

2015

ZIMBABWE ZERO HUNGER STRATEGIC REVIEW



LEAD EXPERT: Professor Hope
Cynthia Sadza

RESEARCHERS:
Professor Charles M. Nherera
Dr. Tendai Nhenga-Chakarisa
Mrs. Julia Tagwireyi
Dr. Mabel Munyuki-Hungwe

**WOMEN'S
UNIVERSITY
IN
AFRICA**



Addressing Gender Disparity & Fostering
Equity in University Education



HUNGER CAN BE ELIMINATED IN OUR LIFETIMES

FOREWORD

The Zero Hunger Strategic Review Report aims to refocus attention on the critical issues needed to accelerate the attainment of zero hunger in Zimbabwe. This Report is a result of a thorough review of existing literature, field visits and extensive consultations at various levels by the research team consisting of Prof. Charles Muchemwa Nherera, Dr. Tendai Nhenga-Chakarisa, Mrs. Julia Tagwireyi and Dr. Mabel Hungwe under the leadership of Prof. Hope Sadza of the Women's University in Africa.

The Report explains the UN Secretary General's global Zero Hunger Challenge and contextualises it for Zimbabwe. It provides an overview of the food and nutrition security situation in the country and establishes an understanding of the country's demographics and socio economic context. It compares the provisions of the Zero Hunger Challenge with the prevailing situation regarding food and nutrition security, and outlines the causes of hunger in the country and presents the key drivers of food and nutrition security. The Report extensively reviews relevant statutes, protocols and frameworks at national, regional and global level that underpin Zimbabwe's response to food and nutrition security. It highlights the key national responses to food and nutrition security by Government and non-state actors and articulates the gaps and opportunities in achieving zero hunger in Zimbabwe.

The Zero Hunger Strategic Review is an illustration of the increasing support Government and indeed the country is receiving from the United Nations agencies and other development partners in addressing issues that improve the well-being of our people. As highlighted in the Report, development challenges are best tackled through collaboration and a multi-sectoral approach that includes Government, development agencies and the private sector.



DR MISHECK SIBANDA

CHIEF SECRETARY TO THE PRESIDENT AND CABINET

3rd June 2015

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Lead Expert and her team of researchers for the Zero Hunger Strategic Review would like to thank the various people who assisted in the research process leading to the production of this Report. We are particularly grateful to the World Food Programme for giving us the opportunity to carry out this important assignment. We express appreciation for the expert support we received from the Advisory Group whom we consulted at various stages of this Review and stakeholders who gave their invaluable views and technical inputs during the review process.

The team is also grateful to the Chief Secretary to the President and Cabinet Dr. Misheck Sibanda and the Deputy Chief Secretary Col (Rtd) Christian Katsande for their commitment and support during the Review. The Team would also want to acknowledge and thank the various sectors of Government including Food and Nutrition Council, Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanization and Irrigation Development, Ministry of Health and Child Welfare, Ministry of Labour, Public Service and Social Services for their contributions during the review process. We also thank the international donor community, civil society and the UN community for their steadfast support during the review process. We express our profound appreciation to the United Nations Resident Coordinator Mr. Bishow Parajuli for attending the Validation Workshop and also contributing to this Report through an interview.

While thankful for all the inputs, suggestions and comments, the findings, views, and interpretations published in this Report are those of the authors.

ACRONYMS

AGRIBANK	Agricultural Bank
AGRITEX	Agricultural Technical and Extension Services
AIAS	African Institute for Agrarian Studies
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AMA	Agricultural Marketing Authority
AU	African Union
BEAM	Basic Education Assistance Module
BEAT	Barefoot Education for Africa Trust
CAADP	Comprehensive African Agricultural Development Programme
CAFOD	Catholic Agency for Overseas Development
CSP	Country Strategic Plan
DFID	Department for International Development
ENSURE	Enhanced Nutrition, Stepping Up Resilience and Enterprise
ESAP	Economic Structural Adjustment Programme
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations
FEWSNET	Famine Early Warning Systems Network
FNC	Food and Nutrition Council
FNSAU	Food and Nutrition Security Analysis Unit
GMB	Grain Marketing Board
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
ICT	Information Communication Technology
IRBM	Integrated Results Based Management
JPGE	Joint Programme for Gender Equality
MAMID	Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanisation and Irrigation Development
MDG	Millennium Development Goals

MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
NFNSP	National Food Nutrition Security Policy
NGO	Nongovernmental Organisation
OPC	Office of the President and Cabinet
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SDG	Strategic Development Goals
SIRDC	Scientific and Industrial Research and Development Centre
SUN	Scaling Up Nutrition
UN	United Nations
OCHA	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USD	United States Dollar
WASH	Water Sanitation and Hygiene
WFP	World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organisation
ZAIP	Zimbabwe Agriculture Investment Plan
ZDHS	Zimbabwe Demographic and Health Survey
ZEPARU	Zimbabwe Economic Policy Analysis and Research Unit
ZHC	Zero Hunger Challenge
ZimAsset	Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation
ZIMSTAT	Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency
ZIMVAC	Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee
ZUNDAF	Zimbabwe United Nations Development Assistance Framework
ZVITAMBO	Zimbabwe Vitamin A for Mothers and Babies Organisation

TABLE OF CONTENTS

FOREWORD	2
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	3
ACRONYMS	4
TABLE OF CONTENTS	6
DEFINITION OF TERMS	8
1. INTRODUCTION	9
1.1 The Review Process and Approach.....	9
2. SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS	11
2.1 Country Context.....	11
2.2 The Zero Hunger Challenge in Context	13
2.2.1 Zero stunted children less than 2 years.....	13
2.2.2 100% Access to adequate food all year round	15
2.2.3 All food systems are sustainable	17
2.2.4 100% Increase in smallholder productivity and income	18
2.2.5 Zero loss or wastage of food	19
3. RESPONSE ANALYSIS.....	21
3.1 Legal framework	21
3.2 Policy environment: strategies and national plans	24
3.3 Institutional analysis	29
3.3.1 National Entities	29
3.3.2 International Development Agencies	36
3.3.3 The Private sector	39
3.4 Financial landscape of the food and nutrition security sector	39
3.4.1 Budgets for food security and nutrition	40
3.4.2 Budgets for agriculture	42
3.4.3 Financing from development and humanitarian partners	43
3.4.4 Financing from the Private Sector	45
3.4.5 Conclusion	45
4. GAPS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	46
4.1 Weak implementation of policies and programmes.....	46
4.2 Inadequate response to climate and disaster risk	47
4.3 Limited market integration for smallholder farmers	48
4.4 Strategic grain reserve non functional.....	49
4.5 Inadequate involvement of the private sector in food and nutrition security interventions.....	49
4.6 Lack of advocacy on food and nutrition security issues and the path to zero hunger ..	50
4.7 Limited attention to food loss and wastage	51
5.0 COORDINATION AND IMPLEMENTATION FRAMEWORK	53
REFERENCES	55

List of Figures

Figure 1: Nutritional status of children in the under 2 years of age according to stunting by age groups.....	14
Figure 2: Structure of national entities for the coordination and implementation of food and nutrition security in Zimbabwe.....	31
Figure 3: Percentage allocation to Agriculture in the National Budget	42
Figure 4: Funding for the food and nutrition sector by international agencies (USD)	44
Figure 5: Suggested implementation framework	54

List of Tables

Table 1: Zimbabwe Agro-Ecological Regions and recommended farming systems.....	12
Table 2: Population distribution amongst land use sectors.....	13
Table 3: Districts with the highest food insecurity levels	17
Table 4: Food Crop Production Estimates (MT)	19
Table 5: International instruments containing the right to food and nutrition security	21
Table 6: African commitments to the right to food and nutrition security.....	22
Table 7: Zimbabwe legislation that relates to food and nutrition security	23
Table 8: Summary of ZimAsset's food and security nutrition security goals with some of the strategies to achieve them	25
Table 9: National Budget allocations to and expenditures for food and nutrition-related items and programmes: planned vs. actual expenditure figures	41
Table 10: National Budget allocations to and expenditures for the Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanisation and Irrigation Development: planned versus actual expenditure figures	42
Table 11: Challenges contributing to weak implementation of policies and programmes.....	46

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Hunger:	A feeling of discomfort, illness, weakness or pain due to prolonged lack of food that goes beyond the usual, uneasy sensation of temporary absence of food in the stomach (<i>Source: Zimbabwe National Nutrition Strategy 2014-2018</i>).
Food Security:	Food security exists when all people at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritional food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life (<i>Source: Zimbabwe National Nutrition Strategy 2014-2018</i>).
Nutrition Security:	The ongoing access to the basic elements of good nutrition, i.e. a balanced diet, safe environment, clean water and adequate health care for all people, and the knowledge need to care for and to ensure a healthy and active life for all household members (<i>Source: Zimbabwe National Nutrition Strategy 2014-2018</i>).
Malnutrition:	An abnormal Physiological condition caused by deficiencies, excesses, or imbalances in energy, protein and/other nutrients.
Food Loss:	According to FAO's Save Food Initiative, "food losses refer to the decrease in edible food mass available for human consumption throughout the different segments of the food supply chain. In addition to quantitative losses, food products may also face a deterioration of quality, leading to loss of nutritional and economic value".
Food wastage:	Food wastage refers to food losses resulting from decisions to discard food that still has value. Food wastage is mostly associated with behaviours of retailers, manufacturers, food service sector and consumers.

1. INTRODUCTION

The Zero Hunger Challenge is an international multi-level and multi-sectoral call for action made by the United Nations Secretary-General in 2012 towards a vision of a world without hunger. It brings together different stakeholders at country level to contribute to eliminating food and nutrition insecurity. The Zero Hunger Challenge¹ is structured upon the following five pillars:

- **Pillar I** -- Zero stunted children less than two years old
- **Pillar II** -- 100% access to adequate food all-year round
- **Pillar III** -- All food systems are sustainable
- **Pillar IV** -- 100% increase in smallholder productivity and incomes
- **Pillar V** -- Zero loss or wastage of food

Zero hunger is at the heart of the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda. Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 2 calls on Member States to “End hunger, achieve food security and improve nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture”. Four of the five targets under SDG 2 are derived from the pillars of the Zero Hunger Challenge. SDG 2 has targets on access to food, malnutrition, agricultural productivity and resilient food systems. Together with target 2.5 on biodiversity and 12.3 on food loss and wastage, as well as the means of implementation and the outcome of the Addis Conference on Financing for Development, these targets represent the vision and blueprint for achieving zero hunger at the global level.

The Zimbabwe Zero Hunger Strategic Review seeks to identify opportunities to strengthen current and future programmes and strategies towards a common goal of eliminating hunger and malnutrition. The Review is informed by key national policy and strategic frameworks such as the National Food and Nutrition Policy (2013), the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZimAsset) (2013-2018) and the Zimbabwe United Nations Development Assistance Framework (ZUNDAF) (2012-2015, 2016-2020).

The main objectives of the Strategic Review were to:

- 1) Establish a comprehensive understanding of the context of the national food and nutrition security.
- 2) Review existing food and nutrition security related strategies, policies, plans and programmes in Zimbabwe and identify gaps in the national response.
- 3) Provide an overview of priority areas and potential measures to accelerate progress towards the five pillars of the Zero Hunger Challenge.
- 4) Initiate the development of a national Zero Hunger Roadmap.

1.1 The Review Process and Approach

The approach to the Strategic Review was consultative and participatory. The review team held a series of inception meetings with the Food and Nutrition Council and the Office of the President and Cabinet, the custodians of the food and nutrition policy in Zimbabwe, who provided strategic guidance. The review team attended food security and nutrition meetings conducted by the Food and Nutrition Council and by the Scaling Up Nutrition initiative. An Advisory Board comprising of members from government and development agencies was set up to direct the review process and help validate the findings.

The Review was conducted through a desk study of key food and nutrition security documentation followed by consultations with key stakeholders. Primary data was obtained

¹ UN Zero Hunger Challenge. <http://www.un.org/en/zerohunger/#&panel1-1> Retrieved on 3 June 2015.

through field visits, facilitated by the Food and Nutrition Council. Discussions were held with Food and Nutrition Committees and local communities in selected districts and provinces.

Three validation workshops were held in Harare with food and nutrition security stakeholders to generate consensus on the Zero Hunger Strategic Review process and findings. In addition to the validation workshops, follow-up consultations were held with UN agencies, the Food and Nutrition Council, government ministries, non-governmental organisations and other development partners.

This Review consists of the following sections:

Section 1 introduces the Zero Hunger Challenge and provides a background to the Review, states the objectives, the process and approach followed.

Section 2 presents the country context and contains the situational analysis of the food and nutrition security in Zimbabwe, relating it to the context of the five pillars of the Zero Hunger Challenge. This section provides a baseline for the uptake of the Zero Hunger Challenge by the country.

Section 3 provides an analysis of the national responses to food and nutrition security.

Section 4 identifies the strategic gaps in the country responses, suggests recommendations and indicates a road map for the way forward.

Section 5 discusses the coordination and implementation framework

2. SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS

2.1 Country Context

Zimbabwe is a landlocked country in southern Africa, with an estimated population of 13,061,239 with slightly more women (51.9 %) than men (ZIMSTAT, 2013a). The population is relatively young with 41% of the population below the age 15 years and only about 4% aged 65 years and above (ZIMSTAT, 2013a).

Although HIV and AIDS prevalence among the adult population aged 15-49 years, had declined from 29.6% in 1998 to 18.6% in 2005/06 and further to 15.2% in 2010/11², the first such decline in Southern Africa, it is still high. Annual HIV-related deaths have almost halved since 2011, however there are about 800,000 AIDS orphans (Global AIDS Response, 2014)

Zimbabwe almost achieved universal access to education and literacy as a result of progressive government policies soon after independence in the 1980s and this has been maintained. Zimbabwe has one of the highest literacy rates in Sub-Saharan Africa at 98% (ZIMSTAT, 2013a). The high literacy rate is consistent across all provinces and there is no marked variation among females and males.

There has been an increase in poverty in Zimbabwe since the onset of the economic structural adjustment in the early 1990s culminating in the economic crisis of 2004 to 2008. The 2011/12 Poverty Income Consumption and Expenditure Survey found that poverty was relatively high with 62.6% of households being below the Total Consumption Poverty Line. Rural areas, where 67% of the population reside have higher poverty levels at 76%, compared to urban areas at 38% (ZIMSTAT, 2013b).

Zimbabwe has a total land area of 390,757 square kilometres. Around 85% of Zimbabwe's land is agricultural (communal, resettlement and commercial) and the remainder protected areas, forests and woodland, and urban land (Government of Zimbabwe, 2009a). Farming is an important income source for more than half of the adult population in Zimbabwe. During the 2014/15 cropping season, a total of 2.8 million hectares was cultivated (MAMID, 2015).

Zimbabwe is classified into five natural or agro-ecological regions on the basis of rainfall and land potential for agriculture (Vincent and Thomas, 1961). Rainfall and agricultural productivity decrease from Region I to V and consequently there are wide fluctuations in agricultural production potential across Zimbabwe. Table 1 depicts the agro-ecological regions of the country and the recommended farming systems in each region.

Two-thirds of the rural population live in the less productive Natural or Agro-ecological Regions III, IV and V, a legacy of the country's colonial history (ZIMSTAT, 2013a). High population densities in these marginal lands puts pressure on the environment through over grazing of livestock, over cultivation, natural resource extraction and deforestation causing environmental degradation. Crop yields have remained low due to erratic rainfall and declining soil fertility. Environmental degradation accentuates poverty, which in turn causes more environmental degradation.

² Zimbabwe Demographic and Health Survey (ZDHS) 2005/06 and 2010/11.

Table 1: Zimbabwe Agro-Ecological Regions and recommended farming systems

Region	Percentage of total land area	Rainfall pattern	Recommended farming system
I	2%	Rainfall in excess of 1000 mm, relatively low temperatures.	Specialised and diversified farming: Forestry, fruit, intensive livestock, tea, coffee.
II	16%	Rainfall between 750 -1000 mm per year mainly in summer.	Intensive farming: Crops and intensive livestock production.
III	18%	Rainfall between 650-800 mm, infrequent but heavy rainfall, seasonal droughts, relatively high temperatures.	Semi-intensive farming: Livestock, fodder and staple and cash crops like maize, tobacco, cotton.
IV	37%	Rainfall between 450-650 mm per year, Frequent seasonal droughts, relatively high temperatures.	Semi-extensive farming: Livestock farming, drought tolerant crops.
V	27%	Rainfall less than 450 mm, erratic. Northern low-veld may have higher rainfall but topography and poor soils make it unsuitable for arable agriculture.	Extensive farming: Extensive cattle ranching, wildlife farming, crops only possible with irrigation.

Source: Adapted from Vincent and Thomas (1961)

Zimbabwe's land reform process, initiated in 1980, resettled almost a quarter of a million smallholder farmers (Moyo, 2011). After an initial decline in production during the Fast Track Land Reform process in 2000, resettled smallholder farmers have become more productive and yields are increasing. They are now reaching production levels of their predecessors (Hanlon, *et al.*, 2013). One of the objectives of land reform was to decongest the densely populated communal areas (ZIMSTAT, 2013b). Table 2 shows that by 2012, 13% of the population lived in resettlement areas. However, due to increasing population, resettlement did not significantly decongest communal areas (Moyo *et al.*, 2009; Hanlon, *et al.*, 2013). The majority of people, 46%, still live in communal areas (ZIMSTAT, 2013a).

Agriculture, mining, manufacturing, transport and communication and tourism are key sectors of the economy. The services sector makes up the largest portion of the economy (40.6%), followed by the industrial (31.8%) and agricultural (16%) sectors (World Bank, 2013). After a very difficult decade (1998-2008) of stagnation and hyperinflation, the economy showed signs of recovery from 2008. Economic growth has since slowed to an average annual rate of 3% due largely to low levels of domestic revenue generation and rising recurrent expenditures (Monyau and Bandara 2014). In 2013, the Government introduced the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZimAsset, 2013-18) in an effort to revamp the economy.

Owing to recurrent food insecurity and economic difficulties over the 15 past years, Zimbabwe did not achieve the first Millennium Development Goal (MDG) which was to halve extreme poverty and hunger. Under target 1C, the proportion of people suffering from hunger should have halved between 1990 and 2015, and the proportion of malnourished children under five should have reduced by two thirds. Despite the challenges experienced, Zimbabwe, however,

made significant progress in some MDGs, particularly in some aspects of HIV and AIDS; gender equality in primary education; universal literacy of 15-24 years olds; maternal mortality ratio which almost halved from 1 069 deaths per 100 000 live births in 2002 to 526 deaths in 2014; and improved child immunisation.

Table 2: Population distribution amongst land use sectors

Land use sector	Percentage of the population
Communal Areas	45.9
Small Scale Commercial Farms	1.5
Large Scale Commercial Farms	4.4
Resettlement Area	13.1
Urban Council Area	31.4
Administrative Centre	0.2
Growth Point/Other urban Areas	1.2
State Land	2.3
Total	100

Source: ZIMSTAT (2013a).

The unfinished agenda of MDGs still lingers especially in the form of addressing weak economic performance, high-income poverty, food insecurity, malnutrition, water and sanitation. Zimbabwe intends to address these gaps by incorporating the Sustainable Development Goals and targets into the national development agenda.

2.2 The Zero Hunger Challenge in Context

This sub-section provides a brief analysis of the status of each of the five pillars of the Zero Hunger Challenge in Zimbabwe. While the Zero Hunger Challenge was pronounced in 2012 as an international agenda, Zimbabwe had already instituted several programmes and projects to address food and nutrition security. The current analysis therefore provides the situation of food and nutrition security in the country and compares it with the provisions of each pillar of the Zero Hunger Challenge. This provides a baseline for the uptake of the Zero Hunger Challenge by the country.

2.2.1 Zero stunted children less than 2 years

To achieve zero stunted children less than 2 years, the Zero Hunger Challenge encourages universal access to nutritious food in the 1000-day window of opportunity between the start of pregnancy and a child's second birthday. This should be supported by nutrition-sensitive health care, water, sanitation, education and specific nutrition interventions, coupled with initiatives that enable the empowerment of women, as encouraged within the Scaling Up Nutrition (SUN) movement.

Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 2 also addresses stunting and other forms of malnutrition. Target 2.2 states that by 2030 countries should have ended all forms of malnutrition, including achieving by 2025 the internationally agreed targets on stunting and

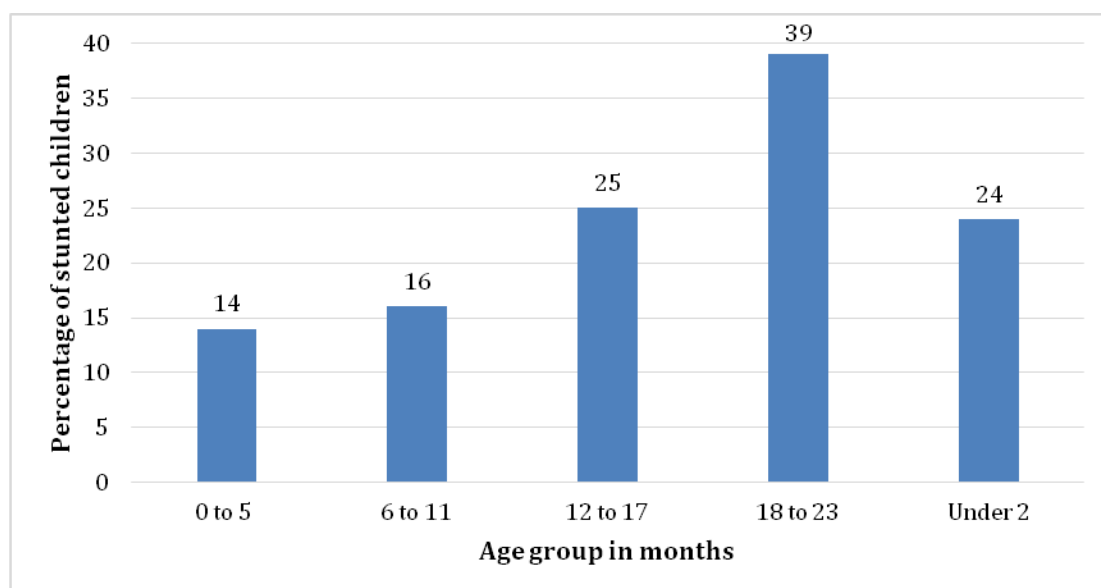
wasting in children under five years of age, and address the nutritional needs of adolescent girls, pregnant and lactating women, and older persons.

In Zimbabwe, nutritional problems among children continue to be a challenge. Nutritional problems emanate from a range of immediate, underlying, and basic causes as illustrated in the UNICEF conceptual framework on malnutrition (UNICEF, 1990).

Since 2009, the rate of underweight and wasting (acute malnutrition) has been relatively stable. Underweight and wasting were reported at 11% and 3% respectively in the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) 2014, not significantly different from the situation in 2011 and 2009 (ZIMSTAT, 2015). Stunting, which is evidence of chronic malnutrition, remains the most prominent nutrition challenge in Zimbabwe, as 27.6% of children under five years of age are short for their age (ZIMSTAT, 2015). This represents a steady trend of improvement since 2009 when it was 35%. This positive trend should be encouraged and accelerated.

In Zimbabwe, malnutrition in children varies by age, urban/rural location, gender, poverty and wealth status and background characteristics of the mother. Malnutrition is normally more serious in children under two years of age and may have irreversible effects on the development of children's brain, affecting the educability of children (UNICEF, 1998). Underweight children are at increased risk of mortality from infectious illnesses such as diarrhoea and pneumonia. The under-two years age group is the new global priority. Figure 1 indicates that the under-two age group consisted of very different stunting levels among the four age sub-groups. The younger age sub-groups, the 0 to 5 months and the 6 to 11 months age groups, had lower stunting rates, and these rates progressively increased with older age groups, with the highest stunting rate of 39% for the oldest group of 18 to 23 months which is the most vulnerable (Figure 1). The average stunting rate for the whole under-two years age group was 24%, which was lower than the average for all the children under the age of five years. This differentiation ensures that each sub-group is reached with specific and appropriate interventions that address their needs.

Figure 1: Nutritional status of children in the under 2 years of age according to stunting by age groups



Source: Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) 2014

Boys have a higher tendency to be stunted than girls. For the 18 to 24 months age group, the stunting level for boys was 46%, while for girls it was 32% (ZIMSTAT, 2015). This implies that interventions should give more attention to boys as well.

There was a pronounced rural-urban differential in stunting rates within the under-two years age group, which stood at 16% in the urban areas compared to 27% in rural areas. The difference in stunting rates among the richest and poorest was also pronounced in this age group. At 33%, stunting among the poorest wealth quintile was three times that prevailing among the richest wealth quintile, at 11%. Thus the poorest wealth quintile in this age group is doing relatively badly.

Inadequate access to water and sanitation is one of the major underlying causes of malnutrition in Zimbabwe. There were differences in the stunting rates between households with and without access to water and sanitation, which were largest in the 18 to 23 months age group, where the total stunting rate was 39%. Stunting rates for children living in households with access to water and sanitation was 28%, while that of children living in households without sanitation was 49%, almost half of the children and giving a difference of 21 percentage points.

Stunting rates also vary with the education level of the mother, with the rate decreasing with the mothers' education level. However, the rural-urban differential and wealth category were more important in determining stunting rates than education levels of the mother (ZIMSTAT, 2015).

Breastfeeding in Zimbabwe is on the whole high and stable. While to some extent, this might be driven by poverty, the knowledge that 'breast is best' has been an important factor, and exclusive breastfeeding under six months of age does not seem to be influenced by wealth status of the parents. The MICS 2014 highlighted considerable progress in the key indicator 'exclusive breastfeeding under six months of age' which increased from 26% in 2009 to 41% in 2014 (ZIMSTAT, 2015).

For the age group of 0 to 23 months, 57% of the children were appropriately breastfed. Stunting among children in this age group was lower at 21% among children that were appropriately breastfed, compared to those inappropriately breastfed, at 28.2% (ZIMSTAT, 2015). Given the fact that breastfeeding patterns for different background characteristics, such as household wealth, were similar, the difference in stunting rates may be highly attributable to appropriateness of breastfeeding practices. It may therefore be concluded that appropriate breastfeeding had a positive effect on stunting.

About 56% of children between 6 – 59 months old were anaemic (ZIMSTAT and ICF International, 2012). Only 28% of children of the age 6 to 23 months received the recommended minimum dietary diversity from at least four food groups - eggs, meat, milk products and legumes (ZIMSTAT, 2015). This demonstrates the problem of inadequate dietary intake in both macro and micronutrients.

2.2.2 100% Access to adequate food all year round

The Zero Hunger Challenge states that to ensure that there is 100% access to adequate food all year round, people must access the food they need at all times through nutrition-sensitive agriculture and food systems, marketing, decent and productive employment, a social protection floor, targeted safety nets and food assistance; boosting food supply from local producers; through open, fair and well-functioning markets and trade policies at local, regional and international level, preventing excessive food price volatility.

Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 2 also addresses universal access to food. Target 2.1 states that by 2030, there should be an end to hunger and countries should ensure access by

all people, in particular the poor and people in vulnerable situations, including infants, to safe, nutritious and sufficient food all year round.

Food security exists when 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, healthy life. Food security affects the nutrition status of all the family, but is particularly crucial for children in the household. Only 68% of rural households in Zimbabwe had access to acceptable diet all year round and 35% of children aged between 6 to 59 months consumed less than three meals a day (ZIMVAC 2014).

Food access is a function of household production, incomes, market availability and prices, remittances and food aid. Trend analyses of the food security situation show large fluctuations in food access over time. These fluctuations are due to a combination of natural and economic factors which affects the ability to obtain sufficient, diverse and nutritious food. Food production fluctuates from year to year and is highly dependent on rainfall, and therefore it is difficult to guarantee 100% food availability. The majority of smallholder agriculture is rain-fed, and vulnerable to erratic rainfall. The situation will be exacerbated by climate change.

Zimbabwe is already experiencing the impacts of climate change and records show that there are now more hot and fewer cold days than before. The annual mean surface temperature in Zimbabwe warmed by about 0.4°C from 1900 to 2000 (Government of Zimbabwe, 2015a). The period from 1980 to date has been the warmest since Zimbabwe started recording its temperature. Future scenarios predict increases in global-mean temperature of between 1.3° and 4.6° C by 2100, representing global warming rates of between 0.1° and 0.4° C per decade (Government of Zimbabwe, 2015a).

The timing and amount of rainfall received in Zimbabwe are becoming increasingly uncertain. Extreme climate events, especially droughts, are becoming more intense. There has been an overall decline of nearly 5% in rainfall across the country during the 20th century with the early 1990s probably witnessing the driest period. There have also been substantial periods - for example, the 1920s, 1950s, 1970s - that have been much wetter than average (Government of Zimbabwe, 2015a). This erratic nature of rainfall patterns has serious adverse impacts for agricultural production.

At the peak lean season (January to March) 2014, 2.2 million, which was about 25% of the population, were in need of food assistance compared to around 6% of the rural population equivalent to 565 000 people that were predicted to be in need of food assistance in 2015 (ZIMVAC, 2014).

Table 3 shows that the percentage of food-insecure rural households decreased in 2014 due to favourable rainfall, readily available inputs and government support to smallholder farmers, compared with the previous season's harvest (ZIMVAC, 2014). High food insecurity levels not only result from drought and dwindling yields but also from high price fluctuations and difficulty of maintaining adequate national supplies through the strategic grain reserve.

The Grain Marketing Board with over 80 depots throughout the country is mandated to ensure the maintenance of the strategic grain reserves as physical stock of 500,000 tonnes and 450,000 tonnes in funds to enable the importation of grain for the country. Due to funding and storage challenges, the Grain Marketing Board has failed to maintain strategic grain reserves or stock.

Table 3: Districts with the highest food insecurity levels

District	Food insecurity levels	
	Jan- Mar 2013 (%)	Jan-Mar 2014 (%)
Kariba	42.0	38.9
Mudzi	17.9	17.8
Umzingwane	44.1	17.2
Nkayi	38.9	13.9
Bulilima	33.5	13.9
Tsholotsho	38.7	13.9
Gokwe North	38.3	11.7
Zvishavane	51.7	11.7
Buhera	23.3	10.0
Mangwe	49.4	10.0

Source: ZIMVAC, 2014

Food insecurity is often about the inability to access food rather than the absolute amount of food available (Sen 1981). Poverty is a principal cause of hunger, and its consequences are manifested in failure to access adequate food. Many households, especially in urban areas are too poor to buy food. The price of protein rich food sources is generally high. The Food Poverty Line is calculated from the consumption of food items that meet minimum food requirements of 2,100 calories per day. Households whose total consumption is below the Food Poverty Line are absolutely deprived and classified as extremely poor. There was a dramatic decrease in extreme poverty in Zimbabwe from 32.2% of households in 2001 to 16.2% in 2011 (ZIMSTAT, 2013b).

The food security situation is aggravated by seasonal food price fluctuations of between 30 and 40%. As a result many households are unable to consume an acceptable diet all year round. In addition many smallholders are moving away from growing food crops, to more lucrative cash crops, especially tobacco (MAMID, 2015).

2.2.3 All food systems are sustainable

To ensure that all food systems are sustainable, all farmers, agri-businesses, cooperatives, Governments, unions and civil society should establish standards for sustainability; verifying their observance and being accountable for them; encouraging and rewarding universal adoption of sustainable and climate-resilient agriculture practices; pursuing cross-sectoral policy coherence (encompassing energy, land use, water and climate); implementing responsible governance of land, fisheries and forests.

Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 2 also addresses food production sustainability. Target 2.4 states that by 2030, countries should ensure sustainable food production systems and implement resilient agricultural practices that increase productivity and production that help maintain ecosystems, that strengthen capacity for adaptation to climate change, extreme weather, drought, flooding and other disasters and that progressively improve land and soil quality.

The food systems in the country have largely been unsustainable. Table 1 indicated that 64% of farmland lies in Natural Regions IV and V which are unsuitable for rain-fed crops, possibly with the exception of drought resistant small grains. Extensive livestock and wildlife management are recommended for these dry regions.

Regions II and III, as well as IV and V also experience droughts and erratic rainfall, therefore irrigated cropping is highly recommended for all regions. In 2000, 250 000 hectares of land were under irrigation in the country, but this has declined to 135 000 hectares. Forty-four percent of irrigation schemes were deemed only basically functional and prone to frequent breakdowns (ZIMVAC, 2014). Poor water management practices have led to many water sources drying up due to siltation.

The country has inadequate draught power and appropriate mechanization to sustain food production. In addition, the food pricing and marketing system, particularly for grain and livestock, is not robust.

There is also an inadequate use of climate resilient agricultural practices such as conservation agriculture. Only 7.6% of farmers practiced conservation agriculture (ZIMVAC, 2014). The country has not embraced indigenous knowledge systems for food production, processing, consumption, preservation and storage.

2.2.4 100% Increase in smallholder productivity and income

To have 100% increase in smallholder productivity and income requires reducing rural poverty and improving wellbeing through encouraging decent work, and increasing smallholders' income; empowering women, small farmers, fishers, pastoralists, young people, farmer organisations, indigenous people and their communities; supporting agricultural research and innovation; improving land tenure, access to assets and to natural resources, making sure that all investments in agriculture and value chains are responsible and accountable; developing multidimensional indicators for people's resilience and wellbeing.

SDG 2 also addresses increasing smallholder production. Target 2.3 states that by 2030, countries should double the agricultural productivity and incomes of small-scale food producers, in particular women, indigenous peoples, family farmers, pastoralists and fishers, including through secure and equal access to land, other productive resources and inputs, knowledge, financial services, markets and opportunities for value addition and non-farm employment.

In 2000, the Government introduced the Fast Track Land Reform Programme to stimulate broad based, inclusive economic empowerment. The Fast Track Land Reform restructured commercial farm land as 6,000 large commercial farms were divided into 170,000 smaller farms. Less than 20% of potential arable land in the commercial farming sector had previously been utilised (Government of Zimbabwe, 1982). Therefore the larger number of small resettlement farms have the potential to be more productive, if supported appropriately for example with loans, implements, traction and irrigation.

Over the last 10 years, average maize yields in Zimbabwe have been only 0.8 tonnes per hectare against a regional average of 3-4 tonnes per hectare. Table 4 indicates production of food crops in the 2012/2013 and 2013/2014 season. Rainfall, which has a crucial impact on agricultural production, was considerably higher in the 2013/2014 season than in the previous year. Enhancing irrigation opportunities would dramatically increase crop production

Table 4: Food Crop Production Estimates (MT)

Crop	Production Estimates (MT)		Percentage increase or decrease
	2012/2013	2013/2014	
Maize	798 596	1 456 153	82
Sorghum	69 363	136 544	97
Pearl millet	34 376	76 587	123
Finger millet	7 701	11 009	43
Irish potatoes	374 500	397 600	6
Sweet potatoes	251 070	335 335	34
Groundnuts	86 748	135 138	56
Roundnuts	29 091	49 429	70
Sugar beans	12 849	20 119	57
Cowpeas	10 940	25 053	129
Cucurbits*	No data	33 750	-
Cabbages and leaf vegetables	306 000	330 000	8
Tomato	260 000	283 500	9
Onion	168 000	157 500	-6

*Pumpkins, squash, marrows, melons and watermelons

(Source: 2014 Second Round Crop Assessment (MAMID, 2015))

Similarly low productivity is reported in the livestock sector. The national cattle herd is about 5.3 million with 90% of the herd being owned by smallholder farmers. The productivity of the herd is low with a calving rate of 45% out of a possible 60%. The off-take rate is 6% against a recommended 20% needed for the country to meet its national and export demand (MAMID, 2015).

Limited extension services, at 1:300-400 extension worker: farmer ratio, and low fertilizer usage are key contributing factors, as are structural marketing issues, particularly for cereals.

Low agricultural productivity directly translates to reduced incomes and poverty. Nationally, the average household income for April 2014 was US\$111 with 56% of households spending half of their income on food (ZIMVAC, 2014; ZIMSTAT, 2015).

Unemployment, at 7.7% is one of the lowest in the southern African region (Economic Commission for Africa, 2013; ZIMSTAT, 2013a). However, the majority of the employed are locked in low productivity sectors of the economy, in communal agriculture and the informal sector, implying under-employment (ZEPARU, 2013).

2.2.5 Zero loss or wastage of food

Zero loss or wastage of food entails minimising food losses during storage and transport, and wastage of food by retailers and consumers; empowering consumer choice through appropriate labelling; commitments by producers, retailers and consumers within all nations;

achieving progress through financial incentives, collective pledges, locally-relevant technologies and changed behaviour.

SDG 12 also addresses food losses. Target 12.3 states that by 2030 countries should halve their per capita global food wastage at the retail and consumer level, and reduce food losses along production and supply chains including post-harvest losses.

Zimbabwe food loss figures are estimated to be around 30% but the data is not conclusive, as more research needs to be carried in the whole food value chain. There is an ongoing study on post-harvest losses in maize, horticulture and small grains supported by the Food and Agriculture Organisation, World Food Programme and the Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanisation and Irrigation Development. In the livestock sector, losses occur due to the high mortality rate of 4.4% due to poor range management and high incidence of diseases.

3. RESPONSE ANALYSIS

This section gives an analysis of the responses to the food and nutrition situation in the country focusing on how they relate to the provisions of the Zero Hunger Challenge five pillars. It begins by outlining the international and national legal framework in Section 3.1 that prescribes the country's food and nutrition security responses. This is followed by an overview of the policy environment and the various strategies and plans that guide the response to food and nutrition security in Section 3.2.

The effectiveness of national efforts to achieve food and nutrition security depends on various factors, amongst which the institutional landscape and financial resource allocations to implement effective development strategies and programmes are highly crucial. The institutional and financial frameworks are hereby not only to be analysed in terms of their capacity to respond to existing challenges but should also lend to increased preparedness and the ability to rebuild from disasters.

Section 3.3 analyses national institutions that are guided by relevant policies and programmes to ensure national response to achieve food and nutrition security for all, while section 3.4 describes financial resource allocation mechanisms related to the food and nutrition sector.

3.1 Legal framework

The right to food is a human right that provides for people to feed themselves in dignity, implying that sufficient food should be available, readily accessible and adequately meets the individual's dietary needs. Section 77 of the Constitution of Zimbabwe enshrines the right to sufficient food. The Government of Zimbabwe has over the years joined other countries throughout the World in ratifying key international instruments that safeguard the right to food and seek to improve food and nutrition security (Table 5).

Table 5: Key international instruments containing the right to food and nutrition security

Instrument	Provisions for food and nutrition security
Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948.	Article 25 recognises that 'everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food...'
International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1976.	Article 11 recognises the right to adequate food. It also creates an obligation on parties to work together to eliminate world hunger.
Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women, 1979.	Article 14 requires States to take into account the particular problems faced by rural women and ensure that they participate in and benefit from agriculture and rural development.
United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989.	Article 27 states that children have the right to nutritious food, as well as health, water and sanitation. In addition, children have the right to a standard of living that is good enough to meet their physical and mental needs.
Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2008.	Ensures that all human rights, including food and nutrition, are enjoyed by persons with disabilities.

Zimbabwe also subscribes to African Union treaties and Southern African Development Community (SADC) declarations which are geared towards the provision of food and nutrition security (Table 6).

Table 6: African commitments to the right to food and nutrition security

Instrument	Provisions for food and nutrition security
African Charter on Human and People's Rights, 1987.	Promotes and protects human rights and basic freedoms in the African continent.
African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child, 1999.	Reflects the African Charter. Under Article 14 the State is required to take measures to: reduce infant and child mortality rates, ensure the provision of necessary medical assistance and health care to all children with emphasis on the development of primary health care and ensure the provision of adequate nutrition and safe drinking water.
Abuja Declaration on Health, 2001.	Recognises the importance of good nutrition in combating malaria, HIV/AIDS and tuberculosis.
Maputo Declaration on Agriculture and Food Security in Africa, 2003.	Commits member states to allocate and implement increases in spending on agriculture to at least 10% of their annual budgets by 2008.
Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP), 2003.	Focuses its interventions to achieving measurable outcomes which include: increasing food supply, reducing hunger, and improving responses to food emergency crises; extending the area under sustainable land management and reliable water control systems; and improving agriculture research, technology dissemination and adoption.
African Union Summit, 2008.	Articulates a commitment for accelerating the achievement of water and sanitation goals in Africa.
Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa, 2005.	Article 15 provides for access by women to clean drinking water, sources of domestic fuel, land, and the means of producing nutritious food. It also provides for the establishment of adequate systems of supply and storage to ensure food security.
Malabo Declaration on Accelerated Agricultural Growth and Transformation for Shared Prosperity and Improved Livelihoods, 2014.	Commits countries to ending hunger and halving poverty by 2025, enhancing investment finance in agriculture and enhancing resilience of livelihoods and production systems to climate variability and other related risks.

The Government of Zimbabwe adopted the United Nations Millennium Declaration. However, it will be unable to achieve Millennium Development Goal (MDG) 1 which aimed to eliminate poverty and hunger by 2015, even though this was one of the four goals prioritised by Zimbabwe for implementation. Similarly, little progress was made in achieving MDG 7 which impacts on food security on ensuring that environmental sustainability is incorporated into country policies, addressing the loss of environmental resources. MDG 7 also aimed to reduce by half the number of people without access to safe drinking water and sanitation by 2020. The commitment to sustainable development was reaffirmed when the Sustainable Development Goals were adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in September 2015.

Zimbabwe is part of the Scaling-Up Nutrition (SUN) Movement, an international movement to end hunger. The SUN movement was established by the United Nations in 2010 to encourage national governments to regard investment in nutrition as an investment in the future. Countries were encouraged to lead the way in establishing nutrition plans, policies and

programmes, while global partners including civil society, business and donors were urged to support action to improve the nutrition of all, especially women and children.

The international obligations have been domesticated in the Constitution of Zimbabwe Amendment (26) Act, 2013 that repealed and substituted previous Constitutional Amendments (Government of Zimbabwe, 2013b). Section 34 of the Constitution requires Zimbabwe to incorporate all international conventions, treaties and agreements to which Zimbabwe is party to, into domestic law. The Constitution makes provision for food security and the corresponding right to food. Section 77 of the Constitution enshrines the right to 'safe, clean and potable water; and sufficient food; and the State must take reasonable legislative and other measures, within the limits of the resources available to it, to achieve the progressive realisation of this right'. Section 15 of the Constitution deals with food security and says that the State must encourage people to grow and store adequate food; secure the establishment of adequate food reserves; and encourage and promote adequate and proper nutrition through mass education and other appropriate means. Zimbabwe has various statutes relevant to food and nutrition security which are highlighted in Table 7.

Table 7: Zimbabwe legislation that relates to food and nutrition security

Act	Nutrition and food security related provisions
Food and Food Standards Act [Chapter 15:04]	Relates to nutrition in general and includes adulteration and descriptions of food.
Public Health Act [Chapter 15:09]	Addresses infant nutrition and empowers the Ministry of Health and Child Care to make regulations in respect to infant nutrition, including promoting breast feeding, standards for infant foods and regulating the marketing of infant food.
Health Service Act [Chapter 15:16]	Establishes the Health Service Board and provides for its administration and the conditions of service of its members, including those involved with nutrition.
Agricultural Finance Act [Chapter 18:02]	Regulates the financial affairs of the Agricultural Finance Corporation.
Fertilizers, Farm Feeds and Remedies Act [Chapter 18:12]	Standardises fertilizers and farm feeds for agricultural production.
Acquisition of Farm Equipment or Material Act [Chapter 18:23]	Regulates and controls the use of farm equipment on any agricultural land acquired for resettlement purposes under the Land Reform Programme.
Agricultural Land Settlement Act [Chapter 20:01]	Makes provision for the lease of agricultural land by public authorities in the framework of development of agriculture and the control on the use of land.
Land Acquisition Act [Chapter 20:10]	Concerns the acquisition of land for public purposes, including for smallholder farming.
Grain Marketing Act [Chapter 18:14]	Provides for the establishment of a Grain Marketing Board and controls the prices and marketing of certain agricultural products and their derivatives.
Warehouse Receipt Act [Chapter 18:25]	Provides for the storage of agricultural commodities in registered warehouses.
Dairy Act [Chapter 18:08]	Regulates and controls of the dairy industry ensuring that dairy produce is pure, wholesome and unadulterated.
Animal Health Act [Chapter 19:01]	Provides for the eradication and prevention of the spread of animal pests and diseases in Zimbabwe.

The various pieces of legislation are sectoral, fragmented and uncoordinated. In addition, there is no legislation specifically for food and nutrition security.

3.2 Policy environment: strategies and national plans

The policy environment in the country is conducive for promoting food security and nutrition. Frameworks- namely the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZimAsset) and the Food and Nutrition Policy - have the potential to facilitate the desired improvements. Recognising the multi-disciplinary and multi-sectoral nature of food and agriculture systems there are a myriad of sectoral policies, strategies, plans and programmes relevant to food and nutrition security.

Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZimAsset)

Zimbabwe's macro-economic policy, ZimAsset, aims to achieve sustainable development and social equity anchored on indigenization, empowerment and employment creation which will be largely propelled by the judicious exploitation of the country's abundant human and natural resources (Government of Zimbabwe, 2013a). It recognises the nexus of economic stabilisation and increased production in maintaining economic growth and reducing hunger and food insecurity.

The ZimAsset provides a framework for policies and programmes in support of nutrition and food security for all. Implementation of the ZimAsset is by four clusters, namely:

- Food Security and Nutrition
- Social Services and Poverty Eradication
- Infrastructure and Utilities
- Value Addition and Beneficiation

The Food Security and Nutrition cluster programmes are aligned to and informed by various international commitments, in particular the Comprehensive African Agricultural Development Programme (CAADP), as well as Zimbabwe's Constitution and national policies and strategies including the draft Comprehensive Agriculture Policy Framework (2012-2032), the Food and Nutrition Security Policy and the Zimbabwe Agriculture Investment Plan (2013-2017).

The National Nutrition Survey proposed that chronic malnutrition be considered a development priority (Food and Nutrition Council, 2010). The Food Security and Nutrition Cluster of ZimAsset aims to create a self-sufficient food surplus economy, and focuses on crop and livestock production and marketing; infrastructure development; environmental management, protection and conservation, nutrition and policy and legislation. Nutrition has been adopted as one of the key result areas for the Food Security and Nutrition Cluster, and reducing stunting levels of children is one of the main outcomes (Government of Zimbabwe, 2013a). ZimAsset has set the target for stunting reduction to 20% of children under five years by 2018. Table 8 summarises some of the strategies to achieve the food security and nutrition goals of ZimAsset.

Table 8: Summary of ZimAsset's food and nutrition security goals with some of the strategies to achieve them

Goal	Strategies
Improving nutrition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide pregnant and lactating women with appropriate nutrition counselling. • Provide women with nutrition education on consumption of diversified diet, and infant and young child feeding. • Provide routine monitoring of nutrition status of women and children. • Provide Vitamin A supplementation and appropriate supplements for children and pregnant women.
Improving food and nutrition data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct quality nutritional surveillance, monitoring and evaluation on a regular basis. • Avail timely food and nutrition data. • Produce regular nutrition updates and reports.
Improving the policy environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop and review appropriate legislation, regulations guidelines and policies. • Regulate food imports to promote local production. • Monitor food imports and exports. • Invest in research, science and technology for agricultural development.

(Source: Government of Zimbabwe, 2013a)

The focus on increasing yields per hectare overlooks the nutrition content of agricultural production. There is need to emphasise food crop diversity to ensure provision of good nutrition and measure productivity in terms of nutrition per hectare.

Food security outcomes are revisited in the Social Services and Poverty Eradication Cluster of ZimAsset which aims to:

- Increase food aid to vulnerable groups.
- Strengthen urban agriculture.
- Distribute agricultural inputs timeously.
- Diversify use of the Community Share Ownership resources.
- Mobilize resources including contract farming and strengthening Private Public Partnerships with 400,000 households receiving agricultural inputs.

The Food and Nutrition Security Policy

Zimbabwe's Food and Nutrition Security Policy, launched in 2013, reaffirms the principle of the 'right to sufficient food', and reinforces the roles and responsibilities of communities in ensuring food and nutrition security (Government of Zimbabwe and Food and Nutrition Council, 2013). The Policy recognises food security and nutrition as a major component of social and economic development. The goal of the Policy is to ensure adequate food and nutrition security for all people at all times in Zimbabwe, particularly amongst the most vulnerable in line with cultural norms and values and the concept of rebuilding and maintaining family dignity (Government of Zimbabwe and Food and Nutrition Council, 2013). The Policy's four core commitments include agriculture and food security, social assistance and social protection, food safety and standards, and nutrition security. Other commitments relate to policy advice and analysis, food and nutrition security information management, and enhancing national capacity at all levels. In addition, the Policy reaffirms that relief, recovery and development should occur simultaneously to mitigate shocks, in risk reduction particularly in the context of climate change.

The Policy is designed to harmonise sectoral plans and programmes which impact on food and nutrition security for cohesive and cost effective action to occur. It also provides a framework for sustainable concerted and coordinated multi-sectoral action.

Gender was included in the policy in two key ways: to reaffirm women's important role in agriculture and encourage that all efforts be sensitive to the burden women have as caregivers in the home. However, there is no mention in the monitoring and evaluation of gender analysis or sex-disaggregated data, which is critical to understanding and addressing gender gaps related to food and nutrition security.

The Zimbabwe National Nutrition Strategy (2014-2018)

The Zimbabwe National Nutrition Strategy, launched in 2015, envisions a Zimbabwe free from hunger and malnutrition. The Strategy stresses the importance of evidence-based interventions that are integrated within a multi-sectoral collaborative framework. The Strategy emphasises prevention of malnutrition with a particular focus on stunting and recognises the critical window of opportunity during the first 1,000 days of life. It also addresses other nutrition related non-communicable diseases and micronutrient deficiencies in children and adults.

National Food Fortification Strategy (2014-2018)

The National Food Fortification Strategy recognises that addressing micronutrient deficiencies in Zimbabwe requires a comprehensive approach that includes targeted and population-wide interventions. The strategy focuses on the fortification with vitamins and minerals of basic staples of the local diet that the majority of the population purchase, namely maize meal, wheat flour, cooking oil and sugar.

Other nutrition-related health strategies

Policies that address HIV and AIDS also contain aspects of nutrition and food security. The Zimbabwe National HIV and AIDS Strategic Plan II (2011-2015) aims to ensure that households are empowered and capacitated to become self-reliant, through sustainable food production systems that take into account factors such as climate, geography, socio-economic systems and national legal framework for food production and investment. The Plan addresses severe malnutrition in people living with HIV and in particular provision of therapeutic foods for children. Communities are mobilised and educated on food and nutrition issues under the Plan and service providers trained to provide nutritional counselling at household level.

In addition to the general policies on nutrition, there are some that focus on child and maternal nutrition. The National Child Survival Strategy for Zimbabwe (2010-2015) focuses on infant and young child feeding and prevention and management of childhood malnutrition (Government of Zimbabwe, 2010).

One of the strategies supported under the Health Transition Fund is to strengthen national capacity for maternal, infant and young child nutrition. The Fund also aims to improve the community health services system for nutrition.

Social Transfer Policy Framework

The Government has developed a comprehensive Social Transfer Policy Framework which intends to harmonise the broad array of ongoing social transfer initiatives implemented through a range of funding mechanisms into a coherent and consolidated system (Government of Zimbabwe, 2011). The Social Transfer Policy Framework includes cash transfers, the agricultural input support for the non-labour constrained rural poor (households with able-bodied members who are fit for work) initiative to enhance food security and a public works programme.

The Harmonised Social Cash Transfer Programme is an unconditional cash transfer that aims to strengthen the purchasing power of ultra-poor households who are labour constrained (Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare and UNICEF, 2013a). The objectives of the programme include enabling beneficiary households to increase consumption above the poverty line. The programme is expected to improve nutritional status, health, and education, as well as reduce child mortality.

The Government is currently working to develop social protection policy which will address identified weaknesses in the country's current social protection system, particularly problems of fragmentation and duplication by placing an emphasis on the harmonization, integration and establishment of synergies amongst the various social protection related strategies and programmes.

Community-based nutrition and food security strategies

Government has developed a number of community-based strategies to reduce vulnerability and enhance resilience by strengthening sustainable livelihoods, creating community assets through community works, stimulating markets, improving access to services and welfare support to overcome poverty.

The Food Deficit Mitigation Strategy supports vulnerable households to access food. Under the Free Food programme, food is distributed to labour-constrained households such as the elderly, disabled and the chronically ill. The Productive Community Works Policy Framework provides operational guidelines for productive community works in Zimbabwe. Under the Productive Community Works programme labour intensive public works projects are implemented in vulnerable communities to create employment as part of a wider social protection framework. These frameworks signal a transition by policy makers towards a long-term developmental approach to asset creation activities that respond to a wide variety of shocks and stresses.

Government introduced the Public Works Programme which required beneficiaries in public works designed to improve community infrastructure in return for money which beneficiaries could use to buy food (Kaseke et al., 1997). The programme was redesigned to become the Food-for-Work programme in which beneficiaries worked on community projects in return for food.

The Community Food and Nutrition Programme evolved in 1987 from the Supplementary Food Production Programme (Tagwireyi and Greiner 1994). It was intended to improve food production and to link this to child feeding at the community and household levels. Its main objective is to involve and assist communities in high-risk areas to identify their food and nutrition problems and implement appropriate interventions to address the problems.

The *Zunde raMambo* (chief's community granary) practice was revived in 1996 by members of the Chief's Council of Zimbabwe, in collaboration with the Nutrition Unit of the Ministry of Health and Child Welfare. The main objective is to establish the *Zunde raMambo* as a sustainable community project, in line with traditional practices (Mararike 2001). The *Zunde raMambo* programme was intended to increase food production and reduce levels of malnutrition at the village level. This would also decrease dependence on the State for food, thus shifting State welfare to the village level. However, a limitation of this practice is that during droughts, the majority of households are food insecure and the grain reserves are not sufficient for all needy households.

Government and the World Food Programme collaborate to provide assistance during drought years through the Joint Implementation of the Seasonal Targeted Assistance Programme. During the 2012-2013 drought, the Government provided 27,000 metric tonnes of maize to

the seasonal targeted assistance programme while the World Food Programme provided logistical and distribution support.

Draft Agricultural Policy Framework (2012-2032)

Informed by the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) and other international and regional food security and natural resources frameworks, Zimbabwe has developed a draft Zimbabwe Comprehensive Agriculture Policy Framework (2012-2032), to optimise resource use. The draft policy addresses issues concerning crop and livestock production, marketing and trade, taking into account the current situation and constraints.

Zimbabwe Agriculture Investment Plan (ZAIP) (2013-2017)

The Agriculture Investment Plan aims to increase the production, productivity and competitiveness of Zimbabwean agriculture through building the capacity of farmers and institutions. It prioritises the improved management and sustainable use of resources and increasing the participation of farmers in domestic and export markets.

Conservation Agriculture Strategy (2010-2015)

Conservation agriculture is being promoted and practiced in Zimbabwe as a sustainable agricultural technology that increases crop productivity while at the same time preserves and conserves the environment. In 2010, the Conservation Agriculture Taskforce, in consultation with state and non-state stakeholders, developed a Conservation Agriculture Strategy for the period 2010-2015. This was intended to help increase and sustain agricultural productivity, production and farm incomes while protecting natural resources in the country. However, while this is one of the strategies to respond to climate change and help create sustainable food systems, it has not been fully embraced by all stakeholders.

Agricultural Inputs Programmes

In 2011 the Presidential Inputs Scheme was introduced to guarantee household food security, providing maize seed and fertilizer targeting smallholder farmers irrespective of agro-ecological region. However, inputs sometimes reach farmers late for the impact to be maximised. Further schemes could be enhanced by the inclusion of a livestock component in addition to cereals.

Environmental Policy and Strategies, 2009

The National Environmental Policy and Strategies have the overall goal to maintain environmental sustainability. The thrust is to avoid irreversible environmental damage, maintain essential environmental processes and preserve the broad spectrum of biological diversity so as to sustain the long term ability of natural resources to meet the basic needs of people, enhance food security, reduce poverty and improve the standard of living of Zimbabweans. The Policy promotes a clean, healthy and productive environment for all.

National Gender Policy (2013- 2017)

The revised National Gender Policy aims to mainstream gender into all sectors of the economy and to eradicate gender discrimination, inequalities and inequities in all spheres of life and development. The Policy aims to raise awareness among women and men on the Constitutional provisions, including the right to food. The Policy recognises the reliance of women on natural resources for food and income, and their limited access to productive resources, combined with their disadvantaged position in society increases their vulnerability to climate change induced distress. It notes that women have a significant role to play in climate change adaptation and mitigation as they acquired environmental management skills through experience in utilising natural resources and it is therefore imperative to make gender considerations in climate change and environment conservation strategies.

Zimbabwe United Nations Development Assistance Framework

The Zimbabwe United Nations Development Assistance Framework (ZUNDAF) is designed at a strategic level to provide the Government of Zimbabwe and the UN Country Team with a flexible framework, incorporating principles of recovery and development. One of its priorities is to ensure food security at household and national levels. ZUNDAF (2016-2020) directly supports the economic and social transformation goals set in the ZimAsset. Food and nutrition security plays a central role in the ZUNDAF's result areas.

During the 2012-2015 ZUNDAF cycle, FAO, UNICEF, WFP and WHO in partnership with the Government, collaborated on the Flagship Programme on the Prevention and Treatment of Undernutrition that aimed to: ensure all existing health facilities were fully functional and able to provide a standard package of nutrition services by 2015; develop and implement a national food fortification strategy; ensure malnutrition is addressed across sectors; and build the capacity of national, provincial and district nutrition security teams.

3.3 Institutional analysis

3.3.1 National Entities

Zimbabwe's macroeconomic strategy, the Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZimAsset) 2013-2018 is implemented by government ministries and agencies in the relevant sectors for each of the specified four clusters. The implementation of ZimAsset is monitored and evaluated by the Office of the President and Cabinet (Government of Zimbabwe, 2013b). The Ministries responsible for agriculture, environment and health lead the implementation of the Food Security and Nutrition Cluster, while the Ministry responsible for social services leads the implementation for improved standard of living under the Social Services and Poverty Eradication Cluster. The Office of the President and Cabinet is the lead government agency which provides the necessary leadership and guidance in the formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of ZimAsset.

ZimAsset is underpinned by the Integrated Results Based Management (IRBM) which is aimed at improving management of development results, public service delivery and accountability to citizens. The IRBM incorporates the e-Government initiative which focuses on the utilization of information communication technologies (ICT) to improve operations and performance of government in dealing with citizens and business³. Initial support to IRBM in 2005/6 through UNDP concentrated on setting up structures, 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. There is now need to strengthen the policy framework, planning systems and operationalisation of the IRBM and e-government processes.

The implementation of the Food and Nutrition Security Policy of 2013 is multi-sectoral and is being executed by i) the Office of the President and Cabinet; ii) Ministries responsible for agriculture, health, labour and social services; iii) ZIMSTAT; and iv) the Food and Nutrition Council (FNC). The policy enables various institutional arrangements to coordinate and implement relevant legal and policy documents which inform food and nutrition security. Figure 2 illustrates the national institutional structure, indicating that the FNC provides technical leadership for implementing food and nutrition security. The FNC obtains direction and guidance from the Cabinet Committee on Food and Nutrition Security and a working party of permanent secretaries. The National Food and Nutrition Security Committee, under the FNC is co-chaired by representatives from the Ministry of Agriculture and the Ministry of Labour

³ GOZ/UNDP, 2014: Integrated Results Based Management Programme and Accountable Service Delivery, July 2014

and Social Welfare. Under this national committee, nutrition security committees have been established at Provincial, District, Ward and Village levels, representing significant capacity in ensuring that food and nutrition matters remain not only multi-sectoral, but filter down to local levels (Figure 2). These food and nutrition security committees are multi-sectoral platforms that serve collective thinking and the coordination of food and nutrition security interventions. So far, food and nutrition security committees have been established in all 10 Provinces and in 26 out of 60 Districts. Municipal wards are the lowest administrative unit, and a pilot project is currently establishing committees at this level.

The Food and Nutrition Council

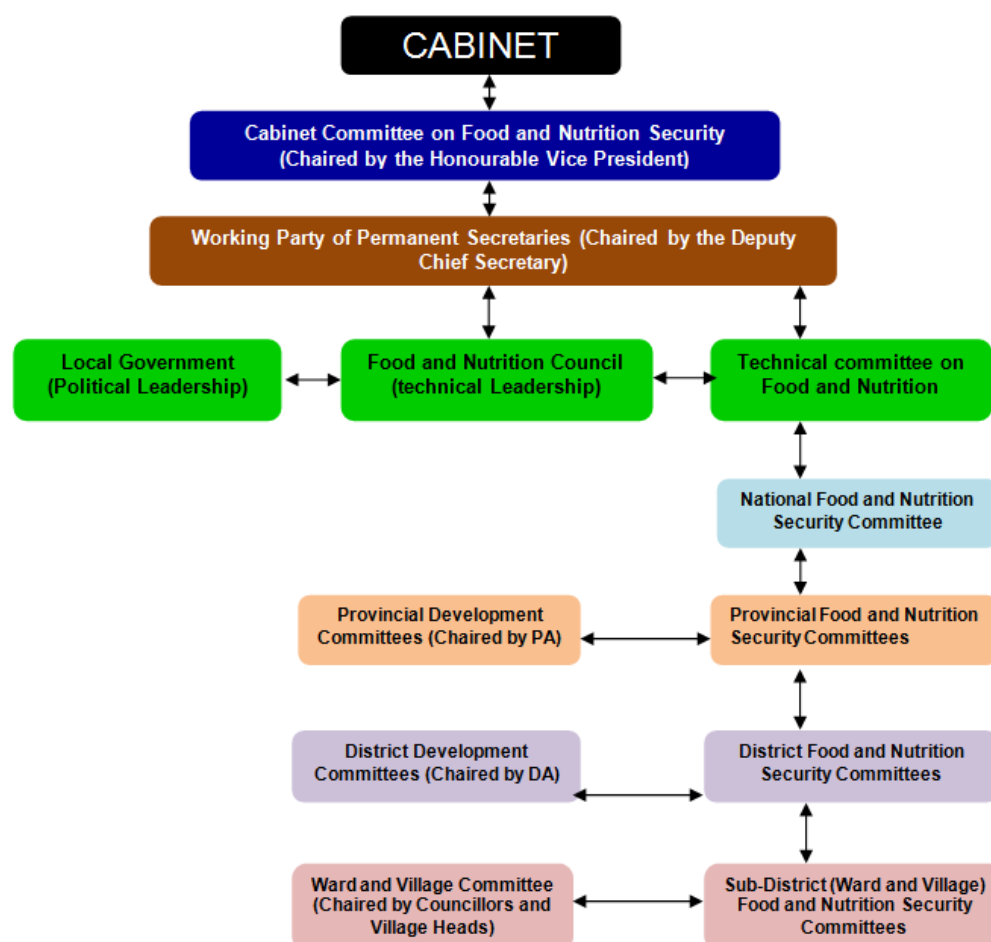
The FNC was established in 2000 as a department in the Office of the President and Cabinet (OPC) and is mandated to promote a cohesive national response to household food and nutrition security needs and challenges through coordinated multi-sectoral action by different ministries, national institutions, United Nations (UN) agencies and other development partners.

The FNC collects information on the food and nutrition security situation in the country. It chairs the multi-stakeholder committee known as the Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee (ZIMVAC), a consortium of government, UN agencies, other international organisations and non-governmental organisations, which coordinates food and nutrition security assessments. These stakeholders contribute towards annual assessments of various capacities such as in the areas of financial resources, personnel, supply of vehicles and other equipment, as well as technical skills.

FNC is in the process of establishing a national food and nutrition security information system decentralised to district and ward levels that provides timely and accurate situational analysis for decision making. The decentralised system will use a combination of primary and secondary data from various stakeholders and meta-analysis will be undertaken by the Food and Nutrition Security Analysis Unit (FNSAU) that is to be established at national level. This will strengthen the trend data on food security and malnutrition which is available at both district and ward level. The Food and Nutrition Council has been training district level committees on the analysis and use of data generated at district and ward levels but more is still required in order to strengthen capacities of all administrative levels including the provinces.

Data is also collected through the Demographic and Health Surveys, the Multiple Indicator Monitoring Surveys, the Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys, national nutrition surveys and micro-nutrient surveys. While surveys collect sex-disaggregated data, there is little analysis of gender dynamics beyond this data. Meta-analysis of existing data sets could be further analysed to characterise the problem further and identify the key drivers of food and nutrition insecurity and malnutrition, including stunting. There are ongoing efforts to characterise and reduce stunting through a programme piloted by the Food and Nutrition Council. While coverage has expanded to areas with the highest stunting rates, the scale is limited to address the magnitude of stunting in Zimbabwe. In addition, there is a fragmented approach to reduce stunting.

Figure 2: Structure of national entities for the coordination and implementation of food and nutrition security in Zimbabwe



Source: Food and Nutrition Council (2014)

The Food and Nutrition Council is spearheading efforts to strengthen systems that support community engagement and participation in food and nutrition issues through the re-activation of decentralised food and nutrition committees at Provincial, District, Ward and Village levels. The key sectors involved in this include health, agriculture, social services, education and community development. This initiative also engages all traditional structures, such as village assemblies as well as community-based organisations for sustainability.

Integrated multi-sectoral planning is not yet strong enough to provide a cohesive response to food and nutrition insecurity by responding to gaps and prioritise key areas in which action is to be taken. A first data source feeding into such overall gaps identification process is a capacity assessment of the Food and Nutrition Council, which was undertaken by the Barefoot Education for Africa Trust (BEAT), for the FNC and FAO in May 2014. The assessment found that in order to fulfil its role of leadership and coordination in issues of food and nutrition security, the FNC needs to strengthen its capacity in terms of a higher number of staff and increased amount of resources that are needed to enhance food security and vulnerability analysis, outreach and communications (BEAT, 2014). However, the question still needs to be addressed in terms of more structural kinds of changes needed to strengthen existing capabilities to commit and engage, carry out tasks, partner and mobilise resources, balance

diversity and coherence within the Council and beyond by way of partnership with other entities as well as adapt and self-renew itself as the coordinating body.

The Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare

The Ministry is responsible for promoting fair labour practices, enhanced labour productivity, sustainable social protection and the efficient and accountable operation of the Public Service. The Department of Social Services within the Ministry has the mandate to reduce poverty and enhance self-reliance through the provision of social protection services to the most vulnerable and disadvantaged groups in the society. Food assistance is given to households selected through Food Distribution Committees at community level. The selection of wards is done at the district level through the District Drought Relief Committee using the ZIMVAC reports as well as their knowledge of the district food security situation. However, community food distribution under the Food Deficit Mitigation programme is constrained by lack of funding.

A capacity assessment in 2010 found that the Department has been widely under-resourced to address existing challenges; proposed targets were not being met due to lack of professional and experienced staff as well as shortage of physical facilities and resources at the Department's disposal (UNICEF and Ministry of Labour and Social Services, 2010). The absence of resources has further impacted the Department's ability to monitor and evaluate services for children and other vulnerable groups. The Department is currently experiencing difficulties securing resources to implement the flagship Basic Educational Assistance Module (BEAM) programme.

Ministry of Health and Child Care

The Ministry of Health and Child Care promotes health and quality of life of Zimbabweans and seeks to achieve equity in health by targeting resources and programmes to the most vulnerable and needy in society. The main strategy for health development is the primary health care approach, implemented since the 1980s, which has seen remarkable gains and consistent progress in health and nutrition (ZIMSTAT, 2013a).

The Ministry is the lead agency in the implementation of a number of nutrition-based programmes, namely adolescent health and nutrition, pre-conception nutrition, maternal nutrition especially during pregnancy, micronutrient supplementation, breastfeeding and complementary feeding, growth monitoring and promotion, nutrition in emergencies, health and family planning services and water and sanitation.

The community-based nutrition programme aims to achieve a higher level of children's nutritional status through improved feeding and child care. However, the coverage of the programme is limited to ten food insecure districts in the provinces of Matebeleland North, Mashonaland Central, Manicaland and Masvingo. The Infant and Young Child Feeding Programme supports and promotes breastfeeding practices in Zimbabwe through the production of information, education and communication materials, as well as trainings for health care workers to effectively integrate the implementation of the Infant and Young Child Feeding Global Strategy in all district hospitals in Zimbabwe. The programme aims to demystify the benefits of exclusive breastfeeding practices for the first six months and continued breastfeeding with complementary indigenous foods for up to two years and beyond.

However, the prevailing institutional arrangements within the health sector do not readily facilitate regular interaction between departments relevant to food and nutrition security to facilitate joint programming and budgeting. There is need for more collaboration between departments, such as joint planning meetings. The constrained funding of the health budget indicates that efforts at enhancing food and nutrition security in the country as well as the provision of health to all are affected (Community Working Group on Health, 2014).

The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education

The school feeding programme for early childhood development and primary pupils is a strategic intervention under the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, supported by the multi-donor Education Transition Fund. Currently there is no specific policy that guides school feeding and WFP, which has developed a global policy framework, is assisting government in developing a policy for Zimbabwe. The school feeding programmes are popular with parents and communities. However, only 4.8% of schools in Zimbabwe had been engaged in a supplementary school feeding programme by 2012 (Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, 2013).

Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development

The Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development is mandated to empower women and promote gender equality and community development. The Ministry funds various projects capacitating women to improve their livelihoods and enhance food security, through the Women's Development Fund which receives a budget allocation of about USD2.5 million a year (Government of Zimbabwe, 2013c). One of the achievements of the Ministry in the area of enhancing food security at the household level is the provision of agricultural inputs, including fertilisers in all provinces. Other projects include growing potatoes in bags, growing herbs and spices and honey production. The Ministry has community development officers who are conversant with gender issues at household and community levels that are likely to influence food security and nutrition, and who assist in rolling out nutrition education.

Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanisation and Irrigation

Due to the large size of the agricultural production in Zimbabwe, food security is highly dependent on the implementation of the country's agricultural policies. The agricultural sector aims to achieve both increasing smallholder productivity as well as income opportunities. The mandate of the Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanisation and Irrigation is to promote and sustain a viable agricultural sector through the provision of appropriate agricultural infrastructure, mechanisation, technical, administrative and advisory services in order to optimise agricultural productivity to ensure food security. However, implementation is constrained by the delay in finalising the draft agricultural policy - the process began in 2012. Most state and non-state initiatives have been based on reactions to on-going socio-economic developments and extreme climate events, especially droughts. Nonetheless, both the government as well as local and international development partners have introduced various agricultural support programmes aimed at increasing agricultural production and productivity among smallholder farmers to achieve food security. For example, Government's agricultural input scheme which benefited 1.6 million smallholder farmers in the 2013/2014 season probably contributed to the good cereal production in 2014.

The Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanisation and Irrigation is implementing the Zimbabwe Agricultural Investment Plan (ZAIP). The ZAIP Business model requires commitment from all stakeholders namely government, farmers, development partners and the private sector and there is need for cooperation, shared interest, and unity of purpose for achievement of the plan (MAMID, 2014).

The Ministry experiences some problems in the institutionalisation of private-public partnerships which are key for increased sustainable agricultural production. The main constraint to contract farming is side marketing. In order to ensure continued growth of contract farming, an appropriate legal and institutional framework is needed to minimise violation of contractual obligations. The Agricultural Marketing Authority (AMA) has successfully supervised the cotton contracts and the model could be extended to other crops.

In terms of other commodities, the legal and regulatory framework for contract farming is fragmented, hence the need for a clear and consistent policy to establish minimum standards for contract farming.

Marketing and the movement of agricultural produce is hampered by a deteriorating infrastructure, such as roads and telecommunications, as well as the overall production capacity, including lack of fuel, electricity and input manufacturing industries, leading to high costs of inputs such as fertilisers and seed or scarcity of production factors (Kapuya et al., 2010). Marketing is also inhibited by lack of information about the availability of markets and prices of agricultural goods.

Agricultural Technical and Extension Services (AGRITEX)

AGRITEX is a department that falls under the Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanisation and Irrigation, and is mandated to provide technical and advisory services, regulatory services, farmer training, food technology, post harvesting processing and product development, dissemination of technologies and market oriented extension for sustainable farming. However, there is insufficient research and dissemination of information such as prevention of post-harvest loss and processing small grains that is leading to a limited transfer of productive farm technologies and a lack of commercial farming skills (Anseeuw et al., 2012). In addition, the high ratio of AGRITEX officers to farmers tends to challenge service delivery.

Grain Marketing Board

The Grain Marketing Board is a state-owned procurement board which maintains strategic grain reserves for the country. It is tasked with providing grain storage facilities, handling and processing facilities as well as fumigation, product quality control services and commercial training in grain handling.

However, the Grain Marketing Board has limited capacity to effectively carry out its mandate of buying and storing grain due to lack of financial resources. At the national level, it has difficulties to ensure innovative procurement and management methods of a strategic grain reserve (FEWSNET, 2014). This has resulted in importing and buying maize at higher prices.

Agricultural Bank of Zimbabwe (AGRIBANK)

AGRIBANK was established by the Agricultural Finance Act Amendment 14 of 1999 and is responsible for providing sustainable agricultural development finance and banking services to contribute towards the attainment of economic growth and development in Zimbabwe. It also contributes towards national agricultural development, food security, increased output and productivity, and the generation of foreign currency, particularly for farming and rural communities.

In practice however, farmers have limited access to working capital and difficulties in accessing agricultural finance, which stem from a lack of credit and financial services that are poorly adapted to the new tenurial situation, and unfavourable borrowing conditions (Kapuya et al., 2010).

Conservation Agriculture Working Group

Coordinated by the FAO, membership of the Conservation Agriculture Working Group is drawn from representatives of donor agencies, local and international non-governmental organisations, UN agencies, key ministries such as the Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanisation and Irrigation and the Ministry of Local Government, academics, researchers and other interested individuals. The Working Group provides an opportunity for collaboration between state and non-state actors.

Ministry of Environment, Water and Climate

Food systems should not only be productive, they should be sustainable as well. The Ministry of Environment, Water and Climate is responsible for promoting sound environmental practices and sustainable development and utilization of natural and water resources. The National Environmental Council provides for multi-sectoral coordination at national level. Environmental action planning committees are responsible for sustainable natural resource use at local level. The Environment and Natural Resources Management Department is responsible for promoting sustainable management of environmental and natural resources. The Department promotes education, training and awareness on sustainable development and natural resource conservation.

The Water Resources Planning and Management Department is responsible for creating a conducive environment for sustainable water resources development and management. The Department ensures the availability of clean water to all citizens for basic needs and to meet needs of aquatic and associated ecosystems.

The Climate Change Management Department is mandated with the promotion of best practices in climate change adaptation and mitigation strategies to enhance the country's response and capacity to manage prevailing impacts of climate change. The Department is tasked to review and coordinate the implementation of climate change conventions and promote the adoption of clean and renewable technologies as climate change mitigation measures. The implementation of the National Climate Change Response Strategy is assisted by the sector-specific Action Plans in the Response Strategy. The Action Plans were formulated through a highly consultative process which bestowed ownership by the various sectors responsible for implementing climate change responses. The Meteorological Services Department undertakes and is responsible for early warning and weather forecasts and issuing advance warnings on weather conditions likely to endanger life and property.

Lack of regional integration on climate change adaptation and mitigation strategies is a challenge. There is also limited development of programmes that aim to develop best practices to enhance carbon sequestration and reduce carbon emissions and limited participation and involvement of the rural poor who are most affected by climate change in programme planning and implementation (Chimanikire, 2011). While Zimbabwe has early warning systems, the current early warning communication is a one-way process, with those issuing warnings not fully aware of the needs and priorities of vulnerable communities, and therefore not responsive to their needs. Warning information is poorly disseminated to poor communities with limited capacity to respond. The absence of preparedness plans for evacuation and overdependence on rain-fed agriculture by locals hamper the implementation of early warning systems (Gwimbi, 2007). Technical and technological capacity to undertake accurate weather forecasts is limited.

Ministry of Local Government, Public Works and National Housing

The Ministry promotes sound local governance, construction, management and maintenance for sustainable human settlements for the improvement of the quality of livelihoods for the people of Zimbabwe. The Ministry is responsible for local authorities and traditional administration. It chairs the provincial and district development committees.

The Civil Protection Department was established as an emergency and disaster management system and organisation as provided for in the Civil Protection Act [*Chapter 10:06*] of 2001. The Department is mandated with mobilizing resources in preparation for, and in the managing of major emergencies and disasters, as well as initiating and maintaining an updated hazard analysis for the country. However, the disaster management system faces a number of challenges including financial shortages for staffing and other resource requirements.

Effective emergency prevention mechanisms are lacking, with more emphasis being put on disaster response rather than prevention.

3.3.2 International Development Agencies

The United Nations and other multilateral and bilateral donors support the Government of Zimbabwe in its effort to provide food and nutrition security to the nation. Partnerships with international development agencies have provided substantial support for a wide range of social and development programmes, including agriculture and food security, nutrition, health, education, clean water and sanitation.

World Food Programme

The World Food Programme (WFP) in Zimbabwe has in recent years refocused its attention from emergency assistance to recovery and resilience while maintaining capacity for emergency response. Its current programme focuses on:

- Disaster response and risk reduction.
- Health and nutrition promotion for malnourished HIV/AIDS and tuberculosis clients, pregnant and lactating mothers, and children under five years.
- Food assistance and cash for assets focused on resilience building and promoting self-reliance.

WFP Zimbabwe has drafted a five-year Country Strategic Plan (CSP) that outlines its support to national efforts between 2016 and 2020. The programmatic areas are aligned with national priorities, the post-2015 Sustainable Development Goals and the Zero Hunger Challenge. The key pillars of the programme documents include: (1) meeting basic food needs of targeted vulnerable populations; (2) making livelihoods more resilient; (3) reducing under-nutrition; (4) strengthening the social protection system; and (5) supporting smallholder farmers. These are in line with the Government's Food Deficit Mitigation Strategy, the Food and Nutrition Security Policy, the Productive Community Works Policy Framework, the Social Transfer Policy Framework, and the United Nations Development Assistance Framework for Zimbabwe (ZUNDAF). Actions under these objectives contribute directly to the five pillars of the Zero Hunger Challenge and SDG 2.

Food and Agriculture Organisation

The Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) has been working with Government to support smallholder farmers across the country through various programmes. Such programmes include the provision of chemicals to fight livestock disease through the rehabilitation and construction of dip-tanks and the provision of equipment and materials to the National Veterinary Laboratory to produce vaccines to fight animal diseases. The FAO has facilitated the setting up of Livestock Development Committees and the training of members, veterinary extension agents and diptank assistants in disease surveillance, dipping methods and dip tank management. Under the improved food and nutrition security of vulnerable household's initiative, from 2012 to 2014, it supported smallholder farmers in small stock production and gave agriculture equipment and training to start honey production. The FAO has also implemented a contract farming project benefiting about 10,000 farmers growing crops such as maize, cowpeas, bananas and coffee on contracts with private companies.

FAO together with the government and other partners introduced the emergency drought mitigation operation for livestock in Zimbabwe, from 2012 to 2013, targeting Matabeleland South, Matabeleland North, Midlands, Manicaland and Masvingo provinces. Through its Technical Cooperation Programme, FAO has been working to boost the production, processing and marketing of small grains in three of the country's drier provinces.

The United Nations Children's Fund

The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) provides support through the Food and Nutrition Council toward the resuscitation of provincial and district Food and Nutrition Committees as well as the community-based multi-sectoral stunting reduction pilot project implemented in four of the districts with the highest stunting levels, namely Chiredzi, Mwenezi, Chipinge and Mutasa. In the health sector, UNICEF supported infant and young child nutrition programmes, including by way of growth monitoring, vitamin A capsule distributions, and the development of a national micro-nutrient strategy as well as the National Nutrition Strategy (2014-2018).

UNICEF also supports ZIMSTAT to produce the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) which collects information on a variety of socio-economic, nutrition and health indicators needed to inform planning, implementation and monitoring of national policies. UNICEF, in collaboration with ZIMSTAT is further analysing the MICS data to explore root causes and relations of wellbeing outcomes.

United Nations Women

Through the Joint Programme for Gender Equality (JPGE), UN Women supports the Government of Zimbabwe in its efforts to achieving gender equality and women's empowerment, through four programme pillars that include: combatting all forms of gender based violence; women's political participation and influence; women's economic empowerment and working conditions and the national accountability on gender equality and women's empowerment. It does this through strategic interventions at policy level, and capacity strengthening of all stakeholders and in particular the poorest and most excluded.

Gender equality significantly contributes to achieving food and nutrition security. UN Women also contributes to the social services and poverty eradication cluster of the ZimAsset through gender mainstreaming, women's economic empowerment and access to land and agricultural inputs.

World Health Organisation

The World Health Organisation is supporting current efforts to revive a national food and nutrition surveillance system. It also supports national micro-nutrient surveys as well as a food consumption survey, both of which shed light on current food consumption patterns, while informing strategies to improve dietary habits. The World Health Organisation together with WFP, UNICEF and FAO is involved in a pilot for community based multi-sectoral stunting reduction that serves to better understand factors causing stunting and inform about interventions to reduce it. The implementation of this model is increasingly contributing to the Scaling Up Nutrition (SUN) initiative.

European Union

In 2011, the European Union (EU) introduced an Integrated Programme to achieve Sustainable Food Security. The project was intended to tackle the problem of food insecurity of small scale producers by supporting sustainable agricultural production for both crops and livestock, and alternative sources of income. In 2015, the EU provided €31 million to boost sugar cane farming by resettled small holder farmers in the Lowveld through the Zimbabwe National Sugar Adaptation Strategy. Additionally, the EU has donated vehicles and equipment to support the planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of agricultural programmes. The donation is supposed to benefit smallholder farmers by increasing the impact to be achieved through the Smallholder Irrigation Support Project, which assists the rehabilitation of 20 schemes on 1000 hectares in Manicaland and Matabeleland South

provinces. The EU also supports the Livestock Programme supporting 40,000 farmers who practice mixed crop and livestock production in Matabeleland North Province.

United States Agency for International Development

The focus of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) Programme in Zimbabwe is on increasing food and nutrition security through a community-led approach towards building resilience. This involves diversifying incomes, improving nutrition and hygiene, increasing agricultural production and market linkages as well as disaster risk management with special focus on climate change. USAID has two Development Food Assistance Programmes ongoing in Zimbabwe – the Enhancing Nutrition, Stepping up Resilience and Enterprise (ENSURE) and Amalima initiatives – that support communities during lean/hungry seasons in some of the districts in the country. Through partner organisations and running from 2014 to 2019, these programmes also focus on increasing agricultural production and market linkages, diversifying incomes, improving nutrition specifically targeting 1000 days from pregnant and lactating women and children under two years, through improved dietary habits and hygiene practices.

The USAID's Zimbabwe Agricultural Income and Employment Development programme is working with smallholders around the country to commercialise more than 35 irrigation schemes through the introduction of horticultural crops. The programme is also establishing links with banks and microfinance institutions to provide credit and loans to farmers to purchase high-quality seeds, fertilizers, and other necessary inputs that help improve both yields and quality. USAID is also facilitating contracts between private sector buyers or suppliers and smallholders.

Department for International Development, UK

The Department for International Development (DFID), spearheaded the multi-donor engagement Protracted Relief Programme II (2008-2012), which targeted households both in rural and urban settings, reaching more than 2 million people by improving their livelihoods. Activities included agricultural interventions, social cash transfers, home based care, water and sanitation and market-oriented innovation projects.

In 2015, DFID launched a \$72 million, four-year Livelihoods and Food Security Programme which aims to increase agricultural productivity, increase incomes, improve food and nutrition security and reduce poverty in rural Zimbabwe. The Food and Agriculture Organisation, Gunn Rural Management (GRM) International and Coffey manage the Livelihoods and Food Security Programme which addresses the specific constraints that smallholder farmers, particularly women, face in raising the productivity of their farms and participating in markets.

Other non-governmental organisations responses to food and nutrition security

In addition to the international developmental agencies, there are numerous other organisations that have been involved in enhancing smallholder productivity with their various programmes. Action Aid has a Climate Resilient Sustainable Agriculture framework and a smallholder farmers' empowerment programme while the Catholic Agency for Overseas Development (CAFOD) is currently providing training in farming and providing seeds and tools to vulnerable families enabling them to reduce their dependency on food handouts. Plan International is also providing training to smallholder farmers in small grain production and seed multiplication.

Non-governmental organisations such as Help Age Zimbabwe, Catholic Relief Service and the Joint Initiative Consortium have piloted cash transfer programmes for persons or households that require long term assistance to address food security. In addition there are studies undertaken on investigating malnutrition. For example, the Zimbabwe Vitamin A for

Mothers and Babies Organisation (ZVITAMBO) has an ongoing study that is assessing the impact of environmental sanitation and aflatoxins on stunting.

The dilemma of these pilots and short term initiatives is that due to the limitations of programme funding cycles, non-governmental organisations are not able to offer long-term assistance to those households of chronically poor that may continue to need direct assistance, because of high dependency ratios, chronic illness or disability (Schubert 2010). Ultimately, it is the government that is responsible for providing food and nutrition security and assistance to the chronically poor. As such the exit strategy for non-governmental organisations assistance should be referrals to the Department of Social Services, under the Government's wider Social Protection Framework. However, it is also important to acknowledge that in the short and medium term, government systems may not have the financial resources and capacity to absorb all these additional households.

Another weakness in the implementation is the lack of gender mainstreaming into development programmes. A gender analysis found gender mainstreaming by partners largely implemented on an ad hoc basis (USAID, 2012).

3.3.3 The Private sector

The private sector plays a key role in food and nutrition security. However, this key role is not fully utilised and coordination between and within sectors is minimal.

In the social services sector, the private sector has been involved in the delivery of cash to vulnerable households across the country under cash transfer programmes. In the water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) sector engineering firms have been involved in the rehabilitation of water systems, under small towns WASH programmes.

Zimbabwe's agri-business sector has been engaged in contract farming, input supply including certified maize seed processing and manufacturing of fertilizer and agro-chemicals, as well as product marketing and processing (MAMID, 2014). The private sector agro-dealership network has been instrumental in reducing the transactions costs of critical inputs such as seed and fertilizer for small holder farmers. It is important to strengthen value-chain programmes and agri-dealer capacity.

Contract farming has made a major difference for smallholder farmers, because they are able to obtain inputs and technical assistance on credit from the private sector. There has been a dramatic rise in contract farming mainly with non-food cash crops, namely tobacco and cotton (Binswanger-Mkhize and Moyo, 2012). This has resulted in many smallholder farmers preferring to grow more lucrative tobacco than maize, thereby affecting food security. There is concern that smallholder farmers are growing export crops rather than food because of the support available. There is need for a policy shift to provide incentives for smallholders grow more maize and other food crops.

3.4 Financial landscape of the food and nutrition security sector

Macroeconomic policies and strategies are intricately linked to finances and national budgets, which facilitate the translation of policy objectives and the implementation of programmes into action on the ground. The provision of the right to sufficient food in the Constitution may be advanced through public finance policy channelling a substantial share of the available resources to wellbeing outcomes. Overall, Zimbabwe's national macroeconomic policies are pro-poor and national budgets are oriented to provide for food and nutrition security.

The emphasis of ZimAsset on poverty eradication and improved food security and nutrition provides a framework for public policy and budget allocations in favour of the poor and other socially excluded groups. Its results based management system is a basis for the

macroeconomic budgetary framework by the Treasury. In addition, the government ensures that the budgetary processes are aligned to the programming requirements of ZimAsset. Implementation of ZimAsset largely depends on availability of resources in the national budgets.

A number of government ministries budget for food and nutrition security, including: (i) the Office of the President and Cabinet which houses the Food and Nutrition Council; (ii) the Ministry of Health and Child Care has a nutrition programme; (iii) the Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare has a Food Deficit Mitigation Strategy; (iv) the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, has school feeding programmes and (v) the Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanisation and Irrigation Development is responsible for food production to ensure food security in the country.

Recurrent expenditures, in particular employment costs, account for a disproportionate share of total budget expenditures. In 2015, 80% of the total budget was accounted for by employment costs, leaving little for capital expenditure and operations (Government of Zimbabwe, 2015). This small proportion has serious implications for food and nutrition security programmes.

3.4.1 Budgets for food and nutrition security

Table 9 shows the national budget allocations to and expenditures for food and nutrition security-related items and programmes, from 2012 to 2016 budget figures. Limited revenues adversely affect disbursements and implementation. Current and capital transfers budget allocations to the Food and Nutrition Council have been relatively constant at around USD 900,000 per year. Expenditure has been lower by about USD 200,000.

The Nutrition Programme was allocated USD 400,000 in each of the 2013 and 2014 National Budgets, an increase from USD 250,000 allocated in 2012 (Table 9). Most of this budget was expended, with an overspending of USD 54,000 in 2014. Budget allocations and expenditures for nutrition decreased in 2015 to about USD 100,000 (Table 9).

Although one and a half million dollars was allocated for the Food Deficit Mitigation Strategy up to 2014, little of this was expended. In 2015, USD 700,000 was budgeted, but only USD 144,000 was expended (Table 9). School feeding schemes have been included in the budgets, but have not translated into real expenditures due to competing priorities and a constrained budget.

Table 9: National Budget allocations to and expenditures for food and nutrition-related items and programmes: planned vs. actual expenditure figures

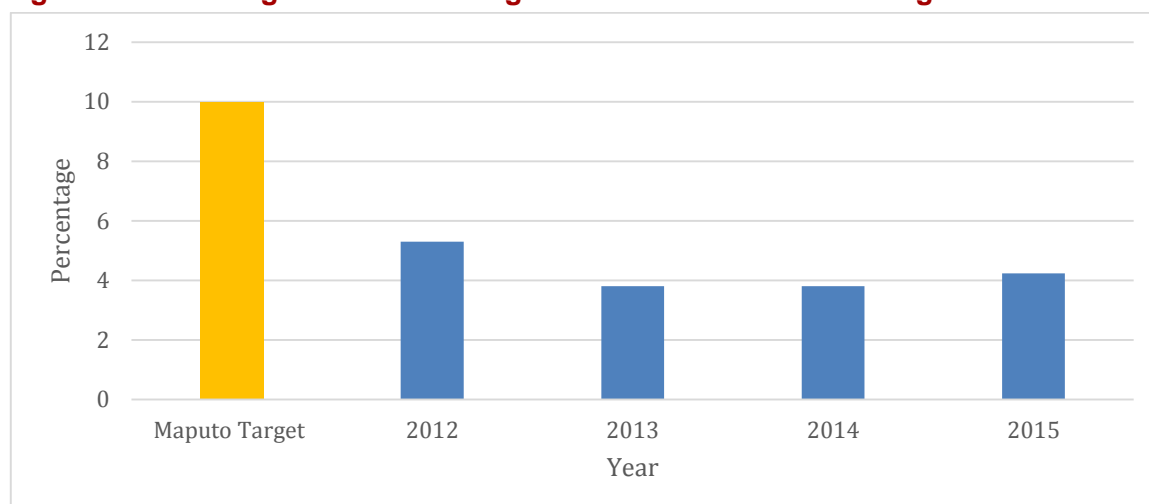
Budget Item	2012		2013		2014		2015		2016
	Revised Budget Estimates (USD)	Unaudited expenditure to September (USD)	Revised Budget Estimates (USD)	Unaudited expenditure to November (USD)	Revised Budget Estimates (USD)	Unaudited expenditure to October (USD)	Revised Budget Estimates (USD)	Unaudited Expenditure to September	Budget estimate (planned figures)
Food and Nutrition Council (current and capital transfers)	849,000	687,995	890,000	733,584	966,000	660,344	946,000	688,985	914,000
Nutrition	250,000	242,679	400,000	399,431	400,000	453,893	100,000	98,746	120,000 + 530,000 from other resources
Food Deficit Mitigation Strategy	1,500,000	230,000	1,600,000	-	1,600,000	-	700,000	144,000	500,000
Schools feeding in infant schools	-	-	-	-	500,000	-	200,000	-	200,000
Schools feeding in junior schools	500,000	-	500,000	-	168,000	-	-	-	-

Sources: Budget Estimates, Ministry of Finance, 2012; 2013; 2014; 2015

3.4.2 Budgets for agriculture

Despite the macroeconomic policy thrust for agricultural production and a self-sufficient and food secure nation, the percentage allocation for agriculture is relatively low and has decreased from 5.3% in 2010 to 3.8% in 2013 and 2014. However, the proportion allocated for agriculture increased slightly in 2015 to 4.23% (UNICEF, 2014). Figure 3 shows that Zimbabwe's allocation to agriculture has consistently been below the Maputo Declaration of 10% of the National Budget in the years 2012-2015.

Figure 3: Percentage allocation to Agriculture in the National Budget



Source: National Budget Statement, Blue books (Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, 2011, 2012, 2013)

Table 10 indicates that budget allocations and expenditures by the Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanisation and Irrigation Development have been variable. In 2013 the Ministry had overspent by more than USD 47 million of its allocated budget of USD 147,839,000 (Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, 2013). However, in 2014 expenditure by October was only about a half of the budgeted funds (Table 10).

Table 10: National Budget allocations to and expenditures for the Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanisation and Irrigation Development: planned versus actual expenditure figures

Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanisation and Irrigation Development		
2013	Revised Budget Estimates (USD)	147,839,000
	Unaudited expenditure to November (USD)	194,989,483
2014	Revised Budget Estimates (USD)	391,891,000
	Unaudited expenditure to October (USD)	199,100,096
2015	Revised Budget Estimates (USD)	174,145,000
	Unaudited Expenditure to September	161,579,743
2016	Budget Estimates (USD)	145,091,000 + 40,760,000 from other resources

Sources: Budget Estimates, Ministry of Finance, 2013; 2014; 2015

The planned National Budget for 2016, informed by ZimAsset, reiterates the need for, and efficient management of, strategic grain reserve stocks to ensure food security, to provide a reliable buffer during deficit periods (Government of Zimbabwe, 2015). The 2016 planned budget prioritises timely mobilisation of resources, especially for the vulnerable farmers, to enable them take advantage of the onset of agricultural seasons. USD 28 million were allocated to the Presidential agricultural support input scheme for the 2015/16 season to

support 300,000 vulnerable households, mainly in maize and small grains production, also to ensure food security at both household and national level (Government of Zimbabwe, 2015). The input support package comprises of:

- 1 x 10 kgs of maize/small grain seed
- 1 x 50 kgs of compound D
- 1 x 50 kgs Ammonium Nitrate.

The 2016 national budget makes provisions to address the problems of non-payment to farmers for grain deliveries to the Grain Marketing Board. Government allocated USD 67.8 million to payments for grain deliveries, including 2013/14 arrears, while a total of USD 11 million was availed to the Grain Marketing Board for handling and storage charges (Government of Zimbabwe, 2015).

The government secured a USD 98.6 million loan from the Brazilian Government which is meant to cater for agriculture machinery and equipment, targeting 21,136 smallholder A1 and communal farmers under the More Food International Programme. These farmers are operating 178 irrigation schemes, and the equipment and machinery will be available to farmers on a cost recovery basis (Government of Zimbabwe, 2015).

The 2016 National Budget also prioritises cloud seeding, with USD 200,000 disbursed in support of a wider programme, and a further USD 300,000 to be allocated to enhance national efforts to strengthen food and nutrition security.

Under the Climate Resilient National Water Resources and Irrigation Master Plan, USD 2.6 million were availed in 2015 towards the completion of 13 irrigation schemes covering about 635 hectares (Government of Zimbabwe, 2015). The Plan aims to ensure that the current total of 220,000 hectares of installed irrigation capacity is functional. A further USD 7 million for irrigation development, targeting 11,290 hectares across the country was allocated in the 2016 financial year (Government of Zimbabwe, 2015). Financing for irrigation is complemented by USD 8.6 million from development partners, in particular the FAO, European Union, Japan and the Swiss Development Corporation.

The slow-down in Zimbabwe's economy undermined the capacity of the government to adequately invest in food and nutrition security. This has kept it from meeting its budgetary allocation commitments made as part of the Maputo Declaration and the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme process. The bulk of the financial resources support recurrent expenditures, amongst which staffing account for a large amount.

3.4.3 Financing from development and humanitarian partners

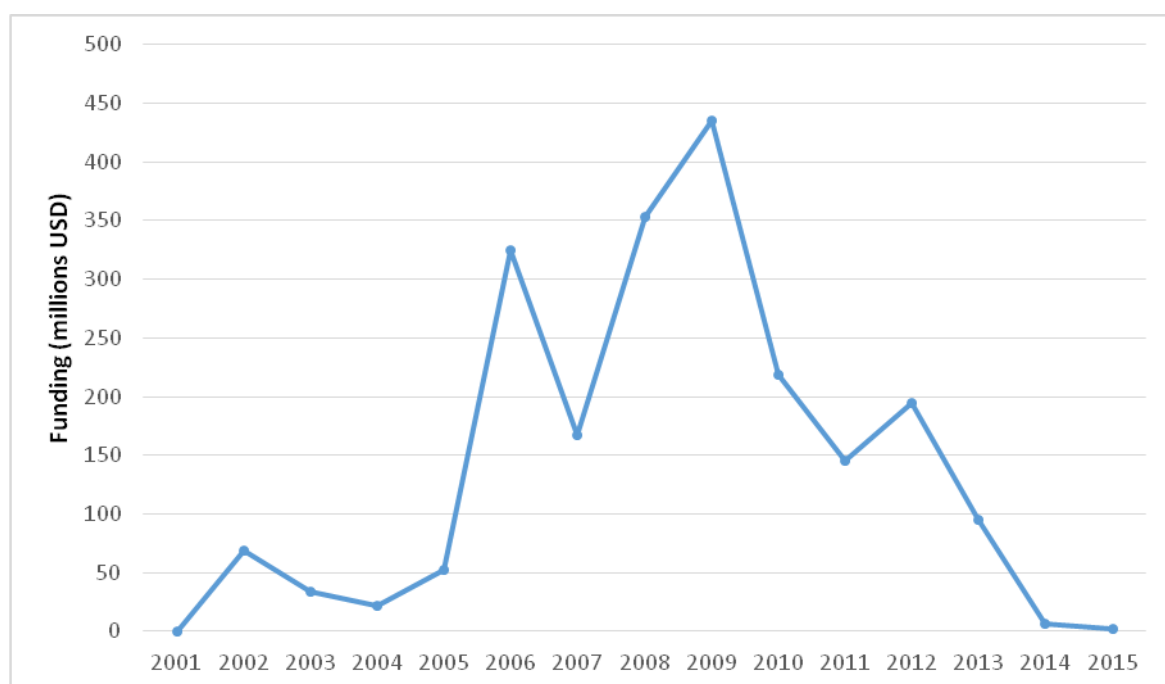
In the context of national budgetary constraints, the partnerships with United Nations and other multilateral and bilateral donors have provided substantial support for a wide range of social and development programmes, including agriculture and food security, nutrition, clean water and sanitation. The government's efforts have been complemented and assisted by a number of Multi-donor Trust Funds set up by international development partners. The Government of Zimbabwe and the international community have set targets with regards to alleviating poverty and enhancing food security, notably through the framework of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which ended in 2015, and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which aim to end poverty in all its forms and more specifically through SDG2, to end hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition, and promote sustainable agriculture. Adequate financing is necessary to ensure that the goals expressed in the Sustainable Development Goals Framework are achieved.

Traditional development partners including Denmark, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States, support multi-year social and economic development programmes with direct or indirect links to food and nutrition security in the country. Additionally, Zimbabwe has sizeable bilateral development programmes in agriculture, mining and infrastructure with China, Russia and Brazil that demonstrate the potential for further developing South-South cooperation.

The United Nations Development Assistance Framework for Zimbabwe (ZUNDAF) has recently incorporated the ZimAsset Cluster 1 on Food and Nutrition Security into its programmes through financial support. In May 2015, the Government revealed that the United Nations was going to mobilise up to USD 1.6 billion between 2016 and 2020 to support development programmes in line with the ZimAsset economic blueprint. The United Nations Resident Coordinator indicated that this would include support for ZimAsset's Cluster 1 that focuses on food and nutrition security.

Data to track financial contributions of the international humanitarian community in supporting food and nutrition related activities in Zimbabwe in recent years stems from the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) and Financial Services Tracker, a service which collates and integrates all funding data from donors. The Financial Services Tracker provides funding information for the whole humanitarian sector. However, for the purpose of this review, funding data collected consists of data on food and nutrition activities as well as specific agricultural activities that contribute to food and nutrition security in response to crises. Figure 4 illustrates funding trends for the food and nutrition sector of humanitarian responses by international agencies for the duration of 2001 to 2015.

Figure 4: Humanitarian funding for the food and nutrition sector by international agencies (in millions USD)



Source: UN OCHA Financial Services Tracker

Since 2001, international agencies have contributed about USD 2 billion towards humanitarian food and nutrition activities, and agriculture initiatives that support food security in times of stress and shock. Funding in 2001 was relatively low at USD 178,000, rising to nearly USD 69 million by 2002 (Figure 4). Funding remained relatively low until 2006 when there was a

marked increase to over USD 300 million, attributed to an increased humanitarian response from the international community in an effort to address large-scale internal displacement. There was another marked increase in 2008/2009 due to the humanitarian response to the political and economic challenges exacerbated by a cholera epidemic in Zimbabwe. Humanitarian food and nutrition support played a critical role in managing the effects of the epidemic. The political challenges may be attributed to the volatility leading to the Presidential, Parliamentary and Local Government elections that took place in 2008. However, the data shows that since 2010 there has been a significant decline in support to humanitarian activities from the international community, with 2014 recording an amount of about USD 6 million. The low figure for 2015 may not include all amounts up to the end of the year. This decline reflects the gradually improving socio-economic situation in the country and the recognition by the international community that the focus needs to shift from humanitarian to longer-term recovery and resilience building activities.

3.4.4 Financing from the Private Sector

The private sector provides substantial amounts of credit for agriculture. In 2011, the major sources of agricultural credit were private sector financial institutions (61%), public sector (26%) and development partners (13%) (MAMID, 2014).

The private sector is seen as a key aspect of funding for the ZAIP. The entry point for the private sector is through public private partnerships, especially in those areas where value addition, as well as direct equity interests in the agro-processing, agro-inputs, and marketing exist. In the ZAIP plan, the target for the private sector is approximately US\$895.6 million to finance the key activities of the plan and thereby contribute to reduction of the liquidity problems affecting farmers (MAMID, 2014).

3.4.5 Conclusion

It is crucial for financing to achieve food and nutrition security to be adequate, sustainable and regular in order to achieve long-term, sustainable targets. Ways to achieve higher private sector engagement need to be explored further to ensure that the relevant organisations and companies streamline activities that increase agricultural and food production with their profit margins, while continuing to focus on sustainable social benefits that are profitable to the most vulnerable in the country.

International development partners continue to strengthen government systems to deliver quality services nationwide, advocate for budget allocations and support the Government and civil society to build the resilience of families, in particular children, in the context of high poverty and food insecurity (UNICEF, 2013). Nevertheless, national budget constraints have raised concerns about the Government's ability to sustain gains beyond 2015 (UNICEF, 2013). A stable macroeconomic environment assists poverty alleviation as it sets out a conducive environment for economic progress and food and nutrition security.

4. GAPS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Food and nutrition security for all is complex and dynamic. The challenges are multi-sectoral and interrelated. Based on the situational and response analyses, the Review identified the following seven strategic gaps:

1. Weak implementation of policies and programmes.
2. Inadequate response to climate and disaster risk.
3. Limited market integration for smallholder farmers.
4. Strategic grain reserve non-functional.
5. Inadequate involvement of the private sector.
6. Lack of sustained advocacy to enhance awareness on food and nutrition security issues.
7. Limited attention to food loss and wastage.

Section 3 illustrates that responses to food and nutrition insecurity are substantial and significant action has taken place, but the responses have not yet had the desired effect to avert hunger and malnutrition in Zimbabwe. In this Section, the strategic gaps are identified and unpacked and recommendations for action are suggested for each of the seven strategic gaps.

4.1 Weak implementation of policies and programmes

The country has an enabling policy environment for food and nutrition security programming. However, implementation of the policies, strategies and plans remains problematic. There were a number of challenges affecting the translation of the comprehensive framework into efficient and effective programmes, which are explored in Table 11.

Table 11: Challenges contributing to weak implementation of policies and programmes

Challenge	Comment
Insufficient financial resources	This is the most serious challenge of the food and nutrition sector. Despite concerted efforts, the slowing of the economy has undermined the capacity of the country to adequately invest in food and nutrition security. Subsidies and assistance for smallholder farmers have been limited due to lack of finances. The financial constraints have prevented the country from meeting its budgetary allocation commitments made as part of the Maputo Declaration and the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) process.
Weak coordination	Existing institutional structures do not adequately foster the required integration of efforts across key government sectors at all levels, to manage a coordinated response to the food and nutrition security goals of the Government. The Food and Nutrition Council (FNC)'s management and coordination ability is well utilised in assessment processes and collecting data, but is not fully leveraged in programme planning and management. Engagement with relevant external partners is also fragmented, with much programming being influenced by specific donor priorities.
Inadequate and inaccessible data	The unavailability of relevant data undermines assessment, design, and programme management processes. It has resulted in programmes being unrealistic, poorly planned and under-resourced.

Capacity constrained human resources	Personnel responsible for implementation lack the knowledge and skills to unpack policy pronouncements, and to design and manage the needed programmes and projects.
Response approach overly top-down	Programme planning is driven by policies originating at the central level, with inadequate consultation with the communities they are intended to serve.

The Review established that since the country has an adequate policy framework and appropriate institutional structures to address food and nutrition security challenges, there is no need to create new structures. More financial resources and building capacity for coordination are needed. Above all, there is need for a robust monitoring and evaluation framework to enhance implementation.

Recommendations

In order to strengthen the implementation of policies and programmes and contribute to addressing the strategic gap of weak implementation of policies and programmes, the Review recommends the following:

- (a) Capacitate the FNC to enhance its central coordinating role in operationalising the Food and Nutrition Security Policy and the Food and Nutrition Cluster of ZimAsset, using the Zero Hunger Challenge framework.
- (b) Provide a larger guaranteed budget allocation to the FNC, and normalise allocations to line ministries in fulfilment of the Government's commitments under the Maputo Declaration and CAADP.
- (c) Create a food and nutrition security fund that would be coordinated through the National Food and Nutrition Security Task Force that involves the private sector and relevant development partners.
- (d) Involve local communities in the planning and management of programmes.
- (e) Capacitate key officials, including traditional leaders, local councillors, and parliamentarians, with the skills to assess food and nutrition needs in their areas. Government, academic institutions, development agencies and the private sector could assist in running seminars and training workshops for capacity building programmes.

4.2 Inadequate response to climate and disaster risk

Agriculture is particularly vulnerable to the changing climate due to smallholder farmers' heavy reliance on rain-fed production and climate-sensitive resources. Localised weather related disasters, in particular droughts and floods, are recurrent in Zimbabwe, but Government and its partners have yet to develop significant adaptation and disaster risk preparedness plans. Early warning systems are limited and ineffective. National and local institutions have not sufficiently prepared for the recurrent disasters they face, continuing to be reactive rather than proactive.

Conservation agriculture is poorly understood by most smallholder farmers and not adequately covered by existing extension services. There has been a low uptake of it with communities referring to it as '*dhiga ufe*' (Translated from Shona to 'dig till you die') because the method introduced is physically taxing to carry out.

Despite clear connections, properly addressing climate and disaster, risk is largely absent from food and nutrition security policies, strategies, plans and programmes.

Recommendations

In order to strengthen the response to climate and disaster risk faced in Zimbabwe and contribute to addressing the strategic gap as laid out above, the Review recommends the following:

- (a) Strengthen the knowledge and skills of farmers to adapt agriculture production to climate change, with particular focus on food crops and livestock production.
- (b) Promote climate-smart agriculture in both livestock and crop farming, with drought resistant crops and small livestock, as well as water harvesting techniques.
- (c) Develop an effective early warning system for climate and disaster risks to make farmers aware of the hazards they face, how to prepare for them, and how to deal with them.
- (d) Increase land under irrigation and strengthen community maintenance structures and management systems.
- (e) Develop an insurance-based social protection strategy to enable the poor and food insecure to bounce back and respond to growing complexities and risks.
- (f) Strengthen public and market-based social protection mechanisms that build local capacity for people or communities to bounce back after a climatic disaster.
- (g) Improve emergency assistance measures to minimise negative impacts and consequences of drought, and floods.

4.3 Limited market integration for smallholder farmers

Smallholder farmers face several challenges in profitably engaging with domestic and international agricultural markets, including relatively high input costs and low productivity as well as poor road networks and high transport costs. Smallholder farmers in Zimbabwe generally engage in trading individually, thereby reducing their bargaining power and limiting their ability to add value to their production by processing prior to sale.

Meeting quality standards demanded by the formal market is beyond the capacity of most smallholder farmers, and they generally lack access to up to date market information relevant for small producers. These challenges are exacerbated by limited access to affordable financial and credit services. Furthermore, the subsidisation of agricultural products has put smallholder farmers at a further disadvantage, as their production operations are not subsidised. While the Grain Marketing Board (GMB) establishes a national floor price for maize, payments to farmers are often delayed for substantial periods of time, leaving smallholders no choice but to sell what surpluses they have through informal channels at lower prices.

Recommendations

In order to improve market integration for smallholder farmers and contribute to addressing the strategic gap outlined above, the Review recommends the following:

- (a) Scale up support of farmers in the production, marketing, post-harvest handling, grading and quality control of their produce.
- (b) Establish and maintain market extension workers to train farmers on market trends, trade rules and policies, assist in the establishment of joint ventures in processing or value-added activities and collective marketing through associations.
- (c) Promote linkages with agro-processing and export companies and establish market information centres that recognise the vast diversity of 'smallholder farmers', while facilitating their linkage to constantly evolving markets.

- (d) Assist in the development of farmer-controlled commodity marketing cooperatives and developing new markets locally and abroad.
- (e) Reduce market risk for smallholder farmers which includes support that lowers transaction costs, potentially by setting up markets in remote areas, and encouraging investment in rural infrastructure.
- (f) Regulate markets that are sensitive to smallholder needs, disseminate market information, and facilitate seasonal credit and other financial services.
- (g) Introduce smart subsidies that do not distort markets or create a donor dependency and that serve as stimulants for gradual development of weak markets.

4.4 Strategic grain reserve non functional

Financial constraints and management issues have limited the GMB's ability to procure, store, manage and rotate significant stocks of domestically produced grain. Over time, this lack of investment has led to national food transport, storage, and handling infrastructure becoming dilapidated and in need of rehabilitation or replacement. The GMB is mandated to maintain a national strategic grain reserve that holds between 500,000 and 700,000 metric tonnes of grain at any one time. In addition, it should have the capacity to release these food stocks on the market and/or for distribution to the most vulnerable in periods of severe stress. The Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanization, and Irrigation Development estimates that this will cost well over \$51 million.

Recommendations

In order to re-establish a functioning national grain reserve and contribute to addressing the strategic gap outlined above, the Review recommends the following:

- (a) Urgently rehabilitate existing silos that are already strategically located across the country.
- (b) Establish strategic partnerships from the private sector and Development Agencies through 'lease and rehabilitate' arrangements for agreed periods of time with the GMB.
- (c) Utilise rehabilitated GMB infrastructure to operationalise the Warehouse Receipt System whose framework is already in place.
- (d) Establish a commercial wing within the GMB for revenue generation that would be separate from the strategic grain reserve and could be accountable to the multi-sectoral National Food and Nutrition Task Force to ensure transparency.
- (e) Promote the establishment of micro grain reserves at local community and household level, utilizing traditional granaries (*hozi, in Shona*), metal silos and other methods.

4.5 Inadequate involvement of the private sector in food and nutrition security interventions

The role of the private sector in food and nutrition security remains uncoordinated and undocumented. Although public-private partnerships have long been promoted in development discourse, they have scarcely been made use of for food and nutrition security interventions in Zimbabwe. Opportunities exist for partnerships involving Government, farmers, agri-business, the food industry, development agencies, non-governmental organisations and donors.

Companies are in a position to invest in research and development for better crop and livestock yields. They are also in a position to come up with simple, inexpensive machinery and storage facilities that are affordable for smallholder farmers. Given the prevailing harsh economic environment, there is need to find mechanisms to facilitate meaningful private sector

engagement in food and nutrition, and develop a scheme of incentives to motivate the sector take up its role in food and nutrition security interventions.

Recommendations

In order to enhance private sector involvement in the food and nutrition security sector and thereby contribute to the strategic gap outlined above, the Review recommends the following:

- (a) Enhance capacity to create public-private partnerships by coordinating action at the local level in support of entrepreneurship and farming as a business.
- (b) Develop an integrated, long term strategic approach to engaging the private sector in food and nutrition security issues, with the development of the approach led by Government and involving development partners, agri-businesses and other food chain partners.
- (c) Assist small and medium scale agri-business enterprises such as input suppliers as well as food manufacturers, distributors and retailers, to develop locally adapted solutions.
- (d) Engage private sector companies to develop proactive procurement procedures that include smaller scale producers in value chains.
- (e) Engage private companies to develop technologies for beneficiation and commercialization.
- (f) Engage the private sector in reducing food loss and wastage all along the food value chain and improving the quality and nutritional value of products.
- (g) Explore partnership potential with communications technology companies to allow information sharing in real time, linking smallholder farmers to local, national and international business and markets.
- (h) Encourage private sector participation beyond food processors, producers and input manufacturers through establishing a comprehensive Zimbabwe Scaling Up Nutrition (SUN) Business Group.
- (i) Create an enabling environment for farmers and the private sector to partner in value addition and to promote policies which enable the private sector to innovate and invest in the food and agriculture sector sustainably and profitably.

4.6 Lack of advocacy on food and nutrition security issues and the path to zero hunger

The framework provided by the Zero Hunger Challenge has, understandably, not yet been mainstreamed into the national food and nutrition security discourse, given its recent launch. Currently, there is little effort focused on advocacy and enhancing awareness about food and nutrition security issues among key segments of the population. Similar to many parts of Africa, the commitment to addressing malnutrition in Zimbabwe has not been translated into tangible actions on the ground. In addition, the link between stunting and water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) is little understood. Communities tend to lack the knowledge and understanding of the significant costs that malnutrition imposes on their social and economic well-being over time. Basic knowledge of the importance of a balanced and diversified diet is still limited among much of the population.

Recommendations

In order to strengthen advocacy and awareness raising about food and nutrition security issues and Zimbabwe's path to zero hunger, and thereby contribute to addressing the strategic gap outlined above, the Review recommends the following:

- (a) Formally adopt the Zero Hunger Challenge as a framework to guide and focus the FNC's programming and coordination role in addressing food and nutrition security, including a review that ensures country specificity and achievability.
- (b) Develop a robust awareness strategy to sensitise communities on behaviour change in crop and livestock choices and to promote the consumption of a healthy diet.
- (c) Engage consumer organisations on advocacy for food safety, quality, and nutrition as well as assist in providing education and information, empowering to make appropriate choices for a safe and nutritious diet.
- (d) Engage civil society to exert bottom-up pressure for the implementation of national programmes, recognizing that grassroots communities represent a generally untapped force that may transform the Government's approach to addressing hunger, and may be mobilised to demand services and conditions to improve their nutrition and that of their children.
- (e) Exploit windows of opportunities for policy change on food and nutrition security, particularly during a disaster or other crisis and keep food and nutrition high on the political agenda.
- (f) Raise awareness on indigenous knowledge systems on preserving food.
- (g) Conduct a Cost of Hunger Study that provides policy makers with information on how economic growth is affected by under-nutrition and food insecurity.

4.7 Limited attention to food loss and wastage

Until recently, there was no systematic way of assessing losses incurred throughout the value chain for various crops, nor for wastage at the retail and household level, that could facilitate the development of a strategy to address the issue. Nevertheless, there is no doubt that food loss and wastage remains unacceptably high. Food loss results from wide-ranging management and technical limitations in harvesting techniques, post-harvest storage and handling, transportation, processing, packaging and marketing systems. The lack of proper commodity management technologies and processes results in large food losses each year, particularly as a result of infestation by rodents or other pests. Limited value-addition processing capacity and poor access to markets has meant that some of the food produced, particularly that which is easily perishable, is left to rot. Despite the high food loss and wastage, there has been limited Government and/or non-governmental organisation attention given to the issue.

Recommendations

In order to ensure that reduction of food loss and wastage is integral to sustainable food systems in Zimbabwe, and thereby contribute to addressing the strategic gap outlined above, the Review recommends the following:

- (a) Develop a comprehensive and effective national strategy that includes a roadmap of prioritised challenges and opportunities relative to food loss post-harvest issues.
- (b) Increase investment in research and development to develop technologies and innovations in the post-production segment of the value chain that blends modern science and indigenous knowledge systems.
- (c) Research food loss and wastage through the entire food chain for all key foods and to regularly monitor food losses and wastage.
- (d) Promote infrastructure development such as rehabilitation of roads, energy, storage facilities, improved transportation and logistics management that reduce food loss and wastage between the farmer and the markets.

- (e) Government needs to engage the private sector with the aim to reduce tariffs, import costs, concessions, targeted subsidies to providers of storage equipment and tools.

5. COORDINATION AND IMPLEMENTATION FRAMEWORK

The Zero Hunger Challenge requires a multi-sectoral and multi-level approach for maximum impact to eradicate hunger in Zimbabwe. Pillars of the challenge must be mainstreamed in all sectors and at all levels from national to local level. There are a number of sectors, including nutrition, health, social services, agriculture, environment, water, climate, civil protection, economic development and finance which play crucial roles in addressing the Zero Hunger Challenge. Coordination is key and the success of the Zero Hunger Challenge depends on a strong, powerful and vibrant coordinating institution.

Effective implementation begins with commitment at the highest level. Tackling hunger and malnutrition has always been a priority for the Government of Zimbabwe. The Government “is ceaselessly taking all measures within its means to ensure that its people are protected against food insecurity throughout the country and has declared that in spite of the unfavourable situation, all people must be protected from the vagaries of hunger and malnutrition” (Government of Zimbabwe, 2015c). This high level commitment will ensure that concerted efforts are directed towards the Zero Hunger Challenge campaign to end hunger through a ‘whole-of-government’ approach.

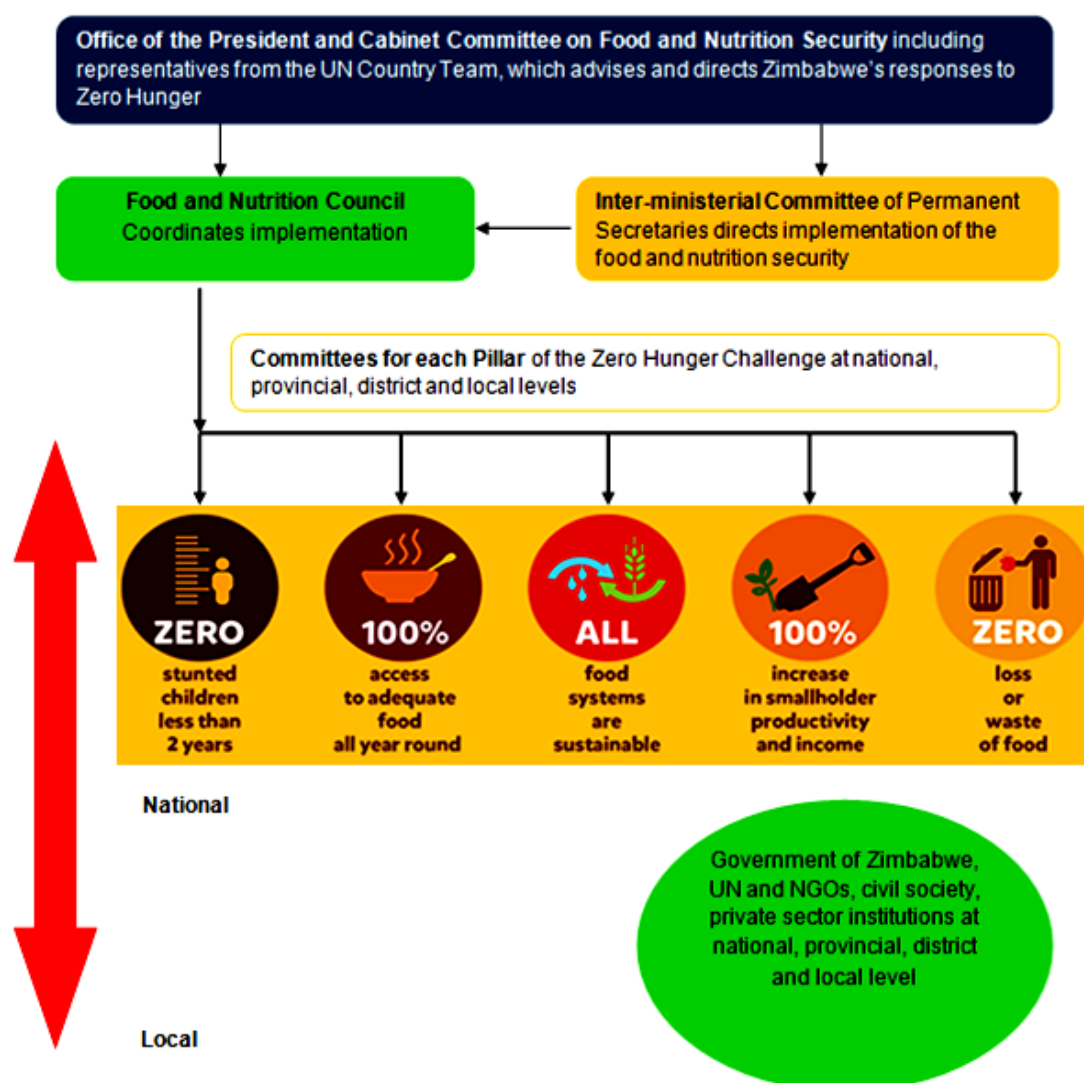
The commitment to the right to adequate food is entrenched in Zimbabwe’s Constitution of 2013. The government is thus duty-bound to fulfil this right. To fully realise this right, the Government is currently in the process of aligning legislation in line with the Constitution. This is an opportunity to introduce a Food and Nutrition Security Act. All laws and programmes are linked and the government agencies should be well coordinated, so that no one law works in isolation of other laws and programmes or that no one agency works independently of others.

Recommended coordination and implementation framework

1. At the top of the hierarchy should be an Advisory Board in the Office of the President and Cabinet (OPC), which includes representatives from the United Nations partner institutions. This would facilitate integration at the highest level. Currently, UN agencies are feeding in to processes lower down and efforts are fragmented and often duplicated. An example of high-level collaboration was the SDG process in Zimbabwe that was led by a collaboration of the OPC and UN.
2. Revamp the Food and Nutrition Security Inter-ministerial Board responsible for the drafting and implementation of the food and nutrition security plan. The Board would be responsible for close coordination of government agencies at national, provincial district and local levels to ensure they work together. It would work closely with Provincial, District, Ward and Village food and nutrition security committees.
3. The Food and Nutrition Council (FNC) continues to play its leadership role, but needs to be enhanced and strengthened through financial and technical support to enable it to fully play its coordination role more effectively.
4. At local level, the Zero Hunger Challenge relies on mobilisation of grassroots organisations, NGOs, and community groups. They should actively participate in policymaking and in monitoring the implementation of laws and programmes at all levels.

Figure 5 builds on the current institutional framework, expanded to facilitate achievement of each of the five pillars of the Zero Hunger Challenge. However, this is a suggestion that will require further discussion by key stakeholders and agreement and approval by the Government of Zimbabwe.

Figure 5: Suggested implementation framework



REFERENCES

- Anseeuw W., Kapuya T. and D. Saruchera (2012). *Zimbabwe's agriculture reconstruction: Present state, ongoing projects and prospects for reinvestment*. Development Planning Division, Working Paper Series No. 32, Development Bank of Southern Africa.
http://www.afd.fr/webdav/site/afd/groups/Agence_Afrique_du_Sud/public/Dossier%20Assia%20Sidibe/Vf%20etude%20juin%202012.pdf Accessed on: 03/09/2015
- Barefoot Education for Afrika Trust (BEAT) (2014). Capacity Assessment of the Food and Nutrition Council (FNC) of Zimbabwe. A report submitted to the Food and Nutrition Council and the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO), Harare.
- Binswanger-Mkhize, H. and S. Moyo (2012). *Zimbabwe from Economic Rebound to Sustained Growth: Note II: Recovery and Growth of Zimbabwe Agriculture*. World Bank, Harare, December 2012.
- Chimanikire D. P. (2011). *Mitigation and National and Sub-National Response to Climate Change Institutional Architecture in Southern Africa. The case of Zimbabwe*. Tokyo. Global Industrial and Social Progress Research Institute.
http://www.gispri.or.jp/english/symposiums/images110706/Prof_Chimanikire.pdf
 Accessed on 18/12/2015
- Community Working Group on Health (2013). *National Budget Analysis Report*. Community Working Group on Health, Harare
- Economic Commission for Africa (2013). *Report on the Economic and Social Conditions in Southern Africa 2012*. 19th Meeting of the Intergovernmental Committee of Experts for Southern Africa, 7-8th March 2013, Harare, Zimbabwe.
- FAO (2011). *Electronic Voucher Guideline*, FAO Zimbabwe, Harare.
- FEWSNET (2014). *Zimbabwe Food Security Brief*. Harare. FEWSNET.
http://www.fews.net/sites/default/files/documents/reports/Zimbabwe_Food_Security_Brief_2014_0.pdf Accessed on 03/09/2015
- Food and Nutrition Council (2010). *Zimbabwe National Nutrition Survey. January – February 2010. Preliminary Findings*. Food and Nutrition Council. SIRDC, Harare.
- Global AIDS Response (2014). *Country Progress Report / Zimbabwe AIDS Response Progress Report 2014*.
- Government of Zimbabwe (1982). *Government of Zimbabwe, Transitional National Development Plan 1982/83 – 84/85. Volume 1*, Harare, Zimbabwe.
- Government of Zimbabwe (2009a). *National Environmental Policy and Strategies*. Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources Management, Harare.
- Government of Zimbabwe (2009b). *National Health Strategy (NHS) for Zimbabwe, 2009-13: Equity and Quality in Health: A People's Right*. Ministry of Health and Child Welfare, Harare.
- Government of Zimbabwe (2010). *National Child Survival Strategy for Zimbabwe 2010-2015*. Ministry of Health and Child Welfare, UNICEF and WHO, Harare.
- Government of Zimbabwe (2011). *Social Transfer Policy Framework, 2011*. Ministry of Labour and Social Services, Harare.
- Government of Zimbabwe (2013a). *Constitution of Zimbabwe. Amendment (No 20) Act 2013*. Fidelity Printers, Harare.

- Government of Zimbabwe (2013b). *Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZimAsset) Towards an Empowered Society and a Growing Economy*. October 2013- December 2018. Harare.
- Government of Zimbabwe (2013c). *National Budget Statement for 2014*. Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, Harare.
- Government of Zimbabwe (2015). *The 2016 National Budget Statement, "Building a Conducive Environment that attracts Foreign Direct Investment"*. Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, Harare.
- Government of Zimbabwe (2015). *National Climate Change Response Strategy*. Ministry of Environment, Water and Climate, Harare.
- Government of Zimbabwe (2015c). Speech by Hon. E.D. Mnangagwa, Vice President and Minister of Justice. Legal and Parliamentary Affairs on the Occasion of the official launch of the Zimbabwe Zero Hunger Strategic Review Report, 15 June, 2015, Rainbow Towers, Harare.
- Government of Zimbabwe and Food and Nutrition Council (2013). *National Food and Nutrition Security Policy (NFNSP) for Zimbabwe: Promoting Food and Nutrition Security in Zimbabwe in the Context of Economic Growth and Development*. Harare.
- Gwimbi P. (2007). *The Effectiveness of Early Warning Systems for the reduction of flood disasters; Some experiences from cyclone induced floods in Zimbabwe*. North Carolina. Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa (Volume 19, No.4. 2007). http://www.jsd-africa.com/JsdA/V9n4_Winter2007/PDF/EfectivenessEalierWarningSystem.pdf
Accessed on 18/12/2015
- Kapuya T, Saruchera D, Jongwe, A, Mucheri, T, Mujeyi, K, Ndobongo, LT and Meyer, FH, (2010). *The grain industry value chain in Zimbabwe. Unpublished draft prepared for the Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO)*. In: Anseeuw W., Kapuya T. and D. Saruchera (2012). *Zimbabwe's agriculture reconstruction: Present state, ongoing projects and prospects for reinvestment*. Development Planning Division, Working Paper Series No. 32, Development Bank of Southern Africa.
- Hanlon, J., Manjengwa, J. and Smart, T. (2013). *Zimbabwe Takes Back its Land*. Jacana Media, South Africa.
- MAMID (Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanisation and Irrigation Development) (2014). *Zimbabwe Agricultural Investment Plan*, Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanisation and Irrigation Development, Harare.
- MAMID (2015). *Second Round Crop and Livestock Assessment Report*. 22 April 2015. Government of Zimbabwe. Government of Zimbabwe. Government Printers, Harare .
- Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (2013). *Budget Estimates for the Year ending December 31, 2014*. Ministry of Finance and Economic Development Blue Book, Harare.
- Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (2014). *Budget Estimates for the Year ending December 31, 2015*. Ministry of Finance and Economic Development Blue Book, Harare.
- Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (2015). *Budget Estimates for the Year ending December 31, 2016*. Ministry of Finance and Economic Development Blue Book, Harare.

- Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (2013). Annual Statistics Report 2013. Harare.
- Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare and UNICEF (2013a). *The Harmonised Social Cash Transfer in Zimbabwe - Reaching the Poorest and Most Vulnerable*. UNICEF, Harare.
- Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare and UNICEF (2013b). *The Harmonised Social Cash Transfer - Evidence from Impact Evaluation Baseline Survey*. UNICEF, Harare.
- Monyau and Bandara 2014. Zimbabwe 2015. African Economic Outlook. http://www.africaneconomicoutlook.org/fileadmin/uploads/aeo/2015/CN_data/CN_Lo ng_EN/Zimbabwe_GB_2015.pdf
- Moyo, S. (2011). Three decades of agrarian reform in Zimbabwe. *Journal of Peasant Studies*, 38: 493–531.
- Moyo, S., Chambati, W., Murisa, T., Siziba, D., Dangwa, C., Mujeyi, K. and Nyoni, N. (2009). *Fast Track Land Reform Baseline Survey in Zimbabwe: Trends and Tedndencies, 2005/06*. African Institute for Agrarian Studies (AIAS), Harare.
- Schubert B. (2010). Child-Sensitive Social Protection in Zimbabwe, UNICEF, Harare Zimbabwe.
- Sen, A. (1981). *Poverty and Famine: An Essay on Entitlement and Deprivation*. Clarendon, Oxford.
- UNICEF (1990). Conceptual framework on malnutrition. UNICEF, New York, USA
- UNICEF (1998). *The State of the World's Children 1998*. Oxford University Press, Oxford
- UNICEF (2013). UNICEF Zimbabwe Country Office 2013 Annual Report. UNICEF, Harare
- UNICEF (2014). Zimbabwe National Budget: A Brief Analysis. UNICEF Zimbabwe, Harare.
- UNICEF and Ministry of Labour and Social Services (2010). *Institutional Capacity Assessment*. Department of Social Services, Ministry of Labour and Social Services, Harare
- United Nations Zimbabwe (2014). Independent Evaluation of the 2012-2015 Zimbabwe United Nations Development Assistance Framework. Harare.
- USAID (2012). Gender Analysis and Assessment for Feed the Future Programming, 2012. USAID/Zimbabwe, Harare.
- Vincent, V. and R.G. Thomas, 1961. *An Agricultural Survey of Southern Rhodesia, Part One –Agro-ecological Survey*. The Government Printers, Salisbury.
- World Bank (2013). Zimbabwe Economic Briefing. November 2013. The World Bank, Harare.
- ZEPARU (Zimbabwe Economic Policy Analysis and Research Unit) (2013). The nexus between growth, employment and poverty in Zimbabwe: The economics of employment creation. *ZEPARU Occasional Research Paper No. 1/2013*. Harare.
- ZIMSTAT (2013a). *2012 Population Census Results. Final Report*. ZIMSTAT, Harare.
- ZIMSTAT (2013b). *Poverty and Poverty Datum Line Analysis in Zimbabwe 2011/12*. ZIMSTAT, Harare.
- ZIMSTAT (2015). *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) 2014, Final Report*. ZIMSTAT, Harare.
- ZIMSTAT and ICF International (2012). *Zimbabwe Demographic and Health Survey 2010-11*. Calverton, Maryland: ZIMSTAT and ICF International Inc.

ZIMVAC (2014) Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee (2010). *Rural Livelihoods Assessment*. Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee (ZIMVAC), Food and Nutrition Council, Harare.