likely to be most affected.

In addressing the drought impact, the government has structured institutional systems that runs through all community structure levels composed of local government structures, including the

Table 4.6: Top Ten Natural Disasters in Zimbabwe 1991-2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disaster</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total Affected</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Drought</td>
<td>1991</td>
<td>5,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epidemic</td>
<td>1996</td>
<td>500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drought</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>55,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flood</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>266,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drought</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>6,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flood</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drought</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>2,100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epidemic</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>98,349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drought</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>1,667,618</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drought</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>2,200,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


156 GOZ, 2011, Disaster Risk Management Strategy 2012-2015, Draft 1  
157 Disaster means a serious disruption of the functioning of a community or society causing widespread human, material, economic or environmental losses which exceed the ability of the affected community to cope using its own resources (see Disaster Risk Management Bill, 2011, Page5).  
158 CRED, 2014, EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database  
Drought Relief and Civil Protection Committees. There is also strong collaboration from several government ministries and development partners. The Government’s commitment to DRM has led to the development of the Draft 2011 Disaster Risk Management Strategy and the Draft 2011 Disaster Risk Management Bill and Policy which are meant to restructure and strengthen the Department of Civil Protection to the Department of Disaster Risk Management.

Floods also present challenges as they usually occur every year. As shown in the table above, the number of those affected by floods was significant in the years 2000 and 2001. For example, records show that in 2000, Cyclone Eline induced floods in the Zambezi Basin left 90 people dead and over 250,000 people affected and resulted in approximately US$7.5 million in economic losses. Women and children, single headed and child headed families tend to be the most affected population groups while homes, roads, telephone and electricity supply equipment, agricultural assets, crops, domestic and wild animals can also wash away.

Recent trends have shown an increase in the short lived tornado like violent storms whose strong winds often accompanied by hailstorms are destructive to life, infrastructure, property and agricultural produce. The most recent ones include the Micro and Macrobursts which cost Chiredzi’s Chilonga communities, Gonarezhou National Park and Rutenga millions of dollars over a short space of time in April 2013. Other cases include Mount Darwin’s Kamutsenzere communities in November 2012, Chivi in December 2012, Bindura in February 2013 and West Nicholson-Mberenga case in April 2013.

Zimbabwe also faces various biological and environmental hazards that are a threat to human and animal populations. For example, the likelihood and frequency of gastrointestinal infections (cholera, typhoid and dysentery) is high throughout Zimbabwe due to inadequate provision of safe water, sanitation, personal hygiene practices and lack of resources to sustain awareness campaigns particularly in urban areas. This challenge is exacerbated by skewed focus on preparedness and response instead of prevention and the lack of long term investment in water sanitation and hygiene (WASH) infrastructure. Environmental degradation is caused by veld fires, pollution (air, water and land pollution), mining, deforestation, land degradation (gully formation, erosions and land collapse) stream bank cultivation, improper wetland utilisation, alien invasive species, over utilisation of arable land and human-wildlife conflict.

4.3 Summary of Challenges and Opportunities
Zimbabwe’s agriculture, land and environment sectors are pivotal to economic stability and growth. The growth and development of agriculture support the improvement and growth of the other sectors of the economy such as industry and specifically environment and land use and productivity. As summarised in Table 4.8 below, there are challenges around low production of both crop and livestock caused by limited inputs such as seed, fertilizers, enough water for irrigation, or in the case of livestock farming, enough vaccinations to ensure the prevention of diseases. Low production is also caused by limited productive farm technologies which

---

164 ibid
subsequently lead to low yield and output as well as the absence of human capital due to internal and cross border migration. Yet another crucial factor is the market conditions and structures that have impacted on input and output markets and efficient price setting mechanisms. The low performance of the agriculture sector weighs down sectors like manufacturing and also negatively impacts food and nutrition security, brings down employment and does little to support women’s empowerment initiatives. These issues should be taken on board during the ZUNDAF rollout, and they should be aligned to policy directions in the Zim Asset.

The lack of a relevant and well defined policy and institutional framework is probably the underlying cause for most of the challenges faced in the agriculture and land sectors. This has led to an imprecise and unclear overall development strategy. One of the urgent matters to be addressed by the Government is clear policy direction on land tenure, security and rights. Without this clarity, agriculture productivity and environmental sustainability and overall economic growth are undermined. Another underlying challenge particularly affecting marketing of agriculture produce is the deteriorating infrastructure such as roads and electricity which lead to a high cost of production. Inefficient support is given to agriculture, in terms of research and agricultural extension, leading to a limited transfer of technology from research which is largely caused by limited human capacities resulting from a high exodus of skills. Zimbabwe’s agriculture, land and environment sectors have also suffered from the impact of climate change.

Other challenges affecting Disaster Risk Management stem from a lack of integrated information management system, lack of a systematic framework for capturing drought losses and impacts, limited awareness, lack of a comprehensive social protection policy that integrates post-disaster recovery, lack of sectoral policies and strategies that address chronic food insecurity regions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4.7: Agriculture, Lands and Environment Challenges and Opportunities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Challenges</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of a clear agriculture and land policy to provide overall development strategy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low agriculture production, productivity and marketability of produce.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited diversification, research and technology.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited access to and land use.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human mobility, particularly of the labour endowed, resulting in reduced agricultural productivity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threat to environmental sustainability from human and natural causes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effects of climate change.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4 Options for Action

Zimbabwe does not have a functional long term agricultural policy. The policy that was crafted in 1995 to cover the period up to 2020 was rendered non-operational by the changes brought about
by the land reform programme\textsuperscript{165}. A draft agricultural policy, developed with assistance from FAO, is currently going through approval processes. It is recommended that the Government marshals resources to begin implementing the new agriculture policy once it is enacted into law.

Zimbabwe’s agricultural commodity markets are non-competitive and very weak compared to its regional neighbours. This is an area that requires a multisectoral approach to mobilise the whole economy in the value chain especially in its key agricultural outputs including food crops, tobacco, livestock and wildlife. The shift from food crops to cash crops, especially tobacco should be studied to understand the possible negative impact this may have to sustainable agricultural development in Zimbabwe.

Capacity building in the agriculture sector requires substantial investment of resources and technical support. The 2013-2017 Zimbabwe Agriculture Investment Plan has the objective ‘to facilitate sustainable increase in production, productivity and competitiveness of Zimbabwean agriculture through building capacity of farmers and institutions, improving the quantity and quality of public, private and development partner investment and alignment. The Government should seek technical support and financial resources to implement this Plan as a matter of urgency as a strategy to turn around the economy and stimulate growth and ensure sustainable agriculture, food and nutrition security.

The land issue under the Land Reform Policy, the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP), has not been fully resolved. The land reform policy created small to medium sized land holdings (A1 and A2 farms) from what were previously large scale commercial farms into smallholder plots and farms. The implementation of the FTLRP brought in significant changes in the agrarian sector with the most notable being shifts in agricultural production and marketing patterns. There are concerns particularly relating to the inadequate security of tenure, inadequate development of support institutions, inconsistent procedures of land administration, and unclear compensation models for current and future displaced farmers and accommodation for former and current farm workers.

The current land use policy in Zimbabwe does not incorporate climate change. Although there is designation of land into land-use categories such as forests and woodlands, rangelands and agricultural land in the resettled and communal areas, there is limited implementation of these restrictions. In addition, Zimbabwe has many underutilized small to medium sized dams and dilapidated small irrigation schemes that could be used as a basis for increased productivity and production of high value commodities by smallholders. Hence, the Government is currently finalising a new Irrigation Policy to guide irrigation development and procedures in the sector. Once enacted into law, the Government should mobilise technical support and financial resources to implement it.

The Zimbabwe National Climate Change Response Strategy is being finalised. It is comprehensive and aims to mainstream climate change adaptation and mitigation in economic and social development at national and sectoral levels. Because Zimbabwe is an agriculture based economy, the country will be affected by climate change. It is being recommended that the Government be assisted to implement this strategy in a multisectoral approach, while building capacities of

communities and institutions in advocacy, data management and use of early warning systems and appropriate technologies that help the population to adapt to climate change in economic and social sectors that support livelihoods.

Similarly, 2011 Draft Disaster Risk Management Strategy, and the 2011 Draft Disaster Risk Management Bill are now in force but need further technical support and strengthening. DRM specifically implies elements of information management, prevention, mitigation and strengthening resilience, preparedness and response and early recovery. Zimbabwe faces disaster risks which are triggered by natural and anthropogenic hazards. These hazards are classified into hydro-meteorological, geological, biological, technological and those related to environmental degradation. Drought is the most common hazard and accounted for six out of 10 top major disasters between 1991 and 2013. It is recommended that the Government pulls together resources and technical support to support it implement the provisions of the DRM strategy and Bill. That will help reduce the impact of disasters, improve data management for preparedness and recovery, and increase the overall resilience of the nation.

Pollution and wetlands management is a challenge in Zimbabwe. Currently there are no definitive studies and statistics available, yet experience shows that this is one area that will require further research and technical review to determine the levels of support needed for communities, local authorities and central government as it continues to define its land policy and refine land management and use across the country. Also Government will need to determine other undefined use of land that currently is not mapped or currently designated as “other land”.

58
5 Food and Nutrition Security

5.1 Overview
Food security is defined as a condition in which all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe, and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life.\(^{166}\) There are ‘pillars’, to food security, each of which apply across the scales of national, household and individual.

i. Food availability - The availability of sufficient quantities of food of appropriate quality, supplied through domestic production or imports
ii. Food access - Access by individuals to adequate resources for acquiring appropriate foods for a nutritious diet
iii. Food utilisation - utilisation of food through adequate diet, clean water, sanitation and health care to reach a state of nutritional well-being where all physiological needs are met.

The National Food and Nutrition Security Policy for Zimbabwe in the context of economic growth and development\(^{167}\) promotes a multisectoral approach to address food and nutrition insecurity, especially for the most vulnerable, and the establishment and strengthening of national structures responsible for food and nutrition security. The goal of the Food and Nutrition Security Policy is to “promote and ensure adequate food and nutrition security for all people at all times in Zimbabwe”, particularly amongst the most vulnerable. The Food and Nutrition Council (FNC) is mandated to “promote a cohesive national response to the prevailing household food and nutrition insecurity through co-ordinated multisectoral action”.

5.2 Analysis of Issues

5.2.1 Food Availability
The food security situation in Zimbabwe is positioned as part of a larger economic decline, low agriculture productivity and deteriorating standards of living, corruption and policy inconsistencies. The availability of food is not just a function of production, but also of pricing, marketing, affordability and access. The existence of these interdependencies entail that any policy shift in one sector will have a knock-on effect on other sectors. A poor performing agricultural sector implies other sectors that rely on raw materials from agriculture will also be affected by that underperformance.

The ZimVAC Rural Livelihood Assessment analysis of the 5-year trend as seen in Figure 5.1 shows the percentage of food insecure population. A decreasing trend of food insecure households was observed from 2009 up to 2011. However, this proportion started to rise from 2012 significantly above the 2009 levels. Data indicates a decrease in the proportion of households that are food insecure to 6% for the 2014/15 consumption year\(^{168}\). This represents a 76% decrease in rural household food insecurity from the 2013/14 consumption year.

\(^{168}\) ZimVAC, 2014, Rural Livelihoods Assessment.
Furthermore, when food insecurity is analysed against sources of income it shows that the proportion of food insecure households decreases with an increase in income sources. Reliance on cereal stocks and own crop production only, places households at a much greater risk of food insecurity as reflected in Figure 5.2. The proportion of food insecure households relying on cereal stocks is 95% as compared to 6% among those relying on crop and livestock production as well as incomes.

Figure 5.2: Food Insecurity Progression by Income Source

![Graph showing food insecurity progression by income source.]

Source: ZimVAC, 2014, Rural Livelihoods Assessment.

Even in surplus years such as 2013/14 shown in Table 5.1 where the country had a surplus of 306,301 MT, the proportion of food insecure population increased (see Figure 5.2 above and Table 5.2 below). This shows that aggregate food availability at the national level is not a guarantee for food security at a household level. Table 5.2 emphasises that there has been a decrease in food insecurity in all provinces for the 2014/15. It must however be noted that provincial disparities in households with food insecure still exist. Provinces such as Mashonaland West, Matabeleland North and South have the highest proportions of food insecure households.169

Table 5.1: Grain and Cereal Production for 2013/2014 Compared to National Requirements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Crop</th>
<th>Requirements (MT)</th>
<th>Available Grain and Cereals (MT)</th>
<th>Surplus/Deficits (MT)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

169 Ibid
| Cereal (Maize, sorghum, pearl and finger millet) | 1,427,119 | 1,680,291 | 253,172 |
| Irish Potato | 265,185 | 397,600 | 132,415 |
| Groundnuts | 92,979 | 135,138 | 42,159 |
| Roundnuts | 110,277 | 49,429 | -60,848 |
| Sweet Potato | 272,450 | 335,335 | 62,885 |
| Sugarbeans | 92,979 | 20,125 | -72,854 |
| Cowpeas | 75,681 | 25,053 | -50,628 |
| **Total** | **2,336,670** | **2,642,971** | **306,301** |

1 Cereal requirement is computed from a consumptions rate of 110kg/year and a national population of 13 061 239 (ZIMSTAT, 2012 Census Report).

2 Other crop requirement is based on 2,100Kcal requirement per person per day as calculated from the ZimVAC Household Economy Approach Baseline Survey 2009/10 for 25 Livelihood Zones across Zimbabwe. Irish potato 20kg/person/year, Groundnuts 7kg/person/year, Groundnuts 9kg/person/year, Sweet potato 21kg/person/year, Sugar beans 7kg/person/year, Cowpeas 6kg/person/year.


### Table 5.2: Household Food Insecurity Prevalence by Province in 2013 and 2014

![Bar chart showing household food insecurity prevalence by province in 2013 and 2014.]

**Source:** ZimVAC, 2014 Rural Livelihoods Assessment.

#### 5.2.2 Food Access

**Figure 5.3:** Relationship Between Food Security and GDP Growth Rate (2003-2013)
Spatial trend analysis shown in Figure 5.3 based on the ZimVAC data shows that 84% of the food insecure people are in the communal areas. These are the net food buyers who depend on markets to meet their food needs and therefore they are highly subject to price fluctuations and market fluctuations. Poverty is markedly more prevalent in rural areas at 76% versus 38% in urban areas. While the national figure for extreme poverty is 16%, the rate in rural areas climbs to over 30%. Those living in extreme poverty are considered ‘food poor’, which is defined as the ‘inability to afford or have reasonable access to food which provides a healthy diet’. The prevalence of food insecurity and extreme poverty in Zimbabwe are closely correlated.

The food security situation is tightly linked with the overall macroeconomic situation (Figure 5.3). This suggests that structural factors underpinning the food insecurity problem are tightly linked to economic factors associated with high levels of poverty, unemployment, seasonally fluctuating prices, HIV prevalence and access to social services.

5.2.3 Food Utilisation

Years of deteriorating infrastructure and declining government services have contributed to diminished domestic food production, which is currently insufficient to meet consumption requirements at household levels. Preventing and reducing stunting, especially during the 1000 day period, from conception to 2 years of age, has emerged as one of the most critical national priorities reflected in the Zim Asset. Results from the Zimbabwe Micronutrient Survey and 2014 MICS indicate an overall downward trend in prevalence of stunting in children 0-59 months from a peak of 35% in 2005/6 to 27.6% in 2014. According to the 2014 MICS, stunting levels were higher in male children at 31.1% compared to their female counterparts at 24.1% and when comparing rural and urban areas, stunting was at 30% and 20%, respectively. Figure 5.4 below shows trends in key nutrition indicators including stunting prevalence.

**Figure 5.4:** Underweight, Stunted, Wasted and Overweight Children under the Age of 5.

---

According to wealth quintiles, stunting prevalence among children 0-59 months was highest in the middle wealth quintile and lowest in the highest wealth quintile, at 38% and 21% respectively, although the lowest and middle quintiles were classified high in stunting with the remainder classified as medium. It is worth noting that while stunting prevalence is higher among the poor in Zimbabwe, wealth does not necessarily protect children from stunting. This suggests that, while the poor appear more vulnerable to undernourishment, in the current context in Zimbabwe, adequate income does not necessarily guarantee adequate nutrition.

Stunting is lower amongst the 0-6 month’s age group and increases sharply from around 8 months to a peak at around 24 months then gradually decreases and levels at around 15% by 59 months\textsuperscript{175}. Further, 10% of the children are born already stunted\textsuperscript{176}. This reflects a need for maternal, pre-pregnancy and adolescent nutrition interventions. The sharp increase in prevalence in stunting from 6 months is likely due to inappropriate complementary feeding and care practices for this age group.

Assessment of malnutrition in rural areas showed that in Zimbabwe, 0.8% of the measured children between 6 and 59 months had severe acute malnutrition and 2.6% were moderately malnourished\textsuperscript{177}. The national average for acute malnutrition was 3.4\%\textsuperscript{178}. Mashonaland West had the highest proportion of children who had acute malnutrition at 5.6\% whilst Masvingo had the highest prevalence of severe acute malnutrition at 2.0\%\textsuperscript{179}. Considering the global thresholds for emergency response for acute malnutrition and severe acute malnutrition of 5\% and 2\%
respectively, Masvingo and Mashonaland West Provinces would require further investigation and targeting. In terms of chronic malnutrition, one in three children under five years of age are chronically malnourished in Zimbabwe as shown in Figures 5.4 and 5.5.

**Figure 5.5: Trends in Nutrition Indicators 1999-2014**

The causes of undernourishment in Zimbabwe are multiple but access and intake of adequate nutrients is clearly part of the problem. From a food and nutrient security perspective a quick analysis of availability, access and use provides some evidence that essential nutrients are missing in the diets of young children in Zimbabwe. The typical diet in Zimbabwe is plant and maize based which is consumed by nearly 100% of the population.

Complementary feeding practices for infants are suboptimal and breast feeding rates, particularly exclusive breastfeeding rates, are low with 41% of children having been found to be exclusively breast fed through 6 months\(^{180}\). Recurrent droughts remain a threat to nutrition status in Zimbabwe, compounded by the impact of climate change, including the threat of low cereal production. Furthermore, nutrition security will also be impacted by the economic instability causing basic food price increases. Therefore, ensuring nutrition security remains a priority within the Zim Asset for the immediate and long term is essential.

**5.3 Summary of Challenges and Opportunities**

The food security situation in Zimbabwe should be considered as part of a larger socioeconomic and political environment. It is characterised by economic decline, low agriculture productivity and deteriorating standards of living, corruption and policy inconsistencies.

The availability of food is not just a function of production, but also of pricing, marketing, affordability and access. The existence of these interdependencies entails that any policy shift in

\(^{180}\) ZIMSTAT, 2014, *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS).*

64
one sector will trickle down to affect other. A poor performing agricultural sector implies other sectors that rely on raw material from agriculture will also be affected by that underperformance. Years of deteriorating infrastructure and declining government services have contributed to diminished domestic food production, which is currently insufficient to meet consumption requirements, although the 2013/14 season has produced a surplus.

Child malnutrition continues to be a challenge even though the rates of malnutrition in Zimbabwe are considered moderate compared to other countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. The causes of undernourishment in Zimbabwe are multiple but access and intake of adequate nutrients is clearly part of the problem. Recurrent droughts remain a threat to nutrition status in Zimbabwe, compounded by the impact of climate change, including the threat of low cereal production. Furthermore, nutrition security will also be impacted by the economic instability causing basic food price increases. Table 5.2 below provides a summary of the challenges and opportunities for food and nutrition security.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges</th>
<th>Opportunities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Food availability, access, utilisation</td>
<td>• Implementation of Food and Nutrition Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Chronic malnutrition</td>
<td>• Harnessing international resources for food and nutrition security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Inadequate intake of nutrients</td>
<td>• Productive Social Safety Nets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Suboptimal complementary feeding practices</td>
<td>• Improved education on nutrition and hygiene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Suboptimal breastfeeding practices</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Poor water and sanitation behaviours</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.4 Options for Action

The food and nutrition security programming in Zimbabwe should be approached multi-sectorally. It should be based on the implementation of the seven commitments of the Food and Nutrition Policy and achieving Zim Asset outcomes of stunting reduction and improved availability and quality food. The current efforts by the Government and development partners to develop a comprehensive social protection framework with various initiatives that include social safety nets and food and nutrition security should be commended. This should be reflected in the ZUNDAYF rollout and aligned to the Zim Asset.
6 POPULATION AND BASIC SOCIAL SERVICES

6.1 Overview
Zimbabwe has a total population of 13,061,239 people divided into 48% males and 52% females where 67% of the population lives in the rural areas. The total population in Zimbabwe has almost doubled from 7.5 million in 1982. While in the years prior to 2006, the Total Fertility Rate had shown a decline, since 2006, it has increased from 3.8 to 4.1 children per woman in 2011. Life expectancy which declined between 1992 and 2002 is on the rebound, increasing from 45 years in 2002 to 58 years in 2012. However, the high mortality of the reproductive age group (15-49) due to HIV and AIDS, has worsened the dependency ratio and has left an estimated 25% of children being orphans and vulnerable under the care of the elderly. Zimbabwe has a youthful population, with 2/3 of the population below the age of 25. If the youth population is well educated, healthy and engaged in productive activities, the level of average income per capita should increase as a result. The youth budge will therefore become the demographic. The Zimbabwe health Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) 4 through 6, to Reduce Child Mortality, Improve Maternal Health and Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and other diseases have all registered marked gains overtime. These improvements have emanated from sustained investments in these MDGs and specifically in the health care sector in Zimbabwe.

Population issues, which have a strong bearing on poverty, the economy and employment, as well as other sectors such as the environment and the provision of basic social services, have not been adequately addressed in a coordinated and integrated manner in national development plans and frameworks. The 1998 National Population Policy has the main objective of achieving population growth and age and spatial distribution that are more favourable to sustainable socioeconomic development, however it is now outdated and its institutional home has continuously moved from one ministry to another since its adoption. Further, Zimbabwe has experienced a massive brain drain where 2-3 million of its citizens were estimated to be living in the Diaspora in 2010. In most developing countries, including Zimbabwe, the demographic transition is ongoing and the next decades will be heavily influenced by the demographic dividend phenomenon as a consequence of the current youthful population. Though two thirds of the population is mainly rural, urbanisation will be one of the main demographic issues in the coming decades.

6.1.1 Education
Despite the setbacks suffered during the last decade, key education indicators show that Zimbabwe’s education systems remains one of the strongest on the continent, with steady improvement reflected against most key indicators over the past five years. Zimbabwe’s literacy rate for all those aged 15 years and above stood at 91.3% (94.4% for males and 88.7% for females) according to a Poverty, Income, Consumption and Expenditure Survey (PICES).

---

182 DHS 2010-2011
185 ZIMSTAT, 2014, Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS).
186 In Zimbabwe, a person is literate if he or she reports that he/she completed at least Grade 3.
This is a reflection of high investment in education that has been sustained over the years. The 2012 Census put the literacy rate at 96%, and this figure is only a 1% drop from the 2002 figure of 97%\(^{188}\). Similarly, MICS 2014 results show that literacy among young people is high at 92% for females and 86.1% for males\(^{189}\).

Participation in education has remained consistently high over the past 30 years. School attendance statistics show that of the total school going age (6-20 years) in Zimbabwe, 1.8% had never been to school, 76.4% were at school and 21.8% had left school\(^{190}\). There was no difference between rural and urban areas. The 6-7 years age group has the highest proportion of children who have never been to school, sitting at 8.5% indicating the challenges around late school entry\(^{191}\). Although all age categories in Zimbabwe are prone to leaving school before completion, those worst affected are in the 16-17 and 18-20 year age groups with 41.1% and 78.9% dropping out, respectively\(^{192}\). The situation is far worse for rural than urban areas.

Gross Enrolment Rates (GERs) and Net Enrolment Rates (NERs) for 2013, shown in Table 6.1 below, reflect high participation rates for primary school, but are much lower for early childhood development (ECD) and secondary school. Fortunately, there are no major gender disparities at all levels.

Table 6.1: Key Indicators of Participation for ECD, Primary and Secondary School

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator by Level of Education</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Early Childhood Education (3-5 year olds)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net Enrolment Rate</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross Enrolment Rate</td>
<td>50.9</td>
<td>51.9</td>
<td>51.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary (6-12 year old)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net Enrolment Rate</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>93.3</td>
<td>93.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School net attendance ratio (adjusted)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>93.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross Enrolment Rate</td>
<td>109.7</td>
<td>107.0</td>
<td>108.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completion rates</td>
<td>76.3</td>
<td>78.6</td>
<td>77.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Secondary (13-18 year old)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School net attendance ratio (adjusted)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>57.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross Enrolment Rate, Lower Secondary</td>
<td>71.5</td>
<td>72.1</td>
<td>71.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross Enrolment Rate, Upper Secondary</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross Enrolment Rate, Total Secondary (%)</td>
<td>52.6</td>
<td>51.7</td>
<td>52.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net Enrolment Rate, Lower Secondary (%)</td>
<td>49.8</td>
<td>55.9</td>
<td>52.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net Enrolment Rate, Upper Secondary (%)</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net Enrolment Rate, Total Secondary (%)</td>
<td>52.1</td>
<td>50.9</td>
<td>51.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sources:** Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (Education Management Information System) 2013; MICS, 2014

---

\(^{188}\) ZIMSTAT, 2012, Census 2012 National Report

\(^{189}\) ZIMSTAT, 2014, Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS).

\(^{190}\) ZIMSTAT, 2013, Poverty, Income, Consumption and Expenditure Survey 2011/2012.

\(^{191}\) Ibid.

\(^{192}\) EMIS 2013
In 2013, primary school completion rates stood at 77.4% (76.3% for males and 78.6% for females), which is comparatively high, exceeding the target of 75% set by Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education. However, only 78.2% of the primary school graduates (76.8% males and 79.4% females) transition to secondary school. As confirmed by a recent study on school dropout and repetition, failure to pay fees is one of the major reasons for dropping out of school while the other reasons are early marriage and pregnancy, and the absence of a school within walking distance. Because ‘O’ level is the terminal level for the majority of students, GERs and NERs for sixth form are lower, and also reveal a wide gender gap. While the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education democratised participation in ECD by requiring that every school establishes at least one ECD class, participation rates at this level remain low. This is largely because the provision of age appropriate facilities for these 3 to 5 year olds within walking distance remains inadequate and because demand for this service is still depressed.

Global indicators, however, mask significant disparities by province. In Early Childhood Development (ECD), (Net Enrolment Rates) NERs range from 8.08% in Harare and to 35.03% in Matabeleland North. Primary NERs also range from 76.2% in Harare to 99.7% in Manicaland. Provincial disparities in NER are lower at the secondary school level (Form 1-6), with Harare having the lowest (42.9%) and the highest being for Mashonaland East (64.2%)\textsuperscript{193}. Overall, there is gender parity in NERs at all the levels of education. The Gender Parity Indices (GPI) at primary and secondary levels are 1.01 and 1.17, respectively\textsuperscript{194}. However, in Harare and Bulawayo the GPIs at the secondary school level are 0.80 and 0.90, respectively\textsuperscript{195}. In Matabeleland South and Matabeleland North, GPIs are 1.25 and 1.28 respectively.\textsuperscript{196} These are the provinces closest to Botswana and South Africa, where young males frequently migrate to in search of work before they complete school.

The phenomenon of school dropout has resulted in a large out-of-school population that stood at 785,883 (376,762 males and 409,121 females) in 2013. Figure 6.1 below gives an indication of the geographical distribution of out-of-school youth aged 13-16 years old. This population has a diverse set of educational and skills development needs that are largely unmet this requiring attention.

\textsuperscript{193} EMIS, 2013.  
\textsuperscript{194} ZIMSTAT, 2014, *Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS)*.  
\textsuperscript{195} EMIS, 2013  
\textsuperscript{196} EMIS, 2013.
An analysis of learning outcomes by level of education reflects an uneven pattern. At ECD, 61.8% of the learners demonstrated acquisition of the skills expected in the four main domains (literacy-numeracy, physical, social-emotional, and learning)\textsuperscript{197}. At Grade 2 level, data available shows that less than half of the early learners achieved the grade-appropriate competency level in both English and Mathematics in 2012. However, there is an upward trend, with the figures in 2013 rising to 53.6% and 62.9% for English and Mathematics, respectively, as seen in Table 6.2 below. In both cases, girls outperform boys. In 2013, percentages for Shona and Ndebele were even higher (78.2% and 78.5%)\textsuperscript{198}.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Males (%)</th>
<th>Females (%)</th>
<th>Both (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>44.6</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>49.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>50.7</td>
<td>58.6</td>
<td>53.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>48.8</td>
<td>45.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>60.5</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>62.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Pass rates at primary school level have also been rising steadily, as reflected in the table below. However, the level that has consistently recorded low pass rates is the ‘O’ level which has been attributed to a broad range of factors such as an outdated curriculum that is excessively academic and a lack of teaching learning materials. Given the consistently low pass rates at this level, there is need to re-examine the curriculum to assess whether it responds to the needs of the majority of learners.

Table 6.3: Pass Rates at Grade 7 and ‘O’ Level from 2010-2013

\textsuperscript{197} ZIMSTAT, 2014, Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS).
\textsuperscript{198} ZELA, 2013.
ZIMSTAT defines ‘literacy rate’ in Zimbabwe as the number of persons, who have completed at least grade 3, per 100 people for a particular age category. Table 6.4 below shows the literacy rates for the population aged 15 years above by age group and sex. In comparing literacy rates with those in census results for 1992, 2002 and 2012, literacy rates rose from 80.4% in 1992 to a peak of 97.0% in 2002 and were sustained at 96% 10 years later in 2012. The PICES 2011/2012 results showed that the lowest literacy rate was 46.9% among females in the 65+ age group with significant increases in literacy in younger populations. In congruence with the aforementioned, the MICS 2014 results show that literacy among young people is high at 92% for females and 86.1% for males.\(^{199}\)

### Table 6.4: Literacy Rates for Population Aged 15 Years and Above by Age Group and Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
<th>Both (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15 – 19</td>
<td>97.7</td>
<td>97.6</td>
<td>97.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 – 24</td>
<td>98.0</td>
<td>98.0</td>
<td>98.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 – 29</td>
<td>98.0</td>
<td>97.9</td>
<td>98.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 – 34</td>
<td>98.7</td>
<td>97.0</td>
<td>97.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 – 39</td>
<td>97.6</td>
<td>96.3</td>
<td>97.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 – 44</td>
<td>97.5</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>95.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 – 49</td>
<td>93.8</td>
<td>78.9</td>
<td>85.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 – 54</td>
<td>88.3</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>78.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55 – 59</td>
<td>86.1</td>
<td>72.4</td>
<td>78.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 – 64</td>
<td>83.0</td>
<td>63.0</td>
<td>71.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 +</td>
<td>69.9</td>
<td>46.9</td>
<td>57.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total 2011/12 PICES</strong></td>
<td><strong>94.4</strong></td>
<td><strong>88.7</strong></td>
<td><strong>91.3</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total 2012 Census</strong></td>
<td><strong>97.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>95.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>96.0</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total 2002 Census</strong></td>
<td><strong>97.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>96.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>97.0</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total 1992 Census</strong></td>
<td><strong>86.1</strong></td>
<td><strong>75.1</strong></td>
<td><strong>80.4</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


There have been several positive developments in the education sector since 2010. Among these are the successful preparation of a sector plan, the curriculum review process that is underway, and the democratisation of Early Childhood Development (ECD), which is now an integral part of infant education. However, parental participation in the provision of early childhood development remains low, particularly for males, and learning materials are in short supply at home and school\(^{200}\). The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education’s Education Management Information System has also been strengthened, and has consistently generated high quality education data for evidenced-based policy development, planning, monitoring and evaluation. Meanwhile, financial management capacity has been boosted at all levels, from Head Office to the school level, through financial management training. The intractable challenge that remains, however, is the underfunding of the system consequent upon low revenue inflows that lead to low disbursements to cater for the non-salary needs of the system. While the salary component has remained a government responsibility that it has largely fulfilled, the lack of resources for the non-salary component has resulted in the bottom-

\(^{199}\) ZIMSTAT, 2014, *Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS)*.

\(^{200}\) According to MICS (2014), only 2.6 of fathers and 17.3 of mothers directly supported early learning activities for their children, and only 3.4 of the households surveyed had at least 3 books for early learners.
up financing system that has seen households continuing to bear the burden of funding the non-salary component of the system.

6.1.1.1 Training and Skills Development

The Training and Skills Development (Vocational Education and Training System) in Zimbabwe comprises of training institutions under the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Vocational Training Centres (42) under the Ministry of Youth, Indigenization and Empowerment and various other similar institutions under the Ministry of Agriculture, Small and Medium Enterprises and Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare. The system also includes the informal apprenticeship and workplace learning programmes however these produce on average a limited number of 1,500 trained workers every year. The entire training system in Zimbabwe can train around 31,000 students per year which includes around 18,000 from Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education as well as 11,000 from the Ministry of Youth, Indigenization and Empowerment201. The transition from school to work, the implementation of a coordinated and appropriate curricular to prepare students for the work and the availability of adequate and varied opportunities for graduates to choose from after school still remain a large challenge and require much research and financing in Zimbabwe.

As an example, in meeting the needs of youths and adults, the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development have increased access to skills development in various forms. A National Education For All Review of Zimbabwe shows how the country has progressed in this front202. The Government has developed teacher training programmes and various technical and vocational education programmes for National Foundation Certificate, National Certificate, National Diploma, Higher National Diploma and degrees for youth and adults who have at least “O” Level qualifications. Enrolment patterns in the different programmes dipped in 2009 due to economic challenges but have since picked up as of 2012 as shown in Table 6.4 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Polytechnics Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>9977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>5853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>7654</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.1.2 Health

Until the mid-1990s, Zimbabwe had one of the best primary health care systems in sub-Saharan Africa. However during the first decade of the new millennium, Zimbabwe’s health systems were

201 Communication from ILO
203 Ibid.
not spared from the negative effects of an extremely challenging socioeconomic and political environment that resulted in the worsening of virtually all health indicators. At the peak of these challenges all the health system pillars, based on the World Health Organization’s six building blocks, were considerably weakened. Due to the economic difficulties, the national budgetary allocation to health has been low at 6.7% in 2010, 9.3% in 2011, 8.6% in 2012, 9.9% in 2013 and further declined in 2014 to 8.2%, which are far from the Abuja Declaration recommendations of 15%. The budget compliance in 2013 was only 62%, which mainly covered salaries and allowances.

Although the country has experienced some stability since 2009, there still remains real threat of sliding back into similar situations. For example the Human Resources for Health pillar has been stabilised with the provision of retention allowances from the initially Extended Support Programme, then by Global Fund Round 8, and now by multi-donor supported Health Transition Fund. However in light of no sustainable mechanisms to retain key health workers, this pillar remains glaringly fragile. With regards to health financing, the decision by the national treasury to reduce allocations to Ministry of Health and Child Care from US$381m in 2013 (ranking second largest) down to US$337m in 2014 (ranking 4th largest) indicates reneging on Zimbabwe’s commitment to achieving the Abuja target of allocating at least 15% of its national budget to health. On the other hand the Ministry of Health and Child Care’s ability to meet its commitment for providing 100% of vital medicines, remains constrained by virtually no allocations in the last four years to the National Pharmaceutical Company (NatPharm) with the undesirable effect of now having over 40% of the vital medicines provided by donors and leaving an unfunded gap of 60%. In general, currently 98% of medicines and medical supplies in stock at NatPharm are being provided by donors whilst the National AIDS Council is providing the other 2%. The treasury has not allocated financial support to NatPharm between 2009 and 2013. These undesirable scenarios require sustainable and predictable financing if the ministry’s vision of providing comprehensive, quality and effective health care to mothers and children is to be realised.

6.1.2.1 Reproductive, Maternal, Neonatal and Child Health (RMNCH)

The contraceptive prevalence rate for the country has improved from 59% to 67% while for adolescents, it is 10%. The family planning method mix in the country is heavily tilted to short term methods, such as pills which sit at 43.9%, leaving very limited options for long term and permanent methods. This corresponds to the poor knowledge of clients and providers on the adequate long term and permanent methods. Furthermore, the male condom use is very low at 3% partly because the use of condoms is perceived by the public as a means for HIV/AIDS prevention rather than choice of contraception. The national family planning unmet need has improved from

---

204 The WHO’s six building blocks for health systems strengthening are human resources for health, health financing, health information, health service delivery, medicines, vaccines and medical technology and leadership/governance.


206 Prior to September 2013, the Ministry of Health and Child Care was known as the Ministry of Health and Child Welfare.


208 ZIMSTAT, 2014, Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS).


13%, (of which 7% is for spacing and 6% is for permanent methods\textsuperscript{211}), to 10.4%\textsuperscript{212}. The unmet need for adolescents is higher at 17%\textsuperscript{213}. Access to family planning information, especially for young people, and the availability of a wide range of quality family planning services, especially for clients who are poor, less educated and in rural areas are key barriers. These challenges have resulted in an increase in the Total Fertility Rate since 2006, which is higher for women who are less educated (4.9), poor (5.3) and live in rural areas (4.8) compared to the educated (2.5), rich (2.6) and urban women (3.1). Moreover, adolescent fertility has been increasing over the last 25 years, for example, from 103 live births in 1988\textsuperscript{214} to 120 live births in 2014\textsuperscript{215}.

The unmet need for adolescents is higher at 17%\textsuperscript{213}. Access to family planning information, especially for young people, and the availability of a wide range of quality family planning services, especially for clients who are poor, less educated and in rural areas are key barriers. These challenges have resulted in an increase in the Total Fertility Rate since 2006, which is higher for women who are less educated (4.9), poor (5.3) and live in rural areas (4.8) compared to the educated (2.5), rich (2.6) and urban women (3.1). Moreover, adolescent fertility has been increasing over the last 25 years, for example, from 103 live births in 1988\textsuperscript{214} to 120 live births in 2014\textsuperscript{215}.

The maternal mortality ratio (MMR) is a good indicator of the country’s health status, quality and access to health and care delivery services, especially for women. The gain on the reduction of MMR was lost in the last decade or so and it is not possible for Zimbabwe to achieve the MDG5 by 2015.

**Figure 6.2: Maternal Mortality Ratio per 100,000 Live Births**

*Source: MICS 2014*

The latest maternal mortality data indicated that since 2000 there has been a steady decline as seen in Figure 6.2. The Maternal Mortality Rates (MMRs) are influenced by the general socioeconomic conditions, nutrition, access and coverage of maternal health care services. Most of the maternal deaths are preventative by ensuring increased access to antenatal, delivery and postnatal care\textsuperscript{216}. This is mostly attributed to the poor quality of maternal health services, and to a certain extent HIV (though the HIV impact is dropping due to the Anti-retroviral Therapy Programme). Results from the 2012 National Integrated Health Facility Assessment confirm the poor quality of Maternal Newborn Child Health services, such as the ‘skill’ of health staff and the availability of essential reproductive health commodities.

Despite high antenatal care visits (93.7%), high skilled birth attendance (80%), high contraceptive prevalence (67%), the MMR is still high at 614 per 100,000 live births\textsuperscript{217} suggesting that there are still many quality of care issues. The 2012 National Integrated Health Facility Assessment Survey brings this out clearly as it shows a low national coverage of Emergency Obstetric and Neonatal Care Services and poor quality of antenatal, delivery and postnatal services. For example, on antenatal care case management by health workers, only 14% met the standard to identify danger signs in pregnancy with only 4% and 2% inquiring for fever and convulsions, respectively. Only about 2% of health workers screened for preeclampsia signs during antenatal care while about 11% assessed for preeclampsia during labour and delivery\textsuperscript{218}. Of the observed health workers, less than half (46%) provided all routine preventative medicines. Slightly more than a third (36%) provided education on birth preparation, while only 12% provided adequate counselling on danger signs in

\textsuperscript{211} ZIMSTAT, 2012, *Zimbabwe Demographic Health Survey 2010-11.*

\textsuperscript{212} ZIMSTAT, 2014, *Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS).*

\textsuperscript{213} Ibid.

\textsuperscript{214} ZIMSTAT, 1989, *Zimbabwe Demographic Health Survey 1985-88.*

\textsuperscript{215} ZIMSTAT, 2014, *Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS).*


\textsuperscript{217} ZIMSTAT, 2014, *Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS).*

\textsuperscript{218} Preeclampsia is a disorder of pregnancy characterised by high blood pressure and large amounts of protein in urine.
pregnancy. Thus deterioration in quality of care could partly explain the high MMR in the country. There is need for an efficient and well functional Maternal Death Surveillance and Response system in the country which feeds back to the community. This is gradually becoming the focus of attention for the government with a huge scope for improvement.

In addressing the problem of maternal deaths, the Ministry of Health and Child Care has focused on increasing institutional deliveries and improved access to skilled attendance at birth by revivatising the Maternity Waiting Homes thus tackling the second delay challenges and improving quality of care\(^\text{219}\). The key factor impeding women from accessing health care for themselves is the cost of treatment, which includes the costs of drugs and basic commodities such as gloves and cotton wool. The challenge of paying for treatment was highlighted by 50% of the women\(^\text{220}\). This problem was most often reported by women who had five or more living children (68%), were divorced, separated, or widowed (64%), resided in the rural areas (59%), lived in Matabeleland South (65%), had no education (75%), or were in the lowest wealth quintile (70%)\(^\text{221}\).

The fact that Zimbabwe has a young population with a third being between the ages of 10-24 years has contributed to the problems of teenage pregnancies. Moreover, 5% of women aged 15-49 years are married before 15 years and 33% are married before 18 years, significantly higher than the men in the same age group at 0.3% and 3.9%, respectively\(^\text{222}\). 22.4% of women aged 20-24 years have had at least one live birth before the age of 18 years\(^\text{223}\), lower than 48% of the teenage girls who had begun childbearing before age 19\(^\text{224}\). Zimbabwe’s adolescent fertility rate is estimated at 120 births per 1,000 women aged 15-19 years\(^\text{225}\) which is the highest rate recorded since 1984. The rural-urban differential in teenage fertility is striking, as rural girls were twice as likely (144/1,000) to become a mother than their urban counterparts (70/1,000)\(^\text{226}\). While the teenage fertility rate has remained stable in urban areas, the trend in rural areas is on the rise. Marital status is strongly associated with early child bearing, with married adolescents being 39 times more likely to have experienced teenage pregnancy than those never married\(^\text{227}\).

Overall, there has been some progress towards reducing the rate of infant and under-five mortality rates although they are still far from the 2015 desired target of 22 per 1,000 live births. The infant mortality rate stands at 55 per 1000 live births\(^\text{228}\) which is a slight improvement over the 1999 rate of 65 per 1,000 live births. Similarly, the current rate of under-five mortality is 75 per 1,000 live births which is still far from the desired target of 34 per 1,000 live births as seen in Figure 6.3.

**Figure 6.3: Child Mortality Estimates in Zimbabwe from 1990-2014**

\(^{220}\) ZIMSTAT, 2012, *Zimbabwe Demographic Health Survey 2010-11*  
\(^{221}\) ZIMSTAT, 2012, *Zimbabwe Demographic Health Survey 2010-11*  
\(^{222}\) ZIMSTAT, 2014, *Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS)*.  
\(^{223}\) Ibid.  
\(^{224}\) ZIMSTAT, 2012, *Zimbabwe Demographic Health Survey 2010-11*  
\(^{225}\) ZIMSTAT, 2014, *Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS)*.  
\(^{226}\) 2010/2011 DHS report  
\(^{227}\) (ZDHS Secondary analysis).  
\(^{228}\) ZIMSTAT, 2014, *Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS)*.
Child mortality rates barely differ between urban and rural areas. Both infant and under-five mortality rates are higher for males than females. According to the 2014 UN Interagency Child Mortality Estimates the major causes of death in children under five includes neonatal conditions (42%), malaria (11%), pneumonia (11%), diarrhoea (9%) and AIDS (9%). Other underlying causes of under-five deaths are associated with socioeconomic factors such as malnutrition and the mother’s education level. The more educated the mother is, the lower the infant or child mortality rate.

6.1.2.2 Women’s Cancers
Cervical and breast cancer are the most common cancers affecting women in Zimbabwe. The National Cancer Registry Association of Zimbabwe reports that 7,000 women are diagnosed with cancer annually, though this figure is much lower than those in Western Countries. In Zimbabwe, 4.37 million women aged 15 years and older are at the risk of developing cervical cancer. Current estimates indicate that every year 2,270 women are diagnosed with cervical cancer and 1,451 die from the disease. Despite efforts of the Ministry of Health and Child Welfare to scale up Visual Inspection with Acetic Acid based cervical cancer screening services, coverage remains low. It is estimated that only about 10% of women are accessing cervical cancer screening services.

Though there are no definitive statistics about breast cancer in Zimbabwe, the Ministry of Health and Child Care estimates that it is the most common cancer followed by cervical cancer. Currently, free breast cancer screenings are being offered at Parirenyatwa Hospital which is the first government hospital to offer the service. The Ministry of Health and Child Care intends to focus efforts to increase public education on cancers and early diagnosis which is much needed. Resources will need to be allocated to fight cancers, especially cervical and breast cancer.

---

230 ZIMSTAT, 2012, Zimbabwe Demographic Health Survey 2010-11
6.1.2.3 Non-Communicable and Neglected Tropical Diseases

Neglected Tropical Diseases (NTDs) are a group of medically diverse infectious diseases that thrive in impoverished settings, especially in the heat and humidity of tropical climates. Most are parasitic diseases, spread by vectors and others are spread by contaminated water and soil infested with worm eggs. These conditions are considered not to have received sufficient attention from the donor community and public health planners – hence the term ‘Neglected Tropical Diseases’. In addition to causing morbidity and mortality, NTDs are responsible for high social burdens in terms of the stigma, blindness, deformity and other forms of disability that they can cause.

Non-communicable diseases (NCDs), which are mainly cardiovascular diseases, cancers, chronic respiratory diseases and diabetes, are now a major public health challenge that undermines socioeconomic development globally. The 2009-2013 Zimbabwe National Health Strategy being extended to 2015, indicates a general increase in the prevalence of NCDs, including cervical and breast cancers which are the commonest forms of cancer among Zimbabwean women, as previously mentioned. However, currently there is a scarcity of data on NCDs in Zimbabwe making it difficult to plan and take targeted actions to address them. The major NCDs share four common modifiable risk factors, which are tobacco use, unhealthy diet, harmful use of alcohol and physical inactivity. Although morbidity and mortality from NCDs mainly occur in adulthood, exposure to risk factors begins in early life.

The 2005 Zimbabwe STEPwise survey showed that there is a high prevalence of modifiable risk factors of non-communicable diseases as summarised in Table 6.6 below. It also revealed that alcohol consumption and tobacco consumption is very high especially among males. Alcohol consumption was 30% in men and 2% in women, down from 58% in males and 13.5% in females in the 2005 STEPwise survey. Similarly, tobacco consumption was 19% in men and 1% in women, also down from 33% in males and 5% in females in the 2005 STEPwise survey. Both alcohol and tobacco are causes of cancer.

Table 6.6: Trends in Select Non-Communicable Diseases in Zimbabwe

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NCD</th>
<th>Trends</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hypertension</td>
<td>Prevalence of hypertension was found to be as high as 27%, while in 2006 hypertension accounted for 25% of all outpatient visits for chronic conditions. Strokes are responsible for a significant portion of disabilities and attendances at medical rehabilitation units.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diabetes mellitus</td>
<td>Diabetes mellitus and its complications are on the increase. It is among the top five chronic conditions seen in the out-patient clinics. The prevalence of diabetes among the adult population is 10%, with a large number of people not being aware that they had raised blood sugar levels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cancers</td>
<td>By 1997, cancers accounted for 2% of OPD follow-ups and 8-10% of all hospital mortality. In 2004 cancers accounted for 0.4% of OPD visits. In 2005, a total number of 4,015 new malignant cancer cases were recorded</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

231 WHO Briefing to UNCT on key and critical areas of public health importance, 9 July 2014.
233 ZIMSTAT, 2014, Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS).
among Zimbabweans with 1,762 (43.9%) being males and 2,253 being (56.1%) females.


6.1.3 HIV and AIDS

While gains have been realised in reducing HIV incidence, Zimbabwe is not expected to achieve its aim of halving HIV incidence between 2011 and 2015. The HIV incidence rate trends as seen in Table 6.7 suggest that the incidence will be reduced by one third between 2011 and 2015. Rollout of antiretroviral treatments and Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission (PMTCT) measures have both contributed to this achievement but additional efforts in HIV prevention are required to reduce the HIV incidence to the desired levels and to ultimately achieve the goal of Zero new infections. Measures on both the treatment and the HIV prevention side are urgently required. As reflected in Table 6.8, adult Antiretroviral Therapy (ART) coverage has increased steadily while PMTCT coverage decreased slightly between 2012 and 2013.

### Table 6.7: HIV Impact Indicator Results Achieved from 2011 to 2013.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact Indicators</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deaths averted by ART</td>
<td>4,042,000</td>
<td>4,822,000</td>
<td>4,570,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infections averted by PMTCT</td>
<td>641,000</td>
<td>1,275,000</td>
<td>1,511,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life years gained by ART and PMTCT</td>
<td>21,002,000</td>
<td>26,979,000</td>
<td>32,347,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deaths averted in 0-4 year olds by PMTCT</td>
<td>291,000</td>
<td>406,000</td>
<td>540,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV incidence rate</td>
<td>1.29%</td>
<td>1.25%</td>
<td>0.98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual HIV related deaths</td>
<td>115,117</td>
<td>87,335</td>
<td>61,476</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total AIDS orphans</td>
<td>1,151,235</td>
<td>1,084,906</td>
<td>810,135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV prevalence among pregnant women aged 15-24</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>11.56%</td>
<td>9.85%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### Table 6.8: Coverage of ART and PMTCT Programmes in Zimbabwe from 2011-2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coverage Estimates</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adult ART Coverage</td>
<td>68.58</td>
<td>69.31</td>
<td>76.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child ART Coverage</td>
<td>36.46</td>
<td>44.52</td>
<td>40.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PMTCT Coverage</td>
<td>55.47</td>
<td>85.23</td>
<td>82.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Successful Antiretroviral (ARV) treatment suppresses the HIV viral load to a point where the HIV positive person is unlikely to transmit the virus to other people, either through sexual or vertical transmission. Current patient monitoring does not provide sufficient data based on the required viral load assessment to establish the percentage of patients who have successfully achieved viral load suppression. Additional investment is required to improve patient monitoring and strengthen adherence support.

---

6.1.3.1 Epidemiology of HIV
Zimbabwe has a generalized heterosexually driven HIV epidemic with adult prevalence of 15% and an annual incidence of 0.98%. In 2013, an estimated 1.2 million people were living with HIV in Zimbabwe, still the third largest HIV burden in Southern Africa after South Africa and Mozambique. It is estimated that over the 12 years from 1997 to 2013, adult HIV prevalence nearly halved from 26.5% to 14.3%. Notwithstanding pockets of high prevalence, the geographic distribution of the epidemic is fairly homogenous. The HIV prevalence is slightly higher in urban areas than in rural areas. HIV prevalence among women aged 15-24 is 1.5 times higher than their male counterparts.

As seen in Figure 6.4 below, HIV prevalence peaked in 1997 at 26.48% and began to decline to 15% in 2014. HIV prevalence assumes the typical age and gender pattern found in Southern African epidemics with females having a younger age distribution of risk. In contrast to the early years of the HIV epidemic, more educated populations are now relatively less likely to be HIV positive which indicates a positive effect of HIV education.

Figure 6.4: Trends in Adult (15+) HIV Prevalence between 1970 and 2015

![Trends in Adult (15+) HIV Prevalence between 1970 and 2015](image)


HIV incidence declined from about 5.5% in adults in 1992 to about 0.98% in 2013. Furthermore, there were 61,000 new HIV infections estimated in 2013 compared 72,000 in 2012. The decline of new infections is attributed to gains from positive behaviour changes and high ART coverage. Infant feeding behaviours may pose a considerable risk since less than 41% of mothers reported exclusive breastfeeding in 2014.

6.1.3.2 HIV Knowledge and Behaviours

Table 6.9: Coverage of Select HIV Knowledge and Sexual Behavior Indicators 2006-2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>2006 M (%)</th>
<th>2006 F (%)</th>
<th>2011 M (%)</th>
<th>2011 F (%)</th>
<th>2014 M (%)</th>
<th>2014 F (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge about HIV prevention among young people 15-24 years</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

236 ZIMSTAT, 2014, *Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS).*
Accepting attitudes towards people living with HIV among 15-49 years olds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Value 1</th>
<th>Value 2</th>
<th>Value 3</th>
<th>Value 4</th>
<th>Value 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>People who have been tested for HIV and know their results (15-49 years)</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexually active young people who have been tested for HIV and know their results (15-24 years)</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young people aged 15-24 years who had sexual intercourse before the age of 15</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condom use among 15-49 years who had sex with multiple sexual partners in the last 12 months</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: DHS 2006, DHS 2011, MICS 2014

In Zimbabwe, there is a scarcity of HIV prevalence data of the traditional most-at-risk populations like sex workers, men who have sex with men, and drug users. No systematic size estimations or biological markers for these populations have been conducted to date.

6.1.3.3 Performance of the National Response

Over the last 25 years, Zimbabwe has developed a conducive policy environment for HIV prevention culminating in a multisectoral approach which is led by National AIDS Council. The contributions of community level organisations are well recognized, but the community response is poorly defined, not sufficiently prioritized and largely unfunded.

Using the three ones principles and universal access strategy, Zimbabwe has attained a very advanced national response that is well monitored and evaluated guided by the National AIDS Council Act, Income Tax Act, National HIV Policy, National Health Policy, Zim Asset, 2011-2015 Zimbabwe National HIV and AIDS Strategic Plan (ZNASP) and the 2011-2015 National Health Strategy. The Government of Zimbabwe has continued to demonstrate great commitment and leadership in the fight against the HIV and AIDS where progress on national responses can be seen below.

i. HIV incidence reduced by 50% by 2015
The target of achieving 50% reduction as stated in the 2011-2015 ZNASP seems achievable with the current gains that have been made.

ii. HIV incidence reduced among children reduced from 30% in 2010 to less than 5% by 2015
Zimbabwe is a signatory to the Global HIV Elimination plan from mother to child transmission. The country is likely to meet its elimination target of <5% by 2015.

iii. HIV and AIDS related mortality reduced by 38% by 2015
The country has already achieved the stated target in the ZNASP due to high coverage of ART and PMTCT programme.

iv. The national multisectoral response improved
The National Composite Policy Index rating has improved from 6.2 in 2010 to 8.0 in 2013. This reflects an improvement in policy, political commitment and overall strategic environment required for a multisectoral national response.
The Government of Zimbabwe continues to collect the AIDS Levy which is 3% of payee and corporate tax. The tax is collected by the Zimbabwe Revenue Authority and is directly remitted on a monthly basis to the National AIDS Council. The AIDS levy is the major contributor of domestic funding to the national response. The government continues to receive external support from the Global Fund, US Government, Department for International Development and other international partners.

The HIV and AIDS sector faces various threats that are affecting the national efforts such as logistics and supply chain management and low paediatric ART. Prevention efforts may be hampered by low Voluntary Male Medical Circumcision coverage, PMTCT services affected by low male involvement, weak linkages between health and community systems affecting quality of service and underfunded civil society organisations affecting enhanced community responses. On the other hand, there are existing opportunities for enhanced multisectoral coordination and national efforts through the 2011-2015 ZNASP Evaluation recommendations, investment case process, US funding to increase paediatric ART, the Global Plan to eliminate mother to child transmission, the realignment of laws in line with the Constitution and finally the HIV perspective in the reviewed National Gender Policy. The most important policy issue in 2014 is to strengthen systems and infrastructure in order to increase content alignment of the ZNASP and Zim Asset.

Zimbabwe is a signatory to Ending AIDS by 2030 and in order to translate this dream into a reality, the future strategy should have a high impact and gender responsive national response tailored to the goals of the Ending AIDS by 2030 initiative. Key strategic actions will need to invest on non-discrimination and equity, ensure geographic and population scale up of prevention and treatment services focusing on children and adolescents, encourage stable relationships and match investment to population groups and geographical areas with the highest new HIV infections. In addition, efforts should be geared towards the strengthening of health and community systems, structures and infrastructure, response management and coordination which should be aligned to the priorities of the Zim Asset.

6.1.4 Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH)

Due to recent the difficult socioeconomic situation, Zimbabwe’s water supply and sanitation services have suffered challenges over coverage and quality in both urban and rural areas. However, the Zimbabwe water and sanitation sector has a proud tradition in Zimbabwe with significant investments in water storage, irrigation, urban water and sewer services and rural water and sanitation facilities. The sector is supported by key legislation, including the Water Act Chapter 20:29, the Public Health Act, the Environmental Management Act, the Rural District Councils Act, and the Urban Councils Act. Water resources are managed by Catchment Councils and water and sanitation services by local authorities. In the mid-1990s, Zimbabwe had attained a very high level of service delivery with respect to both rural and urban water supply, sanitation and hygiene. Water resources development also kept pace with demands across key sectors such as irrigation, industry and mining among others. However, the economic downturn from 2000 to 2009 created not only a capacity gap to manage the aging infrastructure but also limited further expansion of the WASH sector. The collapse of water revenues that started in the late 1990s and continued during the last decade, led to a decline in all water supply and sanitation infrastructure and services. The collapse affected all parts of the country and all aspects of water supply and
sanitation service provision as well as water resources management and development. This has had a significant impact on the quality and reliability of services.

The 2008-2009 cholera outbreak which resulted in more than 100,000 cases and over 4,000 deaths, was the manifestation of deteriorated WASH services. In response to the cholera outbreak, many donor communities invested in the sector for rehabilitation and provision of WASH services while the Government with support from the development partners undertook major initiatives including the development of the 2013 National Water Policy and 2011 National Sanitation and Hygiene Strategy, strengthening coordination mechanisms, adopting a demand-led sanitation approach as opposed to the supply/subsidy driven approach and piloting a WASH Information Management System. The concerted efforts by the Government and all development partners helped the sector rejuvenate. However, without additional and sustained investment in the sector, Zimbabweans will face more WASH related deaths, illnesses, pollution of rivers and water courses, continuing poverty, and negative impacts on livelihoods, industry, and tourism, resulting in more hardship, particularly for women and children.

6.1.4.1 Water Supply
At Independence in 1980, Zimbabwe inherited a well-developed urban sector and a neglected rural sector. By 2000, 100% of the urban population had access to improved sources of drinking water, while only 74% of the rural population had access to improved sources of drinking water giving the overall average of 82% at national level. However, since then, access to safe drinking water has been declining. In 2014, 76% of households had access to improved sources of drinking water, with wide disparities noted between urban (95%) and (70%) rural\textsuperscript{237}. Figure 6.5 below illustrates the trend in access to drinking water. Important to note is that government estimates show a gloomier perspective to water and sanitation as compared to the more optimistic Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation. Differences in estimates are due to a lack of a national information system for the collection of WASH data. Also, it was only recently that the country developed standard definitions of access to water and access to sanitation.

\textbf{Figure 6.4: Access to Water Supply}

\textsuperscript{237} ZIMSTAT, 2014, Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS).
The Government’s desire to raise the living standards of rural people after independence, coupled with the commitment to fulfil the UN General Assembly’s declared “Drinking Water and Sanitation Decade, 1981-90” resulted in a supply driven accelerated borehole drilling and deep well sinking programme in the rural areas of Zimbabwe in the 90s. This drive saw water coverage in rural areas rise to over 70% from an estimated 32% at independence\textsuperscript{238}.

\textsuperscript{238} (Central Statistics Office, 2011).
Rural water supply development was majorly donor funded. The down turn of the economy in the early 2000s and the pulling out of development partners from the subsector halted its development. With the government failing to provide financing for the sub sector, maintenance and repairs virtually ceased. Because the development was supply driven, there were no structures or strategies to halt the subsequent decay. In addition, demographic changes brought about by the land reform program opened up new areas where safe drinking water was needed. Although the Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation show coverage above 60% in the decade of decline, in Figure 6.6 government estimates indicate that most of the water points are non-functional, increasing the use of unimproved water sources.

The affordability of rural water supply services remains a major hurdle given the state of the economy as a whole and the levels of rural poverty. 84.3% of the population living in rural settlements are poor, in comparison to 46.5% living in urban areas, making the concept of community based management in rural water supply in Zimbabwe challenging. Although a National Water Policy was developed and approved by cabinet, the policy is not being fully used by stakeholders. Slow implementation of the policy is attributed to lack of strategic action plans for its implementation. In addition, the policy document has not been well distributed and there are policy gaps in important areas such as disaster risk reduction. Furthermore, the National Water Policy alludes to financing mechanisms but nothing has been implemented in that respect and there is no investment plan.

Opportunities for private sector investment and participation in rural water supply have been missed. The adoption of the Type B bush pump as a national pump in 1989 lured the private sector into mass production of the pump. The large government investment in rural water supply in the 90s resulted in bush pump manufactures working on overdrive to meet demands resulting in poor standards creeping in. Because of poor workmanship in the production of fittings which were not compatible with the standard design, the communities could not replace and maintain hand pumps resulting in widespread breakdowns.

In 2012, UNICEF supported the government in developing the capacity of bush pump manufacturers to avoid communities from being short changed from substandard pumps. Capacity building is ongoing to aid the manufactures improve on quality. However, there is a need to improve the numbers of spare parts manufactures through Public Private Partnerships (PPPs) to improve on quality and price competitiveness. Currently, there is no PPP framework for WASH

---

240 Rural WASH Baseline survey, 2013
which has limited private sector participation and decreased the pace of growth and development of the sector.

When it comes to Zimbabwe’s urban water supply and sanitation services, early development was driven by principles of high service levels and standards and universal access for all, making them unique in Africa. It is mandatory that construction and legal occupation of urban houses be preceded by the development of road, water supply and sewage services. This approach ensured that service delivery kept pace with housing development. Cross subsidies from wealthier sections of urban areas to poorer sections advanced principles of universal access to all, hence 100% access to safe drinking water in urban centres in 1990.

However, like all other sectors of Zimbabwe’s economy, urban water supply and sanitation services have faced serious challenges over time due to population pressure and economic challenges of the past decade. The challenges affecting local authorities led to the significant reduction of cost recovery due to billing and collection challenges, including faulty or non-existent meters and reduced willingness and ability to pay for unreliable and low quality services.
Low financial inflows have resulted in large financial deficits in funding operation and maintenance, rehabilitation and the expansion of urban water supply infrastructure including storage, treatment facilities, pumps and conveyance systems, giving rise to high water losses. The highly degraded services resulted in inadequate and erratic water supply, poor quality of water provided to residents and limited availability of water. It is estimated that operation costs exceed tariffs in 50% of urban local authorities. This case is exacerbated by the lack of a tariff regulator, as local authorities sometimes buy water from the Zimbabwe National Water Authority at higher rates than they would sell it.

The highly degraded services resulted in inadequate and erratic water supply and a poor quality of water provided to residents. The availability of water dropped from 24 hour supply to between 6 to 13 hours per day. These events led to a progressive decrease in the use of piped water onto premises from 97% in 1990 to 79% in 2012 and an increase in the use of other improved water sources (3%-18%) and other unimproved water sources (0%-3%) from as shown in Figure 6.7.

2014 MICS data shows access to improved drinking water sources to be at 98.4%. The 2013 World Bank supported Service Level Benchmarking, reports property level coverage of direct water supply to be at 77%, average hours of continuous water supply to be at 12 hours with water quality at 82%, where the coverage of water supply is below the international benchmark of 100%. This means that a significant number of households continue to use unimproved water sources contributing to continued outbreaks of typhoid, dysentery and the high diarrheal case load as seen in Figure 6.8, which has been steadily increasing in recent years.241

Figure 6.8: Trends in Diarrhoea Diseases

Source: Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation, 2014

---
241 Ministry of Health and Child Care, 2014
Ground water now plays a central role as a source of water for both rural and urban centres. The increasing demand for ground water in urban areas is largely stimulated by an unmet demand for potable water. The potable water demand for Harare city alone is estimated at around $850,000\text{m}^3$ against a $650,000\text{m}^3$ treatment capacity\textsuperscript{242}. This shortfall is further exacerbated by aging equipment, large volumes of non-revenue water and electricity cuts that affect water pumps. This has therefore triggered a surge in the number of boreholes drilled and wells sunk, which calls for more concerted efforts in ground water monitoring, regulation and management. This requires the existence of a ground water management programme where decision making is based on comprehensive and open ground water mapping systems.

In general, the average distance between a household and the main drinking water source is 1.1km while 10.6% of the rural population had to travel 1 to 10 km to get water where 44% of spent over 30 minutes for a round trip\textsuperscript{243}. Fetching and transportation of household drinking water was predominantly a woman’s responsibility as 80.8% of households reported that drinking water was fetched and transported by women aged 15 years and above (and 10.9% by adult men above 15 years of age)\textsuperscript{244}. Women and girls walk long distances to fetch water in rural areas, depriving them of time to engage in economic or meaningful decision-making positions at community level. In addition, 30% of the respondents strongly or somewhat agreed or were neutral that it was common for women and young girls to experience violence when accessing water points. Gender Based Violence has also has been reported at boreholes in the urban areas. Gender disparities are also noted in the management of WASH infrastructure where there are very few women in the WASH sector at all levels\textsuperscript{245} and in more specifically, 77% of water point committees are chaired by men\textsuperscript{246}.

Despite various issues surrounding issues to water access, current projects in urban water are focused on the rehabilitation of the existing system in order to improve service and reduce non-revenue water which does not take into account the ballooning urban population. For instance, the

---


\textsuperscript{243} Rural WASH Baseline Survey, 2013

\textsuperscript{244} Ibid

\textsuperscript{245} Rural WASH Baseline survey 2013, and ERR&R Institutional reports, 2013

\textsuperscript{246} Rural WASH Baseline survey, 2013
water infrastructure in Harare commissioned before independence, which was meant to service less than 350,000 people is currently servicing over 2.5 million, more than five times its intended capacity\textsuperscript{247}. The expanding urban population in most cities has put pressure on the demand for housing and local authorities are failing to respond to this need with adequate water and sanitation services.

6.1.4.2 Sanitation and Hygiene

Zimbabwe has a two pillar strategy to improve sanitation services, the first being the use of standardized technologies, essentially full waterborne systems in urban areas and the second being ventilated improved latrines in rural areas and the subsidies to cover the capital costs of these services. This strategy did not however succeed in improving and maintaining a high level of service access. In fact, by the late 1990s, service access began to decline as shown by Figure 6.9.

Following the economic collapse, urban and rural systems suffered a major drawback. In urban areas sanitation systems collapsed as a result of a lack of maintenance and aging systems, which resulted in the use of improved sanitation declining from 54% to 52% between 1990 and 2012. Further, in rural areas the drying up of subsidies halted developments made in sanitation which resulted in a decrease in the use of improved facilities from 35% to 32% in that same period, as shown in Figure 6.9. Alternatively, in 2014, access to improved sanitation is at 35% (rural 30.3% and urban 47.3%) while open defecation stands at 31.7%, affecting mostly the rural areas at 44% as opposed to 1.1% in urban areas.\(^{248}\)

---

\(^{248}\) ZIMSTAT, 2014, **Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS)**.
Disparities in open defecation are high, with provinces such as Matabeleland North recording 62.7% open defecation as shown in Figure 6.9. With these high figures, it does not appear that the goal will be met to reduce open defecation to fewer than 10% by 2015, as spelled out in the 2011 National Sanitation and Hygiene Strategy framework.

![Figure 6.9: Percentage of Rural Population Practicing Open Defaecation in 2014](image)

The hygiene component of the WASH sector is the least paid attention too, though it plays a very crucial role in the reduction of diarrheal diseases. Most water and sanitation programmes only appendage hygiene as an add-on component. Hands are the main transmitters of diarrheal diseases and as a result hygiene programmes emphasise on hand washing during 5 critical times. As a result of the limited emphasis on hygiene over the years, in 2014, hand washing facilities were present in only 50.5% households. However, the 2013 Rural WASH Baseline Survey 88.5% and 74.2% of the households reported that they practiced hand washing before eating and after defecation and urination, respectively. This indicates that the majority of the population is aware of the critical times of hand washing however this may not translate into good hygiene behaviour as evidenced by the lack of hand washing facilities. For example, only 57.8% of children below the age of two years have stool disposed safely and 15.5% of children under five had suffered from diarrhoea 2 weeks preceding the 2014 MICS survey, both indicators of bad hygiene practices.

Schools play an important role in promoting positive WASH behaviours and practices through the provision of appropriate WASH facilities, health and hygiene knowledge to both school children and staff. School staffs are role models of good hygiene behaviour which could be extended into communities and families as school children become agents of change in their immediate households and communities. Schools also have an important role to play in supporting the girl

---

249 ZIMSTAT, 2014, *Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS).*  
250 Ibid
child, young women and female staff in promoting menstrual hygiene education through school amenities and education. Statistics related to school WASH are outlined below.

i. 60.6% of primary schools have a health club but only 22.8% of secondary schools have a health club\textsuperscript{251}.

ii. 35% of schools conducted menstrual hygiene sessions for girls, 42.1% of rural schools were not providing any safe and private menstrual hygiene support for girls and 6% of schools were giving female students hygiene promotion material in appropriate languages\textsuperscript{252}.

iii. 18% of schools use unsafe water sources, such as rivers and streams (10%), most of which are rural schools\textsuperscript{253}.

iv. 28% of schools have water sources located more than 500 meters from the school which limits good practices of hand washing after using toilets.

v. The national pupil to toilet ratios are low sitting at 25 for girls and 27 for boys in primary schools and 19 for girls and 20 for boys in secondary school\textsuperscript{254}. However there are provincial disparities at both primary and secondary levels ranging up to a ratio of 1:38 in Bulawayo and 1:50 in Harare\textsuperscript{255}.

Analysis of water and sanitation service access by wealth quintiles shows that access is extremely skewed by income. Figure 6.10 shows the extreme situation for sanitation in Zimbabwe where the poorest have the worst access to service.

There is also a correlation between households’ wealth rank to a hand washing method. Households in the poorer quintiles tended not to practice the recommended run-to-waste with either soap or ash methods but use a shared bowl with water only\textsuperscript{256}. Households in

\textbf{Figure 6.10:} Access to improved sanitation Access (%) by Wealth Quintile from 1995 to 2010

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{Figure6.10.png}
\caption{Access to improved sanitation Access (%) by Wealth Quintile from 1995 to 2010}
\end{figure}

\textsuperscript{251} EMIS, 2013
\textsuperscript{252} Rural WASH Baseline Survey, 2013
\textsuperscript{253} EMIS, 2013
\textsuperscript{254} Ibid
\textsuperscript{255} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{256} Rural WASH baseline survey, 2013
the wealthier quintiles tended to practice the run-to-waste with soap method\textsuperscript{257}.

The relationship between WASH behaviours and wealth status is further elaborated in the Figure 6.11 below that confirms that with increasing wealth, the number of households that practice sharing of bowl with water decreases while the number of those practicing the recommended run-to-waste methods increases. These behaviours could be attributed to differences in access to information and education levels.

In particular, people with disabilities and other forms of vulnerabilities face challenges in accessing WASH services, as a number of them must receive assistance from other household members to access and use water for a variety of reasons\textsuperscript{258}. Further, 48.2\% of the people living with disabilities practice open defecation\textsuperscript{259} and for those who are able to access sanitation facilities a number of challenges are encountered and are as follows:

\begin{enumerate}
  \item 5.5\% reported that the latrine entrance not wide enough for the wheelchair or wheelbarrow to enter
  \item 12.8\% held onto the ground which in most cases was dirty, during squatting since there were no seats
  \item 5.9\% had difficulty because there were no handrails around the squat hole in the slab
  \item 13.1\% had visual difficulty locating the hole in the slab and 8\% were afraid of falling into the hole
  \item 10.7\% had difficulty in cleaning after defecation because they could not lift the water container, could not see the soap, or could not find water
  \item 21.4\% had no difficulty
\end{enumerate}

As previously shown, the most acute WASH related humanitarian needs include diarrheal outbreaks and most recently, displacements made by flooding. The more chronic vulnerabilities include inadequate access to basic social services, lack of agricultural inputs and disrupted livelihoods. In Zimbabwe, the disaster risk reduction framework and the ensuing practice have not yet accommodated some of the most vulnerable and excluded groups, especially the terminally ill, people with disabilities and the very poor\textsuperscript{260}. Top-down approaches to disaster risk management have been blamed for the lack of resilience and poor preparedness. Often, disaster risk reduction has also been modelled along the needs and priorities of able-bodied people, whilst largely excluding those with various forms of impairments.

Disaster risk management over the years has been characterised with:

\begin{enumerate}
  \item Lack of a disaster response plan for WASH related outbreaks.
  \item Late declarations of emergencies, for example, the late declaration of the 2008 cholera outbreak.
  \item Mistrust between the Government and civil society, for example the 2008 NGO ban.
\end{enumerate}

\textsuperscript{257} Rural WASH baseline survey
\textsuperscript{258} Rural WASH baseline survey, 2013
\textsuperscript{259} Ibid
iv. Limited capacity to work in a rapid onset emergency mode, for example the insufficient response capacity during the 2008 cholera outbreak.\textsuperscript{261}

\subsection*{6.1.5 Social Protection}

Social protection can be referred to as ‘the public actions taken in response to levels of vulnerability, risk and deprivation which are deemed socially unacceptable within a given polity or society’.\textsuperscript{262} Different types of social protection instruments are designed to help households and individuals better manage risk and vulnerability. These may include both covariant risks such as economic crisis and natural disasters that affect large segments of the population and idiosyncratic shocks such as retirement or illness that affect individual households.\textsuperscript{263}

Risk and vulnerability in Zimbabwe emanates from a combination of intrinsically linked socioeconomic, environmental and political factors. For example the decline in economic performance in Zimbabwe has had a knock on effect on all aspects of life and wellbeing. Urban unemployment remains persistently high particularly among youth and women. Poverty is increasing and deepening particularly in rural areas. Food insecurity remains high with over 2.2 million food insecure people in rural areas. HIV adult prevalence is still high at 15\% and has the greatest impact on women and adolescents.\textsuperscript{264} The poor face significant challenges in accessing education evidenced by high drop out rates particularly at secondary level due to lack of financial resources. The deterioration in basic social services including health delivery services, provision of clean water and sanitation means health and human capital development is compromised. Against this context, social protection instruments should help households manage various risks and shocks and ensure that the needs of special groups of people are catered for including the elderly, children, women, persons with disabilities, people living with HIV/AIDS, youth, mobile and migrant populations.

The Government of Zimbabwe has had comprehensive social protection programmes for several decades however they are disjointed and lack funding as well as a coherent social protection framework to address a broad spectrum of risk and vulnerability factors. Besides reduced access to social assistance, vulnerable populations face significant challenges with the long application processes and related costs for applicants.

Three forms of social protection in the country include:

\begin{itemize}
  \item i. Social assistance such as cash transfers, Public Works Programmes, or fee waivers for basic services
  \item ii. Social insurance, including old-age and disability pensions, health insurance, and unemployment insurance
  \item iii. Labour market interventions and programs.
\end{itemize}

Although social protection programmes have been adversely affected by the recent economic challenges caused by reduced fiscal revenues, the Government has made progress in making policy reforms that help households better manage risks. In this regard, the Social Transfer Policy Framework was developed to provide coherence to the implementation of social transfers thus

\begin{footnotesize}
\textsuperscript{261} Cholera Response Evaluation (2009)
\textsuperscript{264} National HIV and AIDS Estimates Report 2013
\end{footnotesize}
improving quality, relevance and adequacy of the transfers. A Public Community Works Policy Framework and Operational Guidelines for Productive Community Works programmes and for the Harmonised Social Cash Transfer have also been developed. Further, the Government is looking at strengthening coherence between social protection instruments by developing a social protection strategy.

Less than 20% of the labour force is covered by social security\textsuperscript{265}. These social insurance schemes are largely run by the National Social Security Authority. Other forms of social protection offered by the Government under its Social Assistance programmes include the Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM), War Victims Compensation, Assisted Medical Treatment Order (AMTO), the Food Mitigation Programme, child protection services, support to people living with disabilities, drought relief, public works and other livelihood support programmes. For example, the Government’s Food Mitigation Programme falls under public works and in 2012 there were 75,000 participants with expenditures estimated at US$300,000\textsuperscript{266}. The number of beneficiaries of the cash transfers has declined over the years from 32,000 in 1994 to 9,671 in 2013\textsuperscript{267}.

The Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) is the largest social transfer programme in the country aimed at retaining orphans and vulnerable children (6-19 years) in school. Implemented since 2001, this program provides school and examination fees and levies assistance. In 2013 it had a national coverage of 456,003 children with approximately 80% at secondary school\textsuperscript{268}. One of the major problems facing the BEAM is low coverage of the population at risk and late disbursement of the funds to schools resulting in children being turned away from school.

The Assisted Medical Treatment Order (AMTO) covers the treatment in hospital and subsequent check-ups and caters for persons over 60 years of age, people living with disabilities, orphans and vulnerable children and persons who suffer from continuous illness. The AMTO faces challenges due to insufficient funding and shortage of drugs in government hospitals. In 2014, only 32.3% of children under the age of five years are registered, (where 17.9% are orphans)\textsuperscript{269} in comparison to 37.8% in 2009\textsuperscript{270}. The low numbers of registered children in both the BEAM and AMTO raises legal protection concerns and affects their access to basic services.

Several government ministries\textsuperscript{271} implemented labour market interventions. For example, the Ministry of Youth, Indigenization and Empowerment provide non-formal skills training targeted to school drop-outs and disabled youth. Labour market programmes are affected by outdated equipment and prohibitive fees. In terms of social insurance programmes, less than 20% of the

\textsuperscript{266} World Bank, 2014, Zimbabwe: Crafting a Coherent Social Protection System - Policy Note (DRAFT), July 2014.
\textsuperscript{267} ibid
\textsuperscript{268} ibid
\textsuperscript{269} ZIMSTAT, 2014, Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS).
\textsuperscript{270} ZIMSTAT, 2010, Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Monitoring Survey (MIMS).
\textsuperscript{271} Ministry of Labour and Social Services, the Ministry of Youth, Indigenisation and Empowerment, Ministry of Education, Sports and Culture, Ministry of Women’s Affairs, Gender and Community Development, Ministry of Small and Medium Enterprises and Cooperative Development.
labour force is covered by social security. These social insurance schemes are provided by the National Social Security Authority, National the Pension Fund and the Public Service Pension Fund. The downside of these schemes is that they are limited to formal sector workers and exclude informal sector workers.

Though the aforementioned programmes make some strides in addressing needs, there remain large segments of vulnerable populations who are not accessing them. Social protection is provided for in Chapter 2 of the Constitution of Zimbabwe particularly to these select population groups. The Constitution advocates for social protection of children, youth, elderly, persons with disabilities and Veterans of the liberation struggle. It articulates issues of empowerment, employment creation, food security and compels the state to adopt policies and measures that protect the rights of the marginalised population. Further, the State is obliged to take measures to ensure the provision of basic social services such as health and education and other employment and empowerment opportunities.

Notwithstanding the above initiatives, more needs to be done to improve the welfare of excluded groups such as the elderly, people living with disabilities and mobile and migrant populations. For example, people living with disabilities encounter multiple attitudinal, environmental and institutional barriers that hinder their effective inclusion within Zimbabwean society. Prevalence of disability was found to be at 7%. A large proportion which consisted of children and young people. Fewer disabled children accessed formal education and a small proportion of individuals with disability (3.5%) did not receive any form of social protection. Females living with disability suffer double social exclusion, firstly as a female and secondly as a person with a disability.

Turning to the elderly (65 +), their population stands at 4.3% of the total population. Elderly persons are among the worst affected population and find it difficult to participate in development initiatives thus making them invisible to many interventions. The Government is working towards improving the welfare of the elderly. The Older Person’s Bill was first drafted in 2002 but was enacted into law in 2012; however more needs to be done to align the Act to the Constitution. The Bill provides for the well-being of older persons and for the appointment of a Director for Older Persons affairs, the establishment of an Older Person Board and creation of an Older Persons Fund.

Further mobile and migrant populations, although somewhat recognised, face various challenges depending on their situation and there is neither concrete evidence nor data to guide policy and planning. A study is required to further unravel and understand the livelihoods of this group of people so that their welfare is catered for within the Government’s mainstream social protection programmes.

274 Ibid.
6.1.5.1 **Social Transfers**

Of the 3 million households in Zimbabwe 1.1 million are not poor, 1.4 million are moderately poor and 500,000 are extremely poor as seen in Figure 6.12 below. In statistical terms, the extremely poor households live below the food poverty line. They are unable to meet their food energy needs even if they would spend all their income on food. Typically, these are the groups that require the most social assistance.

**Figure 6.12:** Households in Zimbabwe Suffering from Different Categories of Poverty

![Diagram showing different categories of poverty](image)

- **A**: 1,000,000 households (Low dependency ratio, households with labour)
- **B**: 400,000 households (High dependency ratio, labour constrained households)
- **C**: 300,000 households (Food Poverty Line 16%)
- **D**: 200,000 households (Total Consumption Poverty Line 63%)

**Source:** ZHSCT Manual of Operations, Revised May 1

Through a Government of Zimbabwe National Action Plan for orphans and vulnerable children (NAP II), the Government initiated the Harmonised Social Cash Transfer (HSCT) Scheme that targets the poorest households that are both labour constrained and food poor with an aim to increase incomes, expenditure and consumption of the households to a level that exceeds the food poverty line leading to improved nutrition, health, education and housing. The programme is paying cash benefits to 55,509 households in 20 districts (two from each province) in the country. A total of 539,057 households in the 20 districts were reached with a census based proxy means test enumeration and 55,509 households from the 20 districts, representing about 10% of the total households in the 20 districts were enrolled in the programme. According to the Zim Asset, the programme is expected to reach 100,000 households by 2015. The broader aim to cover all the 200,000 households that are extremely poor and at the same time labour constrained (incapacitated) will be reached by 2018.

The households targeted by HSCT are mostly headed by the elderly or disabled people, where most heads are female, mainly widows. 81% of households include children, many of them orphans as seen in Table 6.10 Further, as seen in Table 6.11, household members are children,
elderly, disabled and chronically ill people with few adults in good health. These statistics show that HSCT reaches the neediest citizens of Zimbabwe, those that are unable to benefit from labour based policies and interventions. Instead of having separate programs for all the different categories of vulnerable groups, HSCT covers all, focusing on those persons, who live in households that are too poor to care for the needs of their vulnerable members. Given that 81% of the households include children, child protection services are provided in order to respond to cases of violence, abuse and exploitation against children through a case management system. From a 2015 target of 25,000 children, 56,327 have been reached with services as of June 2014. This model of social assistance and child protection services presents a holistic model of support of vulnerable populations.

Table 6.10: Profile of Harmonised Social Cash Transfer Beneficiary Households in 20 Districts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Female Headed</th>
<th>Elderly Headed</th>
<th>Child Headed</th>
<th>Households with Children</th>
<th>Beneficiary Households</th>
<th>Total Households in Programme Area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>34,068</td>
<td>33,647</td>
<td>1,417</td>
<td>45,047</td>
<td>55,509</td>
<td>539,057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.11: Profile of Harmonised Social Cash Transfer Recipient Household Members in 20 Districts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Females (19-59)</th>
<th>Males (19-59)</th>
<th>Disabled or Chronically Ill Adults</th>
<th>Elderly (60+)</th>
<th>Children (0-18)</th>
<th>Orphans (0-18)</th>
<th>Total Household Members</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>32,247</td>
<td>16,299</td>
<td>46,166</td>
<td>45,091</td>
<td>154,008</td>
<td>49,028</td>
<td>247,645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 2013 Constitution of Zimbabwe, has taken the lead in constitutionally providing for the right to social security and social care in Section 30. Given this foundation, the GoZ is currently in the process of developing a synergistic and coordinated social protection system through developing a National Social Protection Policy. The national policy aims to strengthen existing social protection systems, increase harmonization across programs, strengthen administration and ensure overall policy coherence to effectively address the varied vulnerabilities of the population.

6.2 Summary of Challenges and Opportunities

Population issues, which have a strong bearing on poverty, the economy and employment, as well as other sectors such as the environment and the provision of basic social services, have not been adequately addressed in a coordinated and integrated manner in national development plans and frameworks. There is need to update the current National Population Policy of 1998. On the youth, the challenge is to formulate effective policies that address youth development as well as to integrate them into national development policies and processes. On family planning, the Government made a commitment during the Family Planning Summit in London in 2012 to reduce unmet needs from 13% to 6.5% in 2020 and to promote long term and permanent methods. On
migration, the challenge is to formulate sound migration policies and effective programmes that maximise the benefits and minimise the negative consequences of migration for both sending and receiving countries as well as for the migrants. Migration affects social protection issues as most sending families lose their productive labour. It is also important to develop knowledge in linking migration to reproductive health, particularly with emphasis on adolescents and youth.

The challenges faced in the education sector are caused by political, economic and social facets factors. Many of the constraints are driven by the budgetary cuts in the education sector that have occurred due to inadequate government revenues. These budgetary cuts have affected the capacity of the Ministry of Higher Education and Tertiary Education and The Ministry of Education to plan and implement policies as well as monitoring the education system\textsuperscript{276}. Reports show that extremely poor households do not send children to school due to failure to source uniforms and levies for various school programmes\textsuperscript{277}. The National Education For All Review of Zimbabwe has found that the quality of education has declined in the following areas: Unsatisfactory infrastructure and facilities, poor performance in national examinations at Grade 7, “O” Level; and “A” Level qualifications; the poor living conditions for teachers: with some staying in make-shift huts thus affecting teacher morale; long distances some young children have to travel to and from school; curriculum relevance - there has been interest to improve curriculum relevance at all levels. However, implementation has been difficult because of the lack of trained teachers, learning materials and funding. Teacher morale has been negatively affected due to low salaries, lack of accommodation, shortage of teaching and learning resources such as textbooks and stationery. Finally, the lack of current and up to date data on education\textsuperscript{278} affects planning and functioning of the sector.

It is important to note that, the Government, with the support of education partners, through the Education Development Fund (formerly the Education Transition Fund) and the Global Partnership for Education\textsuperscript{279}, is addressing a number of these challenges in various ways. The curriculum review process has already been tabled at the Cabinet for clearance while 80% of the GPE projects are dedicated to support the professional development of teachers. The Education Development Fund is also supporting the training of Early Childhood Development teachers as well as the provision of teaching and learning material for ECD classes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges</th>
<th>Opportunities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weak economic fundamentals to support the economy – high pop of young people</td>
<td>Youth dividend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High dependency rates</td>
<td>High literacy rates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No graduation strategies in social assistance in place</td>
<td>Accelerate ongoing UN initiatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Harness the diaspora potential</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{278} GoZ and UN, 2012, \textit{Millennium Development Goals Progress Report Page e28}.  
\textsuperscript{279} GPE projects implementation runs from 2014 – 2016.
- No strategy for risk aversion for potential youth bulge against available social services
- Increasing poverty
- Weak basic social services delivery, especially a lack of quality and integrated basic social services.
- No comprehensive social protection policy that spells out the linkages between the three pillars: social assistance, social insurance, and labour market interventions.

- formulate national policy and legal frameworks incorporating existing regional protocols on movement of people government systems strengthening in social sectors
- promote public-private partnerships
- Case Management roll out in social service provision
- Improving the health and education sectors by focusing on human resources training, infrastructure development and provide quality services.
- Development Partners opportunity to provide Social Protection Resources.

### 6.3 Options for Action

Currently all local authorities in Zimbabwe cannot provide adequate, clean and hygienic water, which has caused diseases and hampered productivity in industries. The country is experiencing acute shortages of electricity and reliable renewable energy sources. National Government and Local Authorities should invest more in electricity, renewable energy, and water resources development and management. They should take advantage of Joint Venture partnerships and also leveraging income from rental and service charges and other assets such as land.

Improvements in WASH contribute positively to the health and general human development outcomes of Zimbabwe. It is therefore important that a Sanitation and Hygiene Policy is developed so as to sustain the Open Defecation Free communities. A complete repair/rehabilitate of non-functioning water treatment plants, pumps, wastewater treatment, distribution systems and on-site sanitation in all cities, towns and growth centres is essential for improving access to clean water and sanitation in urban areas. In rural areas, focus should be on repair/rehabilitation of non-functional water points identified as a result of WASH inventory and prioritize provision of new services (e.g., drilling new boreholes) to the most vulnerable population having least access to improved drinking water. The major thrust will be elimination of open defecation through scaling up of the demanded sanitation which the Government of Zimbabwe adopted as a new national strategy operationalization of which started in late 2013. Another critical element will be the establishment of sector Information Management System

In improving social protection, the Government should seek technical and financial resources for strengthening coherence between social protection instruments by developing a social protection strategy. On migration, the challenge is to formulate sound migration policies and effective programmes that maximize the benefits and minimize the negative consequences of migration for both sending and receiving countries as well as for the migrants. It is also important to develop knowledge in linking migration to reproductive health, particularly with emphasis on adolescents and youth.
There is need for Government to update the current National Population Policy of 1998. On the youth, the challenge is to formulate effective policies that address youth development as well as to integrate them into national development policies.
7 GENDER EQUALITY AND WOMEN’S EMPOWERMENT

7.1 Overview

Zimbabwe’s Constitution, which was promulgated on 22 May 2013, enshrined strong provisions for gender equality and women’s rights. These provisions include, among others, a non-discrimination clause and the rights of women, enshrining gender balance as one of the National Objectives. The Constitution also provides for the creation of a Gender Commission which should play a critical role in monitoring the compliance of all institutions with the gender equality and women’s rights provisions in the Supreme Law and that women’s rights and entitlements as citizens are realised.

The gender equality and women’s rights provisions in the Constitution are aligned to several articles in international and regional human rights obligations such as the Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Violence Against Women, the 1995 Convention on Civil and Political Rights, the Beijing Declaration and the Global Platform for Action, the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development and the Protocol to the African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa. Zimbabwe ratified these treaties and regional human rights instruments without reservations and is required by the Constitution to incorporate them into the country’s legal and policy frameworks.

The impact of laws and policies on paper has thus far been minimal on the reality of women and girls. Negative and harmful cultural and religious practices, the subordination of women and girls in both public and private spheres and patriarchal attitudes and power imbalances between men and women remain major impediments to the attainment of gender equality. Gender inequality and inequity was cited by Zimbabwe’s 2012 MDG Progress Report as one of the reasons why Zimbabwe’s human development indicators remain well below the sub-Saharan Africa average Human Development Index of 0.463.

The country’s MDG report says “to ensure inclusivity and equity, the country is moving towards incorporating gender issues in all national development processes. This will be further strengthened through the introduction of gender sensitive budgeting, legislative reform and increasing gender awareness that focuses both on women’s rights and women’s economic empowerment.” These actions, if embraced, provide Zimbabwe with the makings of a post-2015 development framework that places gender equality at the centre, rather than at the periphery of national development. Some of the key issues which should be at the centre of Zimbabwe’s development are the elimination of violence against women, increasing women’s economic empowerment, women’s equal participation in leadership and decision-making at all levels in both the private and public spheres, and the strengthening of gender management systems and oversight institutions.

At a national level, the Constitution contains many progressive gender equality and women’s rights provisions. The Constitution requires the State to ensure that all international conventions, treaties and agreements to which Zimbabwe is a party are incorporated into domestic law thus creating a legal platform for accountability. Accountability systems that work for women contain two elements, the first of which is women’s inclusion in oversight processes and second is advancing
women’s human rights as a key standard against which the performance of officials is assessed. Further, Zimbabwe has put in place legislation to ensure gender equality and women’s empowerment becomes a reality. These measures include the Legal Age of Majority Act, the Labour Act, the Administration of Deceases Estate Act, the Maintenance Act, the Marriage Act, The Matrimonial Causes Act and the 2007 Domestic Violence Act. A National Gender Policy (2013-2017) is also aligned to international and national commitments and seeks to achieve a gender just society where men and women enjoy equality and equity and participate as equal partners in the development process of the country. In addition to this legislative framework, the government of Zimbabwe has put in place several other strategic policies between 2012 to 2014 which include the Broad-based Women’s Economic Empowerment Framework, the draft Agriculture Sector Gender Strategy, the National Gender-based Violence Strategy, the Multisectoral Protocol on Child Sexual Abuse as well as the National Action Plan to End Rape and Sexual Violence.

The Constitution provides for the establishment of two national human rights institution, namely the Human Rights Commission and the Gender Commission. Processes to appoint Commissioners and enact enabling legislation are underway and should be completed by the end of the year. The establishment of an independent institution dedicated to the oversight of gender issues will provide more opportunities for UN Agencies to focus their efforts on building national capacity for women’s human rights oversight and policy formulation and analysis.

7.2 Analysis of issues

7.2.1 Women’s Economic Empowerment

A stabilising macroeconomic environment over the past few years has not translated into gender equality and equity for women and girls in the economic sector. The country’s revised 2013-2017 National Gender Policy notes that women’s economic empowerment is key to the country’s economic growth and that many of the gender disparities persist in the economic sector.

While women’s share in the labour force continues to increase, the gap between the percentage of women in paid employment and that of men is wide. In 2011, 31% of the economically active men were in paid employment, compared to only 14% of women and of the 83% of the employed population that is unskilled, 54% of these are women. Similarly, 44.1% of married women (15-49 years) were employed compared to 84% men in the same category. While the Zim Asset has prioritised mining, agriculture, trade and tourism as the key drivers of the economy, these are male dominated and women’s meaningful participation and control over resources and processes in these sectors is very limited.

Women's unequal access to economic opportunities is due to a combination of factors. These include strong negative cultural and religious beliefs that perpetuate inequalities in terms of access,

control and ownership of resources in all sectors, as well as unequal rights to inheritance. Women’s access to resources is limited and constrained by the limited enforcement of their rights to property in marriage, at divorce and at the death of a spouse. Legislation on this requires strengthening and full enforcement through the justice delivery system. The on-going process of alignment of laws to the constitution provides an opportunity for strengthening women’s rights and access to property.

### 7.2.2 Access to and Control of Resources

Women’s lack of access to and control of productive resources and their lack of ownership of property remains among the key barriers to their economic empowerment in Zimbabwe. The 2010-2011 Zimbabwe Demographic and Health Survey shows that women’s ownership of assets that are often required for collateral is still very low. More than 3 out of 5 women do not own a house (63%) or land (64%) and only 9% of women own a house alone and 9% own land alone. While the 2000 Land Reform programme sought to redress racial inequalities in terms of land ownership, gender inequalities in terms of women’s ownership of land still persists. As illustrated in the Table 7.1 below, in both the communal and commercial farming sectors, the ownership of land remains largely in the hands of men.

#### Table 7.1: Land Ownership by Sex and Farming Sector

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Farming Sector</th>
<th>Male Land Owners (%)</th>
<th>Female Land Owners (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communal Areas</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>45.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1 Farms</td>
<td>69.3</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2 Farms</td>
<td>84.2</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small Scale Commercial farms</td>
<td>63.4</td>
<td>36.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large Scale Commercial farms</td>
<td>80.5</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** 2010 Agriculture and Livestock Survey cited in Women and Men in Zimbabwe 2012 Report, ZimStat, April 2013

The ownership of land and agricultural assets increases women’s access to credit, because both can be used as collateral for loans. Important to note is that the majority of women land owners are in the communal sector where land cannot be used as security for credit because the owners do not have access to the land in their own right. Women were only 8% of those who received short term loans in the communal sector and 15.3% and 26% of those on A1 and A2 farms, respectively received short-term loans. Further, women only comprise 9.5% of the recipients of short-term loans in the small scale commercial farming sector and 13.4% of the large scale commercial farmers who received loans. Women in all farming sectors, except A2, remain below 20% of the recipients of short term loans. Increasing women’s access to and control of productive

---


285 Ibid.


287 Ibid.

288 Ibid.
resources is essential for increasing their access to credit, their economic empowerment and reducing poverty.

Several financial institutions have established financing and funding schemes targeted at women in small and medium businesses. The Small Enterprises Development Corporation has a target to provide at least 30% of its products and services to female entrepreneurs. In 2006, the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe introduced a lending scheme to boost production in the Small and Medium Enterprises sector and by 2007, 44% of the amount allocated to the Reserve Bank’s facility was accessed by women\textsuperscript{289}. Moreover, the Ministry of Women’s Affairs, Gender and Community Development has a Women’s Fund, operated through a local bank, to finance income generating projects for women. The Ministry is now working on an initiative to establish a Women’s Bank.

7.2.3 Financing for Gender Equality

Progress towards the attainment of gender equality is highly dependent on the allocation of adequate resources. Promoting gender responsive policies and budgeting in all sectors of the economy, including specific measures on alternative financing for women’s economic empowerment, are among the measures recommended in Zimbabwe’s MDG 2012 Progress Report to accelerate the achievement of MDG 3 by 2015.

Progress has been made in the gender responsive budgeting initiative and government has shown some commitment to this area since 2007. However, this has not translated into significant amounts of national funds dedicated to gender mainstreaming and gender specific initiatives and programmes within government to advance gender equality and women’s empowerment. The ministry that serves as the main coordinator of the national gender machinery, the Ministry of Women’s Affairs, Gender and Community Development, remains one of the most under-resourced ministries. In the 2013 national budget, the Ministry was allocated $10,129,000, a slight increase in nominal terms from the 2012 allocation of $10,063,000\textsuperscript{290}. The 2014 National Budget further prioritises various programmes and policies (including the National Gender Policy) aimed at advancing and empowering women and by allocating US$2.5 million\textsuperscript{291}. Importantly, the Ministry also has never featured among the top 10 priority ministries in terms of national budget allocations\textsuperscript{292}. Development assistance to gender equality programmes and initiatives has also been minimal. According to the UN, programmes on women’s empowerment and gender equality received only 1% of the total disbursements of US$798,429,999 in 2012-2013\textsuperscript{293}.


\textsuperscript{290} Women’s Resource Center and Network, 2013, \textit{The 2013 National Budget Gender Analysis}

\textsuperscript{291} Hon. Patrick Chinamasa MP, 2013, \textit{The 2014 National Budget Statement – Towards an empowered society and a growing economy. Presented to the Parliament of Zimbabwe on 19 December 2013.}

\textsuperscript{292} Zimbabwe Women’s Resource Center and Network, 2013, \textit{The 2013 National Budget Gender Analysis}

7.2.4 Gender Based Violence

Gender-based violence (GBV) is violence that is directed against a person on the basis of gender, and it reflects and reinforces inequalities, between women and men. Zimbabwe has a relatively strong GBV legal framework and the Government has made strong commitments towards eradicating violence against women and girls, especially rape and sexual violence. For example, the National Action Plan to End Rape and Sexual Violence launched in 2014 and the 2010-2015 National Gender-Based Violence Strategy were designed to improve the efforts of the Government and its development partners to prevent and respond to violence against women through an effective multisectoral coordinated response. Despite these ongoing efforts to protect women and vulnerable populations against violence, there is widespread recognition in Zimbabwe that much remains to be done to prevent violence against women and girls and to protect survivors. There is need to strengthen the justice delivery system to these laws and policies are effectively implemented.

On domestic violence, 30% of women age 15-49 have experienced physical violence since age 15 and 18% of women have experienced physical violence within the past 12 months. The most common perpetrator of physical violence against women is the woman’s current or former husband or partner. 22% percent of women who have had sexual intercourse reported that their first experience was forced against their will. Overall, 27% of women reported that they have experienced sexual violence where in 90% of cases, it was their current or former husband, partner, or boyfriend committed the act. Only 37% of women who experienced physical or sexual violence have sought help where 58% turned to family, 36% to in-laws and 13% to friends or neighbours. Young women’s experience of sexual violence starts prior to the age of 18 with 33% of young women aged 18-24 reporting an experience of sexual violence before age 18, while 9% males in the same age group reporting sexual violence before age 18.

Recent statistics on the extent and underlying causes of violence against women and girls in the Violence Against Women Baseline Study published in 2013 reveal that of the women interviewed, 68% had experienced some form of violence at least once in their lifetime, while 46% of the men said they perpetrated some form of violence. Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) is the most common form of violence against women and girls with 69% women reporting lifetime experience and 41% of men disclosing perpetration. The most common form of IPV is emotional followed by physical, economic and sexual violence.

On physical violence, 37.4% of women (15-49) and 23.3% of men (15-54) believe that a husband is justified in hitting or beating his wife in at least one of the following circumstances:

---

294 UN Women - GBV and “violence against women” are often used interchangeably as most GBV is inflicted by men on women and girls.
297 Ibid
299 GoZ, Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development and Gender Links, 2013, Peace Begins @ home – Zimbabwe Violence Against Women Baseline Study.
300 Ibid
301 Ibid
i. She goes out without telling him
ii. She neglects the children
iii. She argues with him
iv. She refuses sex with him
v. She burns the food.

That women and men tolerate domestic violence for the above reasons is very alarming and needs corrective action from an early age for both males and females. Awareness building needs to start at primary schools and also in the socialisation process at home, for to girls and boys on intolerance towards GBV in all forms.

**Table 7.2: Early Marriage**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married before age 15</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married before age 18</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-19 year olds in a marriage or union</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females married to a spouse who is 10 or more years older</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: MICS 2014*

A manifestation of violence against girls, as early and forced child marriage, is on the increase in Zimbabwe due to a combination of social, economic, religious and cultural factors. The resultant effect and impact on girls and young women of the practice include early pregnancies, high maternal mortality and high rates of school drop outs.

Violence against women and girls is heightened by patriarchal societal norms, male dominance and control, wife ownership, sexual entitlement in marriage, experience of child sexual abuse by boys and abuse of alcohol. In terms of demographics, women in the ages of 18-29 were most vulnerable to IPV and the men likely to be perpetrators were between 18-44 years old. In 2009, it was estimated that the annual cost of GBV in Zimbabwe was US$2 billion.

While a number of policy frameworks and programmes have been directed towards ending GBV, there are critical programming gaps in terms of coordination, documentation of GBV cases, monitoring and evaluation of systems and data collection thus pointing to the need for capacity building and the development of indicators for monitoring different initiatives.

With these high levels of violence perpetrated against women and girls, the country does not have adequate services for survivors of violence. These survivor services which include post-exposure prophylaxis, medical services, psychosocial support, legal assistance and shelters are very limited and unavailable in many parts of the country.

### 7.2.5 Women's Leadership and Decision Making

The UN General Assembly 2011 Resolution on Women’s Political Participation noted that women are marginalized from the political sphere “often as a result of discriminatory laws, practices, attitudes and gender stereotypes, low levels of education, lack of access to health care and the disproportionate effect of poverty on women.” These factors, among others, continue to hinder...
women’s meaningful participation and the contribution of their voices and perspectives to many of the country’s national development processes in Zimbabwe. To reach the targets of gender parity in leadership and decision making as articulated in the Constitution and many of the international and regional gender equality and women’s rights instruments signed by the Government, systemic and institutional barriers must be removed to create an enabling environment for women to emerge as leaders and for young women to be mentored for leadership and decision making roles.

Section 17 of the Constitution requires the state to promote full participation of women in all spheres and must ensure that men and women are equally represented in all institutions and agencies of government at all levels. Further it requires that women constitute at least half of the membership of all Commissions and other elective and appointed bodies. Despite this Constitutional provision, women are underrepresented in leadership positions in elected office, the civil service and in the private sector. While women’s representation in Parliament and within posts of directors and above within the Public Service is more than 30%, women’s representation in Cabinet is 11.5% and women are only 16% of the councillors in local authorities. Available data from the media and the security sector, also reflect that women remain below 30% in senior decision-making positions. For the first time in 2013, a woman was promoted to the position of Brigadier General in the Zimbabwe Army.

7.2.6 Gender Mainstreaming and the Gender Management System
The official UN definition of gender mainstreaming is: “the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women’s as well as men’s concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated.”

Through the equality and non-discrimination provisions in the Constitution, Zimbabwe made a commitment to ensuring that gender equality is a generic principle that cuts across all policy areas. Gender mainstreaming is also highlighted as one of the key approaches for developing and implementing the country’s economic and development agenda, the Zim Asset. Ongoing promising initiatives in gender mainstreaming need further support and strengthening. This includes the work of more than 20 local authorities mainstreaming gender into service delivery, budgeting at the local level.

The mainstreaming process is being undertaken through the Gender Responsive Economic Policy Management Initiative (GEPMI) - Africa, together with the Gender Responsive Budgeting Programme. Zimbabwe adopted the Gender and Economic Policy Management Initiative to mainstream gender into macroeconomic and finance policy development and implementation, economic planning, and economic policy analysis so that policies deliver equally to low income women and men. Capacity building is a central component of GEPMI. More than 80 senior government officials from different ministries in Zimbabwe have participated in the initiative.

305 Ibid
306 Ibid
The country’s gender management system provides the framework for gender mainstreaming at the national level. This system is comprised of the Ministry of Women’s Affairs, Gender and Community Development, gender focal persons in line ministries, the Parliamentary Portfolio Committee on Gender, the Parliamentary Women’s Caucus and the women’s movement. This system plays an important oversight and monitoring role for achieving accountability to gender equality and women’s rights in government ministries and public sector institutions. There is also a network of gender structures at district and community levels that can serve as catalysts for gender mainstreaming in service delivery and for the effective dissemination of knowledge and information to women and girls.

Effectively mainstreaming gender in all aspects of Zimbabwe’s development is a significant challenge because it requires shifting cultural norms, strengthening the enforcement mechanisms of rights and entitlements in the Constitution and legislation and shifting the prevailing gender imbalance within national executives and legislatives. Key actions for strengthening the gender management system include better coordination among the institutions that comprise the system, the development of gender mainstreaming guidelines, the strengthening of gender analysis skills among gender focal persons, ministerial management, policy and planning staff, capacity strengthening of gender structures at district and community levels and the development of a national system for monitoring and evaluation by the gender machinery.

### 7.3 Summary of Challenges and Opportunities

A main challenge in the attainment of gender equality and women’s empowerment in the current context is inadequate implementation of gender equality commitment in international and regional treaties and in national legislation, policies and programmes. Duty bearers do not have the adequate capacity to deliver on women’s rights and to protect their rights. There is an absence of a shift in mind-set to put women’s empowerment at the centre of national development. Gender equality issues are at the periphery of the development agenda resulting in the country missing from the enormous contribution of women to development. There is no realisation that inequalities are cost the country in terms of development. For example, key institutions of delivery of justice to women and girls such the victim friendly units, the legal aid directorate, the courts are under-resourced. In addition, there are inadequate resources and capacity for national gender mainstreaming and national gender coordination institutions and an absence of a national gender monitoring and evaluation system coupled with data gaps to measure effectiveness of programmes and initiatives.

The national gender machinery needs to be strengthened in its operations particularly through human resources, training and budgetary allocations. Most women do not exercise the rights that laws specifically guarantee them, among other factors such as ignorance of the law, its administration, economic hardships that make it difficult to pursue their legal rights, cumbersome court procedures, customary laws and fear of breaking valued relations with family. Similarly, the low participation of women in various decision making process is due to cultural, social, political and economic influences. In terms of implementation, limited capacities when it comes to knowledge and skills for gender mainstreaming among gender focal persons is also a challenge. This impedes the effectiveness of the gender machinery. The situation is worsened by the lack of a systematic gender program in the induction for members of staff.
The establishment of the Gender Commission as an independent oversight body presents an opportunity for strengthening accountability by the State towards women’s human rights. The Constitution and its progressive gender equality provisions provides a strong normative framework for protection of rights and pushing towards attainment of gender equality in all spheres. The process of alignment of laws to the new Constitutions is an opportunity to strengthen national legislation for gender equality. For example legislation on marriages, inheritance, local government elections, sexual offences all need to be aligned to be in compliance with the Constitution. The strengthened capacity of ZIMSTAT should be utilised to generate gender-disaggregated data in all sectors. The presence of institutions that constitute the gender mainstreaming management system presents an opportunity for building and strengthening the capacity for holistic management systems to advance the presence of gender structures at district and community levels. The challenges are summarised in table 7.2 below.

Table 7.3: Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment Challenges and Opportunities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges</th>
<th>Opportunities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Inadequate implementation and Enforcement of gender equality constitutional and legislative provisions.</td>
<td>• New constitutional provisions, including the alignment of laws to the Constitution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• High levels of violence against women and girls.</td>
<td>• Continuing of gender mainstreaming and women’s economic empowerment and representation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Limited access to justice for women and girls.</td>
<td>• Capitalising on the strengthened capacity of ZIMSTAT to generate greater gender-disaggregated data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Inadequate resources and capacity for national Gender mainstreaming.</td>
<td>• Strengthen existing gender management system at national level and gender structures at district and community levels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Unequal access to and control of resources between men and women.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.4 Options for Action

Zimbabwe is moving towards incorporating gender issues in all national development processes. This will be further strengthened through the introduction of gender sensitive budgeting, legislative reform and increasing gender awareness that focuses both on women’s rights and women’s economic empowerment. If these actions are embraced, Zimbabwe will be provided with the makings of a post-2015 development framework that places gender equality at the centre, rather than at the periphery of national development.
8 CROSS CUTTING ISSUES

8.1 Overview
Cross cutting issues impact more than one sector and require action in multiple fields and should thus be integrated into all areas of programmes and be addressed in all policy dialogue on development. These cross cutting issues should be mainstreamed across all the six thematic areas during the ZUNDAF rollout process. A number of them can also be applied across the thematic areas using multisectoral approaches during implementation.

8.2 Gender Mainstreaming
Gender mainstreaming was established as a major global strategy for the promotion of gender equality in the Beijing Platform for Action from the Fourth United Nations World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995. Gender mainstreaming has been defined by the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC, 1997) as:

“...the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women’s as well as men’s concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality.”

The understanding of, and commitment to, gender mainstreaming in Zimbabwe has increased significantly. Zimbabwe’s commitment towards promoting gender equality and women's empowerment is demonstrated at international, regional and national levels. The Government remains committed to empowering women and enhancing their involvement and participation in all aspects of economic development.

8.3 Environment
Environmental degradation and a decline in ecosystem goods and services have drastic consequences for human societies especially the poor as they depend directly on ecosystems and their benefits. It is a relevant issue that is inseparable from the economy, poverty, health, livelihoods, food security and climate change.

At the national level the contribution of the natural resource endowment to the economy of Zimbabwe still has to be adequately valued\textsuperscript{307}. However, a 2012 quantification study done by the Ministry of Environment, Water and Climate showed that biodiversity contributed between US$42 million and US$49 million in export earnings from game products such as skins, hides, and trophies \textsuperscript{308}. The same study reported that export earnings from biodiversity products and


\textsuperscript{308} GoZ, Ministry of Environment Water and Climate, 2013, Monetary Quantification of the Ecosystem Products and Services in Protected Areas.
photographic safaris were estimated by the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe at US$96.95 million\(^\text{309}\). However, environmental degradation has increased in the past decade due to accelerated urban housing construction, expansion in agriculture and mining, unsustainable exploitation of natural resources, deforestation, invasive alien species, climate change and high dependence on the natural capital for human development\(^\text{310}\). The challenging socioeconomic environment has intensified dependence on natural resources for the majority of the population.

Generally, Zimbabwe’s policy and legislation has been supportive to environmental management. As such, environmental rights are fundamental and enshrined in Zimbabwe’s constitution under Section 73. The environmental rights include rights to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being and an environment protected for the benefit of present and future generations. These rights will be achieved through legislative and other measures such as the prevention of pollution and ecological degradation, promotion of conservation and securing ecologically sustainable development and use of natural resources while promoting economic and social development. The Zim Asset also underscores the need to address the multiple environmental management challenges. Further, the Government has encouraged stakeholders to take measures to address these challenges through implementation and formulation of appropriate policies and strategies.

The current government initiatives towards mainstreaming environment at the local levels through the Environmental Management Agency are commendable. The development of the Local Environmental Action Plans when implemented, enhance the conservation and sustainable use of the natural resources as required by the Biodiversity Convention\(^\text{311}\). In addition, the Draft Model By-laws on “Environment and Natural Resources Conservation” for adoption by Rural District and Urban Councils contain measures aimed at regulating and controlling the indiscriminate cutting of trees, burning of vegetation, invasive alien species, protection of wetlands and water courses, air pollution, solid and effluent waste management, genetic resources, hazardous substances and toxic chemicals among others\(^\text{312}\).

8.4 Disaster Risk Management

Zimbabwe’s efforts towards Disaster Risk Management (DRM) are informed by the global, regional and national policy frameworks. At a global level, the country is signatory to the 2005-2015 Hyogo Framework for Action that requires governments to strengthen DRM governance, risk and early warning information, disaster education, reduction of underlying risks and emergency preparedness and response. At a national level, the DRM Strategy is premised on the draft DRM Bill and draft DRM Policy which will transform the Department of Civil Protection to the Department of Disaster Risk Management. The Draft DRM Bill and Draft DRM Policy give authority to the Department of Disaster Risk Management Principal Director to establish and coordinate the development and implementation of a National DRM Strategy in order to minimize

\(^{309}\) Ibid.
\(^{311}\) ibid
\(^{312}\) ibid
vulnerability to disasters triggered by natural, human made, environmental and radiological hazards\textsuperscript{313}.

8.5 Science, Technology and Innovation

The 2012 Second Science, Technology and Innovation Policy acknowledge the discipline as cross cutting among all socio economic sectors. The policy underscores the importance of mainstreaming Science, Technology and Innovation in all sectors of the economy and ensures that Zimbabweans benefit from acquisition and utilisation of available technology in improving the quality of their lives\textsuperscript{314}. There are opportunities for learning and utilizing emergent technologies and accelerating development in areas such as biotechnology, Information, Communication and Technology, Nanotechnology and indigenous knowledge systems. Biotechnology is particularly attractive for its relevance in agriculture, medicine and manufacturing. The policy particularly emphasises the promotion and coordination of biotechnology research on plants and animals aimed at increasing food productivity, strengthening biotechnology research for disease prevention and control and research aimed at optimising manufacturing processes through the use of biotechnology.

While there are prospects for Science, Technology and Innovation to improve the human condition, there are also real threats that can arise from the unsound and unsafe application of the technology to human health, biodiversity, the environment in general, national security, and the general welfare of the people of Zimbabwe. To address such potential threats, Zimbabwe developed a comprehensive biosafety framework to enable the economically viable, scientifically sound, environmentally sustainable and socially acceptable application of both conventional and modern biotechnology. The National Biosafety Framework comprises of a national policy on biotechnology and its safe use (The National Biotechnology Policy), an Act of Parliament - the National Biotechnology Authority Act, institutional arrangements in the form of the National Biotechnology Authority and Institutional Biosafety Committees, mechanisms for risk assessment (reviews), mechanisms for decision making, mechanisms for public participation, mechanisms for monitoring and enforcement (Biosafety Inspectorate) and supporting guidelines and standards.

Zimbabwe’s ICT sector has developed significantly in the past decade with positive changes introduced in the policy and institutional environment. These were characterized by the deregulation of the telecommunications sector, establishment of regulatory bodies in the ICT sector\textsuperscript{315}, the establishment of the Cabinet Committee on Scientific Research, Technology Development and Applications, computerisation of government ministries in the main centres of the country, creation of the ministry responsible for ICT, increase in the internet penetration rate, enactment of the Criminal Law Amendment (Protection of Power, Communications and Water Infrastructure) Act, No. 1 of 2011 to deal with the problem of vandalism of existing power, communications and water infrastructure and finally the removal of duty on ICT hardware and software\textsuperscript{316}.

\textsuperscript{313} See Draft DRM Bill Section 4.2(a)(ii).
\textsuperscript{314} GOZ, Minister of Science and Technology Development, 2012, Second Science, Technology and Innovation Policy of Zimbabwe, March 2012.
\textsuperscript{315} These regulatory bodies include Postal and Telecommunications Authority of Zimbabwe, Zimbabwe Media Commission and the Broadcasting Authority of Zimbabwe.
8.5.1 Agriculture
The agricultural sector faces major challenges in enhancing production in situations of dwindling
natural resources, lack of financial support and underutilisation of some of the land. Information
and Communication Technologies have played an important role in addressing some of these
challenges and uplifting the livelihoods of the rural poor and resettled farmers. This can be made
possible through the use of computers, internet, geographical information systems, mobile phones,
as well as traditional media such as radio or TV, to disseminate information to the farmers and
buyers.

Farming involves risks and uncertainties, with farmers facing many threats from poor soils,
drought, erosion and pests. Key improvements stemming from use of ICTs include providing
information about pest and disease control, especially early warning systems, new ways to
optimise production and regulations for quality control. A mobile application called Eco-farmer
has been introduced and is assisting farmers to this effect. The use of ICTs also allows for up-to-
date market information on prices for commodities, inputs and consumer trends. Such information
is instrumental in making decisions about future crops and commodities as well as the best time
and place to sell and buy goods.

8.5.2 Education
The provision of ICT resources to the education sector in Zimbabwe has been growing since 2002.
Currently the education sector is in the process of implementing the Nziramasanga Education
Commission Report of 1999, which recommended the use of computers for teaching and learning
in educational institutions. The President’s Office also launched and rolled out a campaign to
provide schools with computer related equipment under the “Connect a School Connect a
Community” Project. This resulted in most schools, including those in remote parts of the country
and universities, using ICTs in the teaching and learning process. To this effect, here has been an
increase in Zimbabwean citizens acquiring their qualifications (local and international) through
distance learning. While the rollout of ICTs continues, there is need to capacitate teachers, as most
of them were never exposed to the ICT during their teacher training programs.

8.5.3 Health
The Zimbabwean health sector, just like other global health sectors, has embraced ICTs to enhance
service delivery and increase competitiveness, as part of an e-Health initiative in the country. Some
of the e-Health applications that have been introduced in the country include:

i. Strengthening the national health information system through the use of the District Health
Information System which is deployed throughout the country and captures data from all
districts. The system is now being supported by mobile application tools where mobile
phones are being used in remote facilities and reporting into the national database.

ii. Human Resources for Health are being tracked through an integrated database system, can
transfer data to the District Health Information System and includes relevant regulatory
authorities like the Ministry of Health and Child Care. In addition, private sector systems
and ordinary citizens can query the registration status of health practitioners with their
respective councils.

iii. A number of private sector initiatives are beginning to take hold in Zimbabwe, with one
service provider linking all care centres in a single network. In addition, the private sector
has also introduced mobile health services, for example, Eco-health from Econet Wireless,
which sends text messages with health information to their customers.
iv. The medical school has installed a telemedicine application through which teaching and training can be provided to undergraduate medical practitioners. Telemedicine has also been introduced at the two major referral hospitals in Zimbabwe.

v. The medical school has access to key international data knowledge repositories currently accessible to postgraduate and undergraduate health care practitioners.

8.5.4 Postal Sector
In an effort to bridge the digital divide, by making ICTs accessible to people in different parts of the country including rural areas, ZIMPOST is working with the Government to establish Information Communication Centres within its extensive postal network. As part of the pilot project, Information Communication Centres have since been set up in Harare, Murombedzi, Mutare and Maphisa and there are plans to cover all 10 provinces by the end of 2014.

8.5.5 Governance and Human Rights
ICTs have brought about social change through enhanced awareness and protection of human rights in both the national and the international system. This is partly because information has become a resource and commodity, surpassing its traditional role a facilitator to political and economic decision making.

Individuals, NGOs, national governments, and supranational institutions have all been empowered insofar as they have the means to effectively communicate their stories, agendas, laws and agreements with maximum impact. The main impact of ICTs on democratic life concerns has been its ability to strengthen the public sphere by expanding information resources, channels of electronic communication and linking interest groups, social movements, NGOs, transnational policy networks and political parties. Arrangements are underway to put in place a comprehensive e-government framework in Zimbabwe, in an effort to improve operational efficiency and service delivery within the Government and enhance data collection and dissemination.

8.5.6 Gender
In Zimbabwe, despite economic and sociocultural barriers to women’s use of ICTs, women who have been able to use them, have done so productively and have managed to substantially improve their lives and increase their income. Thus ICTs are becoming an important knowledge resource for women, in support of socioeconomic developmental objectives pertaining to the empowerment of women.

8.6 Data for Development
The Zimbabwe National Statistical System (NSS) comprises data producers, data users and data suppliers, as well as research and training institutions. The Census and Statistics Act\textsuperscript{317} enacted in 2007 established the Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency (ZIMSTAT) as a semi-autonomous agency. ZIMSTAT is guided by a Board which has prepared strategies for ZIMSTAT and the wider NSS. ZIMSTAT is the main source of official statistics in Zimbabwe through censuses and statistical surveys. However, the responsibility for producing good quality statistics lies not with ZIMSTAT alone, but also with other institutions such as line ministries producing administrative

---

\textsuperscript{317} Census and Statistics Act [Chapter 10:29]
data and a variety of other essential statistics. ZIMSTAT plays a coordination and supervisory role within the overall NSS.

ZIMSTAT has made significant progress in producing and disseminating data to the public, yet, challenges remain. The challenges faced by the NSS include the unmet demand for up-to-date statistics, data gaps resulting from back log of data, limited capacity to compile and develop some series and delays in data production, data supply “fatigue” due to many institutions requesting the same information which is mainly caused by a lack of coordination of data producers. Statistics are mainly organisation based and are often not harmonized. This implies that there is an incomplete representation of the real situation presented by the different data sets. Data across sectors are collected independently of each other and they are sometimes conflicting due to use of varying methodologies. There are also capacity constraints in data management in many sub sectors such as education, agriculture and health, which have management information systems with constraints that need to be addressed. There is currently no common platform for data management across sectors.

Further, funding has constrained the capacity to produce data and use statistics consistently across the NSS and has undermined the sustainability of the improvements made. There is also insufficient and outdated IT software and hardware, shortage of office equipment and furniture, as well as lack of transport for data collection and other essential materials required for data production. Some of the statistical infrastructures are outdated, such as the Business Register and the Business Sample Frame for Economic Surveys, among others. Shortage of human resources and professional staff (statisticians) for analysis is another serious challenge. There is also a lack of public trust, appreciation and lack of capacity in using the statistics.

The Government is committed to addressing challenges in the NSS and improving Zimbabwe’s statistical capacity and has done this through the development of a Strategic Plan for ZIMSTAT and the first National Strategy for the Development of Statistics (NSDS) covering the period 2011-2015. The NSDS sets out goals, strategies and an action plan to improve the production and use of statistics. The two major themes in the NSDS are the production of quality statistics and capacity building.

The concept of a joined up National Statistics System will be developed through ZIMSTAT’s coordination, harmonisation and supervisory role, including acting as the repository and contact point for all of Zimbabwe’s official statistics. The NSDS aims to address shortfalls in the timely provision of official statistics through the implementation of a sustained programme of survey implementation from 2011-2015 and provides an integrated framework for strengthening statistical capacity across the entire National Statistical System (NSS). There are also ongoing initiatives aimed at strengthening the capacity of ZIMSTAT and the NSS through promoting awareness on the use and value of statistics and production and enhancing the dissemination of quality data and statistics.

8.7 Human Rights Based Approaches

Human rights are universal legal guarantees which include civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights that protect the human values of freedom, equality and dignity. The Human Rights

Based Approach (HRBA) puts the human being at the centre of programming through a conceptual framework that harmonises wherever possible international norms and standards with the national legal framework and encourages the domestication of ratified Covenants and Conventions. HRBA focus is placed on the development of the capacities of the Duty Bearers to meet their obligations and to capacitate the Rights Holders to claim their rights. Human rights are legally binding and can be promoted through an activity, while HRBA is a conceptual framework which can further the realisation of human rights through ratified international human rights norms and standards.

The Constitution’s Preamble and Section 3 expounds on founding values and principles, such as rule of law, to ensure that social life and human interactions are governed in accordance with the law. Zimbabwe has ratified several international covenants, such as the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women and the Convention on the Rights of the Child.

Zimbabwe has a Mid-Term Review Report under the Universal Periodic Review (UPR) process which started in 2011. It received a total of 177 recommendations and 130 of those were accepted and resulted in the development of a National Plan of Action to implement the recommendations. The UPR Mid-Term Report was developed in a consultative and participatory approach with feedback from civil society and other stakeholders and was submitted to the Human Rights Council in June 2014 in preparation for the review in September 2014. Results of the UPR process can serve to inform the rollout of the next ZUNDAF.

### 8.8 Capacity Development

Capacity development is the process whereby people, organisations and society as a whole unleash, strengthen, create, adapt and maintain capacity over time. Capacity development is more than just training. It is a holistic process whereby training is only one component of many. Key questions, impacts on different levels of society and thorough implementation and sustenance of capacity in country are crucial to the holistic process. Three key questions that should be asked before undertaking a Capacity Development endeavour are:

i. Why is capacity being developed?
ii. What is capacity being developed for?
iii. Who is being capacitated?

Strong capacity development operates at three levels of society, the enabling environment, the organisational level and the individual level. The enabling environment is focused on legislation, power relations and social norms, the organisational level is focused on policies, procedures and frameworks and final the individual level is focused on skills, knowledge and the experience of people.

Once an assessment is done on how capacity development will affect a society, a five step implementation procedure should be undertaken as follows:

i. Engage with partners and build consensus.
ii. Assess capacity assets and needs.
iii. Design capacity development strategies.
iv. Implement capacity development strategies.
v. Evaluate capacity development efforts.

It is important to keep in mind that national ownership is crucial in implementing and sustaining the capacity in country. Capacity development should be rooted in cultural specificity and grounded in local context with state and public sectors willing to reform to enhance local capabilities and knowledge bases. With national actors owning the capacity development process, greater autonomy is gained in continuing to build their own capacity independently without external support, which is the goal of every capacity development effort.

8.9 Integrated Results Based Management

The Integrated Results Based Management (IRBM) programme implemented across government began in 2005. The IRBM programme comprises of a Results Based Budgeting system, Results-Based Personnel Performance System and an e-Governance system all of which are underpinned by an integrated Results Based Monitoring and Evaluation system complemented by a Management Information System. The need for RBM was triggered by the problem of resource constraints, the quest for better quality and more responsive service delivery by members of the public, calls for politicians to be more people sensitive and service oriented, more effective resource allocation by financial controllers, demands by the private sector for improved services and infrastructure for development and growth, claims by donors for efficient and effective use of limited funds and the growing challenges of the globalised and competitive world^{320}.

The current implementation of the IRBM programme is constrained by several factors such as a lack of shared understanding and perceptions of the RBM concept, low technological uptake, resource constraints such as limited human capital and financial resources, limited coverage of training because of the large numbers involved and a dilution of training through cascading. The current UNDP support to RBM is thus focused on developing leadership and management skills to deal with public sector administration issues in order to promote more open and transparent governance that based on better access to information and application of technologies^{321}. The UNDP should continue its support in the implementation of IRBM.

8.10 Evidence Based Advocacy and Communications

Evidence based advocacy and communications is a systematic, planned and strategic process that facilitates positive and measurable individual behaviour and social change, which is an integral part of development programmes and policy advocacy^{322}. Central to evidence based advocacy and communications, is the availability of timely and disaggregated data on those that are the most disadvantaged and excluded, gaining a deep understanding of the root causes of the problem and creating an enabling environment so that the challenges can be addressed. If effectively and consistently integrated as a cross cutting issue in planning and implementation of development programmes, evidence based advocacy and communications can promote positive change in governance, attitudes and practices, social relations and institutional functions.

---

^{320} Madhekeni, A., 2012, Implementing Results Based Management Systems in Zimbabwe: Context and implications for the Public Sector, in International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Vol 2 No.8 [Special Issue-April 2012]
^{321} GOZ and UNDP, 2014, Integrated Results Based Management Programme and Accountable Service Delivery, July 2014
Evidence based advocacy and communications plays an important role in influencing upstream decisions that affect the welfare, health, education, and protection in favour of the targeted populations. Similarly, advocacy and communications on disaster prevention, response and mitigation is an essential element to ensuring the dissemination of early warning updates and effective coordination and mobilisation of resources in response to humanitarian crises.

In general, the goal of evidence based advocacy and communications is critical in addressing imbalances, inequity and disparities, in promoting human rights, social justice and a healthy environment, as well as in furthering opportunities for sustainable development. Some goals of evidence based advocacy include:

i. Promoting actions that are taken which address deeper, underlying barriers to the fulfilment of the rights of all Zimbabweans, particularly the rights of vulnerable and marginalised groups.

ii. Facilitating an enabling environment that creates spaces for a plurality of voices and community narratives through dialogue and consultation.

iii. Ensuring active and meaningful participation of marginalised groups and promoting gender equality and social inclusion through establishing platforms for participation as well as engaging the media to influence public opinion.

iv. Capturing and effectively disseminating development results and change.

v. Increasing development partners’ access to relevant and timely development data and information.

vi. Bringing together advocacy and communication capacities of all development partners to undertake regular and strategic advocacy and campaign on pertinent development issues outlined in the thematic areas.
REFERENCES


Chipika, J. T., 2007, Greener Pastures in the City – Fact or Fiction?: A Think Piece on Urban Poverty and the Current Food Crisis in Zimbabwe: Causes and Consequences. Produced for The Center for Applied Social Studies (CASS) University of Zimbabwe, Regional Hunger and Vulnerability Project (RHVP).


CRED, 2014, EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database


118


GoZ, Ministry of Environment Water and Climate, 2013, *Monetary Quantification of the Ecosystem Products and Services in Protected Areas*.


119


GoZ, Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development and Gender Links, 2013, *Peace Begins @ home – Zimbabwe Violence Against Women Baseline Study.*


GoZ, National AIDS Council, 2011, *Zimbabwe National HIV and AIDS Strategic Plan (ZNASP II).*


GoZ and UNDP, 2006, *Support for the Strengthening of the promotion of Human Rights and Rule of Law through enhanced capacity of Institutions in the Ministry of Justice, the Judiciary, including traditional courts and other stakeholders in Zimbabwe, Project document.*


Moyo E.N, 2013, Evidence of Climate of Change in Zimbabwe. Presentation made at the Parliamentarian Workshop, Harare. [Data source: Met Office].

Moyo, E. N., 2013, Lessons Learnt from the impacts of extreme events during the past rainfall seasons. SARCOF Presentation, Harare.


National Social Security Authority, 2013.


USAID, 2012. *Zimbabwe’s Biodiversity and Tropical Forest Assessment (118/119).*


ZIMSTAT, 2010, *Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Monitoring Survey (MIMS)*.


ZIMSTAT, 2014, *Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS)*.


ANNEXES

Schedules and Lists of Participants for the Development of the Zimbabwe Country Analysis

1. Government Participants for Focus Group Discussions

   [File]
   Govt Country Analysis Participants.docx

2. Civil Society Participants for Focus Group Discussions

   [File]
   ZimCAFocus Group Discussions CivilSociety.docx

3. UN Technical Team for Country Analysis Report Review

   [File]
   UN Technical Review Meeting CA Participants.docx

4. Country Analysis Exercise Consultations Schedule

   [File]
   Zimbabwe Country Analysis Report Focus Group Discussions Schedule.docx

5. Country Analysis Exercise Validation Workshop Participants

   [File]
   Ful Reg Form Country Analysis Validation Workshop.docx

6. Country Analysis Validation Workshop Agenda

   [File]
   Country Analysis Workshop Programme.docx