

**SMALLHOLDER WOMEN EMPOWERMENT: THE CASE OF NORWEGIAN  
AGRICULTURAL PROGRAMME IN SENANGA, ZAMBIA**

By

Josphat M. Konnie

A dissertation submitted to The University of Zambia in partial fulfillment of the requirements of  
the Degree of Master of Science in Environment and Natural Resources Management

The University of Zambia

Lusaka

2022

**Declaration**

I Josphat M. Konnie (51470069) declare that this dissertation is my own work, and that it has not been previously submitted for a diploma, advanced diploma, degree or master's degree to the University of Zambia (UNZA) or any other university in the world. All the sources of previously published work referred to have been acknowledged.

Signature: ..... Date: .....

### **Certificate of Approval**

This dissertation by Josphat M. Konnie has been ..... as a partial fulfillment of the requirement of the award of the degree of Master of Science in Environment and Natural Resources Management of the University of Zambia.

<b>Name</b>	Signature	Date
Internal Examiner 1	.....	.....

<b>Name</b>	Signature	Date
Internal Examiner 2	.....	.....

<b>Name</b>	Signature	Date
Internal Examiner 3	.....	.....

<b>Name</b>	Signature	Date
Chairperson Board of Examiners	.....	.....

<b>Name</b>	Signature	Date
Supervisor	.....	.....

## **Dedication**

I dedicate this work to my wife Mukelabai Lipimile, My mother Anna Kangowa, my three girls Dinah Chuma Konnie, Mofya Machubai Konnie and Tumelo Noreen Konnie for their patience and support during my period of study

## **Acknowledgements**

This research project would not have been possible without the support of many people.

I wish to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisors Dr. P. Nyanga and Dr. W. Nchito who were abundantly helpful and offered invaluable assistance, support and guidance.

Deepest gratitude is due to the women's groups which participated in this study. Special thanks also to Edmore Mangisi, from Programme Against Malnutrition (PAM) Senanga office, who gave me access to his organization's beneficiaries and other Programme information.

To Mr. Humprey Malumo (retired Headteacher), Mr. Nawa (retired Headteacher) Matauka secondary school, Senanga District from the Ministry of General Education, who allowed me time off to study, My friends Bright Jumbe Mweene and Samuel Nasilele who kept on encouraging me to complete my studies. I love you all and thank you for your unwavering encouragements.

## Abstract

In Zambian agriculture, women generally perform most activities such as weeding, harvesting, stocking, marketing and processing than men who are largely involved in tillage. However, women are marginalized in terms of access to and ownership of productive assets. In response, government, civil society, private institutions and international donors are increasingly targeting women smallholder farmers in poverty reduction and food security programmes in rural areas. Despite increased focus of donors towards improving livelihoods of women smallholder farmers, evidence shows that benefits accruing to women farmers in development projects are often quite elusive. The purpose of this study was to assess the impact of the Norwegian Women Empowerment Programme on livelihoods of women smallholders in Senanga. The study identified benefits accruing to programme participants, how the programme targeted the beneficiaries and how project benefits affect economic status of beneficiaries. The study adopted a qualitative approach based on purposive sampling of 1 farmer group under the project which was the most accessible. Data was collected using a semi-structured interview schedule, focus group discussion guide and key informant interviews. Descriptive statistics and thematic analysis were used to analyse primary data. Programme benefits included; trainings, agricultural inputs, credit and market access. Most participating smallholder farmers benefited more from provision of farming inputs such as seed (74 percent), fertilizer (72 percent) and training (32 percent). None reported benefits due to credit and market support. On targeting of programme beneficiaries' 71 percent said they joined the programme from self-interest after sensitization from Programme Against Malnutrition (PAM). This targeting mechanism was criticized by key informants from The Ministry of Community Development and Social Services as having resulted in elite capture of project benefits. The study also found that women smallholder farmers did not experience positive changes in all domains of women empowerment as their freedom of mobility in public space was found to be limited to attending religious functions and programme meetings alone. The study recommends that project participatory monitoring and beneficiary assessments should be carried out periodically to get direct feedback from beneficiaries about issues around elite capture and preference targeting of beneficiaries. To really attain women empowerment goals, donor projects should address the agency domain by providing economic benefits high such as market and credit support. Finally, that agricultural development Programmes with a goal to empower women smallholder farmers, should focus on activities that result in changes in their agency (capabilities), structure (institutions/organizations that surround them) and relations (power relations).

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

Declaration.....	i
Certificate of Approval .....	ii
Dedication.....	iii
Acknowledgements.....	iv
Abstract.....	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vi
List of Figures.....	viii
List of Tables .....	viii
Acronyms.....	ix
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION .....	1
1.1 Background.....	1
1.2 Statement of the problem .....	4
1.3 Aim of the study.....	4
1.4 Objectives of the study.....	4
1.5 Research Questions .....	5
1.6 Significance of the study.....	5
1.7 Definition of Concepts .....	5
1.8 Structure of the Dissertation .....	6
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW .....	7
2.1 INTRODUCTION .....	7
2.2 Power and Women Empowerment .....	7
2.3 Women Empowerment in Development Aid Projects at Global Level .....	9
2.3.1 Project Benefits for Targeted Women.....	9
2.3.2 Targeting Women in International Aid Projects .....	13
2.3.3 Measuring Impact of Donor Funded Women Empowerment Projects .....	15
2.4 Women Empowerment in Development Aid Projects in Zambia.....	16
2.5 Conceptual Framework.....	18
CHAPTER 3: DESCRIPTION OF STUDY AREA .....	21
3.1 Introduction.....	21
3.2 Reasons for choice of study area.....	21

3.3	Biophysical Environment.....	21
3.3.1	Location .....	21
3.3.2	Climate.....	23
3.3.3	Soils.....	23
3.3.4	Topography .....	23
3.4	Socio-Economic Environment .....	23
3.4.1	Demography.....	23
3.4.2	Education .....	24
3.4.4	Transport and Communication.....	24
3.4.5	Livelihoods .....	25
3.4.6	Land Use .....	25
3.4.7	Socio-cultural Organization .....	25
CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY .....		26
4.1	Introduction.....	26
4.1.1	Sampling Design .....	26
4.1.2	Data Collection .....	26
4.1.3	Data Analysis .....	27
4.2	Ethical Considerations .....	27
4.3	Limitations of The Study .....	28
CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION .....		29
5.1	Introduction.....	29
5.2	Targeting of Beneficiaries.....	29
5.3	Benefits for Programme Participants .....	31
5.4	Programme’s Contribution to Empowerment of Smallholder Women Farmers.....	36
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....		41
6.1	Conclusion .....	41
6.2	Recommendations.....	41
REFERENCES .....		43
APPENDICES .....		48
APPENDIX I: Interview Schedule For Smallholder Farmers .....		48
APPENDIX II: Focus Group Discussion Guide With Project Beneficiaries.....		62
APPENDIX III: Photos From The Nande Project Area, Senanga District Western Province.....		64

## **List of Figures**

Figure 2-1: Conceptual Framework (Adapted from Care’s Women Empowerment Framework) .....	20
Figure 3-1: Topographic Location Map of Study Area .....	22
Figure 5-1: PAM training Programme beneficiaries in Conservation Agriculture .....	33
Figure 5-2: PAM training Programme beneficiaries in food preservation Technologies .....	34
Figure 5-3: Demonstration field on which beneficiaries used Conservation Agriculture (CA) .....	34
Figure 5-4: Food preservation pots and improved cooking stoves .....	36

## **List of Tables**

Table 1-1: Activities of The Women Empowerment Programme in Senanga District.....	3
Table 5-1: Selection Criteria to PAM .....	29
Table 5-2: Livelihood assets of beneficiaries before and after implementation of the Programme .....	32
Table 5-3: Programme impact on Women Empowerment .....	37

## Acronyms

CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
DSA	District Situational Analysis
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
M & E	Monitoring and Evaluation
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NORAD	Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation
ODA	Official Development Aid
PAM	Programme Against malnutrition
PAD	Project Appraisal Document
RBM	Results Based Management
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SIDA	Swedish International Development Agency
SLIP	Smallholder Livestock Investment Programme
SNDP	Seventh National Development Plan
UN	United Nations
WEAI	Women Empowerment in Agriculture Index

## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background

Smallholder women farmers produce over 50 percent of the world's food and account for 43 percent of the agricultural labour force in developing countries (Food & Agriculture Organization FAO, 2011); yet considerable gender bias exists in the agricultural sector, in terms of access to resources, agricultural inputs and resources that women control (Agarwal, 2001; Deere *et al.*, (2013) and Peterman *et al.*, (2014). Smallholder agriculture can be an engine of growth and poverty reduction in many countries. Insights from Zambia's Seventh National Development Plan (SNDP) 2017-2020 also attest to this view. Strategic area number six under development outcome one of the SNDP identifies the promotion of smallholder agriculture as a key focus area for a diversified and export-oriented agriculture by the year 2020 as it has shown its capacity for driving national economic and social change. But the sector is underperforming in part because women, who are often a crucial resource in agriculture and the rural economy, face constraints that reduce their productivity (FAO, 2011). On the Zambian landscape, FAO (2013:8) shows that women smallholder farmers perform about 65-70 percent of all agricultural tasks, and produce 80 percent of the nation's food stock. Women smallholder farmers face institutional discrimination in credit markets, bias in agricultural extension services and under representation in decision making (Lanz *et al.*, 2012).

These disparities arguably persist because of socio-cultural and institutional factors that create barriers for women smallholder farmers. For instance, married women in patrilineal societies, argues Chapoto *et al.*, (2007) have for a long time been denied equal access to and control over land as their husbands. This means that women never control decision-making regarding land use and farm production. Oumer *et al.*, (2014) affirm that excluding women from decision-making has resulted in their unequal access to resources, and services as compared to men. Hence, narrowing these gender gaps including changing intra-household gender dynamics, undoubtedly, has the promise of empowering women smallholder farmers and can have significant social and economic impacts (Quisumbing and Pandolfelli, 2010; Alkire *et al.*,2013).

Prato and Longo (2012:15) argue that "inequity and power imbalances, adverse employment conditions and the lack of economic opportunities or control over assets are all manifestations of women's disempowerment and contribute to their poverty". Women's empowerment can have a direct impact on agricultural productivity and household food security (Akter *et al.*, 2017). To

achieve women's economic empowerment according to Prato and Longo (2012:16) "donors need to reach and enhance opportunities for the poorest of the poor women in remote communities, rather than simply picking winners". The empowerment of women secures their rights and drives pro-poor growth. However, empowerment must happen through women's own actions enabled by a supportive environment, which donors can help strengthen through aid instruments, designed to facilitate empowerment and encourage its multi-dimensional effects. Prato and Longo (2012) further observe that within their projects or programmes, donors must deal with inequitable power relations and be aware of their own role within such relations with beneficiaries and other stakeholders.

The design and implementation of agricultural development interventions is increasingly responding both to higher levels of donor-driven support for gender equality and to the growing body of evidence showing that women are productive farmers and agro-entrepreneurs when they have access to needed assets (Quisumbing *et al.*, 2015; FAO, 2011). It is now broadly recognized among donor agencies that to maximize the impact of development strategies, including agricultural strategies, on reducing poverty and improving food security, initiatives must be gender sensitive (Molyneux 2007; Agriculture Organization and International Fund for Agricultural Development 2009).

Development actors try to achieve women empowerment through agricultural aid. Ransom and Bain (2011) notes that agricultural aid plays a key role in addressing challenges of poverty and food insecurity in developing countries. In response government, civil society, private institutions and international donors are increasingly targeting women smallholder farmers in poverty reduction and food security programmes in rural areas of developing countries, including Zambia to reduce inequity between the genders. In Senanga, NORAD has been implementing a Women Empowerment Programme through agricultural support since 2012 in partnership with the Programme Against Malnutrition (PAM). The overall objective of the Programme was to improve beneficiary women farmers' livelihoods through increased incomes and resilience to the effects of climate change. Some programme components that were considered in this study and their associated activities are as shown in Table 1.1:

Table 1-1: Activities of The Women Empowerment Programme in Senanga District

<b>Component</b>	<b>Activities</b>
Component 1: Climate Smart Agriculture and Food Security	Conduct training for beneficiaries in climate change adaptation; disaster risk reduction and preparedness, leadership and facilitation skills
	Procure and distribute motorized irrigation sets to Senanga District
	Procure and distribute irrigation pumps to households
	Procure and distribute fruit tree seedlings
	Training of female farmers in molding and maintaining energy efficient clay stoves
	Procurement of seed (groundnuts, beans, cassava, onion, okra, orange maize), fertilizer and fruit trees
	Expansion of area under production by conservation farming trained women farmers
Component 2: Women Economic Empowerment	Building capacity of farmers in processing & value addition
	Procure appropriate post-harvest food processing and preservation equipment
	Procure packaging materials
	Identify agribusiness enterprises (market channels and supply chains) for possible linkages with female farmers and groups
	Link farmers to local enterprises
	Training of female farmers in prioritized livestock enterprises (goats and chickens)
	Procure start up livestock for women farmer groups under the “pass on” scheme
	Conduct training in basic entrepreneurship skills (financial management/saving, book keeping, aspects of marketing, viable market-oriented business plan writing and rural enterprise development)

	Train targeted female farmers in processing and utilization of locally available nutrient-dense foods (vegetables, groundnuts, beans, orange maize & fruits etc
--	---

Source: PAM (2016)

## 1.2 Statement of the problem

According to Bonilla *et al.*, (2017) the empowerment of women, broadly defined, is an often-cited objective of most agricultural programmes in developing countries, yet many efforts to enhance agricultural productivity and profitability have been limited in their ability to overcome existing gender disparities in participation and in accessing inputs or services. This is because agricultural interventions are embedded in social contexts that define the work that men and women do, the groups they join, and how resources and benefits are distributed (Quisumbing *et al.*, 2015). Hence despite the promise and potential of such programmes to empower women, there is little that is achieved for women empowerment. Despite increased focus of donors towards improving the livelihoods of women smallholder farmers, existing studies (Bonnilla *et al.*, 2017 and Quisumbing *et al.*, 2015) show that benefits accruing to women farmers targeted in development projects are often quite elusive. If empowerment goals of donor funded programmes are seen not to be achieved or their contribution to empowerment goals is very low, the gender gap between rural women and men in agriculture can continue. This can have severe implications for rural food security and poverty reduction in the long term.

Very few independent studies have documented these benefits and characterised them. Thus, there is little critical review of such programmes and feedback to donors and other stakeholders such as government and non-governmental organisations. In light of this it is important to understand how agencies such as NORAD have improved the livelihoods of women smallholder farmers in Senanga District, Western Province of Zambia.

## 1.3 Aim of the study

To assess the impact of the NORAD Women Empowerment Programme on women smallholder farmers in Senanga District, Western Province of Zambia.

## 1.4 Objectives of the study

- i. To determine how the NORAD Women Empowerment Programme targeted the beneficiaries.
- ii. To identify benefits accruing to programme beneficiaries.

- iii. To assess the Programme's contribution to empowerment of beneficiaries.

## **1.5 Research Questions**

- i. How did the programme target the beneficiaries?
- ii. What benefits arise to programme beneficiaries?
- iii. What was the programme's contribution to smallholder women empowerment?

## **1.6 Significance of the study**

Findings from the study will inform donors who are involved with women empowerment Programmes, on the need to design and implement their programmes in such a way that women smallholder farmers can maximise their acquisition of benefits from aid Programmes. This will in turn contribute to poverty reduction and improved food security in rural areas. The study will also contribute to the existing body of knowledge on the role aid plays in empowering women smallholder farmers.

## **1.7 Definition of Concepts**

**Agency:** a woman's own aspirations and capabilities to make choices and to act upon them.

**Gender:** refers to the roles and responsibilities of men and women that are created in families, societies and cultures. The concept of gender also includes the expectations held about the characteristics, aptitudes and likely behaviors of women and men (femininity and masculinity). Gender roles and expectations are learned. They can change over time and they vary within and between cultures. Systems of social differentiation such as political status, class, ethnicity, physical and mental disability, age and more, modify gender roles. The concept of gender is vital because, applied to social analysis, it reveals how women's subordination (or men's domination) is socially constructed. As such, the subordination can be changed or ended. It is not biologically predetermined nor is it fixed forever.

**Gender Analysis:** is the collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated information. Men and women both perform different roles. This leads to women and men having different experience, knowledge, talents and needs. Gender analysis explores these differences so policies, Programmes and projects can identify and meet the different needs of men and women. Gender analysis also facilitates the strategic use of distinct knowledge and skills possessed by women and men.

**Empowerment:** is here defined as a person's capacity to make effective choices; that is the capacity to transform choices into desired actions and outcomes.

**Livelihoods:** 'A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims, access) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base' (Chambers and Conway, 1992:6).

**Gender-mainstreaming:** It involves the integration of a gender perspective into the preparation, design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies, regulatory measures and spending programmes, with a view to promoting equality between women and men, and combating discrimination.

**Gender-Blind Policies:** Policies that ignore socially determined roles, responsibilities, and capabilities of men and women

**Rural Organizations:** Groups of farmers, forest users and fishermen voluntarily bounded around a common purpose to achieve shared objectives (FAO, 2011).

**Smallholder farmers:** Smallholder farmers are farmers with small landholdings, they have a low asset base and associated characteristics including dependence mostly on household labour for production and low use of technology. Many are poor, food insecure and have limited access to markets and services (Otekunrin *et al.*, 2019).

## **1.8 Structure of the Dissertation**

Chapter one contains an overview of the study. In Chapter two the relevant literature and conceptual framework are presented. In Chapter Three, a description of the study is made. The research methodology is outlined in Chapter Four. Chapter Five presents and discusses the findings of the study and Chapter six ends with conclusions and recommendations.

## CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews available theories and literature in relation to empowerment of women smallholders in international development projects and programmes. Opportunities, benefits and challenges faced by women smallholder farmers targeted by agricultural aid programmes are also presented. The section ends by reviewing a conceptual framework that informed this study.

### 2.2 Power and Women Empowerment

In the 1990s the term 'empowerment' was enthusiastically adopted by international development agencies, influenced by the ideas of Amartya Sen (1992) and the promotion of his 'capabilities approach'. In Sen's capability approach, development was a process of expanding the real freedoms that people enjoy to lead the lives they value. On the basis of his capability approach theory, Kabeer (2001) defined women empowerment as "The expansion in people's ability to make strategic life choices in a context where this ability was previously denied to them". In this definition Naila Kabeer, adds the ability to make strategic life choices over critical aspects affecting women's livelihood. She also establishes a link between power and the ability to make choices. Hence, in her view, disempowerment, as opposed to empowerment, entails the absence of the ability to make strategic life choices.

Alsop and Heinsohn (2005:5) have also linked choice with their definition of empowerment. They use the concept of choice to define empowerment as 'enhancing an individual's or group's capacity to make effective choices and translate these choices into desired actions and outcomes. In their understanding, individuals use their agency to navigate an opportunity structure in order to achieve 'degrees of empowerment' which enable development outcomes. Hence, the mere existence of choice, use of choice and achievement of choice are 'degrees of empowerment'. Further, the degree to which a person is empowered depends on her or his individual agency and the existing opportunity structure.

To operationalize the notion of choice (Kabeer 2005:14) Kabeer explores the concept of empowerment through three closely intertwined dimensions, namely, agency, resources and achievements. Agency is an intrinsic dimension of empowerment and refers to the process in which choices are made and put into practice (Kabeer 2005:14). Kabeer explores two notions of agency; positive and negative agency. Positive agency, translated into 'power to' implies making and

acting upon one's own choices despite opposition from others. Negative agency or 'power over' entails that certain actors overrule the agency of others. This can be exemplified through oppression and the use of violence. (Kabeer 2005:14) However, agency does not exist in a social vacuum; rather structures such as norms, customs and institutional frameworks can dictate that injustices are inexistent or that they in fact are not even unfair or oppressive.

However, Luttrell (2007) questions whether the desired change in the lives of people is brought about or constrained by forces beyond their control (social structures such as class, religion) or through individual and collective action (agency). Luttrell (2007) argues that whilst individual people have a great capacity for acting freely, social systems may greatly constrain, or determine, the actions of individuals. More recently, however, there has been increased recognition of the need for an explicit consideration of structural inequalities that affect entire social groups rather than a focus only on individual characteristics. The debate is reflected in the choice of interventions and activities chosen to bring about empowerment. For example, it is common for empowerment projects to have economic objectives such as attracting capital and integrating small producers into the global markets. However, these projects often ignore structural issues, and this can lead to an assumption that access to resources leads automatically to increased choice and therefore to empowerment.

Resources refers to means through which agency is put into effect (Kabeer 2005:14). Resources are not defined in an economic term; instead they are interpreted as privileges or capacities for decision-making. These resources are unevenly distributed across layers of society – from political to local elites, organisations and families. Leaders or powerful individuals can use their resources since they possess the authority to make choices. In contrast, individuals who are dispossessed of resources due to their inferior position have limited ability to make choices or be involved in strategic decision-making. (Kabeer 2005:14)

Achievements are the result of agency, in other terms the capability of individuals to lead a meaningful life. Hereby, achievements imply to what extent individuals fail or succeed to realise their choices or visions of a life they value. (Kabeer 2005:15) In the mainstream discussion on empowerment such achievements could refer to the access and completion of education. However, this conventional view fails to account for if education has lead to greater sense of autonomy. Thus, achievements have to be understood in a broader sense that expands individuals' ability to

make strategic life choices geared towards social change and not only mere survival. (Kabeer 2005:15).

Generally, Kabeer (2001) offers a useful definition of empowerment that effectively captures what is common to these definitions and that can be applied across the range of contexts that development assistance is concerned with. Hence, i employ this definition as a reference point for my study. Kabeer's definition is especially attractive because it contains two elements which help distinguish empowerment from other closely related concepts such as gender equality and gender equity: 1) the idea of process, or change from a condition of disempowerment, and 2) that of human agency and choice, which she qualifies by saying that empowerment implies choices made from the vantage point of real alternatives.

## **2.3 Women Empowerment in Development Aid Projects at Global Level**

### **2.3.1 Project Benefits for Targeted Women**

Grown *et al.*, (2016) using quantitative evidence and case studies, found that whilst most international donors have been concerned with gender equality and women's empowerment since 1975, most bilateral and multilateral donor aid for gender equality has been channeled to specific sectors such as education and health compared to economic sectors such as agriculture, energy and mining. According to findings, this has left many women behind (in comparison to men) in economic sectors such as agriculture for instance when it comes to asset ownership, participation in key governance structures, women's skills, access to decent work, ownership of businesses, land and finance. Further, Grown *et al.*, (2016) shows that in as much donor funded programmes in the health sector commonly referred to increasing women's economic status, rarely did their health programmes link to actual economic interventions on the ground. Hence, this shows that such programmes did not result in economic empowerment outcomes for the targeted women.

This study was a mixed methods study that only considered donor aid to women empowerment in themes/sectors such as health, education, land administration, fragile states and climate finance. On gender equality and women empowerment in the agriculture sector, the study recommended further research on how donors can make some institutional changes to close specific gaps between targeted men and women smallholder farmers. For instance, targeting productivity gaps between female and male smallholders as part of agriculture and food security programmes and whether these are due to constraints in access to inputs or returns to inputs. Overall, their findings show

that a large number of donor aided projects and programmes on women empowerment have not adequately mainstreamed gender equality and women empowerment in developing countries.

Beath *et al.*, (2013) using survey data generated from a randomized field experiment covering over 13,000 male and female respondents across 500 Afghan villages looked at the effect of development aid on women empowerment in Afghanistan, by examining whether development programmes that mandate women's community participation can improve women's status in societies characterized by female repression and insecurity. The development programme was designed with special provisions aimed at promoting gender equality including; establishment of a gender-balanced village development council, equal participation of men and women in the elections for the council and in the selection of development projects, as well as a requirement that at least one project is prioritized by women. The study found that the programme increased female participation in village governance, community life, and economic activities, while also increasing support for female participation in village decision-making. However, no effects were seen on the division of intra-family decision-making between husband and wife or on attitudes toward the general role of women in society.

On increased female participation in village governance; findings indicated that the share of villages in which a women's council existed was approximately five percent of the control villages. In four percent of the control villages these councils had a meeting during the six months prior to the survey. In treatment villages both of these shares were higher by 39 percentage points. Further, women had no meetings with district authorities in the year before the survey in any of the control villages, and in only three percent of them they had a meeting with women from other villages.

Hence, the overall measure of female local governance activity was at 1.2 of a standard deviation higher in villages that received the intervention. On community life, and economic activities; the study found that women residing in villages that had received the intervention were 50 percent more likely to report that they have someone with whom to discuss and solve their problems in the village. In addition, women were now found to be more mobile and, as noted above, more likely to have attended a meeting with women outside their village as well and/or with representatives of the district government.

It was also found that after the intervention, female respondents in treatment villages were five percentage points more likely to have engaged income generating activities in the past year, a 15

percent difference that signalled productive involvement for women outside the confines of their household (Beath *et al.*,2013:13). On gendered division of household decision-making; it was found that despite increasing the role of women in village life, the project had virtually no effect on their position within the family, with no change in the degree of agency over what was done with the money and assets that women identified as their own.

There was literally no difference in the share of women who were involved in decisions over the purchase of items such as food, clothes, and medicine or in decisions in family affairs such as children's marriage and education, elderly care, and procreation. Thus, even though women were arguably gaining in legitimacy in the community realm, their role in the family appeared to remain largely unchanged. On gender roles in society; the study found no significant effect of the programme on attitudes toward women in the broader public sphere extending beyond the community, as perceived by both men and women.

Quisumbing *et al.*, (2015) used mixed methods to evaluate impact of four donor funded agricultural projects in South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa that promoted high-value crops and livestock commodities embedded within emerging or existing value chains. The analysis allowed the study to explore how women participate in and benefit from agricultural projects, how agricultural interventions have facilitated or impeded men's and women's abilities to benefit from project interventions, including their ability to accumulate assets.

The study found that underlying patterns of asset use, ownership, and control condition men's and women's abilities to participate in and benefit from projects promoting high value agricultural commodities. Whereas, projects can be consciously designed to counter existing gender disparities, they may also unintentionally exacerbate gender asset gaps. Findings from phase one of the Land 'O' Lakes Manica Smallholder Dairy Development Project (MSDDP) (2008–2012), funded by the United States Department of Agriculture which was Implemented in Manica Province, Mozambique, aimed to rebuild Mozambique's dairy industry to meet market demand and to increase incomes for smallholder farmers by participating in a sustainable dairy value chain, showed that women's ownership of assets such as cattle was low compared to that of men (0.23 percent for women compared to 3.08 percent for men in the treatment group, and no cows and 1.58 percent for men in the control group at baseline).

Focus group discussions (FGDs) revealed that in many cases, women defined ownership according to whether someone could use an asset. More stringent definitions, such as ability to loan, sell, or to bequeath the asset in case of death or divorce, often favoured men.

Findings also showed that asset ownership can be more complex and nuanced, which is rarely reflected in how projects distribute assets or how they define asset-based participation criteria. For instance, the cows distributed through MSDDP were registered to the household head, who was a man in over 90 percent of cases. In spite of women's role in taking care of the cows, FGDs with members of households that had received their cows reported that men remained the ultimate decision-makers on most cattle or dairy-related issues, e.g., with regards to input use, production practices, technologies adopted, attendance at trainings, joining a cooperative or association; or registration for cow distribution.

Women were often consulted and reported satisfaction in having their knowledge and skills recognized within their households, but men retained final authority. Both baseline and impact evaluation revealed that women carry out the main daily activities related to milk production in most households. Although women provided much of the labour for daily livestock-rearing activities, they made care and sales decisions in only 20 percent of cases. Nearly 80 percent of the husbands were reported to be the primary decisionmakers on buying, selling, or leasing a dairy cow (Ahmed *et al.*, 2009; Quisumbing *et al.*, 2015). Women and very poor households clearly faced barriers to participation in these projects, and given the distribution of asset ownership between men and women, women would be expected to face difficulties in benefiting from them.

Kibria and Mowla (2006) assessed two donor-sponsored projects where economic empowerment was the main project objective, but which unwittingly led to women being burdened with more work. The first project was the Aquaculture Development Project in Northern Uplands Vietnam, a UNDP sponsored project implemented from 1999 to 2002. Although the project succeeded in creating suitable opportunities for ethnic women and enhanced their status, it also increased their work burden. Apart from household work, women spent as much time as men in the various aquaculture and on-farm activities. The total work hours of women were greater than men's and women had fewer decision-making roles than men. Kibria and Mowla (2006) also noted that although women were usually responsible for managing money in the family, they, however, did not have the right to spend the money freely on whatever they liked.

The second project was the “Patuakhali Barguna Aquaculture Extension Project in Bangladesh,” which aimed to involve women in fish farming projects and was implemented from 1997 to 2004 with funding from the Danish International Development Agency. The project was found to have increased the decision-making roles in certain family matters (such as production decision processes and schooling of children) of participating women, but did not increase women’s part in making decisions concerning medical care for the family. Although women participated more actively in decision-making processes in certain family matters, the final decisions were still made by men. As a result of economic development, domestic violence against women had decreased, and some participating women became role models in their communities. This project also placed additional work burden on women who were already stretched to the limits (Kibria and Mowla 2006). Women interviewed revealed that they usually had to do everything related to fish farming within the households; they were also likely to be responsible for maintaining their vegetable plots and raising poultry along with fishing and fish farming.

### **2.3.2 Targeting Women in International Aid Projects**

On reaching women to participate and be empowered from development projects and programmes, Tanwir and Safdar (2013) reviewed case studies and literature on how rural women participate in rural organisations and projects that promote gender equality and women empowerment. According to Tanwir and Safdar (2013) even the best designed development projects that are not cognizant of the impediments that the rural woman encounter, remain ineffective in promoting the rural woman’s empowerment and participation. There needs to be cognizance that even in cases where development projects are undertaken through participatory processes, needs of women are not always adequately addressed in projects priorities (Tanwir and Safdar, 2013). Regarding participation of women in development projects, Agarwal (2001) and Cornwall (2003) both argue that the nominal or passive type of participation is not a sufficient pre-condition for gender empowerment and development.

Most international aid projects in agriculture, use a number of strategies to deliver development outcomes/benefits to women smallholder farmers through the interventions they finance. Johnson *et al.*, (2018) found that rigorous evidence on how specific agricultural projects empower women smallholder farmers is limited. Empowering women smallholder farmers requires that projects deliver clear outcomes to women through strategies that improve factors such as their productivity and financial capital (household incomes and market benefits). The challenge has often been that

most programme designs for women empowerment tend to assume that by simply targeting women smallholder farmers or enumerating them in the Programme, they will automatically capture the benefits and be empowered. However, reaching or targeting women smallholder farmers may be a necessary first step to benefiting or empowering them, but this by itself is also usually insufficient if the activities and the monitoring indicators focus at the output level alone.

As increasing attention of donors and national governments is being drawn towards accountability for project outcomes, it is becoming clear that simply targeting women does not ensure that they benefit. Evidence is needed that women benefit in terms of provision of project outcomes such as access to resources, agricultural productivity, or improved income (Johnson *et al.*, 2018). It is such project outcomes that result in long term development change or empowerment of women (project impact). Walingo (2009) reviewed the role of livestock development projects in rural Kenya on women empowerment. She found that despite intense efforts by projects to empower women smallholder farmers targeted by these projects, in terms of economic and political empowerment, there was very little success due to cultural and familial beliefs and practices that influence the decision-making environment.

In addition, the method of targeting beneficiaries by only enumerating only those who meet pre-determined requirements such as already owning land or ability to pay membership fees excludes the very poor women who may be food insecure and in real need of project benefits. Perfect targeting of programme beneficiaries would identify only the target group from a population.

On risks and errors associated with beneficiary targeting, Barrett (2002) explains that an ideally targeted programme would have neither errors of exclusion were members of the target subpopulation are left out of the programme, sometimes referred to as “under coverage” nor errors of inclusion were individuals not in the target subpopulation are included. This is sometimes referred to as “leakage”. Errors of exclusion entail direct project costs and Errors of inclusion cause waste of scarce resources, often leading to indirect humanitarian costs because transfers to united beneficiaries exclude the truly needy in the face of tight budgets.

Ransom and Bain (2011) in a study on whether international development assistance targets women, analyzed agricultural-related aid data contained in the AidData data set. The study sampled 5,834 projects spanning 1978 to 2003 that targeted vulnerable populations including; smallholder women farmers. Ransom and Bain (2011:59) observed that “there was an increase in

the number of agricultural aid projects that targeted women. The study focused on how donor projects targeted women beneficiaries.

### **2.3.3 Measuring Impact of Donor Funded Women Empowerment Projects**

Alkire *et al.*, (2013) used the women's empowerment in agriculture index (WEAI) to measure the empowerment, agency, and inclusion of women in the agricultural sector. The study assessed agricultural development projects in Bangladesh, Guatemala and Uganda. The WEAI which comprises two sub-indexes was used to assess empowerment of women beneficiaries in five domains (5DE), including (1) decisions about agricultural production, (2) access to and decision-making power about productive resources, (3) control of use of income, (4) leadership in the community, and (5) time allocation. Alkire *et al.*, (2013: 72) argue that “despite renewed interest in the agricultural sector as an engine of growth and development and greater recognition of the importance of women in agriculture, existing tools for measuring the impact of agricultural interventions on women's empowerment are limited”.

The study focused on the measurement of women's empowerment in agriculture, a sector that according to Alkire *et al.*, (2013:72) “lacks a tool for measurement of empowerment that is robust, comparable, multidimensional, and able to monitor the impact of agricultural interventions on women's empowerment”.

To strengthen the applicability of the WEAI to agricultural projects and programmes, Malapit *et al.*, (2019) used an adapted version of the WEAI (called Pro-WEAI) a project-level WEAI that agricultural development projects can use to identify key areas of women's empowerment or disempowerment, design appropriate strategies and monitor project outcomes related to women's empowerment. The 12 pro-WEAI indicators were mapped to three domains (3DE): intrinsic agency (power within), instrumental agency (power to), and collective agency (power with) to measure women empowerment on 13 agricultural development projects in Africa and South Asia as part of the Gender, Agriculture, and Assets Project, Phase 2 (GAAP2). The study found that 16 percent of women and 43 percent of men were empowered according to pro-WEAI. Similarly, this study like Alkire *et al.*, (2013) focused solely on the measurement of women empowerment, unlike on how development projects with empowerment objectives target and benefit women. What is quite clear from the reviewed literature is that most aid projects in agriculture are probably not generating clear project outcomes to women smallholder farmers due to a narrow focus on empowerment such as, i.e excluding activities that can contribute to economic empowerment of

beneficiaries, rather focusing on social or political empowerment outcomes alone. Much of the literature shows that improvements in access and control of financial assets such as rural credit, market support and income are key to empowerment of women smallholder farmers in addition to social and political factors of empowerment, yet a number of interventions meant to enhance women empowerment often won't have economic variables in the design of their project activities. This is what Ransom and Bain (2011: 49) refers to as “simply focusing on project processes rather than clear results”, when it is clear for instance, at project design that most women smallholders often lack access to, or control over, key agricultural resources, such as land and credit.

#### **2.4 Women Empowerment in Development Aid Projects in Zambia**

Tanwir and Safdar (2013) also reviewed The International Fund for Agricultural Development 2010 impact evaluation, that found that the reason some of its projects were not as successful as envisaged at the project design stage was because there was very little attention allotted to lightening women's workload, particularly for projects in Zambia, Egypt and Bangladesh, where it was evident that workload of women beneficiaries was actually increased by project activities. There was some evidence for instance, that workload of women smallholder farmers on the rural finance project in Zambia, had actually increased instead of decreasing. It was also noted that not all women smallholder farmers had access to increased animal draught power as was envisaged under IFAD's Smallholder Livestock Investment Project (SLIP). Lightening women's workload is critical for women empowerment.

Lightening women's workload as Tayyab and Maryam (2013) suggest is critical before any discussion on participation or empowerment can be initiated. It is also important to point out that there are fewer projects that actually factor in the strategic needs related to changing the balance of power and women's bargaining position in households. Some projects may include cognizance in their design stage but at the implementation stage, the focus becomes vague. Such clear differences between the project design and actual implementation were also observed by Farnworth and Munachonga (2010) who noted that household shared decision-making had only slightly improved with the coming of the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) funded Agricultural Support Programme (ASP). For instance, regarding decision-making Farnworth and Munachonga (2010:9) noted that “Men were now more willing to share decision-making with their wives although they still considered themselves household heads”.

The impact evaluation study further observed that the ASP project in Zambia was implemented in areas with diverse ethnic cultural differences or practices that to some extent influenced the rate of programme implementation.

Bonilla *et al.*, (2016) also looked at women empowerment in Zambia. The study approach was a mixed-methods evaluation of the Government of Zambia's Child Grant Programme whose objective was cash for women empowerment. The programme was implemented starting 2010 in the districts of Kalabo, Shangombo, and Kaputa which are some of the most remote and poorest in the country. Quantitatively, the study found that the women in beneficiary households were making more sole or joint decisions (across five domains, including decisions related to spending of partner's income), though increases were only found among sole decisions related to the woman's own health. Qualitatively, it was found that only modest perceived changes in decision making were realized among beneficiaries due to entrenched gender norms, which indicate men as the head of household and primary decision maker. Further, Bonilla *et al.*, (2016:66) observed that there was significant room for improvement of measurement of empowerment using women's decision-making indicators.

Prominent amongst studies on women empowerment in Zambia is Ngulube and Turnbull (2012) who found a positive correlation between foreign aid and women's economic empowerment. Development experts have often criticized a focus on economic empowerment when assessing project empowerment outcomes for women. It is often pointed out that whereas most donors often refer to economic empowerment when formulating project goals, such a narrow focus on leaves out other dimensions including political and economic empowerment.

Kabeer and Natali (2013) argue that development projects which are predominantly based on the objective of economic empowerment may not truly benefit women. They argue that simply providing services to women and increasing their income does not necessarily improve their wellbeing (*ibid*). This is especially the case if the new income generating activities increase their already heavy work burden and may adversely impact their physical and mental health. Hence, in addition to the economic criteria for measuring women's empowerment, several other criteria should also be used because empowerment is multidimensional encompassing economic, political and social empowerment. Criteria other than economic criteria are needed when considering and measuring women's empowerment (Gopal *et al.*, 2014).

In this respect for instance, the United Nations Population Information Network guidelines for women's empowerment comprises five components: women's sense of self-worth; their right to have and to determine choices; their right to have access to opportunities and resources; their right to have the power to control their own lives, both within and outside their home; and their ability to influence the direction of social change to create a more just social and economic order, nationally and internationally (Gopal *et al.*, 2014).

Using such holistic measures as indicators to women's empowerment can help focus on the well-being and status of the women and not only on the objects or money that they possess. However, despite the global aspirations for a more holistic approach to empowerment, development efforts tend to focus mainly on women in isolation and on economic interventions for them. Okali (2011) cited in Gopal *et al.*, (2014:19) warned that "to assume that by simply focusing on women, agricultural and rural development interventions will result in desired outcomes for them. Everything we know about the organization of society, and including gender relations, should lead us to question this assumption". She stressed that gender interventions must be well targeted in order to meet specific and practical needs, i.e. more than narrow economic interventions in order to improve the lives of women and their families.

In Zambia, few studies have assessed the effectiveness of agricultural aid programmes or projects in the context of assessing the targeting of beneficiaries, identifying benefits generated by the project and their contribution to empowerment of beneficiary women smallholder farmers. It is the intention of this study to fill that gap and contribute to the body of knowledge on women empowerment.

## **2.5 Conceptual Framework**

This study adapted three parts (agency, structure, relations) from the CARE International's Women's Empowerment Framework, because it enables one to conceive empowerment as both a process and an outcome. Hence, this enabled me to assess impact of the NORAD financed programme on women's empowerment as reflected in three inter-connecting aspects of social change.

Waller (2014) after Kabeer (1999) identifies these three dimensions of empowerment firstly, as agency (power within/to) operationalized in reference to resources (power to/over), and made visible in its resulting beneficial/valued achievements. The second is structures which is in the broader social structures that condition women's choices and chances. The third is relations which

is the character of the social relationships through which women negotiate their needs and rights with other social actors, including men.

Agency is a woman's own aspirations and capabilities to make choices and to act upon them, this pathway to empowerment is also called self-efficacy. Women's agency is also reflected in the aspirations, resources, actions and achievements of women themselves. Every woman has agency, every woman analyses, decides, and acts without the involvement of donors or government. However, donor funded women empowerment programmes can contribute to increasing women's use of their agency to expand their options and challenge inequities. To measure changes to the agency domain, the study examined the ability to influence decisions that directly concern and affect women, changes in taking on decision-making positions in the household or in community groups by comparing before and after implementation of the NORAD Financed Women Empowerment Programme.

According to Waller (2014) structures include routines, patterns of relationships and interaction, and conventions that lead to taken-for-granted behavior; institutions that establish agreed-upon meanings, accepted ("normal") forms of domination (who "naturally" has power over what or whom), and agreed criteria for legitimizing the social order. Structures can be both tangible and intangible; they are composed of both behavioral patterns that can be observed and counted but also the ideologies that underpin why some behaviors or thoughts are socially acceptable. Examples include kinship, economic markets, religion, castes and other forms of social hierarchies, educational systems, political culture, resource control/ownership dynamics, forms of organization, and many, many more. Through their actions, individual agents contribute to producing, reinforcing, or changing structures; at the same time, however, structures shape agency in important, and often unrecognized ways. Finally structures are organized and structured according to broader systems such as financial and economic systems and patriarchal cultural systems that influence who has power and who does not.

Agency and structure are mediated through relations between and among social actors while, at the same time, forms and patterns of relationships are deeply influenced frequently in hidden ways by agency and structure. Empowerment, in part, consists in individual women building relationships, joint efforts, coalitions, and mutual support, in order to claim and expand agency, alter inequitable structures, and so realize rights and livelihood security.

To measure programme impact on the structure domain indicators assessed include changes to gender balance in farmer groups and the gendered division of labor in households of participating women smallholder farmers. Relations define the kinds of interactions and quality of relationships husbands and wives have. Indicators used to measure programme impact on the relations domain include women’s and men’s perception of increased cooperation, shared decision-making between husbands and wives and changes to household well-being. Figure 2-1 Illustrates a conceptual framework that shows impact on women’s empowerment, as dependent on three interconnecting aspects of social change namely agency, structure and relations.

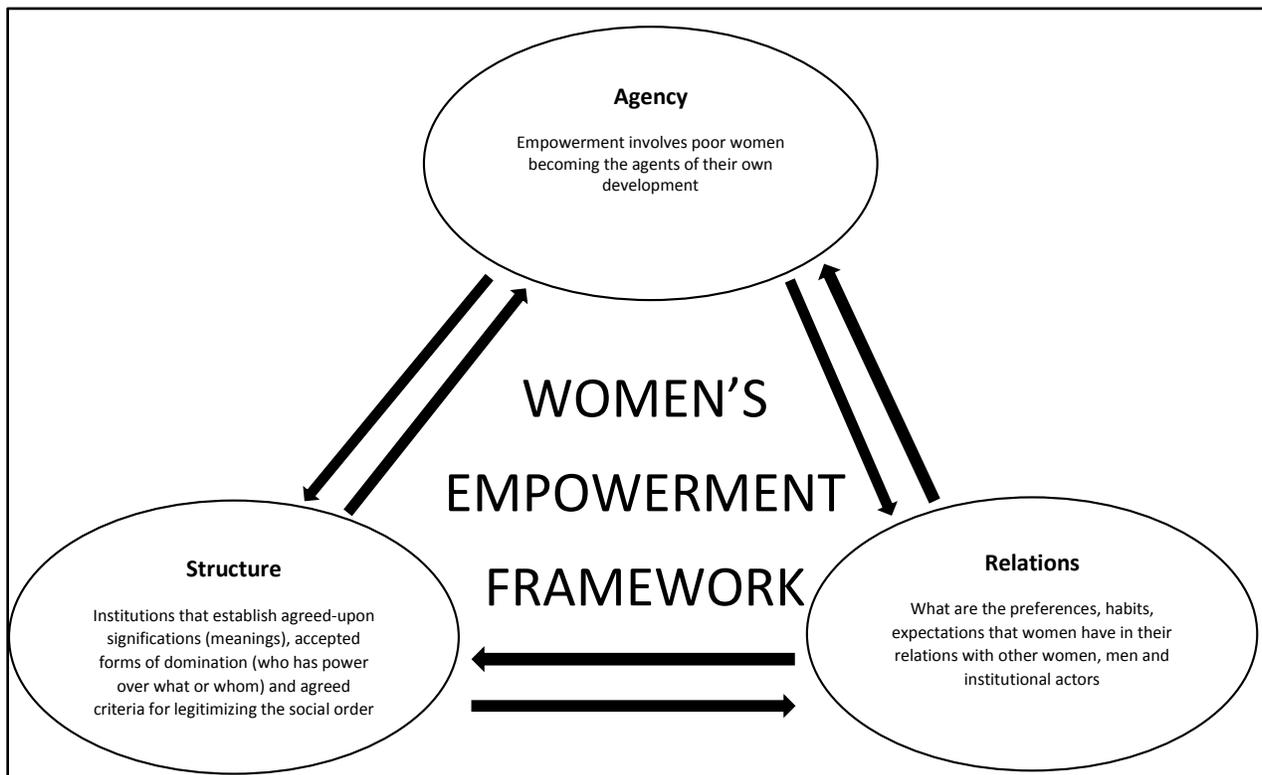


Figure 2-1: Conceptual Framework (Adapted from Care’s Women Empowerment Framework)  
Source: (Care International,2006:4)

## **CHAPTER 3: DESCRIPTION OF STUDY AREA**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This section presents a description of the study area in terms of the baseline biophysical and social economic environment of the study area, situated in Senanga District of Western Province of Zambia. The description also includes how the environment has influenced common livelihood strategies found in the area.

### **3.2 Reasons for choice of study area**

Nande area of Senanga district was purposively chosen because the area was amongst the areas where the Norwegian funded Agricultural Programme was implemented. Hence, a significant number of women smallholders who participated in the project live in the area. Also, the area is amongst a few areas that is easily accessible by road compared to others such in Sioma and Lui Wanyau that normally get flooded and have bad terrain.

### **3.3 Biophysical Environment**

#### **3.3.1 Location**

Senanga district is centrally located in the western province of Zambia. The district has a total land extent of 9,865 Km<sup>2</sup> and it is 109 km from Mongu district, the provincial administrative center for western province. It shares local boundaries with Mongu, Nalolo, Sioma, Sesheke and Luampa Districts. Figure 3-1 shows a topographic map showing the location of Nande Area of Senanga district.

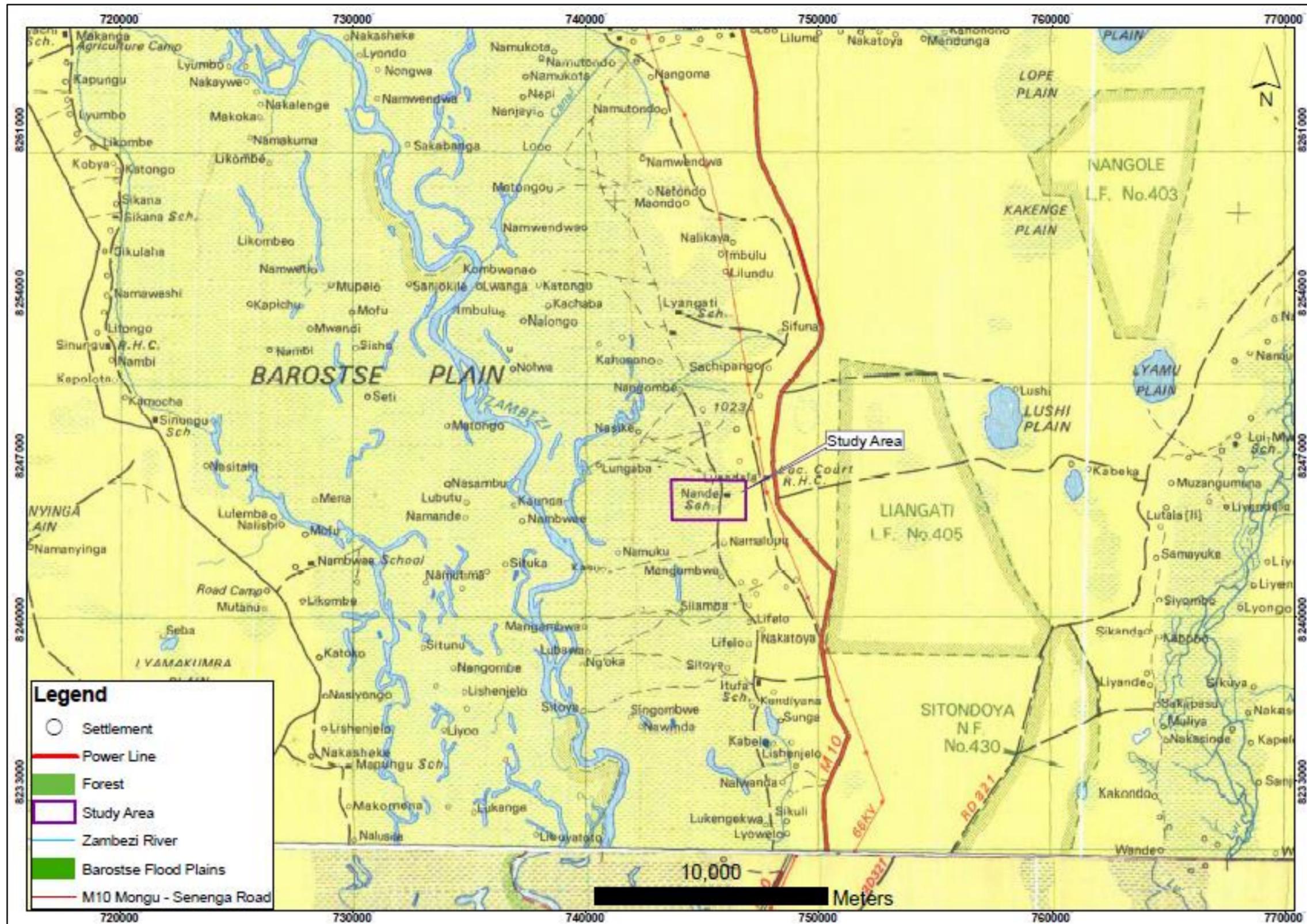


Figure 3-1: Topographic Location Map of Study Area  
 Source: Field data, 2016

### **3.3.2 Climate**

According to GRZ (2010) the climate of Senanga is typical of the central African plateau with three distinct seasons namely; the dry cool season with temperature ranges 12-15 degree Celsius (May-August), dry hot season with temperature 20-38 degree Celsius (August- mid November) and dry wet season (mid- November- April). The district experiences an average temperature of 27 degree Celsius. Senanga district lies within the agro-ecological region II receiving annual rainfall ranging from 700mm to 812mm. Rainfall in the district falls between October and April. However, much of the rain falls between November and February.

### **3.3.3 Soils**

Majority of soils in western province are of low fertility, most of the nutrients being concentrated in the top soil horizon, the zone of greatest grass root development. The soils in Nande may be described as humic soils of the flood plains and dambo margins. These soils also occur on the margins of the Baroste floodplain and along tributaries and valleys of the Zambezi river and Lui river (Verboom and Brunt, 1970). The most fertile land presently found in Senanga is the Lui, Lumbe, Silwizi valleys and plain edge. This land is the most viable for crop production such as maize, rice and sugar cane.

### **3.3.4 Topography**

The topography of the area is largely flat and undulating compared to that of the Barotse Sub-Basin. Much of the Zambezi river basin is relatively plateau land of the Gondwana Continent, with elevations of the high plateau varying between 800 and 1,450m amsl (above mean sea level) with the most extensive areas being between 1,000 and 1,300m amsl. Only a very small portion of the basin is below 100m or above 1,500m (GRZ, 2010).

## **3.4 Socio-Economic Environment**

### **3.4.1 Demography**

In 2010, the population for western province was 902,974. This was an increase from 765, 088 in 2000. The population grew at an average annual rate of 1.7 percent during the 2000-2010 intercensal period. This average annual rate was lower than 1.8 percent recorded in 1990-2000 intercensal period (CSO, 2014). In 2010, Senanga District had a total population of 126,506 of which 60, 428 were males and 66,078 were females. The population in rural areas was 112, 404 of which 53, 652 were males and 58, 752 were females. The population in urban areas was 14,102 of which

6, 776 were males and 7, 326 were females. Senanga district had an average annual population growth rate of 1.5 percent between 2000 and 2010. CSO (2013) projects a total population of 145,657 by 2019 of which 70,196 are males and 75,461 are females at a projected average annual population growth rate of 3.1percent. Nande area is situated in Mwanambuyu ward which in 2010 had a total population of 11, 581, of which males were 5,445 and females 6,136 (CSO, 2010).

### **3.4.2 Education**

In 2010, western province had a literacy rate of 61.6 percent. Literacy rates for rural and urban areas were 58.3 and 82.2 percent, respectively. Males had a higher literacy rate (64.9 percent) than females (58.8 percent). Of the population aged 5 years and older, 29.6 percent were currently attending school. The net primary and secondary school attendance rates were 67.1 percent and 36.6 percent, respectively. The net primary school attendance rate was 65.3 percent in rural areas and 79.7 percent in urban areas. At secondary level, net secondary school attendance rate was 31.3 percent in rural areas and 63.6 percent in urban areas. The Gender Parity Index was 0.94 indicating that there were gender inequalities in school attendance for males and females. Rural and urban Gender Parity Index were 0.93 and 1.00, respectively. Of the population aged 25 years and older, 60.3 percent had completed primary school, 30.8 percent had completed secondary school and 8.6 percent had completed tertiary education. In rural areas, the completion rate was 67.3 percent, 26.9 percent and 5.5 percent for primary, secondary and tertiary education, respectively. Senanga District has about 61.6 percent literacy rate of Population Aged 5 Years and Older (CSO, 2010).

### **3.4.4 Transport and Communication**

In Senanga district, most urban roads are in a bad state. Whereas the two main road roads from Mongu to Senanga and Senanga to Sesheke are in a fair state, most primary feeder roads are in a bad state. Although these roads are periodically taken care by the district council under the ministry of local government, these efforts have been frustrated by the sandy soils which easily get eroded. Water transport is also very common here. The common vessels used are the dugout canoes. The lozi use these canoes more often to drift on the river fishing. At times the canoes are used to fetch some papyrus, reeds, and grass for the construction of houses and courtyards. The canoes usually come from the uplands. Canoeing is a plain activity. There are also navigation canals connecting the Upland to the Zambezi system in the district. The flooding of the Zambezi plains necessitated the development of waterways. Senanga District, with rich water resources, developed an extensive system of canals. The canals improved navigation within the districts.

### **3.4.5 Livelihoods**

Most farmers in Nande area are smallholder farmers who keep ruminants such as chicken, goats and pigs. They also cultivate crops such as rice, cassava, fish, millet, sorghum, sweet potatoes, groundnuts, cowpeas, mangoes, oranges, bananas, sugarcane. Nande area is also adjacent to the Zambezi river, hence locals also engage in fishing activity. Common species caught include Ndikusi (*Mormyrus Lacerda*), Nembele (*Gnathonemus macrolepidotus*), Lubango (*Schilbe mystus*), Mbufu (*Tilapia melamopleura*), Njinji (*Tilapia andersoni*).

### **3.4.6 Land Use**

Generally, land use in the study area consists of floodplains, settlements consisting village huts, rough grazing and some arable land.

### **3.4.7 Socio-cultural Organization**

In Western province, customary systems of tenure determine access and use of land. According to Rajaratnum (2015) village level indunas administer on behalf of the Barotse Royal Establishment (BRE) at the local level, carry out the functions of land distribution, dispute resolution and granting access to natural resources. Normally, the BRE administrative and political system administered through the village level indunas favors men when it comes to access to land, fisheries and grazing pasture. Kwashimbisa and Puskur (2014) note that whereas men tend to have full access and control to family land, married women access land through their husbands. Others such as single women, divorcees and widows have access to and control of land in their own right as heads of households or through inheritance. This lack of sole ownership on the part of women creates a disincentive to invest time and resources in sustainable farming practices promoted by either government or donor funded programmes.

## CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology used in this study. The following aspects are covered in this chapter; the research paradigm used, the sampling design, sample size, the methods of data collection and analysis methods.

#### 4.1.1 Sampling Design

The study adopted a mixed methods research design because both qualitative and quantitative techniques needed to be used in order to achieve the objectives of the study. The sampling method for the study involved a 2 staged sampling were i purposively sampled one farmer group from 60 farmer groups that were participating in the NORAD financed Women Empowerment Programme on the basis of the group's location and accessibility, compared to other groups which were quite distant. Secondly, 50 smallholder farmers consisting of women and men were randomly sampled from the group out of a total of 80 using the programme register provided by the Programme Against Malnutrition (PAM). PAM were the Programme Implementation Unit (PIU) on behalf of NORAD working with government agencies to implement the programme. To monitor programme impact on the intended beneficiaries, the programme baseline results were used for comparison purposes.

#### 4.1.2 Data Collection

Primary data from smallholder farmers was collected using a semi-structured interview schedule and focus group discussion guide. The semi-structured interviews were first completed before starting the focus group discussions. The reason for this was to ensure that individual respondents first appreciated the objectives of the research before inviting them to group discussions. For this study, focus group discussants were purposively selected with more female than male discussants. Men were included in the discussions because women felt that the men had a key role to play in the programme activities. Three (3) focus group discussions were held with both women and men beneficiaries. Although a number of questions were discussed as indicated in the focus group discussion guide in appendix 2 of this report, key questions that dominated much of the discussions were: (i) *how did you join the PAM Programme?* (ii) *how did you come to learn about the Programme?* (iii) *What were the requirements for you to join the Programme?* (iv) *list down all benefits you accrue from all such Programme activities?* and (v) *How much are you benefiting from such Programme activities?*

The discussions were recorded to enable me to replay them later when analyzing the discussions. It was common to have a woman and her spouse in the same focus group discussion. However, this might have prevented the women from fully expressing themselves during the discussions. Secondary data reviewed included the programme appraisal document (PAD), programme monitoring reports and national statistical reports. Two (2) Key informant interviews were conducted with programme officers from Programme Against Malnutrition (PAM) and Ministry of Community Development and Social Welfare (MCDSW) as they were both key stakeholders to the programme. The key informants also served to validate interesting findings mentioned during the focus group discussions by participants.

#### **4.1.3 Data Analysis**

The data which was collected from smallholder farmers using a semi-structured interview schedule (see appendix i) was first entered in Microsoft excel for cleaning and descriptive data analysis which involved the generation of percentages was undertaken. Qualitative data from focus group discussions was used to solicit for in-depth information from smallholder women farmers in order to explain the descriptive data collected by the semi-structured interview schedule. Thematic analysis was used to analyze key themes arising from the interviews and discussions, based on the results obtained from respondents. Secondary data was analyzed using document analyses by checking their relevance to the research questions, main points expressed in the document and interpreting their meanings. In addition, results from the programme baseline survey and CARE International's Women Empowerment Framework (adapted) was also used to assess the impact of the NORAD Financed Women Empowerment Programme on the livelihoods of smallholder farmers in Senanga District.

#### **4.2 Ethical Considerations**

Before collecting data, the researcher introduced himself to the participants and requested if they were willing to participate in the study after explaining the aim of the study. In the case of focus group discussions, after the participants expressed willingness the researcher asked for permission to record the focus group discussion to which they could either accept or object to. Confidentiality was assured to all the participants in the study by identifying respondents using numbers indicated on the interview guides and not names. Permission was also sought for pictures to be taken at the study area. All personal and individual identifying data was securely stored and kept by the researcher and the manner of publication of results does not allow the reader to identify persons or individuals who provided information. For married women smallholder farmers, permission was

first sought from their spouses after explaining the importance of the research before interviewing them and having them to participate in focus group discussions.

#### **4.3 Limitations of The Study**

The data collection tools were prepared in English but the actual interview with smallholder farmers were conducted in siLozi and Luvale local languages spoken in the area which the researcher could not fluently speak. This was taken care by use of an interpreter who was a former local basic school teacher. Access to most farmer groups under the project was limited due to transport and accessibility constraints as most project areas were flooded and others had to be accessed using a two-axled vehicle in the Barotse sands.

## CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results and discussion of the research. Quantitative data is presented and discussed with the incorporation of the findings on the same theme from the qualitative data, obtained through the focus group discussions and key informant interviews. Further, the chapter presents answers to the research questions while at the same time using knowledge from the literature review as provided in Chapter two as the basis of discussion.

### 5.2 Targeting of Beneficiaries

Table 5-1 shows that 72 percent of smallholder women farmers said they joined the project due to self-interest after having been informed about the project goals and outcomes by PAM programme staff, 2 percent said they joined after paying membership fees and the rest did not provide a response.

Table 5-1: Selection Criteria to PAM

Background variables	All		PAM Members		Non-PAM Members	
	<i>N</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Percent</i>
<b>Selection criteria to PAM (targeting)</b>						
non-response	-	-	13	26	-	-
based on interest	-	-	2	4.00	-	-
based on interest and sensitization	-	-	2	4.00	-	-
based on interest in joining the group	-	-	2	4.00	-	-
based on interest in joining the group	-	-	2	4.00	-	-
based on interest in joining the group	-	-	21	42.00	-	-
interest based, sensitization	-	-	2	4.00	-	-
Pam sensitize and I developed interest	-	-	1	2.00	-	-
paying subscription fee of k10	-	-	1	2.00	-	-
selection was based on interest after sensitization	-	-	5	5.05	-	-

Source: Field Data, 2016

Findings from key informant interviews from PAM and DACOs office in Senanga revealed that beneficiary women smallholder farmers were targeted using self-targeting approach following awareness campaigns conducted by PAM in the project area. It was also noted that self-targeting approach was employed by PAM because the assumption was that the proposed project

intervention areas had shown high levels of vulnerable women smallholder farmers from the baseline study PAM conducted for the programme and based on literature they had reviewed on western province and Senanga district. Further, key informants from PAM also indicated that targeting beneficiaries using self-targeting method ensured that only committed beneficiaries were enumerated into the women's farmer groups and guaranteed project sustainability after close out phase. From the focus group discussion held with beneficiaries, it was revealed that because most farmers joined of their own freewill and interest, this enabled them to remain committed to project activities.

From interviews held with key informants from the PAM who were the Programme Implementation Unit (PIU) it was revealed that targeting beneficiaries using this method ensured that only committed beneficiaries were enumerated into the farmer groups. Commitment is a necessary virtual when it comes to learning skills and project sustainability after project completion. However, key informants from the Department of Social Welfare under the Ministry of Community Development and Social Welfare in Senanga District, explained that most of the farmer groups targeted under the NORAD funded Women Empowerment Project by PAM, were actually past groups from projects such as the Food Security Pack and Fertilizer Support Programme. According to them and from lessons learnt from past similar projects, the challenge with such a targeting approach where a new project intervention relies on self-targeting from members of existing farmer groups defined by past interventions, was that risk of delivering project benefits to un intended beneficiaries can be high.

A key informant from PAM mentioned that on the ground, it appeared as if the livelihood status of women beneficiaries targeted by the project might have actually been well off even prior to the coming of the project, as compared to that of other women within the same communities. One explanation given was that such women might have had their level of livelihoods improved due to their participation on past projects such as the Food Security Pack, Women Empowerment Project Financed by Concern World Wide, Conservation Farming Projects and others such as those implemented by Keepers Zambia Foundation and World Fish.

In most interventions' low coverage of the target group and the inclusion errors found in some programmes appear to be in part due to weaknesses in targeting mechanisms. According to Srivastava (2004), targeting of the poor has been "very disappointing" presumably because of serious under-coverage, so many of the poor are missed resulting in serious leakage, while so many

of the better-off benefit. Further, identification of the very poor is often faulty as many programmes rely on selection criteria that are neither observable nor verifiable (Ahmed, 2007). For instance, in the case of the NORAD Financed Women Empowerment Programme, PAM who were the Programme Implementation Unit preferred to target beneficiaries by relying on women groups previously defined by other past projects in the communities, unlike defining and implementing their own targeting mechanism based on who really needed their intervention. As Barrett (2002) shows, there are good reasons to believe local elites would enjoy a higher probability of selection for participation than do outcasts because they get crowded out by participating elites. This may be partly because the elites will normally have acquired information due to their participation in past similar programmes, compared to the very poor, who might never have participated in such programmes before.

Whereas targeting a community known (from past projects) to have poor and marginalized women may enable donors to have their expected numbers of beneficiaries on time, capture literate and very co-operative women, there is normally a tendency of wholly delegating responsibility and authority for household- or individual-level targeting to a local authority (Barrett, 2002). To ensure that programmes deliver benefits to intended beneficiaries Sharp (2001) argues that targeting objectives should be reviewed at every stage of the project life cycle, starting from the concept, design and continuing through project implementation phase, monitoring and evaluation. To deliver project benefits to the right (intended) women beneficiaries, projects must analyze the results they are getting from project performance monitoring and assess if they are on course of achieving their goals by asking questions such as; who is benefiting? Who was supposed to be targeted? Was the targeting, right? If the results from project monitoring and evaluation indicate that there might have been flaws in the targeting, strategic decisions should be made to either control project delivery or abort the implementation. The challenge with self-targeting method (were the prospective project beneficiaries themselves decide whether or not to participate in a programme, depending on the benefits offered and the costs involved) as used by PAM to enroll programme beneficiaries is that it has high exclusion and inclusion errors (Sharp, 2001).

### **5.3 Benefits for Programme Participants**

Table 5-2 shows the status of livelihood assets owned by women smallholder farmers before and after implementation of the NORAD Women Empowerment Programme in Senanga. The results of after programme implementation were obtained by the researcher and used in the study to assess the extent to which women smallholder farmers benefited from the programme since it was

implemented. The results of before programme implementation were obtained from the programme baseline survey report and used to compare background variables of interest.

Table 5-2: Livelihood assets of beneficiaries before and after implementation of the Programme

Background variables	Before Programme Implementation (%)	After Programme Implementation (%)
trainings	28.00	32.00
seed	-	74.00
fertilizer	-	72.00
Credit	-	-
Market	-	-
Cattle	20.00	-
goats	3.00	20.00
oxcarts	17.00	14.00
chickens	1.00	56.00
house	55.00	68.00
Plough	16.00	16.00

Source: Field Data, 2016 and EWAP Baseline Study 2013

It was observed that with the implementation of the NORAD Programme, most women smallholder farmers have improved on assets such as access to farming inputs such as seed (74 percent), fertilizer (72 percent), training (32 percent), goats (20), chickens (56) and houses (68). The results also show that women smallholders have not accessed market and credit support from the programme. Based on baseline results, it can be noted that even prior to implementation of the Programme, market and economic benefits were not accessible by the women in Nande area. In the absence of high direct economic benefits such as credit and market support, smallholder women farmers can be limited in their ability to expand production and improve food security. According to Quisumbing *et al.*, (2015) agricultural projects can assist women smallholder farmers to produce enough food for both the household and market through provision of needed inputs. Further, provision of Programme benefits such as trainings, farming inputs and other livelihood assets, without credit and market support may not directly result in economic empowerment for women smallholder farmers.

From the programme baseline survey conducted in 2013 it was found that women smallholder farmers in Senanga District generally had low access to farming inputs. This can be noted from baseline results shown in table 5-2 for other farming inputs such as plough (16 percent), oxcarts (17 percent) and cattle (20 percent). Results of after programme implementation also show that women smallholder farmers have not seen a significant improvement in their access to such

farming inputs as plough, ox carts and cattle. From both focus group discussions with beneficiaries and interviews with key informants from PAM, it was revealed that the Programme did not provide beneficiaries with inputs such as plough, ox carts and cattle. Mehra and Rojas (2008) found that in Zambia, less than 1 percent of women smallholder farmers owned inputs such as a seeder, weeder or multipurpose cultivation instrument, compared to 27 percent, 12 percent and 18 percent, respectively, of men. Low productivity from smallholder farmers comes in part, due to limited access to farming inputs arising in part due to such factors as lack of opportunities to purchase inputs due to physical distance, affordability, and financing (International Finance Corporation, 2018).

Figures 5-1 and 5-2 show some of the training that women smallholder farmers have received under the programme.



Figure 5-1: PAM training Programme beneficiaries in Conservation Agriculture  
Source: Field Survey, 2016



Figure 5-2: PAM training Programme beneficiaries in food preservation Technologies  
Source: Field Survey, 2016

From field observations and focus group discussions with women smallholder farmers it was noted that training in conservation agriculture had improved both the cultivation practices and yields of beneficiary women smallholder farmers as shown in Figure 5-3.



Figure 5-3: Demonstration field on which beneficiaries used Conservation Agriculture (CA)  
Source: Field Data, 2016

From field observations and focus group discussions with women smallholder farmers, it was noted that although the programme trainings in agricultural aspects such as conservation agriculture and animal husbandry had seemingly improved their cultivation practices and yields, their production and food security had not yet improved. This might be explained by lack of provision of programme benefits such as credit

and market support as shown in table 5-2. Research shows that both men and women farmers can benefit from training in agricultural techniques, as well as business management and marketing skills (World Bank & International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, 2009).

Whereas one of the programme activities as stated under component 2 in table 1-1 was stated as “to identify agribusiness enterprises (market channels and supply chains) for possible linkages with female farmers and groups”, based on discussions with beneficiaries and key informants from Senanga DACO’s office and District Community Development Office, it was revealed that there did not exist any form of institutional market linkages for both crops and livestock produce. Marketing and sales of produce was done haphazardly and more informally by the women smallholder farmers themselves. The women revealed that they mostly relied on the Food Reserve Agency (FRA), individual buyers, roadside trading and occasional vegetable sales to the local Nande Basic School which was implementing a Home-grown School Feeding Programme. When verified with key informants from PAM, it was noted that the programme strategy was to link beneficiaries to promoters of food processing and preservation technologies, by first training them in crafting such technologies. It was evident that beneficiaries clearly felt that this was not adequate market support to improve their incomes from sales of agricultural produce. They also saw it as a disconnect between what they produced in large quantities such as vegetables, maize, small livestock and cereals compared to crafting food preservation pots. Figure 5-5 shows food preservation pots and improved cooking stoves that the programme said they provided market for beneficiaries.





Figure 5-4: Food preservation pots and improved cooking stoves  
Source: Field Data, 2016

From interviews with women beneficiaries and observations, in Senanga and in most districts of Western Province, there is a lack of output markets where farmers can sale their produce at competitive prices. The buying price for maize, vegetables, cereals or chickens at the local district markets is often very low. This can be explained by the poor state of the local economy including factors such as high unemployment and lack of industries. Hence, donor interventions that do not provide market benefits to women smallholder farmers may be limited in their goal to achieve women empowerment. Much of the literature in international development and gender equality also acknowledges that involvement of smallholder farmers into markets has enormous potential to improve productivity and rural incomes, which in turn can enhances their food security situation and economic empowerment (Markelova *et al.*, 2009).

#### **5.4 Programme’s Contribution to Empowerment of Smallholder Women Farmers**

Table 5-3 shows how the programme contributed to women empowerment by comparing changes to empowerment dimensions of *agency, structural and relations* before programme implementation and after programme implementation.

Table 5-3: Programme impact on Women Empowerment

Empowerment Dimension	Sub-dimension	Indicator	Before Programme Implementation	After Programme Implementation
Agency	Information/skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Access to information and skills that a woman deems helpful or necessary</li> <li>• Access to trainings</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• An average of 28 percent of smallholder women farmers had received trainings in crop husbandry, crop diseases, human nutrition, book keeping, gender, food processing, HIV/Aids, disaster risk reduction, natural resources management etc</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 32percent had received trainings in human nutrition, food processing, Conservation agriculture, crop husbandry, management of crop diseases, gender equality, vegetable growing, HIV/Aids food preservation etc</li> </ul>
	Decision influence in household	Kind of decisions that women can make over household resources, processes, people, investments, etc	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Not measured</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 20percent of respondents said they make own decisions on farm land use</li> <li>• 52percent said the household makes decisions collectively</li> <li>• 6percent said the husband makes decisions alone</li> </ul>
	Mobility in public space	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Freedom and safety to circulate in public spaces</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 88percent said they are allowed to attend religious events</li> <li>• 49percent said they are allowed to participate in social functions</li> <li>• 85percent said they are free to engage in income generating activities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• From FGDs most respondents said that they were mostly allowed to attend religious and PAM women's group meetings only.</li> </ul>
	Group membership and activism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• degree to which women are free to join groups as a result of their own wishes to do so</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 93percent said they were free to join women's groups after consulting their partners</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 72percent said they were free to join the NORAD Women's Empowerment groups based on self-interest and awareness raised by PAM</li> </ul>
	Material assets owned	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The kinds of material assets (land, goods, animals, crops, money) women have the power to control</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 17percent said they own Barns &amp; scotch carts</li> <li>• 16percent own ploughs, axes, shovels, etc.</li> <li>• 25percent had a mobile phone</li> <li>• 20percent had cattle</li> <li>• 2percent had other livestock such as Sheep, pigs &amp; donkeys</li> <li>• 3percent had chickens</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Only 18percent of women said they own oxcarts</li> <li>• 24percent said they own hoes</li> <li>• 6percent said they own a cell phone</li> <li>• 4percent said they own cattle and goats</li> <li>• None own pigs and donkey</li> <li>• 22percent said they own chickens</li> </ul>
Structural	Market accessibility (labour/credits/goods)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Equitable access to credit, inputs and markets</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Baseline indicated that women faced constrains in accessing inputs, credit and output markets in Senanga and Mongu Districts due to lack of collateral, transport and long distances</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 74percent benefited from inputs such as seed</li> <li>• 72percent benefited from inputs such as fertiliser</li> </ul>

<b>Empowerment Dimension</b>	<b>Sub-dimension</b>	<b>Indicator</b>	<b>Before Programme Implementation</b>	<b>After Programme Implementation</b>
				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Findings from the survey indicate that no respondent (0percent) received market support from the Programme</li> <li>• Survey findings also show that none (0percent) received credit support from the Programme.</li> </ul>
	Political representation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Number of women elected in farmer groups</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 38percent said most farmer groups had women leaders</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Findings from FGDs and key informant interviews showed that all groups under the Programme had women leaders i.e. chairperson, secretary, treasurer</li> </ul>
Relations	New social forms: altered relationships and behaviours	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Social and structural recognition of non-traditional household forms. Generation of new kinds of organizing</li> <li>• new or altered relationships, new kinds of behaviours.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Not measured</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Findings from the FGDs indicated that Husbands and wives now share farm and non-farm activities accordingly</li> </ul>

Source: Field Data, 2016 and EWAP Baseline Study 2013

On the empowerment dimension of agency (a woman's own aspirations and capabilities to make strategic life choices and to act upon them) It was noted that at least 32 percent of Programme beneficiaries had received agricultural trainings which provided them with new economic and social skills. They reported learning about human nutrition, food processing, conservation agriculture and crop husbandry which enabled them to gain social and leadership skills. This shows an improvement in number of women with such skills when compared to only 28 percent who had reported to have received such trainings/skills at Programme baseline.

Regarding women's influence in household decision making, it was found that 20 percent of respondents said they now make own decisions on farm land use with regards to what to plant during the growing season. 52 percent said the household makes decisions collectively and only 6 percent said the husband makes decisions alone. During focus group discussions, women explained that they were now happy that they individually and collectively made decisions as a household on land use, than leaving their spouse to make unilateral decisions. They felt that this ensured that certain crops of their interest were adequately grown ensuring more income and food for the household.

Concerning women's mobility in public space findings from focus group discussions revealed that women were usually allowed to attend religious and PAM women's group meetings by their spouse. They felt this limited their engagement in other off-farm income raising ventures. These findings show that the Programme did not make a tangible contribution to improving women's mobility in public when compared to baseline results were 85 percent said they were allowed to engage in income generating activities by their spouse.

On women's group membership and activism, 72 percent said they were free to join the NORAD Women's Empowerment groups based on self-interest and awareness raised by PAM. This indicates an improvement when compared to baseline stage were 93 percent of respondents said they were only free to join existing women's groups after consulting their spouses, unlike due to their own self-interest. Regarding material assets owned by women, 18 percent of women said they own oxcarts, 24 percent said they own hoes, only 6 percent own a cell phone, 4 percent said they own cattle and goats, 22 percent said they own chickens and none own pigs and donkeys. Compared to baseline, it is evident that the programme did not significantly contribute to empowering women smallholder farmers with assets as earlier envisioned.

On the empowerment dimension of structure, it was found that 74 percent of women smallholder farmers received farming inputs such as seed and 72 percent benefited from inputs such as fertilizer. However, the programme did not provide women with market and credit support. When these results are compared with baseline results, they suggest that women were not economically empowered in terms of access to credit and market support by the Programme. Considering that at Programme baseline, market support and credit access by smallholder women farmers were identified as some of the key constraints to the productivity of women smallholder farmers, the programme should have prioritized the two areas.

Concerning political representation of women in the community, findings from FGDs and key informant interviews showed that all groups under the NORAD Women Empowerment Programme had women smallholder farmers in leadership positions such as the group chairperson, secretary and treasurer. They felt that this gave women a voice and self confidence in the community which changed their social position and how men viewed them. On the empowerment dimension of relations, findings from focus group discussions revealed that there is now gendered changes at the household level as women now share farm and non-farm activities, unlike before when women would undertake most of the activities alone. Further, women now participate as joint decision makers on important household decisions such as land use and income use.

The NORAD Programme contributed to empowerment of women smallholder farmers through making improvements in the agency, structure and relations domain as noted above. Although for the women smallholder farmers of Nande, empowerment to them should have resulted in significant improvements to the three (3) respective empowerment dimensions. They wanted to see significant programme impact than what the Programme contributed. However, women's empowerment differs from culture to culture and context to context. It cannot be understood uniformly across all landscapes. According to Hillenbrand *et al.*, (2015) gender transformative changes that have high impact on women empowerment can be measured by examining changes in the three broad domains of women empowerment hence, what women empowerment might mean to the smallholder women farmers of Nande area of Senanga, might not exactly be the same for others elsewhere. This is what Waller (2014) states that one of the very first steps of impact assessment should be to uncover local women's own definitions and indicators of their empowerment (Waller, 2014).

## **CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **6.1 Conclusion**

The targeting mechanism used to reach Programme beneficiaries posed a high risk of excluding the very poor as it was based on self-targeting approach. Based on findings from this study and lessons learnt from past interventions, donors are normally in a hurry with project implementation. Hence, they find it easy to target women's groups that are already well documented, known to have scored successes in the past, easy to mobilize and work with, than the very poor who have never been empowered, are normally illiterate and very difficult to mobilize.

Women smallholder farmers participating under the NORAD funded Women Empowerment Programme in Senanga have been empowered with benefits including farming inputs and provision of trainings in aspects such as animal husbandry, crop diseases, gender, HIV/AIDs, enterprise training, book keeping and conservation agriculture. This is because provision of farming inputs and trainings improved the women's empowerment dimension of agency. The trainings have empowered women smallholder farmers in terms of knowledge and skills required to improve their agricultural practices. They have also contributed to an increase in their household income levels and improved their livelihoods. However, women have not accrued Programme benefits such as credit and market support. This has affected their economic empowerment by affecting their "agency" and the extent to which they are able to make strategic life choices on matters that affect their lives and act on them.

### **6.2 Recommendations**

This section provides recommendations to address challenges faced by women smallholder farmers in Zambia:

1. To manage targeting risks, the study recommends that once beneficiaries are reached and enrolled into a project, participatory monitoring and beneficiary assessment approach should be undertaken early during implementation. This will provide feedback from the beneficiaries themselves and other key stakeholders on issues around elite capture of project benefits and preference targeting of beneficiaries. Based on data obtained from monitoring, the project manager can make strategic decisions early during implementation to either refine the targeting strategy or inform the project board;

2. To attain women empowerment goals, donor projects should address the agency domain of empowerment by providing women smallholder farmers with high direct economic benefits;
3. Donors should provide women smallholder farmers with new innovations such as increased value addition to their products and assistance with finding profitable off-takers for their produce; and
4. International agricultural development programmes with a goal to empower women smallholder farmers, should clearly include indicators that measure empowerment domains of agency, structural and relations in their baseline and impact indicator reference sheets. This is to ensure that projects clearly demonstrate results and their contribution to the overall project goal.

## REFERENCES

- Agriculture Organization and International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2009 Gender in agriculture sourcebook, Washington DC, World Bank Publications.
- Ahmed, S.S., 2007 Social safety nets in Bangladesh, Background paper for Bangladesh poverty assessment, Washington DC, World Bank Publications.
- Akter, S., Rutsaert, P., Luis, J., Htwe, N.M., San, S.S., Raharjo, B. and Pustika, A., 2017. 'Women's empowerment and gender equity in agriculture: A different perspective from Southeast Asia', *Food Policy*, 69, pp.270-279.
- Alkire, S., Meinzen-Dick, R., Peterman, A., Quisumbing, A., Seymour, G. and Vaz, A., 2013. 'The women's empowerment in agriculture index. *World development*', 52, pp.71-91.
- Alsop, R., & Heinsohn, N. (2005). *Measuring empowerment in*
- Argawal, B 2001 'Participatory Exclusions: Community Forestry and Gender: An Analysis of South Asia and Conceptual Framework', *World Development* Vol. 29, No. 10 pp.1623 – 1648.
- Bali Swain, R., Garikipati, S. and Wallentin, F.Y., 2020. 'Does Foreign Aid Improve Gender Performance in Recipient Countries? *Journal of International Development*', 32(7), pp.1171-1193.
- Barrett, C.B., 2002. *Food Aid Effectiveness: Is the Targeting, Stupid!*. Cornell University Applied Economics and Management Working Paper, (2002-43).
- Beath, A., Christia, F. and Enikolopov, R., 2013. 'Empowering women through development aid: Evidence from a field experiment in Afghanistan. *American Political Science Review*', 107(3), pp.540-557.
- Bonilla, J., Zarzur, R.C., Handa, S., Nowlin, C., Peterman, A., Ring, H., Seidenfeld, D. and Team, Z.C.G.P.E., 2017. 'Cash for women's empowerment? A mixed-methods evaluation of the government of Zambia's child grant program. *World Development*', 95, pp.55-72.
- Chambers, R. and Conway, G. (1992) *Sustainable Rural Livelihoods: Practical Concepts for the 21st Century*, Institute of Development Studies discussion paper 296, Brighton.
- Cornwall, A., 2003. 'Whose voices? Whose choices? Reflections on gender and participatory development', *World development*, 31(8), pp.1325-1342.

CSO 2010. 2010 Census of Population and Housing, National Analytical Report, Lusaka, Central Statistical Office.

CSO 2013. 2010 Census of Population and Housing, Population and Demographic Projections 2011 – 2035, Lusaka, Central Statistical Office.

CSO 2014. 2010 Census of Population and Housing Western Province Analytical Report, Lusaka, Central Statistical Office.

Deere, C.D., Oduro, A.D., Swaminathan, H. and Doss, C., 2013. 'Property rights and the gender distribution of wealth in Ecuador, Ghana and India. The Journal of Economic Inequality', 11(2), pp.249-265.

FAO 2011. The State of Food and Agriculture 2010 – 2011. Women in Agriculture: Closing the Gender Gap. Rome, Italy.

FAO 2013. The Gender and Equity Implications of Land-Related Investments on Land access, Labour and Income-Generating Opportunities. A Case Study of Selected Agricultural Investments in Zambia. Rome, Italy

Farnworth, C.R. and Munachonga, M., 2010. Gender Aware Approaches in Agricultural Programmes—Zambia Country Report. A special study of the Agricultural Support Programme (ASP), UTV Working Paper, 8.

Gopal, N., M.J Williams, M. Porter, K. Kusakabe and P.S. Choo. 2014. 'Gender in Aquaculture and Fisheries: Navigating Change', Asian Fisheries Science (Special Issue) 27S. 268 pp.

Grown, C., Addison, T. and Tarp, F., 2016. 'Aid for gender equality and development: Lessons and challenges', Journal of International Development, 28(3), pp.311-319.

GRZ (2010) Senanga District Situational Analysis, Government Printers, Lusaka.

GRZ (2017) Seventh National Development Plan (SNDP), Lusaka, Ministry of National Development Planning.

Hillenbrand E, Karim N, Mohanraj P and Wu D. 2015. Measuring gender transformative change: A review of literature and promising practices. CARE USA. Working Paper

International Finance Corporation., 2018. Working with Smallholders: A Handbook for Firms Building sustainable Supply Chains. Washington, DC, World Bank.

- Johnson, N., Balagamwala, M., Pinkstaff, C., Theis, S., Meinsen-Dick, R. and Agnes, Q., 2018. 'How do agricultural development projects empower women? Linking strategies with expected outcomes. *Journal of Gender, Agriculture and Food Security (Agri-Gender)*', 3(302-2019-3652), pp.1-19.
- Kabeer, N (2005). 'Gender equality and women's empowerment: a critical analysis of the third Millennium Development Goal. *Gender and Development Vol. 13, No, 1*, pp. 13-24.
- Kabeer, N 2001. 'Reflections on the measurement of women's empowerment', In Sisask, Anne (ed.) *Discussing Women's Empowerment-Theory and Practice*. Sida studies no. 3. Stockholm: Novum Grafiska AB, pp. 17-54.
- Kabeer, N. 1999. 'Resources, agency, achievements: Reflections on the measurement of women's empowerment. *Development & Change*', 30(3) 435–464.
- Kabeer, N. and Natali, L., 2013. 'Gender equality and economic growth: Is there a win-win'? *IDS Working Papers*, 2013(417), pp.1-58.
- Kibria, M. G. and R. Mowla. 2006. 'Sustainable aquaculture development: Impacts on the social livelihood of ethnic minorities in northern Vietnam with emphasis on gender. In: *Global Symposium on Gender and Fisheries: Seventh Asian Fisheries Forum*', 1-2 December 2004. Penang, Malaysia (eds. P.S. Choo, S.J. Hall and M.J. Williams), pp. 7-14. WorldFish Center.
- Kwashimbisa, M.; Puskur, R., 2014. *Gender situational analysis of the Barotse Floodplain*, CGIAR Research Program on Aquatic Agricultural Systems, Penang, Worldfish.
- Lanz, K., Bieri, S. and Fankhauser, L., 2012. *Critical Gender Issues with Regard to Food, Land, and Water: A Compendium for Policy-makers, NGOs, and Researchers*.
- Malapit, H., Quisumbing, A., Meinzen-Dick, R., Seymour, G., Martinez, E.M., Heckert, J., Rubin, D., Vaz, A., Yount, K.M., Phase, G.A.A.P. and Team, S., 2019. Development of the project-level Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (pro-WEAI). *World development*, 122, pp.675-692.
- Markelova, H., Meinzen-Dick, R., Hellin, J. and Dohrn, S., 2009. Collective action for smallholder market access. *Food policy*, 34(1), pp.1-7.
- Mehra, R. and Rojas, M.H., 2008. Women, food security and agriculture in a global marketplace. *International Center for Research on Women (ICRW)*, pp.1-20.

Molyneux, M., 2007. 'The chimera of success: Gender ennui and the changed international policy environment. *Feminisms in development: Contradictions, contestations and challenges*', 9, p.227.

Ngulube, M.N. and Turnbull, M., 2012. *Aid and Women's Economic Empowerment in Zambia*.

Okali, C., 2011, Achieving transformative change for rural women's empowerment. In Expert paper prepared for the Expert Group Meeting, 'Enabling rural women's economic empowerment: Institutions, opportunities and participation', Accra, UN Women.

Otekunrin, O.A., Momoh, S. and Ayinde, I.A., 2019. 'Smallholder farmers' market participation: concepts and methodological approach from Sub-Saharan Africa. *Current Agriculture Research Journal*', 7(2), p.139.

Oumer, A.M., Tiruneh, W.G. and Tizale, C.Y., 2014. 'Empowering smallholder women farmers through participatory seed potato management: Lessons from Welmera District, Ethiopia. *Journal of Sustainable Development*', 7(5), p.93.

Peterman, A., Behrman, J.A. and Quisumbing, A.R., 2014. 'A review of empirical evidence on gender differences in nonland agricultural inputs, technology, and services in developing countries. *Gender in agriculture*', pp.145-186.

practice—Structuring analysis and framing indicators. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.

Prato, B. and Longo, R., 2012. 'Empowerment of poor rural people through initiatives in agriculture and natural resource management. *Poverty Reduction and Pro-Poor Growth: The Role of Empowerment*', pp.51-78.

Quisumbing, A.R. and Pandolfelli, L., 2010. 'Promising approaches to address the needs of poor female farmers: Resources, constraints, and interventions', *World development*, 38(4), pp.581-592.

Quisumbing, A.R., Rubin, D., Manfre, C., Waithanji, E., Van den Bold, M., Olney, D., Johnson, N. and Meinzen-Dick, R., 2015. 'Gender, assets, and market-oriented agriculture: learning from high-value crop and livestock projects in Africa and Asia. *Agriculture and human values*', 32(4), pp.705-725.

Rajaratnam, S., Cole, S.M., Fox, K.M., Dierksmeirer, B., Puskur, R., Zulu, F., Jiau, T.S. and Situmo, J., 2015. Social and gender analysis report: barotse floodplain, western province, zambia.

Ransom, E. and Bain, C., 2011. 'Gendering agricultural aid: an analysis of whether international development assistance targets women and gender. *Gender & Society*', 25(1), pp.48-74.

Sharp, K., 2001. An Overview of Targeting Approaches for Food-Assisted Programming. CARE USA, PHLS Unit.

Srivastava, P., 2004. Poverty targeting in Asia: Country experience of India (No. 5). ADBI Discussion paper.

Tanwir, M. and Safdar, T., 2013. 'The rural woman's constraints to participation in rural organizations. *Journal of International Women's Studies*', 14(3), pp.210-229.

Verboom, W.C. and Brunt, M.A., 1970. An ecological survey of Western Province, Zambia, with special reference to the fodder resources, The grasslands and their development.

Walingo, M.K., 2009. Role of livestock projects in empowering women smallholder farmers for sustainable food security in rural Kenya. *African Journal of Food, Agriculture, Nutrition and Development*, 9(7).

Waller, M.K., 2014. Empowering women through savings groups: a study from the wellness and agriculture for life advancement (WALA) programme, Baltimore, Catholic Relief Services.

World Bank and IBRD (2009) Gender in Agriculture Sourcebook, Washington DC, World Bank Publications.

## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX I: Interview Schedule For Smallholder Farmers

#### INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SMALLHOLDERS

No.....

*INTRODUCTION: Good morning/afternoon. My name is Konnie Josphat from the University of Zambia. I am conducting a research on smallholder women empowerment: The case of the Norwegian Agricultural Programme in Senanga. Your participation is purely voluntary and all information you provide will be treated in a strictly confidential manner. You may withdraw your participation at any time whenever you feel so. If you need any clarification or help please feel free to contact my supervisors Dr. P. Nyanga and Dr. W. Nchito, School of Natural Sciences, Department of Geography and Environmental Studies; University of Zambia, P.O. Box. 32379, Lusaka*

#### SECTION A

---

##### 1.0 Basic Information

---

1.1 District Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Sex of H. Head: 1) Male \_\_\_ 2) Female \_\_\_\_\_

1.2 Name of Smallholder Farmer: \_\_\_\_\_

1.3 Sex of Smallholder farmer: 1) Male \_\_\_ 2) Female \_\_\_\_\_

1.4 Marital status of Smallholder farmer [ ]

1) Single 2) Married 3) Widowed/Widower 4) Separated

1.5 What is your level of education? [ ]

1) Primary 2) Basic 3) High 4) Tertiary 5) None

1.6 What is your household Size? [ ]

1.7 How much is your household's monthly income?

- 1) ZMK200 2) ZMK300 3) ZMK400 4) ZMK500 5) Other (*specify*) [      ]

1.8 How many hectares is your farm plot?

- 1) 1ha 2) 2ha 3) 3ha 4) 4ha 5) 5ha 6) Other (*specify*) [      ]

1.9 Who decides on farm land-use?

- 1) Wife 2) Husband 3) Father 4) Mother 5) Household 6) Alone

1.10 What land use types are there at your farm plot? [      ]

- 1) Crop Fields 2) Vegetable Gardens 3) Livestock Portion 4) Fruit Trees 5) Other (*specify*)

1.11 Does your household possess any of the following livelihood assets?

Assets	Tick <i>applicabl</i> <i>e</i>	HH owning	Per cent	Average total value of asset (ZMK)	Ownership ( <i>tick</i> )	
					man	woma n
Ox-carts						
Cultivators						
Ridging plough						
Hoes						
Rippers						
Planters						
Sprayer						
Cell phones						
Tractors						
Hammer mill						
Hand dug well						
Brick house						
Thatched house						
Solar panel						
Others ( <i>specify</i> )						
<b>Total</b>						

1.12 Are you keeping any livestock? [      ]

1) Yes

2) No

1.13 If yes, fill in the blank spaces or tick were appropriate

	Type of animals	<i>tick applicable</i>	Average number owned	Average number sold (2015-2016)	Income (ZMK)	Ownership status	
						man	woman
1	Chicken						
2	goats						
3	Pigs						
4	Cow						
5	Donkey						
6	Ducks						
7	Sheep						
8	Guinea fowl						
9	Others (specify)						
	<b>Total</b>						

## SECTION B

### 2.0 Institutional Affiliations and Conditions

2.1 List all institutions or Programmes you are a member of?

Institutions	Members	Selection criteria	Conditions for accruing benefits
PAM			
CONCERN			

FOOD SECURITY PACK			
KEEPERS ZAMBIA			
OTHERS			

## SECTION C

---

### 3.0 Activities and Benefits

---

3.1 List below all farm and no-farm activities you pursue throughout the year? *Tick applicable*

Activities	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
<b>Women</b>												
Cultivation Field clearing												
Ridging of Field												
Planting Field Crops												
Weeding of Field Crops												
Spraying of Field Crops												
Harvesting Field Crops												
Stocking of Field Crops												

Selling of Field Crops												
Marketing of Field Crops												
Fish mongering												
Selling Milk												
Collecting Grass												
Knitting Brooms												
Cutting Reeds (Mashasha)												
Selling Reeds (Mashasha)												
Collecting Wild Fruits												
Selling Wild Fruits												
Collecting Mushroom												
Selling Mushroom												
Collecting Wild fruits												
Selling Wild Fruits												
Hand Crafts												
Trading												
Wage labour												
HH Choes												
<b>Men</b>												
Cultivation Field												
Land clearing												
Ridging of Field												
Planting Field Crops												

Weeding of Field Crops												
Spraying of Field Crops												
Harvesting Field Crops												
Stocking of Field Crops												
Marketing of Field Crops												
Selling of Field Crops												
Marketing of Field Crops												
Selling fish												
Collecting Grass												
Kniting brooms												
Collecting mushroom												
Selling mushroom												
Fishing												
Fishing mongering												
Collecting fiber												
Selling Fiber												
Collecting Timber												
Selling Timber												
Cutting Reeds												
Selling Reeds												
Making Reed Mats												
Selling Reed Mats												
Charcoal Business												

Making Hand Crafts												
Building dwellings												
Clearing vegetable Gardens												
Planting Vegetables												
Weeding Vegetable Gardens												
Spraying Vegetable Gardens												
Watering Vegetable Gardens												
Harvesting Vegetables												
Marketing Vegetables												
Wage labour												
Trading												
Feeding Cattle												
Selling Cattle												

3.2 List below all farm and no-farm activities you pursue under PAM throughout the year?

*Tick applicable*

Activities	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
<b>Women</b>												
Land Clearing of Cultivation Field												
Ridging of Field												
Planting Field Crops												

Weeding of Field Crops												
Spraying of Field Crops												
Harvesting Field Crops												
Stocking of Field Crops												
Selling of Field Crops												
Marketing of Field Crops												
Selling fish												
Collecting Grass												
Knitting brooms												
Collecting mushroom												
Selling mushroom												
Nutrition Trainings												
Agribusiness Trainings												
C.A Trainings												
Cook Stoves making												
Zia Pot Making												
<b>Men</b>												
Cultivation Field Land clearing												
Ridging of Field												
Planting Field Crops												

Weeding of Field Crops												
Spraying of Field Crops												
Harvesting Field Crops												
Stocking of Field Crops												
Marketing of Field Crops												
Selling of Field Crops												
Marketing of Field Crops												
Selling fish												
Collecting Grass												
Kniting brooms												
Collecting mushroom												
Selling mushroom												
Fishing												
Collecting fiber												
Collecting Timber												
Building dwellings												
Clearing vegetable Gardens												
Planting Vegetables												
Weeding Vegetable Gardens												
Spraying Vegetable Gardens												

Watering Vegetable Gardens												
Harvesting Vegetables												
Marketing Vegetables												
Nutrition Trainings												
Agribusiness Trainings												
C.A Trainings												
Zia Making												
Cook Stoves Making												

3.3 Which of the above activities were your sources of income in the past one year?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

—

3.4 Indicate what common crops you grow in the table below?

Crop	Tick applicable	Grown by		Total hectarage under crop	Control of land (tick applicable)		Average harvest Per HH (kg)	Income from sales (2015-2016)
		male	female		male	female		
Sweet potatoes								
Groundnuts								
Rice								
Cassava								
Cowpeas								

Sorghum									
Millet									
Maize									
Orange Maize									
Vegetables									
Others (specify)									

3.5 Which of these crops are harvested throughout the year and which are seasonal? *Tick applicable*

Crops	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Sweet potatoes												
Groundnuts												
Rice												
Cassava												
Cowpeas												
Sorghum												
Millet												
Maize												
Orange Maize												
Vegetables												
Others (specify)												

3.6 *Indicate or tick applicable* what benefits you accrue from any Institutional Programme Activities you participate in.

**1. Training Benefits**

Type of training	Attendance per session		# of trainings per person/per year		Location of trainings		Training provider		Conditions for accessing training activity	
	men	women	men	women	village level	other location	Pam	Non - Pam (specify)	men	women
Human Nutrition										
Food Processing										
Conservation Agriculture										
Crop Husbandary										
Mgt of Crop Diseases										
Gender										
Vegetable growing										
HIV/AIDS										

Others (Specify)										
<b>Total</b>										

## 2. Market Benefits (output market)

Target market	Source of market support ( <i>tick</i> )		Agricultural items			Conditions to access market support	
	Pam	Non-Pam ( <i>specify</i> )	Garden crops	Field crops	Other items ( <i>specify</i> )	men	women
District centres							
FRA							
Road side trading							
Brief case business man							
Boarding schools							
Other ( <i>specify</i> )							

### 3. Access To Farming Inputs

Inputs	Source of inputs		Approximate amount (Kg) received	Conditions for accessing inputs	
	Pam	Non-Pam ( <i>specify</i> )		men	women
Seed					
Fertiliser					
Other ( <i>specify</i> )					

### 4. Access To Credit

Source of credit	<i>tick applicable</i>	Average amount applied (ZMK)	Average amount received (ZMK)	Intended use of credit			Conditions for accessing credit	
				Land preparation	Input purchase	Other ( <i>specify</i> )	women	men
Farmer's Co-operative								
PAM								
Non-PAM ( <i>specify</i> )								

**“Thank you for your attention”**

## APPENDIX II: Focus Group Discussion Guide With Project Beneficiaries

**INTRODUCTION:** *Good morning/afternoon. My name is Konnie Josphat from the University of Zambia. Thank you all for coming for the discussion. I would like to talk to you about your experiences with the Norwegian Agricultural Programme. I would also like to assure you that everything we discuss will remain confidential and will only be used for the purposes of this research. Would you like to take part in these discussions? I thank you for accepting to be part of these discussions.*

Number of FGD Participants by sex: ...Male and.....Female

### DISCUSSION

1. How did you join the PAM Programme?
2. How did you come to learn about the Programme?
3. What were the requirements for you to join the Programme?
4. Did all women in your community join the Programme?
5. If not, why?
6. What livelihood activities do you pursue throughout the year?
7. List down all benefits you accrue from all such Programme activities?
8. How much are you benefiting from such Programme activities?
9. Which benefits accrue to only some small holders?
10. Why?
11. Are all smallholders benefiting equally from the Programme?
12. If not, why?
13. How are you expected to participate for you to realise benefits from the Programme?
14. How has your income improved since you joined the Programme?
15. Which Programme activities rewards you most of your household income?
16. How has the Programme improved your food security situation?
17. What are some of the causes of food insecurity in this community?
18. How has the Programme helped you to cope in periods of food shortages?
19. Which stresses and shocks are you normally exposed to?

20. How has been your response to such stresses and shocks in the past 10 years?
21. Do you have any other questions or concerns?

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME**

**APPENDIX III: Photos From The Nande Project Area, Senanga District Western Province**

