

**ACCESS TO FERTILIZER SUPPORT PROGRAMME IN  
NAKONDE, ZAMBIA FROM 2002 TO 2006: A GENDER  
PERSPECTIVE**

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**BY  
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Studies**

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**LUSAKA**



**2010**

## DECLARATION

I Frank Siame hereby declare that this dissertation,

- a. Represents my own work.
- b. Has not previously been submitted for a degree at this or any other University  
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**APPROVAL**

This dissertation of Frank Siame is approved as fulfilling the partial requirement for the award of degree of Master of Arts in Gender Studies by the University of Zambia.

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## ABSTRACT

The Zambian government through the fertilizer support programme (FSP) aimed at reducing poverty among small-scale farmers. The programme was introduced in 2002 with an initial 50% subsidy later increased to 60% by 2007 and during 2008-2009 farming season it was at 75%. The study aimed at determining the extent to which the government fertilizer support programme has benefited small-scale farmer in Nakonde District. The main objective was to determine factors affecting small-scale farmers' access to and control over inputs from FSP. The four specific objectives were: to assess the proportion of FSP beneficiaries by sex; to establish small-scale farmers income levels effect on access and control over inputs from FSP; to examine the extent to which policy guidelines on FSP contributed to small-scale farmer's access to and control over inputs from FSP; and to assess how knowledge about the programme affected women's access to inputs from FSP.

Primary data were collected using in-depth interviews and focus group discussions whereas secondary data were obtained by reviewing registers from cooperatives and agricultural offices. The descriptive design was used for the purpose of understanding socio-cultural process such as social construct of femininity; the perception of the nature of women in the study area; and power relation in the family and in the public sphere and the underlying assumptions that explain them. The design helped in understanding factors that limit female small-scale farmers' access to and control over inputs from FSP.

The findings showed that women's access to inputs from FSP was lower than that of men. Similarly women's control over Agricultural resources such as inputs from FSP and land was less. Traditional patriarchal values and cultural beliefs of the local people cited above favoured men than women. Traditional patriarchal values influenced married women's access to and control over inputs from FSP negatively but favoured unmarried women. In addition the WID approach the programme adopted to integrate women in patriarchal structures affected women access negatively because cooperatives accepted heads of households, traditionally expected to be men. The other aspect that effected women's access negatively was government failure to give guidelines to both agricultural and cooperatives officials on the implementation of the programme. Lack of guidelines

resulted in Agricultural and Cooperative officials using methods that suited their situation, and cooperatives using different methods to implement the FSP. There were also disparities in the level of income control between women and men. Women's low levels of control especially married women, was caused by factors such as; long distances to the market; bureaucratic procedures during the sale of maize to FRA; and low levels of formal education. Women were preferred to keep the savings from the sale of agricultural produce. However, the majority of men allowed their spouses to keep revenue for buying inputs for the next season and not surplus returns.

In order to improve women's access and control over inputs from FSP, the study recommends that: Firstly, bureaucratic procedures in the form of registration during sharing and distribution of inputs and the sale of maize and, payments for the maize sold to FRA should be removed. Secondly, the government of Zambia should give policy guidelines that will compel District Agriculture officers and Cooperatives to choose equal numbers of female and male beneficiaries to increase women participation. Gender and women issues should be incorporate in the programme as a way of promoting gender mainstreaming in cooperative by the government.

## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this work to the following people: My wife for enduring my absence during my studies. My children Mpazi Siame, Nambela Nakamba and Salifyanji Nakamba, my mother Violet Mwila who suffered in many ways due to my inability to provide for them while pursuing the programme when they desperately needed support. Mr. Flywell Mpazi Siame my late father who was very much affected when I failed to start the programme due to his illness and said “my son you will attain a Masters degree.” May his soul rest in peace.

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## Acronyms

CSO	-	Central Statistical Office.
DACO	-	District Agricultural Coordinator
FAO	-	Food and Agricultural Organisation
FRA	-	Food Reserve Agency
FSP	-	Fertilizer Support Programme.
GAD	-	Gender and Development
GIDD	-	Gender in Development Division
GRZ	-	Government Republic of Zambia
IFAD	-	International Fund for Agricultural Development
NGO	-	Non-governmental Organization
PRSP	-	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
SAP	-	Structural Adjustment Programme.
UN	-	United Nations
UNDP	-	United Nations Development Plan
USAID	-	United States Agency for International Development.
WAD	-	Women and Development
WID	-	Women in Development
UNECA	-	United National Economic Commission for Afric

## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

### **1.1 Overview**

There is a growing recognition that equal opportunities for women and men and improving women's status are necessary for achieving sustainable development Worldwide. The Zambian nation has recognized that equal participation of women and men in the development process is important for poverty reduction (GRZ, 2002). The Zambian national gender policy and the third United Nations Millennium Development Goal demonstrate a synergy of national and global commitment to elimination of gender imbalances in all areas of development in order to reduce poverty among women who constitute a major segment of the poor. This is further strengthened by the mandate of the United Nations that requires governments to ensure that development programmes, including economic reform programmes, mainstream gender in planning and implementation of development programmes.

The researcher decided to examine women small-scale farmers' access to and control over inputs from the fertilizer support programme (FSP), under the government of Zambia sponsorship. This is important because it can help reveal the extent to which the programme has helped improve the lives of women small-scale farmers.

### **1.2 Background**

Since 1970s, studies have shown that agricultural policies and rural development programs have tended to discriminate against women or denied them equal access to productive resources (Kajoba, 1993). Studies conducted by Bardouille, 1992, have also shown that gender roles and relations, institutional, administrative, constraints *have negative effect on women's access and control over agricultural resources such as fertilizer and land.*

The 1990s structural adjustment policies forced on African governments were seen to have positive impact on the rural women's economic situation. The assumptions were that the economic situation for rural women was changing for the better. Unfortunately

this has not been supported by most recent research that have clearly demonstrated that the structural adjustment policies, most third world countries pursued to restore macroeconomic balances and to provide adequate amounts of foreign exchange to service foreign debts are having particularly negative effect on the poorer segment of the population among whom the majority are women and children (Hay and Stichter 1995). The structural adjustment policies forced on African governments led to Zambia's 1991-2001 agricultural reforms. Regrettably, Zambia's agricultural reforms failed to provide sufficient incentives for increased output by farmers and discouraged private-sector led agricultural development especially in inputs. The growth of the agriculture sector was seriously threatened by the lowered competitiveness of the sector, due to high production costs arising from the high prices of inputs especially fertilizer (GRZ, 2002). This led to food insecurity in most rural population rendering women more vulnerable as they are the most disadvantaged group. For example, 1998 research revealed that 61 per cent of female-headed households experienced food shortages compared to 52 per cent of male-headed households (CSO, 2003).

One fundamental requirement of poverty reduction outlined in the poverty reduction strategy paper (PRSP, 2002) is the attainment of gender equality and good governance, which entails equal participation by both women and men at all levels and the elimination of the HIV/AIDS pandemic (GRZ, 2002). To ensure national and regional food security through dependable annual production of adequate supplies of basic foodstuffs, through the PRSP, the Zambian government and civil society have made a commitment to provide a favorable environment for women and men to have equal access to and control over resources. In addition, they advocate for equal enjoyment and benefits by both sexes from opportunities in economic and social structures; policies and means of production and in decision making processes (GRZ, 2002). However, Hay and Stichter (1995) observed that patriarchal relations in Africa, south of the Sahara still govern the economic behaviours of most rural households. Men control and manage most agricultural resources namely, land; livestock; export crops; cash crops; tools; and means of transport; purchased inputs; and credit. On the other hand, men still expect that their wives little food crops and small cash earnings to be sufficient to meet most of the family's daily consumption needs. Similarly data

collected from three hybrid maize production samples in Northern Province, (Moore, 1994), showed that male household heads claimed to control 52% of all the cultivated land used by the household, wives claimed 24% and a further 24% was said to be jointly controlled. In terms of control over crops household heads said they controlled 88% of the hybrid maize area, 54% of the local maize area, 20% of permanent finger millet area, 30% of the *citemene* finger millet area, 17% of the cassava area, and 56% of the beans area. Wives had greatest control over *citemene* finger millet (38% of the area), and cassava 47% of the area. Some crops such as cassava and pumpkins were classified as women's whereas others notably maize were classified as men's crops. Further more, a study carried out by Keller and Chuzu (1985), on the situation of women in Northern Province of Zambia, revealed that women are normally detached from their own matrilineal kin group and are dependent on their husbands and in-laws for access to resources due to ethnic variations. These classifications are part of the rhetorical structures that form the basis for household decision-making and resource allocation in Northern Province Zambia (Moore, 1994).

Another constraint women in Zambia faced according to Bardouille, 1992, was limited access to land. He sited cultural factors such as women's marital status and whether women have children that were used as the basis for land allocation to have negative impact on women's access to land. Similarly, Hay and Stichter, 1995, points out that, traditional practices, especially the belief that land must be controlled by men of a local lineage group, continue to limit women small-scale farmers' ability to make efficient market-oriented choices in deciding what to plant, what to sell, and what inputs to invest in. It was equally noticed that state institutions, such as producers, cooperatives and export crop marketing agencies, reinforce patriarchal dominance over women farmer's labour and earnings (ibid). The study also revealed that, often only heads of households are accepted as members of cooperatives. This excluded most women from access to the improved seed, agricultural advice, fertilizer, pesticides, tools, credit, and crop payment that are commonly dispensed only through cooperatives (ibid).

Similarly the study conducted by Chilivumbo (1985) discovered that, in 1980, the official agency, the Agricultural Finance Company in Zambia, granted loans to only

4.2% of women headed-households compared to 14.8% of the male headed-households. In contrast, a CSO (2000-2003) survey report exposed that the large proportion of households are female headed who in most cases are the poor and struggling farmers who need assistance but they are excluded. Therefore, it is important to examine the extent to which small-scale females farmers have access and control over fertilizer under FSP.

### **1.3 Research Questions**

#### **1.3.1 Main question**

What factors contribute to women's and men's access and control over inputs from FSP?

#### **1.3.2 Sub-questions**

1. To what extent do income levels affect small-scale female farmer's access and control over inputs from FSP?
2. To what extent do policy guidelines on FSP contribute to women's access and control over inputs from FSP?
3. How does knowledge about FSP contribute to women's access to inputs from FSP

### **1.4: Objectives**

#### **1.4.1 Main objective**

To determine factors affecting small-scale farmers' access and control over inputs from FSP.

#### **1.4.2 Specific objectives**

1. To assess the proportion of FSP beneficiaries by sex.
2. To establish small-scale farmers' income levels' effect on access and control over inputs from FSP.

3. To examine the extent to which policy guidelines on FSP contribute to small-scale farmer's access and control over inputs from FSP.
4. To assess how knowledge about the program affects women's access to fertilizer under FSP.

### **1.5 Significance of the Study**

The study will bring to light constraints women face in accessing fertilizer under government FSP. Policy makers, implementers, and other stakeholders will use the information to improve women's access to fertilizer under FSP.

### **1.6 Operational Definitions**

**Gender Gap or Disparity:** Refers to differences between women and men in relation to how they are accessing or benefiting from FSP.

**Gender Perspective:** Refers to social structures and attributes influencing women and men in accessing fertilizer under FSP.

**Gender Relations:** Refers to social relations between the couple in terms of how power is shared in decision-making.

**Gender Roles:** Refers to responsibilities that the couple assigned to each other that are influenced by cultural, political, religious or economic situation.

**Low Income:** Refers to inability to pay the sum the government is asking farmers to contribute in order to access fertilizer under FSP.

**Low Knowledge:** refers to inability to access information about the programme.

### **1.7 Limitation of the Study**

The research used purposeful sampling in the identification of the participating cooperatives. The purposeful sampling method was based on the judgment of the researcher regarding the characteristics of the representative sample. The strategy was to select the sample that was judged to have been typical of the population that was

under investigation. However, purposeful sampling method excluded cooperatives that could have enriched the data that was collected.

The time for the research was not adequate to fully get the much desired information from all necessary members of the cooperatives. In some cases the researcher was made to revisit a participating cooperative three times to get a representative sample of the cooperative. This resulted in not getting the desired number of members of a cooperative before choosing the sample from such a cooperative.

## **1.8 Organisation of the Dissertation**

This dissertation has five chapters. Chapter one discusses the background of the study before it presents the research questions, objectives and significance of the study. It further presents the operational definitions and limitations

Chapter two discusses the reviewed literature that was found to be related to the study in an effort to bring out similarities and differences clearly.

Chapter three deals with description of the methodology that was used in the data collection process of the study. The chapter presents the research design, study site, study population, study sample, sampling procedures and data collection method and techniques. The same chapter gives the method of analyzing data that was used. Finally the chapter presents data quality by discussing measures taken after the pilot study.

Chapter four presents the analysis of findings. The chapter analyses the general characteristics of the respondents before analyzing data collected basing on each objective of the study.

Chapter five discusses the findings. Firstly, effects of general characteristics on women's access are discussed. Secondly the effects of the finding of each objective on women's access and control are discussed before giving the conclusion of the study and making recommendations on what should be done to improve women's access and control over inputs from FSP.

## **Chapter 2: Literature Review**

### **2.1 Introduction**

The state of affairs of rural women is comparable in most of Third World Countries including Zambia. This chapter present issues that were raised from feminist theories and a review of the literature related to the study. Section 2.2 discusses the theories of patriarch and some post-modern theories. Section 2.3 the literature on the Agricultural policies in Africa and how they have influenced women participation in rural Agricultural development programmes. Section 2.4, present the three Gender Development Models and their different approach on the implementation of development programmes. The third section looks at studies on constraints that hinder women level of participation such as attitudes, culture, traditional beliefs and patriarch values. The 5<sup>th</sup> section discusses constraints that affect women participation in agricultural development projects with particular emphasis on Northern Province of Zambia. Finally the last section discusses important issues raised in literature in relation to the study.

### **1.2 Issues Raised From the Feminist Theories**

In an attempt to study factors influencing small-scale farmers' access and control over inputs from FSP a gender perspective, it was necessary to look at the different theoretical approaches in the feminist discourse. This study will highlight the various theories that have tried to explain the status of women in society. The study concentrated on theories of patriarchy and some post-modern theories.

According to feminist analysis the social relation of gender is one in which women are treated as inferior and subordinated to men and thus gender division are exploitative and oppressive. Gender differences are said to be rooted in social relations and give rise to social inequalities.

The term "patriarchy" has been used within post 1960s feminism to refer to the systematic organization of male supremacy and female subordination. This led to

radical feminists to think patriarchy emphasizes that women as a group are subordinated and oppressed by men as a group. In that, patriarchy is seen as male control over women reproductive capacity through violence, both domestic and sexual. Women and men are considered to be opposite, that is, seeing patriarchy as male power over women. Furthermore, patriarchy is seen by radical feminists as the existence of a structure of hierarchical relations between the sexes.

The theories of patriarchy are explained by three main approaches. The first approach is the historical approach. In the historical approach feminists have used the term patriarchy to identify the historical evolving systems of male domination. For instance, it is revealed that masculinity and femininity are determined by how a given society treats and positions woman and man within social structures including the family which justified and continues to be used to endorse women's subordination (Lerner, 1986). She points out that women were crucial and central players in creation of society but that their contribution has been marginalized in history and contemporary society. This exclusion of women from history affected the psychology of men and women.

According to Lerner (1986), the patriarchy system came about through changes in kingship organization and economic relations coupled with religion and state bureaucracies, thus formulating gender as a stable and fixed category framed by the specific historic context. An inquiry to the origins of patriarchy has led many feminists back to the effort of Fredrick Engels, who in his work "the origin of the family, private property and the state," attempt to give an explanation to the world historic conquer of the female sex. Engels (1988) argued that women lost power amid the historical shift in significance of production that is the production of tools, food and commodities of exchange over reproduction (reproduction of the species, childbirth and child rearing). Some feminists have questioned the women's subordination and have challenged the notion that any conclusive evidence can be produced about the roots of patriarchy.

The second approach is the materialistic approach. This approach seeks to elaborate an explanation of how patriarchy has managed to maintain the oppression of women by controlling the sexual division of labour in societies. In line with Marxist theory,

Delphy (n.d.) in her analysis of the expropriation of women's labour by husbands within the household, the family mode of production in which woman's labour is exploited is not different from the industrial mode of production (capitalist exploitation). Delphy (n.d.) also argues that men benefit from women's provision of domestic services and unpaid child rearing within the family and also their production of certain goods for use and exchange.

However, she has been criticized for misuse of the Marxist concept, for her generalization based on French peasant households to elaborate the theory of patriarchy. Secondly for reducing marriage to a labour contract ignoring ideologies of love and romance which play a role in the decision to marry (Barrett and Macintosh, 1979).

Like Delphy, (n.d.), Walby, 1986-1990 (n.d.) explains patriarchy from a materialistic point of view. Her argument is based on an analysis of the six structures of patriarchal society namely employment, household production, the state, sexuality, violence and culture. She outlines the way the structures have changed from private form in nineteenth century based upon household's production to their more public forms in the twentieth century. She believes that in all these six structures women have been oppressed. Walby fails to explain what exactly constitutes a structure of patriarchy. In her analysis some structures are more clearly conceptualized than others, for instance, paid employment and culture.

The third approach is the psychoanalysis approach. According to Mitchell (1974) psychoanalytic theory could help explain the deep rootedness of patriarchy through an understanding of the unconscious. Psychoanalysis provides the resources for exploring the various ways in which men internalized their gender identity. Mitchell relates to the role of the father in the family to patriarchal power in society more generally. She argues that the broader pattern of patriarchal exchanges of women and men in society are produced within the individuals psyche. According to Mitchell the valuing of the male over the female is something internalized, not as a conscious belief that we have been socialized to accept, but in the formation of our earliest sexual identities which take place through unconscious as well as the conscious process (Staces, 1993, 56)

The psychoanalysis approach has been criticized on the basis that women can not be totally and successfully fixed within a patriarchal definition of femininity since identity is often disrupted by the unconscious desires. This approach is also limited by its focus on the psyche and fails to see any political significance in such a psychological based theory of the individual.

Despite the criticism leveled against theories of patriarchy they have contributed generally to our understanding of male female relationship in society. These theories were also important to this study because they were helpful in understanding the origin of sexual division of labour, women's subordination and sex role stereotypes among the small-scale farmers in Nakonde district (Zambia).

There have been arguments among African feminists against generalizing the problems of women. Apart from patriarchy, according to them, women in Africa have also suffered from poverty, colonialism, structural adjustment programme, imperialism and so forth, which may not be the case with other women in industrialized countries. They further pointed out that African women have experienced problems other than patriarchy due to certain aspects of African culture such as polygamy and bridal wealth. Nzono (1995) agrees with the argument of the other feminist in Third World countries that the tendency of national and international development planners to lump all the Third World women together as one category, that is poor and vulnerable, was misleading and patronizing.

According to her, the struggle for democratization in Africa has led to the increase in poverty levels especially among the Third World women. Nzono (1995) argues that the implementation of the world Bank's structural adjustment programme had emasculated many of the advances made by the Third World women in the 1970s and had increasingly thrown many women into the ranks of poor. According to her poverty was linked primarily to the question of women's economic empowerment.

In conclusion, the most important thing to the issues raised from the feminist theories is to understand how patriarch has been used to identify the historical evolving system of male domination, and how valuing of men over women has been socially accepted. It is also important to consider arguments raised by African feminist not to generalize

the problem of women but to look at other factors apart from patriarchy such as poverty, colonialism, imperialism, polygamy and many more for the understanding of women's problems.

## **2.2 Background of National and International Agricultural Programmes**

Studies in most third World countries including those in Africa indicate that agricultural policies and programs favour the male folk and yet the women perform most of the agricultural work on small-scale farms (Kajoba, 1993). Bardouille (1992) argues that resource constraints have a negative impact on the production capacity of the self employed among whom the majority is women in agriculture. Further more, a study carried out by Longwe (1990) on the situation of women in Africa in the post United Nations Women Decade, demonstrated that a high proportion of the development projects in Africa were funded by United Nations (UN) agencies and at policy level the commitment of these agencies was serious. In her report Longwe stated that the actual implementation of the project concerned with women's development had been slow. One of the examples that Longwe gave was the 1994 UNDP survey of all UN agency projects in a sample of third World countries namely: Rwanda, Yemen, Indonesia and Haiti. The findings from all these countries showed a small proportion of projects incorporating women's development. Table 1 below shows part of the findings of the survey.

**Table 1: Degree of Women's Participation in Development Programs (1984)**

Degree of women's participation	Number	Per cent
Project activities which entirely concern women	9	3.5
Project activities designed to include women	33	13.0
Project activities which affect women but provide no direct participation	152	59.8
Project activities of no immediate interest to women	60	23.6

**Source:** Inter-organizational Assessment of women's participation in development evaluation study number 13. 1984, New York: UNDP

Longwe (1990) observed that, a very large proportion of projects (almost 60 per cent) involving women had no provision for the women's direct participation. In addition, only 13 per cent represented projects that were designed to include women. The findings revealed how serious the exclusion of women is in rural development programmes. Another study by Kajoba (1992) revealed that, in Malawi, land reforms that were taking place in the World Bank funded Lilongwe Rural Development Project, in which agriculture commercialization was taking place, the title deeds were being given to "family leaders" or representatives who happen to be men. It was feared that it might deprive Chewa women of their traditional right to own land. This is an indication that rural development efforts in Africa have tended to neglect or undermine the contribution made by women.

Longwe (1990) also observed that women's role as food producers had often been overlooked especially by the UN agencies concerned with promoting agricultural development. Table 2 illustrates clearly how women role was ignored in Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) and International fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) projects in Africa.

**Table 2 Participation of Women in FAO and IFAD Project (1984).**

□ Degree of women's participation	Per cent of project in each category	
	FAO	IFAD
Degree of women's participation		
Projects of exclusive concern to women	4.1	0
Project activities designed to include women	5.4	0
Project activities which affect women but provide no direct participation	45.9	100
Project activities of no immediate interest to women	44.6	0

Source: inter-organizational Assessment of women's participation in development evaluation study number 13. 1984, New York: UNDP

Commenting on table 2 Longwe (1990) was alarmed by the figures for IFAD with all its projects involving women but none of them included direct participation of women. Similarly, FAO had many programs almost 46 per cent, which affected women but provided no direct participation among them. In addition almost 45 per cent of all programs run by FAO had no immediate interest to women. It can be concluded that over 90 per cent of all FAO programs had no deliberate provision for involving women. This gives a clear picture of how various organizations, which were responsible for rural development activities mainly focused on men leaving out women.

Similarly various scholars who have written on "women in development in Africa" have brought out an interesting dimension which portrays most rural development programmes as being biased against the rural women. They found that projects by national and international agencies were designed for men although in the African context, women are typically responsible for cultivating the subsistence food crop; and occupy a large proportion of new rural earning schemes (cash crops, poultry-keeping etc). Hence, in a number of instances adversely affected the household women.

## 2.3 Gender Development Model

The women in development model (WID) originated in the early 1970s among Americans liberal feminists. It gained prominence after the publication of Boserup's (1970) work "*women's role in economic development*" which challenged the modernization theory's assumptions that women's poverty and oppression emanated from their lack of participation in economic development (Visvanathan, 1997; Reeves and Baden, 2000). The argument was that despite invisibility in official economic statistics, women were already involved in productive work (Goetz, 1997). The solution offered by Women in Development (WID) was to integrate women into existing development processes and structures and afford women access to and control over resources (Tinker in Visvanathan, 2002; Reeven and Baden, 2000) so that they are visible in National statistics. This was the basis for the implementation of women only projects and programmes, it was found that such programmes addressed women's practical gender needs such as access to employment, credit, education and health services (Reeven and Baden, 2000). WID outcomes and impacts were improvements in women's material conditions and further marginalization of women in development planning respectively (Goetz, 1997). WID was criticized for advocating for inclusion of women, as clients and recipient of development programmes, into unchallenged existing power structures that oppresses women and ignored their reproductive role (Tinker, in Visvanathan, 2002). Thus in the context of development, WID is not effective at improving women's social and economic power relation to men (Tinker in Visvanathan, 2002).

A new model the women and development (WAD) was developed as an alternative to WID. WAD, an improvement of WID with a Marxist feminist footing became prominent after the 1975. UN conference on women and development held in Mexico considered women's productive and reproductive roles as critical to the development process. Women's marginalization was seen in terms of the exploitation relationship between women and men and considers men as exploiters of women (Munachonga 2004). It encouraged projects parallel to men in income generation activities. On the other hand, the approach took a radical stance of feminism by considering development for women to be possible only if they cut ties with men, who were seen

as exploiters and that there were no signs of them changing (Munachonga, 2004). Impact was seen in increased workload for women because they engaged in unskilled and low paying factory jobs and had to attend to reproductive roles of child rearing and other house chores. It was abandoned on similar grounds as WID.

The gender and development (GAD) model emerged with a more holistic approach than WID and WAD. It acknowledged women's productive and reproductive tasks, and challenged oppressive power structures. GAD focuses on women and men as individuals, assesses gender relations and recognizes the importance of redistributing power between the two groups. It challenges cultural, social and economic privileges of the dominant group (in most cases men) to enable the disadvantaged benefit from the same resources (Goetz, 1997). GAD argues that women's main problems come from the power imbalances between women and men reflected in the gender division of labour, which disproportionately weigh more on women (Reeve and Baden 2006). It stresses the need for women and men to work together as agents of change and not passive recipients of development or assistants. This approach aims at meeting both practical gender needs and strategic gender interests of both women and men by challenging existing division of labour and power relations (Reeves and Baden 2000). With a set of gender analytical tools GAD encourages gender analysis on interventions to unveil roles, needs and constraints in society that confounded measures taken to correct the situation (Goetz, 1997). From a gender perspective poverty can effectively be reduced by using the gender and development (GAD) model. This approach allows for holistic assessment of how women and men in the target population can equally participate and benefit from a programme (Munachonga, 2004). This study will therefore use the GAD approach to analyse how FSP has involved women and men in the programme.

## **2.4 Gender Issues in Zambia**

Zambia as a nation perceives agriculture as a driving engine for national poverty reduction. This is because of its large relation to the national economy and the fact that the majority of the Zambians depend directly or indirectly on agriculture based livelihood (GRZ, 2003). Apart from raising income of small-scale farmers,

agricultural growth is associated with increases in rural non-farm income, which is critical to poverty reduction. However, agricultural performance in the past has been inhibited by many constraints. Keller and Chuzu, (1985) indicated that, within the agricultural development projects in Zambia that were being carried out in which the integration of women was most relevant, there were no precise mechanisms to ensure that women were assisted within the general target group of the small-scale farmers. In fact, of the ten most important bilateral donors, of the time, to Zambia, only four had tried to concretize their national policies to further women's development. Studies carried out by Longwe, (1988) in Zambia on women in development (WID) also demonstrate a similar trend as that from other third world countries.

Longwe (1988) in her report of the consultancy undertaken for the United Nations development programme (UNDP) on the subject "*improved development process in Zambia*" brought out a number constraints hindering women level of participation. Firstly, Longwe (1988) pointed out that the overall findings of the study was that the need for women's increased integration in the development process had been largely overlooked in the UNDP fourth country program in Zambia. The writer stated that the main problem had been the failure to recognize women's issues at the stage of programme and project formulation such that general development projects seemed to have been classified as "not affecting women". Secondly, Longwe brought out the issue of low level of understanding of women's issues amongst the personal concerns with project implementation both within the government administration and the concerned United Nations (UN) agencies. While recognizing that Zambian women play an important role in agriculture and constitute 70% to 80% of subsistence farmers in Zambia.

Regarding the participation in decision-making, rural women tend to be quite visible within their households but not at community level. Their ability to participate in decision making at community level is influenced by factors such as the socialization process, patriarchal systems, and traditional beliefs, which delegate decision making in public to men (GRZ, 2007). In the study of land use in Zambia, Kajoba (1993) revealed that rural women lack access to market support services which limits the amount of cash income they can earn for themselves and their families. Another study

further revealed that, under customary law and practice, men dominate the allocation, inheritance and use of land; women lack control over land but have access and use right to land (GRZ, 2007). However, the agriculture policy in the poverty reduction strategy paper is the mitigation of constraints that currently play directly or indirectly to inhibit agricultural sector players to meet their full production potential (GRZ/PRSP, 2004)

Research has shown that unless specific steps are taken to ensure equal participation of women and men in development projects, women are often excluded because of cultural and legal constraints which they face. A study by Machina, (2005) in Mumbwa district of central Zambia revealed that in mixed sex project men tended to dominate and make decisions that significantly benefited them and marginalized women. Often factors linked to the constraints mentioned include women's lack of decision-making power and money. Due to the above impediments, women fail to benefit from development projects to meet their needs and those of their children (The World Bank "TWB", 2005).

Considering family responsibilities as a constraint in business activities Milimo, (1990) argued that the disadvantageous position of women in agriculture is not due to discriminatory agricultural macro-policies but largely due to the structure of Zambia's rural society as well as certain cultural norms and practices which place women in a subordinate and subservient position to men. He pointed out that such cultural practices socialize women into subordinate roles which become constraint in as far as agricultural services and resources for women are concerned.

In Zambia, the national gender policy identifies a number of critical areas of concerns, which relate to gender issues. These are: unequal power relations between men and women in all spheres of life; limited access to and control over productive resources and social services; minimal participation in political and managerial decision making processes; lack of access to credit, improved technology skills development and training and lack of agricultural extension services for women (GRZ, 2000). All these issues hinder women's full participation in various socio-economic and political spheres and hence limiting their advancement in relation to men.

Despite being the majority of farmers, women in Zambia generally have a lower access to and control over productive resources than men. This prevents them from investing in assets which are needed to increase their agricultural production and raise their income levels (GRZ, 2002b).

The situation is more serious for married women who are treated as minors under the Zambian customary law. Most of them do not independently own assets and property as their husbands do (NGOCC and ZARD, 2004, ILO, 2005). Lack of sustainable income and ownership of assets affects an individual's ability to participate in community activities, which demand payment of fees. Unlike men who are most educated, economically powerful and decision makers, women are disadvantaged when invited to participate in mixed sex activities as they are unable to influence decisions and hence receive less benefits (Hammerton and Sakala, 2005). Gender imbalance in projects have serious implications for equity concerns, economic output, *productivity, food security, child welfare and the well being of society. Overcoming* these biases to achieve the equal participation of men and women requires strategic policy and institutional changes that systematically address the causes of gender inequalities and remove impediments to women's involvement in public life (TWB, 2005).

On education, available statistics indicate that female literacy rate for the 15 to 24 years old has dropped from 71 per cent in the 1990 to 66 per cent in 2002 while for males in the same age range the literacy rates have dropped from 79 per cent to 75 per cent in 1990 to 2002 respectively (MOE, 2002). The Zambia's progress report on Beijing platform for action (2004) indicate that female literacy rate continue to be lower than that of males and the gender gap has not been narrowed between 1990 and 2003.

The evaluation of poverty (CSO, 1997), stated that less educated persons tend to have higher levels of poverty compared to that of their more educated counterpart and the illiteracy levels are high for women than for men showing a further indication that women are affected more. Lack of education limits women's ability to take advantage of opportunities to better their lives and that of their families. As a result of high

illiteracy levels among women, many of them are affected more by poverty than men. According to the central statistical office (CSO, 2000), the incidence of poverty by sex of household heads showed that persons in female headed households (FHH) continue to be much poorer than those in the male headed households. The Zambia's progress report on the Beijing platform for action further illustrates that "manifestations of poverty include lacking material resources, denial of opportunities and choices, and failure to lead a long healthy and creative life. It also implies not being able to enjoy dignity and self-esteem. All these denials are experienced more by women than the men. Women's situation has also been compounded by their limited participation in decisions made on resource allocation at household, community, district and National levels" (GIDD, 2004: 7).

### **2.5 Gender Issues in Participation in Northern Province: Zambia**

In Northern Province, labour migration can be traced back to colonial era. Men had to move to look for paid employment on the copper belt and Zaire now DR Congo in order to pay for the taxes introduced by the colonial regime. This meant that agricultural activities were left in the hands of women. Later, men's migration was seen as the contributing factor to the shortage of food in the province. However, Moore (1994) contended that the variations in productivity could not be straight forwardly accounted for by the presence of able-bodied males as was often asserted to be the case. In fact, what was considered the best village agriculturally was hardly more than a settlement of old men and children meaning women did most of the agricultural work. In contrast, it was noted that many other villages with most of their young men present were neither well tendered nor well fed.

During the period 1975-1988, the decline in urban real incomes encouraged government to institute a "back to the land" policy. In essence, people were to be attracted back to the land by a revived agriculture spurred on by a call to develop Zambia and make the country self-sufficient. In order to persuade people to return or stay "on the land" and to revive agriculture in the Northern Province, it was necessary to develop a viable cash crop that might raise the level of rural incomes and improve the purchasing power of rural producers. To this end, the government of Zambia instituted a policy of promoting hybrid maize cash cropping in the province, market

control, consumer and transport subsidies supported the policy (Moore, 1994). The programme faced a number of obstacles. Moore (1994), argued that, initially before most permanent gardens were used for growing a wide variety of crops including maize, millet, cassava, pumpkins, and relish crops. In many areas, women predominantly cultivated them although men often helped with the ridging. Secondly, *women controlled the produce of village gardens in the past. However, it was observed that women might have little control over crops grown on the permanent fields around settlements at the time partly because these fields, which have been reclassified as “ibala” gardens for the production of staple, have grown at the expense of the older type of the village garden (Moore, 1994).*

In addition there was increasing competition over land around settlements and poorer household, especially female-headed ones were to have trouble when trying to gain control over plots close to the settlements, partly because they did not have the necessary labour. Thus the introduction of the agricultural system in the province with intention of making household production purely dependent on inputs drawn from different and differentiated sources meant that, as the values of these different resources were changing unequally, individual men and women were redefining their ownership and control of them through the relabeling and recategorization of fields, gardens and other resources (ibid).

Therefore, the ability to make claims and interpretations is often a function of local structures of power influence and personality. It is not surprising that under these circumstances poorer members of the community and women even in the matrilineal areas are often disadvantaged in this process unless they are championed by others more powerful than they are. The problems which women in Northern Province faced, many of which are interrelated included among others, insufficient control of labour, in sustaining adequate food production and for expanding agricultural activities compared to most of their male counterparts. In many cases, there was no recognition of women as a target group for agriculture extension and therefore, they lacked basic information on food and crop production. Lastly but not the least, the absence of diversity in income generating for many women, inadequate income and /or dependency on men's cash income were problems for most women (ibid).

## **2.6 Issues Raised from Literature**

Policy issues were a concern to most of the scholars. It has been revealed that in Africa, Agriculture policies and programmes tend to favour the male folk. The reviewed literature has also shown that, a large proportion of projects involving women had no provision for the women's direct participation. In addition it was noticed that rural development efforts in Africa have tended to neglect or undermine the contribution made by women. Lastly but not the least, women's role as food producers had often been over looked by agencies concerned with promoting agricultural development. The above raised issues have helped this research to come up with a research design that focuses on examining extent to which policy guidelines contributed to small-scale farmer's access and control over inputs from FSP. On the other hand, this research has looked at factors other than policy issues that may affect the ratios of participants in relation to women and men through in-depth discussions.

Among other issues the reviewed literature has discussed are Gender development models. Gender Development models have brought to light different methods used to implement development programmes and projects and their short coming. The three models have offered solutions that may help end women's poverty and increase their participation in development programmes and projects. The solution offered by the first development model was to integrate women into existing development processes and structures so that they can have access and control over resources. The second development model saw women's marginalization in terms of the exploitation relation between women and men and considers men as exploiters of women. The solution offered was to have parallel projects to men in income generation activities. The last model focuses on women and men as individuals; it assesses gender relations and recognizes the importance of redistributing power between the two groups. It challenges cultural, social and economic privileges of the dominant group.

The literature from the three models was very important for this study. The models revealed how development is perceived in relation to gender. In relation to this study, the main objective was to determine factors affecting small-scale farmer's access and control over inputs from FSP, a gender perspective. It is obvious that the development

model used to implement the fertilizer support programme (FSP) could affect access and control over inputs. This research found the Gender and Development (GAD) model to be very important unlike the other two because it challenges cultural, social and economic privileges of the dominant group which could be a hindrance to women's access and control over FSP.

Literature also revealed that in Northern Province history has it that the best village agriculturally was hardly more than a settlement of old men and children meaning women did most of the agricultural work. Secondly it was noticed that before cash crops were introduced women predominantly cultivated them, and that women controlled the produce in the village gardens. In contrast, after the introduction of cash crops women were not recognized as a target group for agriculture extension service. Therefore, they lacked basic information on food and crop production. One of the objectives in this study was to assess how knowledge about the programme affects women's access to fertilizer from FSP. The literature helped in understanding how women can be treated when their male counterparts realize the economic benefits of newly introduced programmes and how ignorance can affect ones participation negatively in any development programme.

Regarding participation in decision-making it was revealed that women tend to be quite visible within their households but not at community level. At community level participation is influenced by factors such as the socialization process, patriarchal systems and traditional beliefs, which delegate decision-making in public to men. This study on FSP was aimed at determining factors that may hinder women's access and control over inputs, such as gender power relations between males and females, cultural and traditional beliefs and society perception of women

## **2.7 Summary of Literature**

The review of literature has shown that most Third World Countries including those in Africa have Agricultural policies and programmes that favoured the male folk. The literature also revealed that a very large proportion of projects involving women had no provision for the women's direct participation. At the same time the reviewed literature has demonstrated how Gender Development models have affected women

negatively except the Gender and Development model (GAD). GAD demonstrated how its approach challenges cultural, social and economic factors to enable women benefit from productive resources. Finally, literature reviewed has shown that, socio-cultural processes such as social construct of femininity, the perception of nature of women, power relations in the family and in the public sphere, and traditional patriarchal values have influenced development programmes and projects implementation. In many cases, if not all, women's access to and control over productive resources and social services has been affected negatively. Similarly, literature has demonstrated that lack of access to credit and lack of agricultural extension services for women have hindered women's full participation in various socio-economic activities.

## **Chapter 3: Methodology**

### **3.1 Research Design**

The study employed the descriptive design. The design allowed an in-depth investigation which brought out deeper insights and better understanding of the problems faced by small-scale farmers in accessing fertilizer from the government fertilizer support programme (FSP). Additionally, a descriptive design was used for the purpose of understanding socio-cultural processes such as social construct of femininity; the perception of the nature of women in the study area; and power relation in the family and in the public sphere and the underlying assumptions that explain them. The study used both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The quantitative approach was used to collect statistical data. The design also helped the researcher focus on understanding factors that limit female small-scale farmer's access to and control over inputs from FSP.

### **3.2 Study Site**

The study was conducted in Nakonde boarder town, Zambia. This site was chosen because the main occupation in the area was small-scale farming and the researcher understands and communicates in the respondent language.

### **3.3 Study Population**

The study population included 254 beneficiaries, 2 agricultural and 5 cooperative officials. There was no cooperative in Nakonde district that had statistics on non-beneficiaries hence making it difficult to have statistics on non-beneficiaries. Non-beneficiaries were those who had shown interest in participating in the programme by way of applying to become a member of a cooperative. This method of drawing respondents was used because the programme was being administered through cooperatives.

The cooperatives that participated in the study were not more than 5km away from the main road due to bad conditions of feeder roads. After spatial areas were designated, five (5) cooperatives were selected purposively due to the reason already alluded to.

### 3.4 Study Sample and Sampling Procedures

A total of 140 respondents were drawn from 5 cooperative's catchment areas. The research used purposeful sampling in the identification of the participating cooperatives. The method was used in an effort to avoid cooperatives that were very far away from main roads due to poor state of feeder roads in the district. Table 3 below illustrates how participants were drawn.

**Table 3: Beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries participants by sex**

Type and number of cooperative	Beneficiaries		Non-beneficiaries	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Mixed group (3)	30	30	20	20
Women's (2)	40	-	-	-
Subtotal	100		40	
Total	140			

Source: field data

Another sample comprised 2 agricultural and 5 cooperative officials. The number of agriculture officials was limited to 2 because of having a limited number of direct involved officials in the programme at the time of the research.

Cooperative registers were used to draw participants from 5 cooperatives that participated in the study. Registers were stratified into beneficiaries by sex before participants were selected randomly. Non-beneficiaries were selected from among the names made available either by village headmen or agricultural camp officers within the catchment area of a participating cooperative. Non-beneficiaries were also selected randomly.

Three (3) Focus groups among randomly selected participants were formed. One comprised 7 women beneficiaries and another comprised 4 women and 3 men beneficiaries. The third was made up of 4 women and 3 men non-beneficiaries. Participants in the focus group discussion were purposively selected. The strategy was to select the sample that was judged to have been typical of the population that was under investigation.

Non-beneficiaries men and women were selected from areas that had mixed group cooperatives. The areas were chosen in order to investigate the causes of imbalances in cooperative's membership. However, women cooperatives were included in the study sample in an effort to investigate what prompted women to form their own cooperative

### **3.5 Data Collection Method and Techniques.**

The study used triangulation in data collection. Registers of beneficiaries were reviewed; In-depth interviews among beneficiaries, non-beneficiaries, and agricultural and cooperative officials were conducted. Focus group discussions were another method used to collect data. Triangulation in data collection is the involvement of two or more methods in the study (Silverman, 1997). It helps in the understanding of the complexity of the study. The use of the combined methods in data collection was chosen because it overcomes the weakness associated with individual methods, and helps to give a more detailed picture of the situation under the study (Cohen and Marion, 1992). It also increases the degree of accuracy.

### **3.6 Focus Group Discussion**

Focus group discussion method enabled respondents to provide detailed information on their political and organizational structure, community activities and organization of meetings and other factors influencing small-scale farmers' access and control of the FSP. This method of data collection helped in strengthening the validity of the findings and enhanced participants involvement in identifying gender issues and concerns in the programme.

### **3.7 Data Analysis**

Data was analysed qualitatively and quantitatively. Qualitative data from narratives and themes such as knowledge about the programme, social and economic status of participants was analysed thematically whereas quantitative data such as proportion of beneficiaries by sex, number of bags of fertilizer received by sex and so on, were analysed quantitatively.

### **3.8 Data quality**

In the first weeks of April, 2009 pre-testing of data collection tools and the methodology was conducted. Twenty five (25) respondents comprising 15 women and 10 men and one focus discussion group were in the study population. This helped in classifying questions, identifying unnecessary items, the representative sample size and the time needed to complete data collection.

#### **3.8.1 Pilot Study**

The site chosen was found to be appropriate in that the main occupation in the area was small- scale farming. The researcher did not face communication problems with the respondents. Participants were more than willing to take part in the study.

It was established that there were two types of cooperatives in the area. The area had women cooperatives and mixed group cooperatives. The researcher found it necessary to increase the number of cooperatives in the study from 4 to 5. These were to comprise 2 women cooperatives and 3 mixed group cooperatives. This was to enable the researcher have a representative sample size since in most mixed group cooperative women membership was very low.

The changes in the study population necessitated the change in the study sample and sampling procedures. The sample size was to increase from 136 to 147. It was to comprise 40 women from 2 women cooperatives, 10 women and 10 men from each mixed group cooperatives. Non-beneficiaries participants comprising 20 women and 20 men were to be identified by either, agricultural officials in areas where camp officers were members of the community in participating cooperatives or village headmen in areas where there were no camp officers. This was found to be necessary

because cooperatives did not keep registers of non-beneficiaries who had shown interest by way of applying to become members of cooperatives consequently beneficiaries of the FSP. The number of cooperative officials was to increase from 4 to 5 since participating cooperatives had also increased. The number of agricultural officials was to reduce from 4 to 2 because only these were directly involved in the FSP at district level.

Questions in the interview guides were not difficult for the respondents to respond to. However, question 12 needed some rephrasing in order to cover a period of three (3) years instead of asking for the previous season only. This helped by way of showing the progressive or retrogressive rate in terms of production and access to inputs among small-scale farmers. Additionally, the phrase “who owns the garden where inputs from FSP are applied” in question 16 was being mistaken for a vegetable garden hence, there was need to rephrase it. Finally but not the least, there was need to include a question that would give the financial position of women and men. This was achieved by way of knowing the number of bags of subsidized fertilizer the small-scale farmers were managing to buy since on average, the FSP programme was giving out two (2) bags per small-scale farmer.

## **Chapter 4: Findings**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter analyses the findings. In presenting the findings this chapter will first analyse the general characteristics of the respondents which had direct impact on women's access to and control over inputs from fertilizer support programme (FSP) in relation to men. The researcher will attempt to analyse each objective of the study starting with the proportions of beneficiaries of women and men in the programme. The analysis will examine how knowledge about the programme influenced small-scale farmers' levels of participation. There after income levels influence will be examined and policy guide lines contribution to small-scale farmers' access to FSP will be analysed.

The data in this study is presented in tables. In addition descriptive statistics are given. Data analysis was done manually.

### **4.2 General Characteristics of Respondents**

#### **4.2.1 Marital Status of Beneficiaries**

Marital status had an impact on the level of access to and control among small-scale farmers in Nakonde district. Table 3 shows the marital status of respondents. The small-scale farmers interviewed in Nakonde District included 90 women, 70 beneficiaries and 20 non-beneficiaries and 50 men, 30 beneficiaries and 20 non-beneficiaries. Out of these, 54 women were married compared to 29 of their male counterparts representing 77 per cent and 96 per cent respectively. The numbers of divorcees and widows stood at 10 for women and none of the males indicated they were either divorced or widowed. Women find it difficult to remarry after divorce or death of their spouses than males. This can be observed from the table that shows that no males indicated they were either divorced or widowed. There were 2 single women compared to 1 male. The single man was a teenager incorporated into the cooperative after the death of his mother. This shows that, unmarried men were not legible since the cooperatives were considering heads of households. On separation, there were 4

women and no males indicated were single. The total number of female headed households represented 22 per cent.

**Table 4: Marital Status of Beneficiaries**

Marital status	women		men		total
	frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Married	54	77	29	96	83
Divorced	05	07	-	-	05
Widowed	05	07	-	-	05
Single	02	2.8	01	04	03
Separation	04	5.7	-	-	04
Total	70		30		100

**Source:** field Data

Women's marital status affected women's access and control differently. Most married women in areas where only a mixed group cooperative existed were not eligible since they were not heads of households. Men in most households controlled inputs and income from the sale of the produce from FSP inputs. Factors that hindered women from selling their produce in their own names, among others, included:

- Long distances to the market.
- Bureaucratic procedures when it came to the selling of process of maize to Food Reserve Agency (FRA).
- Fear of putting their marriages on rocks.
- Lack of knowledge about Bank procedures because payments were made through a commercial Bank by FRA.

However, married women kept the savings for buying next seasons' inputs but not the surplus.

#### 4.2.2 Formal Education

Table 4 indicates that the highest level of education that was attained by both women and men was senior secondary. Table 4 shows that 24 women out of 90 ended at lower primary and none of their male counterparts ended at this level. It further shows that 34 women had upper primary and 13 had junior secondary out of the 90 interviewed compared to 32 men who had upper primary and 13 junior secondary out of the 50 interviewed. Table 4 also shows that there were 14 women that indicated that they had no formal education representing 15 per cent, whereas none of the males said they had no formal education.

**Table 5: Education Attainment of Participants**

EDUCATION LEVEL	WOMEN		MEN	
	FREQUEN CE	PER CENT	FREQUENC E	PER CENT
LOWER PRIMARY	24	26.6	-	-
UPPER PRIMARY	34	37.7	32	64
JUNIOR SECONDARY	13	14	13	26
SENIOR SECONDARY	05	5.5	05	10
NO EDUCATION	14	15.5	-	-

**Sources:** field Data

Low levels of education influenced women's access to and control over inputs from FSP in many ways. Illiteracy among women of Nakonde district in particular was noticed as a hindrance to their access to and control over inputs from

### 4.3 Gender Distribution of Beneficiaries

#### 4.3.1 Gender Distribution From 2002-2006

In this section the researcher analyses the level of participation of women and men in the FSP. The researcher shall bring out the ratios of women and men in the programme by reviewing registers of beneficiaries in cooperatives. At the time the fertilizer support programme was being introduced, there were only mixed group cooperatives which were formed and run by males. A small number of women were members of cooperatives. Table 5 illustrates the gender distribution

**TABL 6: Distribution of Cooperative in Nakonde Zambia, 2002-2006**

YEAR	WOMEN'S COOPERATIVES	MIXED GROUP COOPERATIVES	TOTAL
2002	–	68	68
2003	–	75	75
2004	19	107	126
2005	27	125	152
2006	40	140	180
2007	40	140	180
2008	40	140	180

**Sources:** field Data

In 2002 and before, women's cooperatives did not exist in Nakonde district. The situation remained the same up to the end of 2003. After women realized the economic

importance of joining or forming cooperatives, in 2004, 19 women's cooperatives were formed by women themselves. The following year the number dropped to 8, but the year that followed, the number went up to reach 13. However, from 2007-2008 formation of cooperatives in the district was halted. The reason that was given by agricultural officials to the farmers was that cooperatives were too many for the district. This gave advantage to already existing cooperatives that comprised more males than women, hence resulting in having more men beneficiaries than women from FSP.

#### **4.3.2 Gender Distribution of Cooperative's New Membership 2002-2006**

The membership before 2002 stood at 1719 men and 460 women in 68 cooperatives. After the introduction of the FSP in 2002, the new members accepted per year in newly formed and existing cooperatives is tabulated in table 6 below as follows: However, there were no figures to show the entrants in 2007 and 2008. The explanation could be that no more were allowed to join since formation of new cooperatives was halted as mentioned earlier on. Table 6 illustrates gender distribution of new members in cooperatives from 2002 to 2006.

**Table 7: Gender Distribution of New Members in Cooperatives from 2002-2006**

YEAR	WOMEN			MEN		
	FREQUENCY		%	FREQUENCY		%
	RECRUITMENT	TOTAL		RECRUITMENT	TOTAL	
2006	303	1770	35.9	228	3147	64.1
2005	224	1467	33.4	241	2919	66.6
2004	642	1243	31.7	458	2678	68.3
2003	62	601	21.3	274	2220	78.7
2002	79	539	21.7	227	1946	78.3

**Source:** field data

Table 6 shows that there were 539 women beneficiaries out of 2485 in 2002 compared to 1946 males. It further shows that the number of women beneficiaries increased sharply in 2004 rising from 601 in 2003 to 1243 in 2004. This was due to the formation of women cooperatives. The table further demonstrates that the figure rose sharply from 2004 to 2006 reaching 1770 women beneficiaries out of 4917 beneficiaries. The findings also revealed that after women realized the benefits of forming or belonging to a cooperative, they had to face yet another obstacle men of managing the existing cooperatives put in place to disadvantage the under privileged among whom the majority were women. This was done by increasing the share prices the new members were expected to pay as much as K200, 000. The amount was far much beyond what the founder members of the cooperatives paid when they were forming most of the cooperatives. This was one way of closing the doors for the new members so that only a few could benefit from the FSP of whom the majorities were

men. Secondly, the applicants in most cases were told the numbers were full in cooperatives, meaning no more could be

#### 4.4 Influence of Knowledge about the Programme on Access and Control.

Effective advertisement of any programme is very crucial for its success. Respondents' response on how they came to know about FSP revealed that, 17 out of 90 women learnt about FSP through their spouses whereas no male indicated their spouses informed them. Table 7 shows that 33 out of 90 women learnt about the programme through agricultural meetings, whereas 18 out of 90 indicated that friends informed them about FSP compared to only 2 of their male counterparts. Table 7 further shows that 22 women learnt about FSP from cooperative officials and none indicated they learnt about FSP from politicians compared to 14 out of 50 men who learnt about the programme from politicians. Most of the respondents cited more than one source of information.

**Table 8: Percentage Distribution of Source of Information about the Programme**

Source of information	Women		Men		Total	
	frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
spouse	17	18.9	-	-	17	12.1
Agricultural officials	33	36.7	22	44	55	39.3
Friends	18	20	02	04	20	14.3
cooperative officials	22	24.4	12	24	34	24.3
Politicians	-	-	14	28	14	10

Sources: field Data

The findings have indicated that the major source of information for men was through public gatherings which included political gathering and agricultural meetings. On the contrary, a good number of women received information through their husbands and friends – about 18.9 per cent and 20 per cent respectively. This is an indication that, women did not attend public meetings compared to their male counterpart in Nakonde district.

#### **4.5: Policy Guidelines Contribution to Access and Control**

##### **4.6.1 Agricultural Official's Policy Guidelines**

In this section the researcher will examine the extent to which policy guidelines have contributed to small-scale farmers' access to and control over inputs from FSP. The researcher shall attempt to reveal the methods used to select beneficiaries and share inputs among beneficiaries. Findings revealed that design, implementation, and monitoring the programme were found to be gender insensitive. There was no deliberate policy to include women on inception. The findings also revealed that 100 per cent cooperatives in Nakonde district were formed by men before the fertilizer support was introduced. It implied therefore that women were to be integrated into existing cooperative structures dominated by men if they were to benefit from the programme. Women cooperatives were formed between 2004 and 2006 (that is only 40 out of 180 cooperatives in the district), there after the process was halted.

The findings also revealed that, beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries, small-scale farmers and cooperative officials indicated that discouragement from agricultural officials was there against the formation of new cooperatives. According to the agricultural officials, cooperatives were too many in the district such that there was no need of forming some more. An indication that agricultural officials were not concerned about gender imbalances in the whole programme.

The information obtained from agricultural and cooperative officials indicated that the government or the ministry of Agriculture did not provide guidelines on how to select cooperatives to participate in the programme and sharing of inputs from FSP. This was left to agricultural officials to find a method on how to select cooperatives to

participate and how to distribute inputs. Cooperatives were also left to devise a method on how to share inputs and how they were shared agriculture officials were not concerned. It was also noticed that there was no transparency when it came to allocation of inputs to cooperatives. Farmers were not told as to why there were differences in numbers of inputs received per cooperative. At the same time officials in cooperatives did not know the formula or method used, they could only notice differences in the number of packs per cooperative. (A pack is a set of  $8 \times 50\text{kg}$  bags of fertilizer).

#### **4.5.1 Cooperative Official's Policy Guidelines**

The implementers of FSP in Nakonde district indicated that the Government or the ministry of Agriculture did not provide cooperatives with policy guidelines to enable them implement the programme effectively. Cooperatives formulated their own rules and laws as a single entity earlier before FSP and these were later used to implement the programme. Cooperatives in the process were allowed to exclude members of the community that did not belong to existing ones before the FSP. It was done by way of hiking membership fees and share prices. Secondly those who had applied were told the numbers were full citing the sharing of agricultural input to be difficult since the government was not meeting the demand for the agricultural input. On average farmers were receiving 2 bags of fertilizer per individual from 2006 to 2008. Ordinary members of cooperatives indicated that, imbalances were created by cooperative executives who had used ghost names on the list of beneficiaries in order to increase their allocations. This was made possible by making the sharing in the cooperative a secret. Members were only asked to report on the day of collecting inputs – how it was shared only the executive knew.

#### **4.6 Income Level's Contribution to Access and Control.**

##### **4.6.1 Household Source of Income to Pay for FSP.**

Respondents were asked to state the source of income they used to pay for the subsidized inputs from FSP. The main source of income mentioned was subsistence farming. Nakonde being a boarder town and second busiest boarder in Zambia, its

status offers a lot of opportunities for business for the local community. Women within the “*BOMA*” were engaged in some kind of business. The food stuffs sold apart from maize included millet, cassava, vegetable, sugar cane and others. Locally in their villages, the common activity was beer brewing. It was noticeable also that men were the ones involved in gardening while women did the selling of the produce. In contrast, women in areas far away from the “*BOMA*” were unable to involve themselves in selling of surplus produce due to long distances to the market. Men instead were the ones involved in the marketing and selling as they are naturally stronger than women to cycle long distances to the market. The tendency made women not have control over income realized from the sales. The common business women were occupied with in these areas was beer brewing that paid them very little.

#### **4.6.2 Income Control**

Considering women’s income control, 67 out of 100 households among beneficiaries respondent indicated that, men were in charge of the selling of maize grown from FSP inputs in their own names. Whereas in 33 households women indicated they sell the produce in their own names. Out of the 33 majority married women were those in a polygamous marriage. Table 8 illustrates the above information.

In Table 8 the findings on who keeps the saving revealed that, in 29 households out of 100 men kept the savings from the produce, compared to 71 household in which women kept the savings. However, it was discovered that, most married women did not keep saving as surplus instead they kept the money to buy inputs for the next farming season. This was confirmed by both men and women participants who indicated that more men usually misuse funds than women.

**Table 9: Distribution of Beneficiaries' Control of Income from the Sale of Maize**

Activity performed	women		men	
	Number of households	%	Number of households	%
Selling of produce	33	33.3	67	66.7
Keeping the savings	71	71.4	29	28.6

**Sources:** field Data

#### **4.6.3 Beneficiaries Control of Inputs from FSP**

Regarding the participation in decision making, women in Nakonde district tend to be quite invisible within the household. Table 9 indicates that decision-making on what to grow from FSP inputs was as follows: in 22 households out of 100 households women made decisions, compared to 67 households in which men made decisions and in 17 households decisions were made jointly. The 22 households where women made decisions represent widows; single; divorcees; women on separation and women in polygamous marriages. Married women's powers to make decisions were vested in their husbands.

Respondents were asked to indicate the owner of the land where inputs from FSP were used. Table 9 shows that in 17 household's women owned land where inputs from FSP were applied compared to 83 households where men owned the land. The majority of the 17 households where women owned land, there families were living within the boarder area and were able to own land because they had chances of purchasing from individuals and the district council. Under customary law land is owned by the family lineage.

**Table 10: Distribution of Beneficiaries' control of inputs**

	Women		Men		jointly	
	Number of households	%	Number of households	%	Number of households	%
Decision making on what to grow from FSP inputs	22	22	67	67	11	11
Owner of land where inputs used from FSP	17	17	83	83	-	-

**Sources:** field Data

#### 4.7 Summary of the Findings

The study has shown that there were differences in the level of access and control among women and men in the FSP. Women's access to and control over inputs from FSP was lower than that of their male counterpart. The study has also shown that patriarchal values were also evident in the findings on the level of women's control. Women's access was mainly affected by institutional structures, organization rules on participation such as membership fees and lack of policy guidelines on the part of agricultural and cooperative officials. The study further demonstrates that because of the WID approach adopted by way of integrating women in already existing cooperatives with patriarchal structures made women access very difficult. Another important aspect that was shown in the study was the disparities in the levels of inputs and income control between women and men. The disparities were closely associated with the following factors:

- Long distances to the market

- Marital commitment
- Bureaucratic procedures during selling of maize to FRA.
- Lack of formal Education among women

Apart from the above mentioned the agricultural officials put blame to cultural and traditional beliefs of the *Namwanga* people as being responsible for women's low participation in public sphere and consequently low levels of access to and control over inputs from FSP.

## **Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations**

### **5.1 Marital Status Effect on Women's Access and Control**

The production of cash crops such as maize had a negative impact on most married women as it was observed in the study. The *Namwanga* people in the study area are a patrilineal family. Traditional practices especially the beliefs that a man is the head of the household had adverse effect on women's access to fertilizer support programme (FSP). It was a norm that was strongly supported by both women and men respondents who acknowledged that a man was always the head of the household. The impact was vividly noticed in areas where only one type of a cooperative existed; (mixed cooperative). All Cooperatives in this study were accepting one family member per household to join or belong to a cooperative and was expected to be the heads of the household. The practice qualified all men a custom accepted by both sexes. This is in agreement with Hay and Sticher, (1995) who pointed out that in Africa; often only heads of households are accepted as members of a cooperative, excluding most women from access to improved seed, agricultural advice, fertilizer, credit, and crop payment that are commonly dispensed only through cooperative. However, the practice advantaged female headed households while disadvantaging married women.

Secondly, at household level men as decision makers were first making attempts to join cooperatives before they could allow their wives to join in areas where the two types of cooperatives existed. It was noticed that men joined cooperatives or became beneficiaries first in situations where both husband and wife were beneficiaries. In households where women were beneficiaries, men made an attempt first. It was only after they were not taken on in mixed group cooperatives that they thought of their wives applying in women's cooperatives. In situations where a woman was a beneficiary, the decision on what to grow and where to apply the inputs from FSP was still made by a man as he was considered as the head of the household.

It was also noticed that 80 per cent of married women's agricultural produce was sold in the name of their husbands. This was contrary to the aim of the FSP of empowering small-scale farmers, both women and men, and a clear indication that women had no

control over their produce. This is in line with what the writers of patriarch theories argued that in the family, women labour is exploited by men and that men benefit from women's production of certain goods for use and exchange.

At household level women had a chance of joining a cooperative only after their spouses were not taken by mixed group cooperatives. Unfortunately, even after they had a chance, they yet faced another challenge; married women did not have separate agriculture fields. This was evident from the fear married women expressed by pointing out that, if they had their own fields after receiving inputs from FSP they were going to put their marriages on rocks. In dissimilarity in polygamous arrangements in the study area, women were found to be independent of their husbands' agricultural fields. They made decisions on what to grow but selling of the produce was mainly done through their husbands denying women control over income.

## **5.2 Education Effect on Access and Control**

Education can either limit or increase the ability to take advantage of opportunities to better individual's life. Education is an important resource on which personal status and power are built in modern society. It is likely that uneducated women remain life long dependents on their spouses. The high number of men's cooperatives is closely associated with differences in the education levels of the two sexes. One of the requirements to form a cooperative was for the cooperative to have a Bank account. Against this background, with low levels of education among women, it is more likely that men were to dominate because this demands for the application of literacy skills to understand Bank's operations as well as keeping financial records for the cooperative. On the other hand, cooperatives formulated their own by-laws and regulations and were expected to adhere to cooperative society's act of Zambia in its functions. This can explain why men led cooperative, dominated because some literacy skills of some kind were required at the stage of formation of cooperatives, making women with low levels of education in mixed group cooperatives to shun to aspire for leadership hence reducing their power to participate in decision making, subsequently denying them access and control over FSP. In addition, women in

Nakonde district especially those in mixed group cooperatives were rarely in position to voice their needs and concerns. At the same time, lack of women in top leadership limited the number of women to be accepted in mixed group cooperatives. All this was attributed to women's levels of education that had a negative impact on their level of control over the inputs from FSP.

Another constraint women faced was their inability to form their own cooperatives in preference to joining the existing ones managed by men with better position in education. The findings clearly demonstrated that, women's inability was attributed to low levels of education compared to their male counterparts. Women's response as to why they did not take up leadership in cooperative was that in the first place they did not understand Banks operations due to their general low level of education. Secondly, they acknowledged that the *Namwanga* peoples' culture did not allow women to be in the forefront when men are around, but expected to be passive participates. This is in line with what Sakala (2005) pointed out that unlike men who are most educated, economically powerful and decision makers, women are disadvantaged when invited to participate in mixed sex activities as they are unable to influence decisions made on resource allocation at household, community, district and National levels, hence receive less benefits.

The findings also revealed that patriarchal relations still govern the economic behaviour of most households; men controlled the income realized from the sale of maize. It was evident from the number of the households that sold their produce in the name of the husbands (67 per cent). Another constraint women faced over control was the method Food Reserve Agency (FRA) used to pay small-scale farmers through a commercial Bank. Against the background of 15 per cent women with no formal education compared to zero per cent men, this mode of payment contributed significantly to women's inability to sell their produce in their own names. The findings are in line with the assertion that illiteracy affects women more, limiting them to take advantage of opportunities to better their lives and that of their families.

This is not to say the situation was not caused by other factors. Long distances to the market coupled with bureaucratic procedures when it comes to the process of selling

the produce to FRA were some of the factors noticed. Pregnant and lactating women were finding it difficult especially those that did not have relatives near market places, because they were to spend nights at the depots or stations hence preferred to sale their produce through men who are naturally stronger than women. The scenario advantaged men by giving them powers to control income realized from the sale of the produce.

### **5.3 Knowledge about the Programmes' Effect on Access and Control**

Lack of knowledge among women could have been caused by so many factors. The situation about cooperatives in Nakonde district before the FSP was introduced was that; 100 per cent of the cooperatives were formed by men. Women were simply incorporated into existing patriarchal structures that gave women no chance to be in leadership. Secondly both women beneficiaries and non beneficiaries acknowledged the fact that they had little knowledge about the advantages of forming or belonging to a cooperative when the idea was first introduced before the FSP. This suggests that there was little or no sensitization or women did not attend most of the meetings prior to the formation of cooperatives. But none of the participants both beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries indicated that they were not aware about the programme. The findings are in line with what Longwe ( 1990) indicated that, the main problem in most projects in Zambia had been the failure to recognize women's issues at the stage of programme and project formulation such that general development seemed to have been classified as not affecting women. Longwe brought out the issue of low level of understanding of women's issues amongst the personal concerns with project implementation both within government administration and non governmental organization (NGOs)

Further more the formation on cooperatives came with rules and regulations. One of the requirements that were observed to have made women reluctant to form cooperatives as indicated by the agricultural officials was to have a Bank account before applying to form a cooperative as mentioned earlier on. Because of the restrictions to access credit, low income and low formal education levels among women, made it difficult perhaps to know where to seek advice and assistance for

them to meet the requirements on the on setting of the programme. Lack of knowledge about the benefits of belonging to a cooperative is a clear indication as to why women found it difficult to participate fully in the formation of cooperation on inception. This could be attributed to the idea men held by thinking that they could attend meetings on behalf of their spouses, when they had no interest to educate them in situations where their interests were threatened.

#### **5.4 Trend in Participation of Women in FSP**

Cooperatives in Zambia existed before the introduction of the fertilizer support programme. It was during the 1991-2001 agricultural reforms that saw the cooperatives vanish in Zambia. The reforms failed to provide sufficient incentives for increased output by farmers and discouraged private- sector led agricultural development especially in the inputs. This led to food insecurity in most rural population rendering women more vulnerable as they are the most disadvantaged group. In 2002 the Zambian government found it appropriate to put emphasis on support services to small-scale farmers to ensure national food security through dependable annual production of adequate supplies of basic foodstuffs. This gave birth to the fertilizer support programme for the small-scale farmers.

Low levels of women participation in the fertilizer support programme (FSP) was influenced by several factors which include: gender relations, cultural aspects and policy issue on the programme. Firstly, having a programme where technocrats have little information or knowledge, there are serious implication on policy formulation and implementation. Usually such programmes originate from political leadership. This is a case with FSP where agricultural, FRA, and Cooperative officials had no policy guidelines instead they had to wait for fresh instruction from higher offices for the method to follow every farming season to implement the programme. Consequentially, lack of policy guide lines affected the under privileged especially women. Women in the study area were considered to be under the care of their husbands. In most mixed group cooperatives if not all, preference was given to men applicants, the assumption was that women were to benefit through their husbands. Similarly, Hay and Stichter (1995) revealed that policy makers in Africa accepted the

myth that the father acts as a benevolent patriarch who allocates family resources for the mutual benefit of all family members. The practice has left women's ability to participate and benefit from FSP under the control of their husbands especially in areas where only one type of a cooperative existed; that are a mixed group cooperative.

Historically, as it was brought out during group discussions, men were accused of being selfish by their female counterparts. Women strongly felt that they are left out in development projects. The scenario was that men were always friendly or encouraged women only where they did not see economic benefits but hijacked most of the projects of economic benefit. To try and explain how women were sidelined, a female participant in a focus group discussion had to explain from the historical point of view. She revealed that long ago, the *Namwanga* men took the responsibility of sharing relish on special occasions. The example she gave was that when there was a successful hunting spree, the whole pot of relish was given to men for sharing, a situation that was unusual for other types of relish. This was trying to explain how men perceived women as not being capable of handling what society consider serious matters in the study area.

The belief is similar to 1960s radical feminists who perceived patriarchy as the existence of a structure of hierarchical relations between the sexes. The same values were held by the agricultural officials who encouraged women to join existing cooperatives instead of forming their own. This is not to say they did not know the obstacles women faced when they tried to join the existing cooperatives. It is for this reason that it is important for programme formulators and implementers to understand the group they are dealing with so as to eliminate the existing structures which may have negatively affected women.

According to the information obtained from the majority women interviewed, both beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries indicated that cooperatives used to ask for more membership to raise their financial base. It was only after the Government of the Republic of Zambia decided to implement the FSP through cooperatives, and to have a situation where cooperative received inadequate inputs that the trend turning opposite.

This was evident from what the six cooperative officials gave as to why they could not allow more members of the community to join the existing cooperatives. The common response was that, they faced difficulties in sharing the little number of inputs that they received from FSP. In some cases one bag of fertilizer was made to be shared among three small-scale farmers. The situation resulted in more women being excluded from the programme since the membership for women before the FSP in cooperatives was very small and women led cooperatives did not exist.

However, in 2004, two years after the programme was introduced, the formation of women cooperatives began. In the same year 19 women's cooperatives were formed in the district raising the number of women beneficiaries from 539 in 2002 to 1243 in 2004. By 2006 the number of women beneficiaries rose to about 1770 while for men it was about 3147 the trend that continued up to the time the research was conducted. The estimates remained the same due to the fact that after 2006 no more cooperatives were formed as the exercise was put to a halt by the authorities. In 2004 what attributed to the improvement in numbers of women beneficiaries was the realization by women themselves that, the only way to benefit on equal basis with their male counterpart was by forming their own cooperatives and not joining already existing male managed ones. Unfortunately, due to being gender blind on the part of agricultural officials the exercise was discouraged, instead women were encouraged to join the existing cooperatives. This resulted in having only 40 women's cooperatives out of 180 cooperatives in the district.

Though women realized the benefits of joining cooperatives, they faced another obstacle that men managing the existing cooperatives put in place to disadvantage the under privilege among whom the majority were women. This was achieved by way of increasing share prices as much as K200, 000 in some cases and above. This was far much beyond what the founder members paid when they were forming most of the cooperatives. This could be seen as a way of closing doors for the new comers so that only a few could benefit from the FSP among whom the majority were men. All this was happening due to the Zambian Government or the Ministry of Agriculture's failure to incorporate gender and women issues in the programme as a way of promoting gender mainstreaming.

However, cooperatives justified the reason as to why they hiked share prices. Cooperatives received a limited numbers of bags of inputs such that sharing was going to be difficult if they allowed more members. The situation was probably made worse for women, when the formation of new cooperative was halted. This was done with full knowledge by the authorities that it was difficult for cooperatives to allow new members due to limited number of inputs each cooperative received as alluded to earlier on. At the same time authorities were aware that women's cooperatives were very few and the numbers of women in male led cooperatives were small. This situation calls for the analysis of gender imbalances and being gender insensitive on the part of agricultural officials before implementing any development programme in the targeted population. The implication therefore, was that if more cooperatives were to be formed especially women's cooperatives, the number of women beneficiaries was going to increase while reducing the number of men beneficiaries that is, if all cooperatives were to benefit on equal terms a situation that threatened men's position in the programme. Therefore, halting the process meant that the ratios of beneficiaries were to remain unchanged, limiting women's economic empowerment as well as making them not to overcome poverty consequently defeated the purpose of the FSP that aimed at reducing poverty among small-scale farmers regardless of their gender.

### **5.5 Decision- Making**

The involvement of women in decision making is one of the critical areas of concern in the world of women movements because it affects many other things such as the level of women's access to and control over resources and benefits of development programme. Women's participation in decision making in Nakonde district tend to be quite invisible within there households and public spheres. With regard to decision making in public sphere, women ability to participate in decision making at community level was influenced by factors such as the patriarchal systems and traditional beliefs which delegated decision making in public to men. Traditionally among the *Namwanga* people if a woman is seen to be very vocal in public where men are present, the interpretation is that she has no respect by failing to recognize the presence of men. She is expected to be a good listener and not an active participant. This was noticed in mixed group cooperatives focus group discussions.

The researcher observed that although women were involved in leadership positions in mixed group cooperatives, their influence in decision making was almost not there. Men occupied the top positions in all cooperatives. For instance the positions of chairperson, vice chairperson and secretary were occupied by men. The same people were involved in recruiting new members, sharing of inputs and other important duties in the cooperatives. This is one of the reasons the numbers of women in mixed group cooperatives were small, because women were not present to support their fellow women. In addition, sharing of inputs was done in the absence of women executive members. This shows that the trend of under representing women in decision-making affected women's access to and control over inputs from FSP and consequently received fewer benefits. The high number of men holding senior positions in the leadership structures is closely associated with differences in education levels of the two sexes. Table 4 shows that, 15 per cent women respondents had no formal education.

Men are considered as heads of households (decision- makers). At household level women do not attend meetings; men claim they attend for them. Patriarchal values are highly held in the district. The findings reviewed that in households where both wife and husband were beneficiaries, men were the first ones to participate before their wives could become beneficiaries – the situation women confirmed to be a norm and have supported. Secondly, husbands supported their wives to join cooperatives and participate in the program in order to increase the numbers of bags of fertilizer per household and not to empower women.

Majority married women made no decision on how the inputs were to be used; instead the decisions were made by their spouses. As illustrated in table 9, 83 per cent of the married women living with their husbands used their husbands' lineage land. Lack of ownership to land could be one of the factors that affected women's powers in decision making at household level. It was also revealed that normally divorce excludes a woman from using the former husband's land, hence compelling divorces to depend on their male family member to provide land.

## 5.6 Women's Constraints

Gender imbalances in projects have serious implications for equity concerns, economic output, productivity, food security, and the general well being of society. One of the objectives of FSP was to empower small-scale farmers both women and men. It must be noted that the liberalization of the economy in 1991 including the agriculture sector and the free market enterprise posed challenges to small-scale farmers who could not adjust to the new approach of accessing agricultural inputs (Maimbo et al 1990). The majority male and women focus group participants indicated that the number of women in mixed sex cooperatives is far much smaller than that of men. This was supported by the information obtained from reviewing the desegregated registers of the cooperative in the district.

It was observed that women's cooperatives received less number of packs compared to their male counterparts. This was evident from the list of beneficiaries for 2008/2009 FSP, in relation to the number of packs and the amount of money deposited per cooperative. However, the information obtained from the agricultural officials concerning the allocation of inputs was that farming blocks general production of maize was used as the basis for allocating inputs.

Areas with higher production received more inputs than less productive areas. But if this was mentioned to the farming community it can act as an encouragement to less productive areas to work hard so that they can also get a better share in the near future. The method disadvantaged women because they were not expected to produce at the same level with men who started benefiting before women could be part of the programme. In addition women levels of income control were low making it difficult to supplement government by way of purchasing some more inputs as their male counterparts were doing, thus treating them as equals favours men.

In Nakonde customary laws and practices that affect the majority women have worked to perpetrate social injustices against women. Most notable of these injustices are the women's exclusion from land ownership in favour of men. In contrast the qualifications for FSP as a guideline for the agricultural officials was that, a beneficiary should be a small-scale farmer actively involved in farming within the

cooperative coverage area and should have the capacity to grow 1-5 hectares of maize. These two qualifications favored men in the sense that men control and manage land and were able to purchase inputs because they controlled income in most households. Married women in the area do not own land nor do they have their own agricultural fields, but they are incorporated in their husbands' agricultural fields. A possible explanation as to why women's access and control were hampered in FSP

Other major constraints women face or that contribute to failure to have control include, long distances to the market place for maize. This gives men advantages that are naturally physically stronger than women. Married women gave in to allow their husbands to sell on their behalf and in the names of the husbands. Whereas single, widows and the divorced could in some cases sell their produce in the name of male relative such as sons or brothers. In terms of the marketing process, the bureaucratic procedures kept small-scale farmers in the district for 3 or more days to finish the process of selling. In most cases the market place is not at a distance that can allow a farmer to go and come back home, implying that they have to be there up to the end. This disadvantaged women who for example had young babies at the time, did not have relatives in the area where selling is taking place to spend nights at the depot. A possible explanation as to why women find it difficult to have control over income.

## **5.7 Conclusion**

In this paper the researcher had four main objectives which were being investigated these include: to assess the proportion of FSP beneficiaries by sex, to assess how knowledge about the programme affects women's access to inputs from FSP, to examine the extent to which policy guidelines on FSP contribute to small-scale farmers' access to and control over inputs from FSP and to establish small-scale farmers' income levels effect on access to and control over inputs from FSP. The conclusion will be drawn following the above mentioned objectives.

The study has shown that the FSP has benefited the communities in Nakonde district in disproportionate margins favouring men. Several factors have been identified that explain high levels of participation among men than women. Factors responsible for high level of men's participation include dominance in leadership structures in

cooperatives, traditional, cultural beliefs and norms that are favourable to men and lack of policy guidelines for both agricultural and cooperative officials. It has been observed that gender mainstreaming in cooperatives was not carried out before the cooperatives were allowed to implement the FSP. It is therefore important to do the analysis of gender imbalance before implementing any development programme in the targeted population. The main aim for this is to ensure that programme designers have prior knowledge of the societies' social structures in order to address the concerns of both sexes. On the other hand, numbers of women in the programme rose very sharply after the formation of women's cooperatives started, however, the process was halted limiting their access.

The study has shown that there were a lot of disparities in the way information about FSP reached the small-scale farmers in Nakonde district. The fashion was that men were attending public meetings more than women. About 38.8 per cent of the women respondents indicated that they learnt about FSP through friends and their husbands. Cultural and traditional beliefs affected women's ability to have information about the programme. It is for this reason that sensitization about the importance of attending public meetings is imperative to allow the target group make informed decisions.

The study also shows that the implementation of the programme was done haphazardly. The main cause of the situation that was more prominent among others was lack of policy guidelines for the implementers. In the first place cooperatives were formed before the FSP. This implies that cooperatives had their own rules and regulation as single entities which were incompatible with the objectives of the FSP. Unfortunately, the same rules and regulations were used to implement the programme. Findings revealed that women were very much affected whose numbers were often very small in cooperatives before the FSP. Therefore, there was need for gender mainstreaming in cooperatives before they were allowed to implement the programme. This would have improved women's access unlike the situation that was obtaining at the time of the study. Lack of policy guidelines implied that officials both agricultural and cooperative were using methods that were able to solve their problems and not to address the concerns of both women and men small-scale farmer.



Another issue that was demonstrated by the study was that of women having little control over inputs from FSP. Traditions and cultural beliefs that put men as heads of households and decision makers put pressure on women's ability to control inputs from FSP. Women had a fear of losing their marriages especially in households where a woman was a beneficiary and the husband was not. The findings further showed that there were disparities in the problems that women and men faced with the bias towards women. For instance women unlike their male counterparts lacked control over land. Traditionally the *Namwanga* people are patrilineal society and under traditional law land belonged to family lineage.

In addition, this study has shown that most characteristics of the *Namwanga* people such as marital status, level of education had negative impact on women's access to and control over inputs from FSP. It is for this reason that analysis of the extent to which women's and men's access to and control over resources is important because such knowledge would address the problem of disadvantaged group who are often women. This can be possible only if facilitators and any other stakeholders are gender sensitive.

The study also revealed another important issue concerning decision making. At household level women were quite invisible, men made decisions on how to use inputs and what to grow. On the other hand, although women were in the executive in mixed group cooperatives men still dominated the higher positions women occupied positions of committee member. It was for this reason that the numbers of women in mixed group cooperatives were small. Gender sensitization programmes among officials may help address the problem.

## **5.6 Recommendations**

1. In order to improve women small-scale farmer's access to and control over inputs from Fertilizer Support Programme the study recommends that, bureaucratic procedures in form of registration during distribution of inputs and sale of maize and method of payments for the maize sold to FRA which in some cases took 2 to 3 days coupled with long distances to the pay points should be removed.

To achieve the above mentioned FRA should provide hard cash to farmers without Bank accounts and make deposits for those with Bank accounts. With regard to selling of maize let the process be done at individual cooperatives before the produce is delivered to a central place. This can be done with the help of cooperatives officials acting as FRA agents. The main purpose is to help women gain control over income earned from the sale of maize and improve access as women will no longer walk long distances and spend days waiting for their payments and registration during sharing of inputs and sale of their agricultural produce. This situation gave advantage to men.

2. In an effort to put women on equal terms with their male counterparts, the government of Zambia should provide policy guidelines to District agriculture officers and cooperatives that will compel them to choose equal numbers of female and male beneficiaries. This will help increase women's participation in the FSP and make the programme meet its objective of eradicating poverty.
3. In order to address gender issues such as gender power relations, attitudes, needs on the basis of social economic and cultural factors in an effort to increase women's participation, the ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives in Zambia should:
  - a. Increase awareness of gender and women's issues and understanding of gender relations through gender sensitization.
  - b. Gain an understanding of the practical and strategic needs of women and men in the target population, and identify opportunities to support both aspects through gender analysis training for the District Agricultural officers and cooperative officials who are the implementers.

This will enable programme implementers to have prior knowledge of the society's structures so that concerns of both sexes can be addressed.

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## Appendices

### Appendix 1: Interview guide for beneficiaries

1. Sex of the respondent.

Male [    ]    b. Female

2. Marital status.

Married [    ]. b. Divorced [    ]. AC. Widowed [    ]. D. Single [    ]. E. Separation [    ]

3. What is your highest education level attained?

Lower primary [    ]. B. Upper primary [    ]. C. Junior secondary [    ].

D. Senior Secondary [    ]. E. College [    ]. F. No Education

4. In your household who attends agricultural meetings when they are called upon? Probe for imbalances.

5. Have you ever heard about the FSP?

6. If the answer is yes to 5, how did you come to know about FSP?

7. In your household how did you come up with who should apply for the FSP?

8. When did you start receiving fertilizer from the FSP?

9. Where do you collect the input from?

10. Does the government deliver inputs to your cooperative?

11. How many bags of fertilizer did you receive in:

2006 [    ]. b. 2007 [    ]. C. 2008 [    ]

12. How many bags of maize did you produce in: a 2006[    ]. B. 2007 [    ]. C. 2008 [    ].

13. How many did you sell in: a. 2006 [    ]. B. 2007 [    ]. C. 2008 [    ].
14. In your household who: A. sells the produce? B. keeps the money. C. if any savings, who keeps. D. what are the savings for?
15. In your household who made decisions on the use of inputs in: 2006; 2007; 2008? Give reasons.
16. In your house hold who owns the land used to cultivate crops from FSP inputs?
17. What are your sources of income used to pay for subsidized agricultural inputs from FSP? A. Sell of vegetables. B. Sell of agricultural produce. C. Sell of local beer. D. piece work. E. remittances from relatives. F. any other sources?
18. In your household who controls the income realized from the sell of agricultural produce? Probe on how it is shared.
19. Do cooperatives give equal opportunities to join to members of the community you leave in? Give reasons.
20. What do you think are the limiting factors in accessing inputs from FSP for both sexes? Probe for the most affected.
21. Suggest ways that could promote:
  - A. Equal access to inputs. B. Equal control over inputs.

## **Appendix 2: Interview guide for non-beneficiaries.**

1. Sex of the respondent.  
Male [    ]    b. Female
2. Marital status.  
Married [    ]. b. Divorced [    ]. AC. Widowed [    ]. D. Single [    ]. E. Separation [    ]
3. What is your highest education level attained?  
Lower primary [    ]. B. Upper primary [    ]. C. Junior secondary [    ].  
D. Senior Secondary [    ]. E. College [    ]. F. No Education
4. In your household who attends agricultural meetings when they are called upon? Probe for imbalances.
5. Have you ever heard about the FSP?
6. If the answer is yes to 5, how did you come to know about FSP?
7. If the answer to 5 is yes, why are you not one of the beneficiaries?
8. Is your spouse a beneficiary from FSP?
9. If the answer is yes to 8, in your household how did you come up with who should apply for the FSP?
10. Do cooperatives give equal opportunities to join to members of the community you leave in? Give reasons.
11. What do you think are the limiting factors in accessing inputs from FSP for both sexes? Probe for the most affected.
12. Suggest ways that could promote:
13. Equal access to inputs. B. Equal control over inputs.

### **Appendix 3: Interview guide for cooperative officials.**

1. Could you please give the background of your organization, how and when it was formed.
2. What are the organization objectives?
3. Do cooperatives give equal opportunities to join to members of the community you leave in? Give reasons.
4. Are there any problems that you face in working with mixed group cooperatives? What are they and how do you deal with them?
5. How are participating cooperatives selected? Are there any guidelines?
6. If any who formulated them?
7. What condition has the government put in place that could:
8. Qualify a cooperative to obtain inputs from FSP?
9. Disqualify a cooperative to obtain inputs from FSP?
10. From the tow type of cooperatives which one face more problems in meeting the conditions mentioned in 6.
11. Where do you collect the input from?
12. Does the government deliver inputs to your cooperative?
13. How are beneficiaries selected are there any guidelines?
14. If any who formulated them?
15. If there are no guidelines from the ministry of agriculture, what method is used to select beneficiaries?
16. What method is used to allocate inputs?
17. Do cooperatives receive equal number of inputs in Nakonde district? Probe for imbalances.

18. What measures has your institution put in place to enhance equal participation of women and men in the program?
19. What do you think are the limiting factors in accessing inputs from FSP for both sexes? Probe for the most affected.
20. Suggest ways that could promote:
  - A. Equal access to inputs.
  - B. Equal control over inputs.

#### **Appendix 4: Interview guide for agriculture officials.**

1. How many women's and mixed group cooperatives are in Nakonde district?
2. Are there any problems that you face in working with mixed group cooperatives? What are they and how do you deal with them?
3. What condition has the government put in place that could:
4. Qualify a cooperative to obtain inputs from FSP?
5. Disqualify a cooperative to obtain inputs from FSP?
6. From the tow type of cooperatives which one face more problems in meeting the conditions mentioned in 3
7. How are beneficiaries selected? Are there any guidelines?
8. If any who formulated them?
9. What method is used to allocate inputs?
10. Do cooperatives receive equal number of inputs in Nakonde district? Probe for imbalances.
11. How would you describe the level of women and men access to fertilizer from FSP? Explain.
12. What are the facilitating factors for women and men in accessing fertilizer from FSP?
13. What do you think are the limiting factors in accessing inputs from FSP for both sexes? Probe for the most affected.
14. What measures has the government put in place to enhance equal participation of women and men in the program?
15. Suggest ways that could promote:
  - A. Equal access to inputs.
  - B. Equal control over inputs.

## **Appendix 5: Focus group discussion guide.**

1. In your household who makes decision on the use of inputs?
2. Do cooperatives give equal opportunities to join to members of the community you leave in? Give reasons.
3. In your community what do you think has contributed to majority women's failure to join cooperatives and benefit from FSP?
4. Suggest ways that could promote equal access to and control over inputs from FSP.
5. Do you have any final questions or comments to make?