



UNDP Zimbabwe

BUILDING RESILIENCE IN ZIMBABWE: *TOWARDS A RESILIENCE STRATEGIC FRAMEWORK*

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Over the last decade, Zimbabwe has experienced a number of unprecedented economic, environmental and political shocks and stresses, many of which will have long-lasting impacts. Poverty, food insecurity, malnutrition, and environmental degradation are serious challenges in Zimbabwe, particularly in rural areas, and will continue to be challenging due to the effects of climate change. The concept of resilience has emerged as a plausible framework among humanitarian and development actors – and governments – as a longer-term and more cost-effective strategy for substantially improving regional or local capacity to withstand shocks and stresses, ultimately leading to a reduced need for humanitarian response.¹ Interest in resilience building strategies to counter vulnerability to shocks and stressors in Zimbabwe is timely.

Building the resilience of vulnerable populations so they can respond positively to potential shocks requires helping people cope with current change, adapt their livelihoods, and improve governance systems and ecosystem health so they are better able to avoid problems in the future. It requires an integrated approach and a long-term commitment to improving three critical capacities (i.e., absorptive capacity, adaptive capacity, and transformative capacity), which are interconnected, mutually reinforcing, and exist at multiple levels (i.e., individual, household, community, national, and ecosystem levels).²

Absorptive capacity is the ability to minimize exposure to shocks and stresses through preventative measures and appropriate coping strategies to recover quickly and avoid permanent, negative impacts. Disaster risk reduction/management (DRR/DRM) supports improved absorptive capacity by helping households and communities reduce risk and absorb the impacts of shocks without permanent, negative impacts to their livelihoods. Adaptive capacity is the ability to make proactive and informed choices about alternative livelihood strategies based on an understanding of changing conditions. Improved adaptive capacity results from livelihoods diversification, asset accumulation, and improved social and human capital. Finally, transformative capacity encompasses the governance mechanisms, policies/regulations, infrastructure, community networks, and formal and informal social protection mechanisms that constitute the enabling environment necessary for systemic change. Transformative capacity refers to system-level changes that enable more lasting resilience at the household and community levels. Resilience programming shifts the balance of effort and resources from short-term humanitarian assistance efforts toward a combination of disaster risk management, climate change adaptation, livelihood diversification, social protection programmes, and longer-term institutional development.

Designing interventions to improve the absorptive, adaptive and transformative capacities that underlie resilience capacity starts with a thorough multi-hazard, multi-sector assessment of the environmental, political, social, economic, historical, demographic, religious, conflict, and policy conditions that affect,

¹ EU-DFID. N.d. Draft Proposal for a Joint Disaster Resilience Strategy for Zimbabwe.

² Béné, C., R.G. Wood, A. Newsham and M. Davies. 2012. Resilience: new utopia or new tyranny? Reflection about the potentials and limits of the concept of resilience in relation to vulnerability reduction programmes. Working Paper 405. Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies.

and are affected by, how households, communities, and governments prevent, cope with, and recover from shocks and stresses. A comprehensive assessment is necessary to fully understand the constantly changing relationship between risk and vulnerability on the one hand and livelihood outcomes and resilience on the other. In Zimbabwe, programming for resilience building focuses on the overlap between areas of chronic vulnerability and the occurrence of shocks and stressors.

Interventions must be designed in an integrated manner that ensures multiple partners and sectors work together to address key leverage points and adopt complementary and synergistic strategies. They should also be designed in ways that capture real-time changes and allows for improvements to programming through regular feed-back and shared learning. Strategic partnerships (e.g., between government entities, NGOs/CBOs, donors, private sector, UN agencies and others) are also important for joint risk analysis and multi-sectoral approaches to building resilience. By forging mutually advantageous partnerships, development and humanitarian actors can strengthen the ability of vulnerable populations to adapt to change, improve their well-being, and contribute to and benefit from social development and economic growth.

Programme designs must include a flexible and iterative monitoring system that also allows for more timely and efficient procurement of resources (e.g., crisis modifiers) that facilitates a quick transition from development to humanitarian activities based on early warning trigger indicators. A multi-track approach is needed in order to build strong linkages between short-, medium-, and long-term programme interventions that span humanitarian (short-term track) as well as development responses (medium and longer-term tracks). Ultimately, resilience building should be led by national governments wherever possible, particularly in providing the enabling environment (e.g., functional institutions, productive infrastructure, healthy natural resource base) necessary for improving the absorptive, adaptive, and transformative capacities of households, communities and higher-level systems.

To measure improvements in resilience in Zimbabwe, empirical evidence is needed on what factors contribute to resilience, under what contexts, and for what types of shocks. The ability to measure the relationship represented by resilience (i.e., the relationship between shocks, responses, and future states of well-being) depends on the analysis of a number of substantive dimensions and structural features. Substantive features comprise initial- and end-state measures (e.g., well-being outcomes), disturbance measures (e.g., the shocks and stresses that individuals, households, communities and systems are exposed to and the severity and duration of these shocks and stresses), capacity measures (e.g., absorptive, adaptive and transformative capacities in relation to shocks and stresses), and how individuals, households, communities and systems respond to these shocks and stresses. Multiple methods (i.e., quantitative, qualitative) will be used to collect data (both subjective and objective data).

The proposed resilience framework provides a platform through which all stakeholders can work together to implement development interventions differently so that households, communities and wider systems are better able to manage shocks and stressors now and in the future.

INTRODUCTION

Over the last decade, Zimbabwe has experienced a number of unprecedented economic, environmental and political shocks and stresses. A sharp drop in Gross Domestic Product (GDP), hyper-inflation, de-industrialization, closure of industries, large scale lay-off of employees, and disruption of public service delivery, coupled with recurrent drought, floods and poor harvests, have contributed to chronic food shortages. Poverty, food insecurity, malnutrition, and environmental degradation are serious challenges in Zimbabwe, particularly in rural areas. Climate change has exacerbated the situation for families and heightened overall community vulnerability, and is predicted to have continuing and primarily negative effects throughout Zimbabwe.³ Over the last 10 years, food insecurity in Zimbabwe has ranged from 12% to 60%, with tremendous year-to-year variation.

Globally, recurring crises over the last few decades have cost international donors and national governments millions of dollars.⁴ Zimbabwe is no exception; over the last 10 years, food shortages resulting from recurring droughts and on-going economic crisis, including disruption of food supply chains and market systems, have created a situation of chronic vulnerability as crises continued. Despite meeting short-term humanitarian needs, large-scale humanitarian interventions do not substantially improve regional or local capacity to withstand future shocks and stresses.⁵ As a result, the concept of resilience has emerged as a plausible framework for substantially improving regional or local capacity to withstand shocks and stresses, ultimately reducing the need for humanitarian response.⁶ A resilience approach may also be more cost-effective than post-disaster responses. Shifting from humanitarian responses to building resilience has been shown to provide good value for money, potentially saving US \$7 in disaster-related economic losses for every US \$1 spent in disaster preparedness.⁷

Global expansion of interest in the concept of – and growing evidence for the effectiveness of – resilience approaches among humanitarian and development actors over the past five years has spurred tremendous interest in and opportunity for collaborations and partnerships between donors and governments that support linking humanitarian and development efforts (e.g., the Regional Inter-Agency Standing Committee (RIASCO)). Interest in resilience building strategies to counter vulnerability to shocks and stressors in Zimbabwe is timely, both in terms of the pressing needs and opportunities for funding. Widespread interest in resilience has facilitated more and more funding opportunities for programming that builds resilience.

³ Mugabe, F., T. Thomas, S. Hachigonta and L. Sibanda. Zimbabwe. In *Southern African agriculture and climate change: a comprehensive analysis*, (eds.) Hachigonta, S. G. Nelson, T. Thomas and L. Sibanda. Washington, D.C.: IFPRI.

⁴ Frankenberger, T., Langworthy, M., Spangler, T., & S. Nelson. 2012. Enhancing Resilience to Food Security Shocks in Africa. Discussion Paper. November 2012.

⁵ USAID. 2011. Enhancing resilience in the Horn of Africa: An evidence-based workshop on strategies for success. USAID Workshop Proceedings. December 13-14, 2011.

⁶ EU-DFID. N.d. Draft Proposal for a Joint Disaster Resilience Strategy for Zimbabwe.

⁷ WMO (World Meteorological Organization). 2009. Fact sheet #1. Climate information for reducing disaster risk.

DEFINING RESILIENCE

Building the resilience of vulnerable populations so they can respond positively to potential shocks requires helping people cope with current change, adapt their livelihoods, and improve governance systems and ecosystem health so they are better able to avoid problems in the future. This means not only helping people through direct implementation of assistance programmes at multiple levels, but also facilitating change through promotion of improved policies and adaptive practices. The starting point for reversing the downward spiral of chronic vulnerability lies in understanding that while the frequency and severity of shocks and stressors are likely to increase as a result of climate-related change, this trend exacerbates – and is exacerbated by – other underlying factors such as poverty, malnutrition, degraded ecosystems, inadequate physical infrastructure, conflict and ineffective governance.

Under the auspices of the Food Security Information Network (FSIN), the Resilience Measurement Technical Working Group has defined resilience as:

“The capacity that ensures adverse stressors and shocks do not have long-lasting adverse development consequences.”⁸

Recent consultations in Zimbabwe that brought together government departments and ministries, UN agencies, NGOs/CSOs, academics and donors resulted in articulation of a more “unpacked” working definition of resilience as:

“The ability of at risk individuals, households, communities and systems to anticipate, cushion, adapt, bounce back better and move on from the effects of shocks and hazards in a manner that protects livelihoods and recovery gains, and supports sustainable transformation.”

TOWARD A RESILIENCE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR ZIMBABWE

Resilience building approaches are more than reworked development interventions, the distinctiveness of which is highlighted by a set of five principles:⁹

- **Focus on shock dynamics:** Resilience is a capacity that is exercised both in preparation of and in response to a disturbance. This includes large scale disturbances (covariate shocks) such as catastrophic weather events, geologic events, pests that threaten crops, and epidemic diseases, as well as more localized or individual events (idiosyncratic shocks). Building resilience requires detailed knowledge of shocks and stressors; and how a household, community, institution, higher-level system or process (e.g., market access by farmers groups) is able to respond to a shock. This requires not only a thorough analysis of the type of shock but also the effects of the

⁸ Food Security Information Network (FSIN). 2014. A common analytical model for resilience measurement: causal framework and methodological options. Rome: World Food Programme.

⁹ Constas, M., T. Frankenberger and J. Hoddinott. 2014. Resilience measurement principles: toward an agenda for measurement design. Resilience Measurement Technical Working Group Technical Series 1. Rome: Food Security Information Network.

shock (both objective and subjective). The timing of a shock or stressor with respect to a critical event (e.g., planting, growing, harvesting) is important as is the duration of the shock.

- **Resilience as a multidimensional capacity:** Resilience capacity draws on a wide array of resources including human¹⁰ (e.g., health/nutritional status, skills), social, economic, physical, programmatic (e.g., safety nets), and ecological resources. As a multidimensional capacity, building resilience requires an understanding of the optimal set of absorptive, adaptive, and transformative capacities used for a given shock at different levels of aggregation, in a given context, and for particular target populations.
- **Resilience functions:** Resilience is a capacity enacted in connection with a particular type of disturbance or configuration of disturbances that may facilitate different types of resilience, including absorptive, adaptive, and transformative capacities, to prepare for and respond to disturbances. The capacity to withstand the effect of a shock (e.g., absorptive capacity) is often the only option available, and may be essential for survival.
- **Outcome-indexed capacities:** Resilience capacity should be indexed to a given well-being outcome and the specific capacities drawn upon may vary depending on the outcome of interest. The outcome of interest would typically include, for example, some dimension of well-being such as basic health, food and nutrition security, or poverty status.
- **Multi-level and systems-based:** Resilience capacity is often observed at a given level (e.g., household, community) but is understood as a multi-level construct. This means that interventions should be sensitive to nested dependencies between, for example, households and communities or communities and regions. Dependencies that involve higher level features such as macro-economic policies implemented at the national level should also be considered.

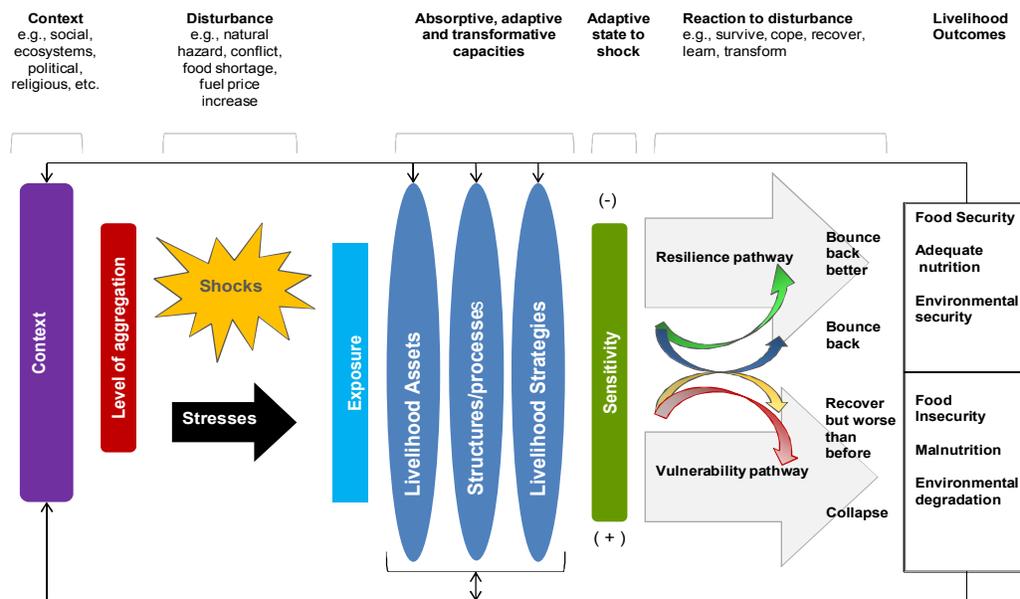
These five principles can help guide design of interventions or programmes using a resilience perspective to address the challenges of poverty, food and nutrition security, health or other well-being outcomes in Zimbabwe.

A resilience conceptual framework helps users understand how households and communities respond to shocks and stresses, how shocks and stresses affect livelihood outcomes and household well-being, and helps in identification of the key leverage points to be used in developing a theory of change, which in turn informs programming designed to enhance resilience. It enables policy makers and practitioners to have a comprehensive understanding of the factors and processes influencing vulnerability and resilience at the household, community and higher-level systems (e.g., government, ecosystem). It helps identify contextual factors, gaps in key livelihood assets, the functioning of structures and processes of key institutions (i.e., longer-term development approaches), and the livelihood strategies of vulnerable households.

¹⁰ Throughout this document, human resources includes health/nutrition status, skills, physical capability, spirituality, motivations, knowledge, etc.

The framework presented in Figure 1 integrates a livelihoods approach, a disaster risk reduction (DRR) approach, and elements of a climate change approach to address the underlying causes of vulnerability. The livelihoods approach emphasizes the importance of access to productive assets, institutional structures and processes, and the livelihood strategies pursued by households. The DRR approach focuses on preparedness, prevention, response and recovery activities formulated in response to potential shocks and stressors. Finally, the climate change adaptation (CCA) approach is similar to that of DRR, but focuses specifically on actions to be taken in response to, and preparation for on-going changes in climate. It goes beyond the DRR approach in giving careful consideration to potential threats caused by the loss of biodiversity and a decrease in ecosystem services. The main value of using a resilience concept lies in integrating approaches and communities of practice rather than as a novel approach to addressing poverty and food insecurity.¹¹ Ultimately, the conceptual framework helps users understand whether households, communities, and higher-level systems are on a trajectory toward greater vulnerability or greater resilience.¹²

Figure 1. Resilience conceptual framework.



Building resilience requires an integrated approach and a long-term commitment to improving three critical capacities: absorptive capacity, adaptive capacity, and transformative capacity.¹³

¹¹ Béné, C., R.G. Wood, A. Newsham and M. Davies. 2012. Resilience: new utopia or new tyranny? Reflection about the potentials and limits of the concept of resilience in relation to vulnerability reduction programmes. Working Paper 405. Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies.

¹² Frankenberger, T., M. Constas, S. Nelson and L. Starr. 2014. Current approaches to resilience programming among non-governmental organizations. 2020 Conference Paper 7. May 2014. Washington, D.C.: IFPRI.

¹³ Béné, C., R.G. Wood, A. Newsham and M. Davies. 2012. Resilience: new utopia or new tyranny? Reflection about the potentials and limits of the concept of resilience in relation to vulnerability reduction programmes. Working Paper 405. Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies.

- **Absorptive capacity:** The ability to minimize exposure to shocks and stresses through preventative measures and appropriate coping strategies to recover quickly and avoid permanent, negative impacts. Disaster risk reduction/management (DRR/DRM) supports improved absorptive capacity by helping households and communities reduce risk and absorb the impacts of shocks without permanent, negative impacts to their livelihoods.
- **Adaptive capacity:** Making proactive and informed choices about alternative livelihood strategies based on an understanding of changing conditions. Improved adaptive capacity results from livelihoods diversification, asset accumulation, and improved social and human capital.
- **Transformative capacity:** The governance mechanisms, policies/regulations, infrastructure, community networks, and formal and informal social protection mechanisms that constitute the enabling environment necessary for systemic change. Transformative capacity refers to system-level changes that enable more lasting resilience and often challenge the status quo in a substantial way.

These three capacities are interconnected, mutually reinforcing, and exist at multiple levels (i.e., individual, household, community, national, and ecosystem levels).

BACKGROUND

Major Shocks and Stressors

Zimbabwe has been affected by numerous shocks and stressors in the last several decades, many of which have had long-lasting impacts. Frequent natural disasters such as droughts and floods have further exacerbated poverty levels, especially because the predominant economic activity, rain-fed agriculture, is vulnerable to climatic variability. **Drought**, the most common natural disaster affecting Zimbabwe, caused six of the ten biggest natural disasters between 1991 and 2013.¹⁴ Countrywide droughts occur bi-annually. Much of Zimbabwe is comprised of semi-arid agro-ecological regions IV and V, which are characterised by “low and erratic rainfalls and poor soils,”¹⁵ (i.e., frequent dry spells). Given Zimbabwe’s heavy reliance on rain-fed agriculture and livestock, drought has serious implications for food security and the agriculture-based economy, particularly under increasing climate variability and change. Drought also impacts water availability for domestic and industrial use and power generation affecting cities and non-agriculture sectors.¹⁶

Over the last few decades, Zimbabwe has experienced **hotter days and increasingly variable rainfall**, with little change in annual rainfall but with more extreme events (i.e., longer, more frequent dry spells

¹⁴ Government of Zimbabwe and UNCT Zimbabwe. 2014. Zimbabwe Country Analysis: Working Document. Dated 4 November 2014.

¹⁵ WFP. 2014. Zimbabwe: Results of exploratory food and nutrition security analysis. Harare: WFP.

¹⁶ UNDP program documents.

and fewer, more intense rain days).¹⁷ Studies have found that climate change has caused some regional shifts to drier agro-ecological zones,¹⁸ which could impact livelihoods, especially where people have limited resources and information with which to adapt to new conditions. Small-scale farmers have already been affected by changing climate conditions over the last few decades, and these climate trends are predicted to continue.^{19,20} Policies such as the Zimbabwe Agriculture Investment Plan (2013-2017) are designed to increase “production, productivity and competitiveness of Zimbabwean agriculture.”²¹ However barriers such as limited resources, technical capacity, and access to information have constrained Zimbabwe’s ability to implement climate change adaptation measures, which may be essential to creating long-term sustainability in agriculture and food security.²²

Floods occur more frequently than drought, usually every year and often as a result of cyclones.²³ Recent records also show an increase in violent storms, with hail and strong winds that damage infrastructure, property and crops and cause loss of life (i.e., human and livestock). Floods tend to occur in the southern and northern low lying areas of Zimbabwe, in the paths of cyclones, in between river confluences, and downstream of major dams.²⁴ The frequency of floods and droughts is increasing in Zimbabwe as a result of climate change.

Deforestation stems mainly from uncontrolled forest fires as well as the high percentage of rural households relying on wood as their main energy source (over 90%).²⁵ Forests have also been degraded through over-harvesting of wood used for curing tobacco. According to the FAO’s Global Forest Resources Assessment in 2010, Zimbabwe was losing 327,000 hectares of indigenous forest cover annually between 1990 and 2010.²⁶ Dependence on wood also increases people’s vulnerability to climate change, environmental degradation, and health issues related to indoor pollution. Over-utilization of land can lead to soil erosion and decreased soil quality and productivity, posing a serious threat to agriculture-based livelihoods.

Other challenges affecting Zimbabwe include limited economic opportunities and access to markets, and political instability, which together have resulted in very low resilience capacity among millions of Zimbabweans. Political and economic crises in the late 1990s led to a decade of economic decline and then hyperinflation between 2007 and 2009,²⁷ causing major set-backs. Economic and political crises led to a 50% decline in Gross Domestic Product (GDP), industry closures, de-industrialization, large scale lay-

¹⁷ Government of Zimbabwe and UNCT Zimbabwe. 2014. Zimbabwe Country Analysis: Working Document. Dated 4 November 2014.

¹⁸ Ibid.

¹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰ Government of Zimbabwe. N.d. Zimbabwe’s National Climate Change Response Strategy.

²¹ Government of Zimbabwe and UNCT Zimbabwe. 2014. Zimbabwe Country Analysis: Working Document. Dated 4 November 2014.

²² Government of Zimbabwe. N.d. Zimbabwe’s National Climate Change Response Strategy. Pp 25.

²³ Government of Zimbabwe and UNCT Zimbabwe. 2014. Zimbabwe Country Analysis: Working Document. Dated 4 November 2014.

²⁴ UNDP program documents.

²⁵ Government of Zimbabwe. N.d. Zimbabwe’s National Climate Change Response Strategy.

²⁶ <http://www.irinnews.org/report/100421/tobacco-curing-eats-up-zimbabwe-s-forests>.

²⁷ World Bank. 2012. Republic of Zimbabwe Interim Strategy Note: FY13-15.

off of employees, and disruption of public services.²⁸ The economic crisis led to a major contraction of the agricultural sector, bringing about a multi-dimensional crisis. Zimbabwe moved from a net food exporter to a net food importer.²⁹

A brief period of recovery was followed by another economic “downward spiral” after the 2013 elections. Since the economic crisis of the 1990s, about 2-3 million Zimbabweans left the country.³⁰ Those who emigrated were largely highly skilled working-age adults including teachers, scientists, about one-half of the country’s doctors, and 60% of state-registered nurses.³¹ Thus, migration resulted in the wholesale loss of Zimbabwe’s most economically-active and skilled population, which slowed provision of public services and led to a decline of government institutional capacity and budget to address development goals,³² a loss of private sector investment and tax revenue, and very slow economic recovery.

As the most important economic sector in Zimbabwe, agriculture provides about 70% of the employment and contributes 13% of the annual GDP.³³ However, recent productivity has been volatile or decreasing, particularly for small grains and maize crops. Previously controlled prices of maize and other commodities led commercial farmers to switch to non-price controlled cash crops, such as tobacco and cotton³⁴ (i.e., not food). In 2013, tobacco accounted for 10.7% of GDP and nearly 22% of all exports.³⁵ A number of factors (e.g., lack of support services, credit, and inputs like seeds and fertilizer) result in low agricultural productivity,³⁶ and agriculture is particularly vulnerable to natural disasters and drought, which occur regularly and are expected to increase due to climate change.

Epidemics including HIV/AIDs, tuberculosis, malaria and cholera undermine the coping capacity of the poorest and most vulnerable. Although progress has been made in reducing the prevalence of HIV/AIDS, Zimbabwe still has one of the highest HIV prevalence rates in the world at 15%.³⁷ Prevalence of HIV is slightly higher in urban areas compared to rural areas, and among people ages 15-24. HIV prevalence is 1.5 times higher among women than men. Over 1.2 million adults and children were living with HIV/AIDS in 2011, and HIV-related deaths have led to 25% of children being vulnerable or orphaned.³⁸ Other diseases such as tuberculosis, malaria and cholera are exacerbated by HIV/AIDS, climate change,

²⁸ UNDP program documents.

²⁹ EU-DFID n.d. Draft Proposal for a Joint Disaster Resilience Strategy for Zimbabwe.

³⁰ Government of Zimbabwe and UNCT Zimbabwe. 2010. Country Analysis Report For Zimbabwe. August 2010.

³¹ Ibid.

³² Government of Zimbabwe and UNCT Zimbabwe. 2014. Zimbabwe Country Analysis: Working Document. Dated 4 November 2014.

³³ Government of Zimbabwe and UNCT Zimbabwe. 2014. Zimbabwe Country Analysis: Working Document. Dated 4 November 2014.

³⁴ UNDP program documents.

³⁵ <http://www.irinnews.org/report/100421/tobacco-curing-eats-up-zimbabwe-s-forests>.

³⁶ IFAD. Rural poverty in Zimbabwe. <http://www.ruralpovertyportal.org/country/home/tags/zimbabwe>.

³⁷ Government of Zimbabwe and UNCT Zimbabwe. 2014. Zimbabwe Country Analysis: Working Document. Dated 4 November 2014.

³⁸ Government of Zimbabwe and UNCT Zimbabwe. 2010. Country Analysis Report For Zimbabwe. August 2010.

and lack of access to safe water and sanitation services. Between 2008 and 2009, cholera infected over 98,000 people and killed 4,300.³⁹

Well-being Outcomes

In terms of **well-being outcomes**, chronic malnutrition affects slightly more than 30% of children between 6 and 59 months of age, which has remained relatively constant over the last decade.⁴⁰ Between 1.1 and 2.2 million Zimbabweans have been food insecure between January and March in the last five years,⁴¹ and according to a 2014 report, eight out of ten provinces were projected to experience crisis level food insecurity, in part due to low household income levels and high staple cereal prices, especially in the southern provinces.⁴² The prevalence of stunting among children aged 0-59 months has declined in the last ten years, but, at 27.6% in 2014, is still high; 24 districts have stunting rates above 35%.⁴³ Stunting is more prevalent among boys (31.1%) than girls (24.1%) and higher in rural areas (30%) compared to urban areas (20%).⁴⁴

As of 2011, 62.6% of Zimbabweans were living in poverty with 16.2% living in extreme poverty.⁴⁵ Rural areas have higher poverty rates than urban areas (76% and 38.2%, respectively),⁴⁶ and rural poverty is most prevalent in communal areas (79.4%) and resettlement areas (76.4%),⁴⁷ where over half the country's population lives.⁴⁸ Areas with high poverty rates tend to also be areas in which household access to water and sanitation is limited.⁴⁹

With a Maternal Mortality Rate (MMR) of 614 per 100,000 live births, Zimbabwe will not meet MDG5 by 2015.⁵⁰ Child mortality rates are also off-target; the infant mortality rate is 55 per 1,000 live births (with a 2015 target of 22 per 1,000 live births), and the under-five mortality rate is 75 per 1,000 live births (with a 2015 target of 34 per 1,000 live births). Although rates of stunting in children under the age of five are moderate in Zimbabwe compared to other sub-Saharan countries, one in three children under the age of five is chronically malnourished, with higher prevalence of stunting among the poor than among wealthier quintiles.

³⁹ EU-DFID n.d. Draft Proposal for a Joint Disaster Resilience Strategy for Zimbabwe.

⁴⁰ WFP. 2014. Zimbabwe: Results of exploratory food and nutrition security analysis. Harare: WFP.

⁴¹ ICA – Integrated Context Analysis – Zimbabwe 2014.

⁴² OCHA. 2014. Southern Africa: weekly report (19 to 25 August 2014). Available at: <http://reliefweb.int/map/zimbabwe/southern-africa-weekly-report-19-25-august-2014>.

⁴³ Ministry of Health and Child Welfare and Food and Nutrition Council. 2010. Zimbabwe National Nutrition Survey – 2010. Available at: <http://www.zadhr.org/national-documents/103-zimbabwe-national-nutrition-survey-2010.html>.

⁴⁴ Government of Zimbabwe and UNCT Zimbabwe. 2014. Zimbabwe Country Analysis: Working Document. Dated 4 November 2014.

⁴⁵ Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency. 2013. Poverty Income Consumption and expenditure Survey (PICES) 2011/2012 report.

⁴⁶ Ibid.

⁴⁷ Government of Zimbabwe and UNCT Zimbabwe. 2014. Zimbabwe Country Analysis: Working Document. Dated 4 November 2014

⁴⁸ Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency. N.d. Census 2012. National Report.

⁴⁹ Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey 2014.

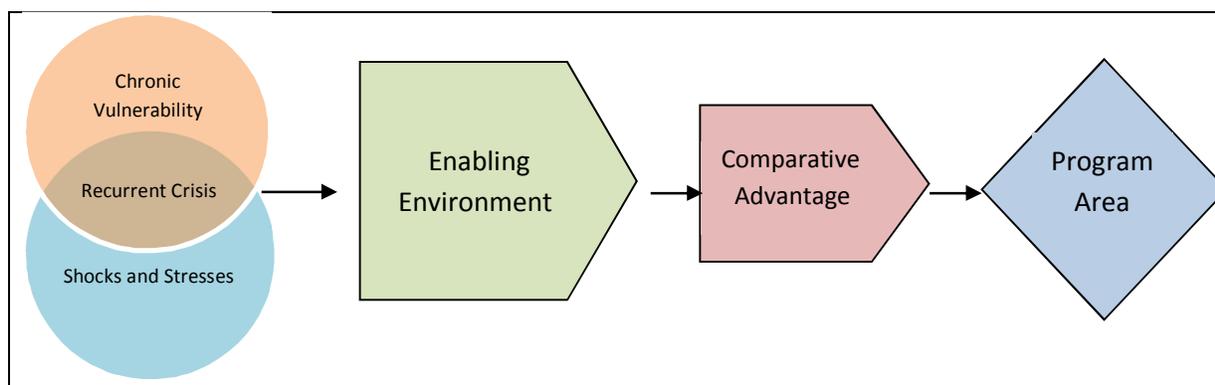
⁵⁰ Government of Zimbabwe and UNCT Zimbabwe. 2014. Zimbabwe Country Analysis: Working Document. Dated 4 November 2014.

TARGETING

The factors underlying chronic vulnerability and the nature of shocks and stresses will vary from region to region and among different livelihood groups. The identification of potential programme areas should follow a systematic process.

Programming for resilience is highly context-specific. Those areas where high levels of chronic vulnerability and frequent shocks and stresses occur together provide the starting point for identifying where to target resilience building interventions (Figure 2). These are chronically vulnerable areas that have suffered significant losses due to recurrent disasters, and that have often received repeated rounds of humanitarian assistance. Targeting can be further refined by layering areas with stronger enabling environments, and that possess comparative advantages in terms of development assistance programmes. Targeting methods should rely on a convergence of evidence from different sources, both quantitative and qualitative.

Figure 2. Targeting process for selecting programme areas.



Identifying programme areas requires bringing together information on the humanitarian situation, chronic poverty, existing capacities and resources, and development interventions across a wide range of sectors. In Zimbabwe, programming for resilience building focuses on the overlap between areas of chronic vulnerability and the occurrence of shocks and stressors. Other considerations include the enabling environment (e.g., government support, community processes), as well as the comparative advantages of an area (e.g., potential partners, existing programmes). Illustrative examples of criteria that can be used for the initial targeting of programme areas are presented below.⁵¹ Additional criteria can be added based on context.

Chronic Vulnerability

- High incidence of persistent poverty
- High rates of stunting and chronic malnutrition
- Exposure to human and animal disease
- Pressure on natural resources and environmental degradation

⁵¹ Adapted from Building Resilience to Recurrent Crisis, USAID Policy and Program Guidance, December 2012. USAID, Washington, DC.

Shocks and Stresses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Frequent shocks and stresses due to natural causes • Vulnerability to economic shocks • Risk of conflict • High exposure to natural hazards • Level of humanitarian need
Enabling Environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Government institutional services and safety nets • Engaged and responsive leadership at all levels • Community willingness to engage • Strong partnerships
Comparative Advantage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Capacities of local communities and local government • Infrastructure • Presence of development partners and resources

There are several methods that can be used to identify chronically vulnerable areas (CVAs). One method to identify CVAs is the Alkire-Foster method, which captures the non-income multi-dimensional aspects of poverty based on 10 indicators through a deprivation score computed as an equation. The Alkire-Foster method can be used to derive a Multi-dimensional Poverty Index (MPI) for each district which will guide specific targeting. Data at the ward level is needed in order to derive an MPI and the UN should work with ZimSTAT to obtain this data and to develop a targeting methodology using this approach. The data should be complemented with more specific qualitative information on poverty, vulnerability, and capacities obtained through field surveys before targeting is finalized.

Another approach that can be used to identify CVAs is the Integrated Phase Classification (IPC) method, which is already in use in Zimbabwe.⁵² The IPC brings all stakeholders together and using different data sets, enables stakeholders to agree on the most vulnerable areas. Information from both the Alkire-Foster method and the IPC can be used to identify the initial target areas.

RESILIENCE PRINCIPLES

In order to harmonize resilience building efforts with Zimbabwe’s existing national development plans and strategies, in particular the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (Zim Asset), it is important that development and humanitarian actors operate under a common set of resilience operating principles and create synergies based on their individual competitive advantages. Building on discussions from the Zimbabwe Expert Workshop on Resilience in September 2014, the following principles have been adapted from various resilience frameworks (e.g., UNDP, Mercy Corps, DFID, USAID, EU) and represent the set of core principles that will guide operationalization of the Zimbabwe Resilience Building Strategic Framework.

Comprehensive multi-stakeholder risk analysis: Designing interventions to improve the absorptive, adaptive and transformative capacities that underlie resilience capacity requires good programme design, which depends on a theory of change (TOC) that correctly identifies the underlying problems and

⁵² The EU is supporting roll out of IPC in Zimbabwe through FAO project support to the Food and Nutrition Council, and through a global thematic programme (to be approved).

appropriate leverage points needed to affect desired change.⁵³ Development of such a TOC depends on a thorough multi-hazard, multi-sector assessment of all the contextual factors that affect the system(s) under study. Analysis begins with a comprehensive understanding of risk and vulnerability – the environmental, political, social, economic, historical, demographic, religious, conflict, and policy conditions that affect, and are affected by, how households, communities, and governments prevent, cope with, and recover from shocks and stresses. A comprehensive assessment is necessary to fully understand the constantly changing relationship between risk and vulnerability on the one hand and livelihood outcomes and resilience on the other.

Comprehensive and holistic risk analysis must involve a multi-stakeholder participatory process that brings together different perspectives to identify the problems and potential solutions for dealing with shocks and stressors. Stakeholders should include members of the target population, community and local government officials, interested citizens, community-based organisations and NGOs, implementing agencies, and other entities (e.g., schools, research institutions, private sector, and universities) from relevant sectors. In particular, a participatory process (e.g., Community-based Planning⁵⁴) helps ensure community-level input into identifying the problem(s) from the community's perspective as well as what they perceive to be their assets, capacities and existing community approaches for addressing the underlying causes of vulnerability to shocks and stressors. Community input contributes to a sense of community ownership and increases the likelihood of success and long-term sustainability of the programme. Working with and enhancing existing local institutions will also help ensure programme continuity and facilitate exit later in the programme cycle.

Integrated and holistic programming approaches: Resilience building relies on integrated programming—a cross-sectoral approach with a long-term commitment to improving the three critical resilience capacities: absorptive capacity (disaster risk management), adaptive capacity (longer-term livelihood investments) and transformative capacity (improved governance and enabling conditions).⁵⁵ Programmes with an integrated approach ensure that partners and sectors work together to address key leverage points and adopt complementary, synergistic strategies to promote resilience. However, simply combining cross-sectoral interventions in either time or space (i.e., integration) does not necessarily result in the synergistic effects expected when interventions in one sector actually interact with—and enhance—those in another sector in order to affect desired change outcomes.⁵⁶ Cross-

⁵³ Frankenberger, T., M. Conostas, S. Nelson and L. Starr. 2014. Current approaches to resilience programming among non-governmental organizations. 2020 Conference Paper 7. May 2014. Washington, D.C.: IFPRI.

⁵⁴ CBP is enshrined in Zimbabwean law (i.e., the Provincial Council and Administration Act (1984) and allied acts and national development policies), which provides for administrative units (i.e., villages, wards, councils, provinces) to undertake routine development planning following specific protocols. This process has been led by the Rural District Councils, District Administrations, traditional leadership and government departments. Local authorities are aware of these directives and procedures, even though some may not have delivered consistently or with the desired quality. The revision of the Rural District Councils Act in 1996 indicated that Zimbabwean law not only supports participatory planning processes such as CBP, but in fact mandates it. The experience in Zimbabwe suggests that it promotes holistic programming that includes all sectors, and strengthens social capital.

⁵⁵ Béné, C., R.G. Wood, A. Newsham and M. Davies. 2012. Resilience: new utopia or new tyranny? Reflection about the potentials and limits of the concept of resilience in relation to vulnerability reduction programmes. Working Paper 405. Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies.

⁵⁶ UNICEF. 2014. Study on Integrated Programming in UNICEF Humanitarian Action: Final Report. New York: UNICEF.

sectoral programming supports and protects a core programming focus (e.g., food and nutrition security, poverty, peace-building) through strengthened resilience at household, community or higher-system levels.

Long-term commitment: Building resilience is a long-term process (i.e., 10-15 years) that requires the sustained commitment of all relevant actors. International partners should support governments in developing comprehensive national plans and align their support behind those plans in a coordinated manner and according to their comparative advantage. Plans need to be flexible enough to react quickly to deteriorating situations and be supported by strategic and flexible financing from both humanitarian and development mechanisms. The Government of Zimbabwe's ZimAsset plan for economic growth and wealth creation supports a longer-term commitment to resilience building in Zimbabwe.

Strengthening social capital: Previous research demonstrates that the extent and application of social capital is an important element in determining the nature of resilience, particularly at the community level⁵⁷ and initiatives to build resilience in Zimbabwe should include strengthening social capital in the design of their programmes. Project activities encourage collective action, collaboration, and self-organization, such as VSLA activities, which promote self-sufficiency, enhance decision-making, and increase asset bases, and facilitating inter-clan social relationships that broaden the networks from which communities may draw in order to cope with complex shocks.⁵⁸

Regional approach: A regional approach may enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of resilience capacity-building programming in Zimbabwe by allowing stakeholders (e.g., government, NGOs, UN agencies, donors, private sector, academia) to align resources, build staff capacity, and address cross-country themes that require systems thinking and approaches (e.g., cross-border conflicts, large-scale natural disasters, trans-boundary migration). A regional approach may allow for better contextualization of a defined area, which is required for good problem analysis (particularly at a systems level) and programming. Because many different actors often implement similar programme initiatives within a single region, a regional approach provides significant opportunities for cross-learning and enhanced knowledge management (i.e., identifying and addressing critical knowledge gaps, making programme-based knowledge available in a timely fashion and reader-friendly format, linking information back into iterative programming).

There are, however, limits to what should constitute a region, which might be constrained by physical or political boundaries, agro-ecological zones, culture, language, etc. Thus, regional approaches need to consider contextual factors unique to each region. A regional approach may also contribute to more coordinated strategic planning around resilience, which would help ensure that relevant stakeholders are on the same page in terms of understanding the risks and anticipating probable humanitarian needs.

Iterative and flexible process that allows for real-time changes in programming: Context is dynamic rather than static and is constantly changing based on how individuals, households or communities deal

⁵⁷ Aldrich, D.P. 2012. Building resilience: social capital in post-disaster recovery. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

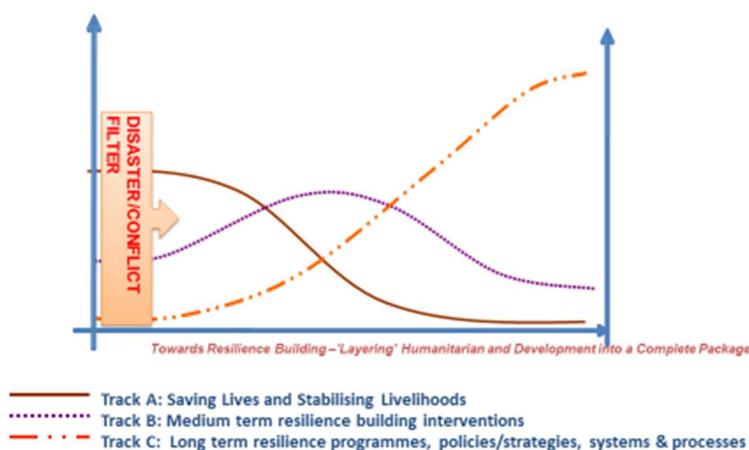
⁵⁸ Frankenberger, T., M. Constanas, S. Nelson and L. Starr. 2014. Current approaches to resilience programming among non-governmental organizations. 2020 Conference Paper 7. May 2014. Washington, D.C.: IFPRI.

with and respond to risks and shocks (Alinovi et al. 2010). Thus, new contextual factors may need to be incorporated into resilience building approaches as circumstances change (either positively or negatively). Interventions must be designed in a way that allows for real-time changes and improvements to programming through regular feed-back and shared learning. Programme designs must include a flexible and iterative monitoring system that also allows for more timely and efficient procurement of resources (e.g., crisis modifiers) that facilitates a quick transition from development to humanitarian activities based on early warning trigger indicators.

Build national and local capacity: Ultimately, resilience building should be led by national governments wherever possible, particularly in providing the enabling environment (e.g., functional institutions, good governance, productive infrastructure, healthy natural resource base) necessary for improving the absorptive, adaptive, and transformative capacities of households, communities and higher-level systems. Given Zimbabwe’s recent political and economic crises, resilience building must include strong programming elements for building capacity at all levels of government, but particularly at the national level, that can lead to systemic changes in the structural constraints (e.g., ecological, political, economic, social, markets, agricultural, policy) contributing to food, nutrition, and livelihood insecurity in Zimbabwe.

Multi-track approach that combines humanitarian and development interventions: A linear, phased approach to relief, recovery and development has had limited long-term success in preventing recurrent emergencies in regions of chronic vulnerability or in making sustained improvements in protracted emergencies. A multi-track approach is needed that builds strong linkages between short-, medium-, and long-term programme interventions that span humanitarian (short-term track) as well as development responses (medium and longer-term tracks) (Figure 3). Tracks should complement each other and be coherent. They may be initiated simultaneously, sequenced over time, and/or layered , depending on need. This calls for joint or mutually-informed project designs and procurements to enable the layering, integrating or sequencing of humanitarian and development assistance.

Figure 3. Linking short-, medium- and long-term approaches to building resilience in Zimbabwe.



Anchored in national and local actors' realities and contexts: Building resilience is context-specific, i.e., it is defined by the type of shock or stressor experienced, as well as by the social, economic, environmental, and political context in which the shock occurred and in which household or community response decisions are made. Understanding local perceptions of the challenges and priorities, and tailoring programmes to strengthen or improve limiting contextual factors is an important component of resilience building at the individual, household and community levels.

Build strategic partnerships and dynamic relationships that are transformative: Building resilience requires a diverse range of actors with complementary capacities and skills. Programming initiatives should engage the most vulnerable to the most powerful stakeholders, and maintain awareness of the incentives, motivations and power dynamics that define relationships. Strategic partnerships between government entities, NGOs/CBOs, donors and others (e.g., private sector, UN agencies) can drive formulation of new ideas and solutions, support identification and promotion of shared interests, help clarify programming priorities, and capture important lessons learned from complementary sectoral interventions. Strategic partnerships are also important for joint risk analysis and multi-sectoral approaches to building resilience. By forging mutually advantageous partnerships, development and humanitarian actors can strengthen the ability of vulnerable populations to adapt to change, improve their well-being, and contribute to and benefit from social development and economic growth.

THEORY OF CHANGE FOR PROMOTING RESILIENCE IN ZIMBABWE

Taking the local context into consideration, there are a number of investments that could contribute to building the absorptive, adaptive and transformative capacities of individuals, households, communities and systems in the programme areas. Which of these investments would be prioritized will depend on the comprehensive assessment that would take place. Figure 4 presents a TOC for strengthening resilience in Zimbabwe.

For improving absorptive capacity, interventions should focus on the ability of households, communities and systems to manage shocks and stresses in the short-term through cash savings, informal safety nets, disposal of liquid assets that are accumulated in non-shock years, disaster risk reduction strategies, hazard insurance, and reliance on bonding social capital.⁵⁹ People's perceptions regarding their ability to recover from shocks would also be important. For improving adaptive capacity, investments would be made to enable people and systems to proactively adapt to changing conditions through better access to information, diversifying livelihoods into different risk profiles, reliance on bridging and linking social capital,⁶⁰ accumulating assets, access to financial services, investment in human capital for better access to skills and improved nutrition and health status, and increased confidence to adapt. For transformative capacity, investments would be geared towards improved governance, access to formal

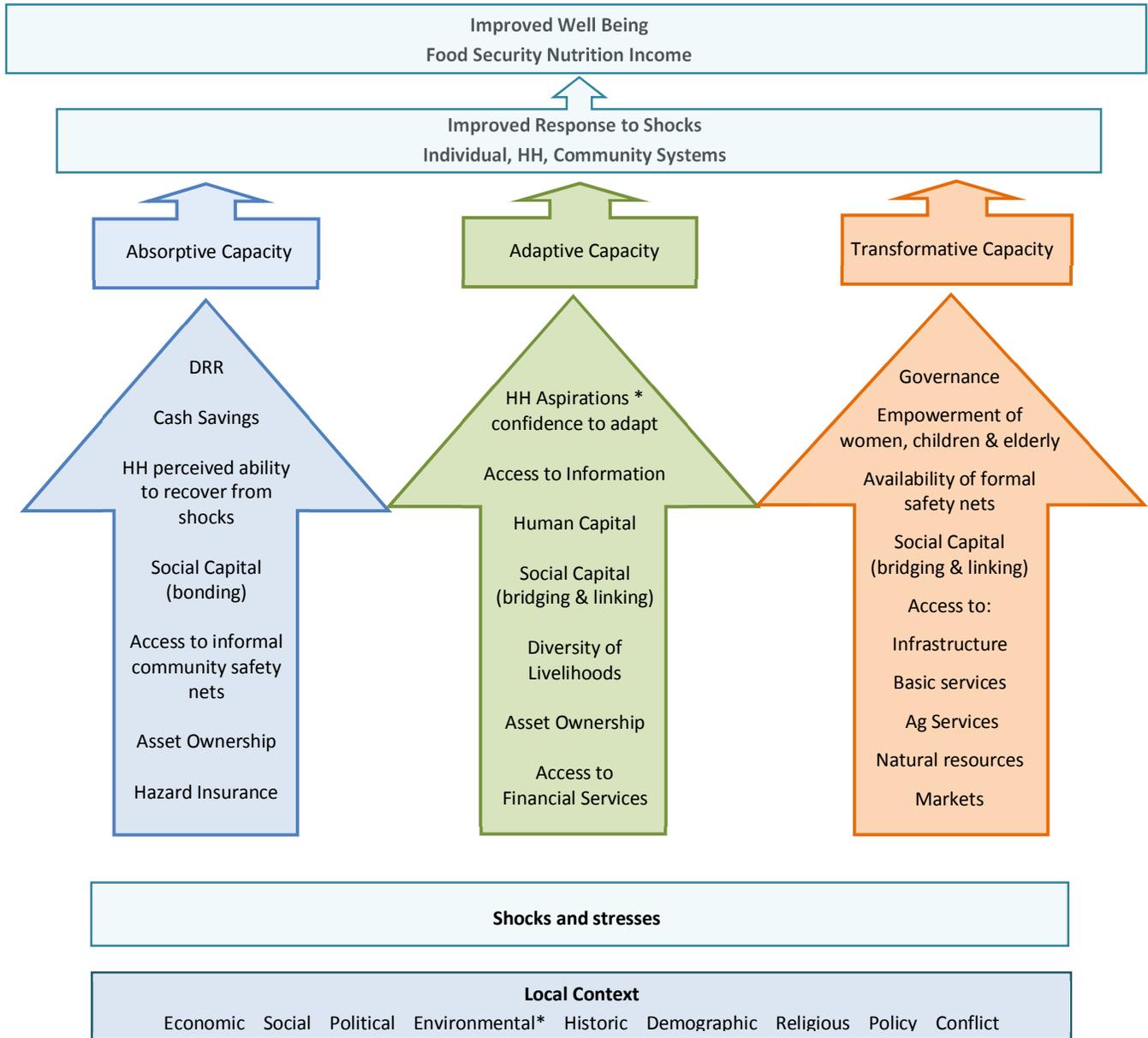
⁵⁹ Bonding social capital reflects the principles and norms that exist between members of a community (e.g., trust, reciprocity, cooperation) that allow them to work closely with each other to prevent, cope with and respond to shocks and stressors.

⁶⁰ Bridging social capital connects members of one community with those of another (e.g., across cultural, ethnic, geographic, or language groups), whereas linking social capital is reflected in the social networks that exist between individuals or groups and some form of higher authority or power in the social sphere. [see Aldrich, D. 2012. Building resilience: Social capital in post-disaster recovery. The University of Chicago Press.]

safety nets, access to market, access to basic services, access to agricultural services, natural resource access, access to infrastructure, reliance on bridging and linking social capital, and empowering women, children, the elderly and the disabled.

In the face of various shocks and stresses, individuals, households, communities and systems are able to use these capacities to appropriately respond in such a way that well-being indicators are not adversely affected and maintain a positive trajectory in the long term.

Figure 4. Theory of Change for building resilience in Zimbabwe.



*Includes climate change.

When designing resilience building strategies, programme design and analysis must consider existing programmes, such as the Harmonised Social Cash Transfer Programme (HSCT) funded by DFID and other donors, the Integrated Programme for Sustainable Food Security and the ACP-EU Water Facility funded by the EU, multi-donor initiatives such as the Health Transition Fund, the Education Development Fund, the Rural WASH fund, UNDP’s governance programmes, as well as programmes supported by Sweden, Denmark, USAID, Swiss and other donors.

PROGRAMME APPROACHES FOR BUILDING RESILIENCE IN ZIMBABWE

As the government’s primary strategy for promoting accelerated economic growth, Zim Asset seeks sustainable development and social equity through the “judicious exploitation of the country’s human and natural resources.”⁶¹ Four strategic clusters comprise the strategy: a) Food Security and Nutrition; b) Social Services and Poverty Eradication; c) Infrastructure and Utilities; and d) Value Addition and Beneficiation. Thus, resilience building efforts in Zimbabwe need to be aligned with the Zim Asset agenda, complementing and supporting on-going efforts in pro-poor growth, food and nutrition security, women’s empowerment, the environment, livelihoods, basic service delivery (e.g., WASH), and Disaster Risk Management (DRM).⁶² In the long term, the following key outcomes are expected as a result of building resilience in Zimbabwe:⁶³

- Improved food and nutrition security, sustainable livelihoods (e.g., secure incomes), strengthened adaptive capacities to manage risks, and sustainable inclusive growth and development at local, subnational and national levels. An improved and healthy productive sector that provides more economic opportunities, access to jobs/employment, diversified nutrition-sensitive livelihoods, and increasing incomes, all of which helps the vulnerable transition out of poverty and away from food insecurity.
- Increased access to sustainable, quality and adaptive social/basic services focused on education, health (including HIV/AIDS), safe water, and sanitation (WASH).
- Social protection including social safety nets, community empowerment, and transparent and responsive governance.
- Improved policy consistency for mainstreaming of resilience in relevant sector policies as well as in Disaster Risk Management (DRM) and Climate Change Adaptation (CCA).
- Risk-financing mechanisms triggered by Early Warning Systems (EWS) that lead to the timely release of income transfers when indicator thresholds are exceeded (e.g., crisis modifiers) in order to prevent/ minimize the selling off of assets in response to shocks and stressors.⁶⁴

Resilience programming shifts the balance of effort and resources from short-term humanitarian assistance efforts toward a combination of disaster risk management, climate change adaptation,

⁶¹ Government of Zimbabwe. 2013. Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (Zim Asset). October 2013–December 2018. Harare.

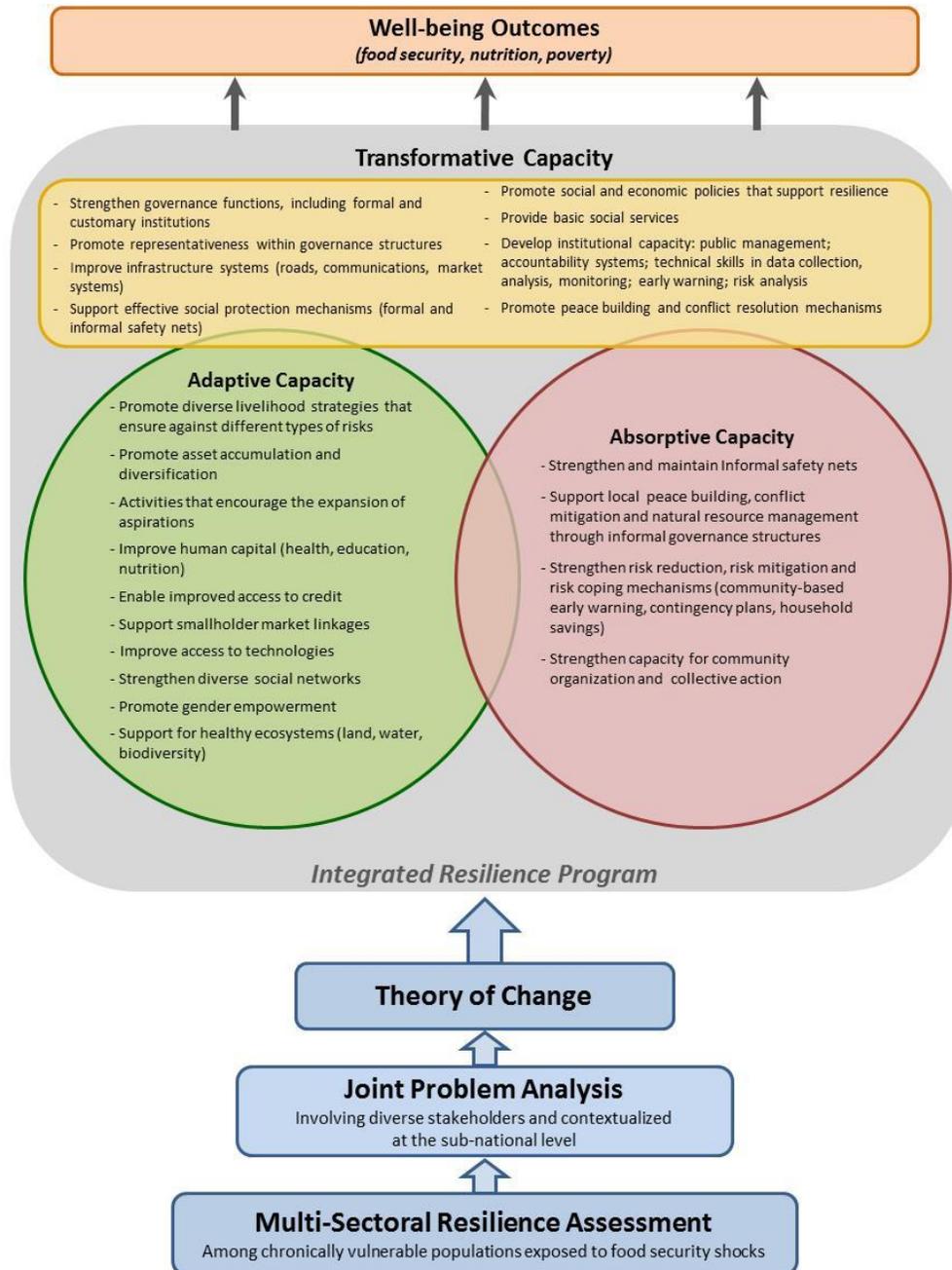
⁶² UNDP. 2014. Zimbabwe Resilience Building Funding Mechanism. A Draft Proposal. October 2014.

⁶³ These outcomes are specific to Zimbabwe but adapted from “A Framework for Building Resilience in Southern Africa, April 2014, RIASCO, Johannesburg, South Africa”.

⁶⁴ Similar to the risk-financing mechanisms used in the Productive Safety Nets Program (PSNP) in Ethiopia.

livelihood diversification, social protection programmes, and longer-term institutional development. Specific programme interventions must be based on a comprehensive understanding of the particular shocks faced by communities, their absorptive, adaptive and transformative capacities, how they respond to the shock or stressors, and their well-being outcomes (e.g., poverty, health, food and nutrition security). Although programme interventions will therefore vary depending on the specific relationships identified between various shocks, capacities, responses and outcomes, certain strategic areas of focus are critical for building resilience (Figure 5).

Figure 5. Resilience programming framework.



Building resilience capacity in Zimbabwe will require a long-term commitment to strengthening the absorptive, adaptive and transformational capacities that help individuals, households, communities, governments, and ecosystems adapt and respond to shocks and stressors. A number of existing and on-going initiatives already contribute to building resilience capacities in Zimbabwe. Programmes designed to build resilience will need to consider and align with these and other government, donor, NGO and private sector initiatives in order to capitalize on the comparative strengths and advantages of on-going efforts, and minimize duplication of effort.

Building Absorptive Capacity

Improving the absorptive capacity of households and communities facilitates their ability to cope with the impacts of shocks and stresses without incurring permanent, negative effects on their longer-term livelihood security. Absorptive capacity interventions often include DRR/DRM approaches, risk-financing mechanisms (e.g., crisis-modifiers), improved access to savings, informal safety nets, asset protection, and a perceived ability to recover from shocks. They often involve transfers of cash, food or non-food items, such as the government’s Harmonised Social Cash Transfer Programme (HSCT) and the soon-to-be-implemented Livelihoods and Food Security Programme (LFSP).

Programmes designed to protect household assets and food security in the face of shocks by building absorptive capacity often include a risk financing mechanism to trigger early response (i.e., crisis modifier). The trigger indicators and thresholds of crisis modifiers should be agreed in advance, with sensitivity to the politics of decision-making.

There is growing evidence of the effectiveness and benefits of cash transfers, based on the appropriate context, analysis of risks, and needs. A 2014 review of cash transfers in emergencies found that delivering cash assistance was generally much more efficient than providing in-kind aid.⁶⁵ Cash enables households to better absorb and adapt to shocks or stressors—offering the important benefits of flexibility and dignity of choice for households, as well as efficiency and economic stimulation. There is also potential for cash to be linked to government safety nets and social protection graduation strategies, and to be taken to scale in some situations. In all, cash transfers are an important tool to achieve multi-sectoral objectives, often in combination with in-kind assistance, across different types of emergencies.

In Zimbabwe, resilience programming that involves DRR/DRM strategies should consider and complement the Disaster Risk Management Strategy and the Disaster Risk Management Bill, which highlight “information management, prevention, mitigation and strengthening resilience, preparedness and response and early recovery.”⁶⁶ For example, programmes should take advantage of the Drought Relief and Civil Protection Committees that exist within local government structures. Additionally, a proposed Joint EU-DFID Disaster Resilience Strategy will promote building resilience of Zimbabwean households and communities in order to mitigate the impacts of – and recover from

⁶⁵ Waites, T. 2014. Preliminary findings from a DFID VfM study linking cash and resilience, draft. DFID, 10 December.

⁶⁶ Government of Zimbabwe and UNCT Zimbabwe. 2014. Zimbabwe Country Analysis: Working Document. Dated 4 November 2014.

– shocks without employing negative coping strategies (e.g., sale of productive assets) that affect their future livelihood security. Interventions that promote or strengthen the informal safety nets (i.e., bonding social capital) that households rely on in times of need (e.g., mutual help groups, VSLA), also help build absorptive capacity.

Building Adaptive Capacity

Programme elements build the adaptive capacities of households and communities by strengthening their ability to make pro-active and informed choices about alternative livelihood strategies based on an understanding of changing conditions. Adaptive capacity interventions may include both humanitarian and development approaches, and typically focus on livelihoods diversification, human capital (e.g., skills building, health and nutrition status, education), asset accumulation and diversification, climate-smart agriculture, access to financial services (e.g., credit), and confidence in being able to adapt, including to take risks. In Zimbabwe, as in other places around the globe, climate change adaptation is key to enhanced adaptive capacity, particularly as it relates to agriculture and the impacts of climate change. Although the Government of Zimbabwe is still finalizing the National Climate Change Response Strategy, as well as a new Irrigation Policy, both should be considered in designing resilience programmes that emphasize improving adaptive capacity.

The government's Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) contributes to improved human capital by providing assistance for tuition, examination fees, etc. for orphans and vulnerable children (OVC), helping to increase their adaptive capacity for dealing with shocks and stressors (e.g., through livelihood diversification).

Building Transformative Capacity

Long-term and sustainable resilience building is not possible without building transformative capacity, which addresses the underlying drivers of risk and vulnerability, and promotes social cohesion through public assets and human capital.⁶⁷ Transformative capacity is enhanced through investments in good governance, infrastructure (e.g., markets, roads, communications systems), basic service delivery (e.g., health, education, sanitation, water), and policies that enable households to maintain good health and nutrition, to sustain and diversify livelihoods, and to exercise their individual and collective rights. For example, both the Global Fund, a multilateral fund for global health, and UNICEF's Health Transition Fund (led by the health ministry), strengthen transformative capacity by supporting basic health service delivery, including retention of skilled health care providers. The Education Development Fund, led by the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, also helps build transformative capacity by strengthening the delivery and improvement of education services.

The Government of Zimbabwe has made tremendous progress towards creating the enabling environments that promote resilience building, including both the new Constitution in 2013 and the 2013-2018 Zim Asset, which targets job creation, improved livelihoods, and upgrading/rehabilitating key

⁶⁷ TANGO. 2015. Think Piece: Managing recurrent shocks in food insecure countries. Paper prepared for the Thematic Team on Reducing Vulnerability and Managing Risk. World Humanitarian Summit.

infrastructure in order to grow and expand the economy.⁶⁸ A number of policies were enacted in 2009 that helped reverse a decade of economic decline (e.g., a multi-currency system) and have resulted in some measure of stability in the public service sector and recovery of basic goods and services delivery (e.g., health, education, water and sanitation).⁶⁹ More recently, the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development has enacted a number of programmes to increase stability of the financial sector (e.g., the Staff Monitoring Program). Policies such as the Zimbabwe Agriculture Investment Plan (2013-2017), which is designed to increase “production, productivity and competitiveness of Zimbabwean agriculture,”⁷⁰ also contribute to enhancing resilience through improved transformative capacity. Other policies resilience building approaches might need to align with and support include the Food and Nutrition Policy, National Gender Policy, National Labour/Employment Policy, Traditional Leaders Act, Environmental Act, Mental Health and Wellbeing Policy, and the House and Social Amenities Policy among others.

More detailed descriptions of potential programming investments for building resilience are presented in Annex 1.

MEASURING RESILIENCE

To measure improvements in resilience in Zimbabwe, there is need for **empirical evidence regarding what factors contribute to resilience, under what contexts, and for what types of shocks**. The ability to measure the relationship represented by resilience (i.e., the relationship between shocks, responses, and future states of well-being) depends on the analysis of a number of substantive dimensions and structural features. Substantive features highlight the specific indicators considered and data collected so that insights related to resilience dynamics can be measured.

Causal frameworks are useful because they focus measurement activities and because they provide a potential link between the logic of interventions and the organization of data analysis that follows measurement. The Resilience Causal Framework presented here provides a further organizational scheme in which the task of developing resilience measures can be conceptualized and implemented (

Figure 6).⁷¹

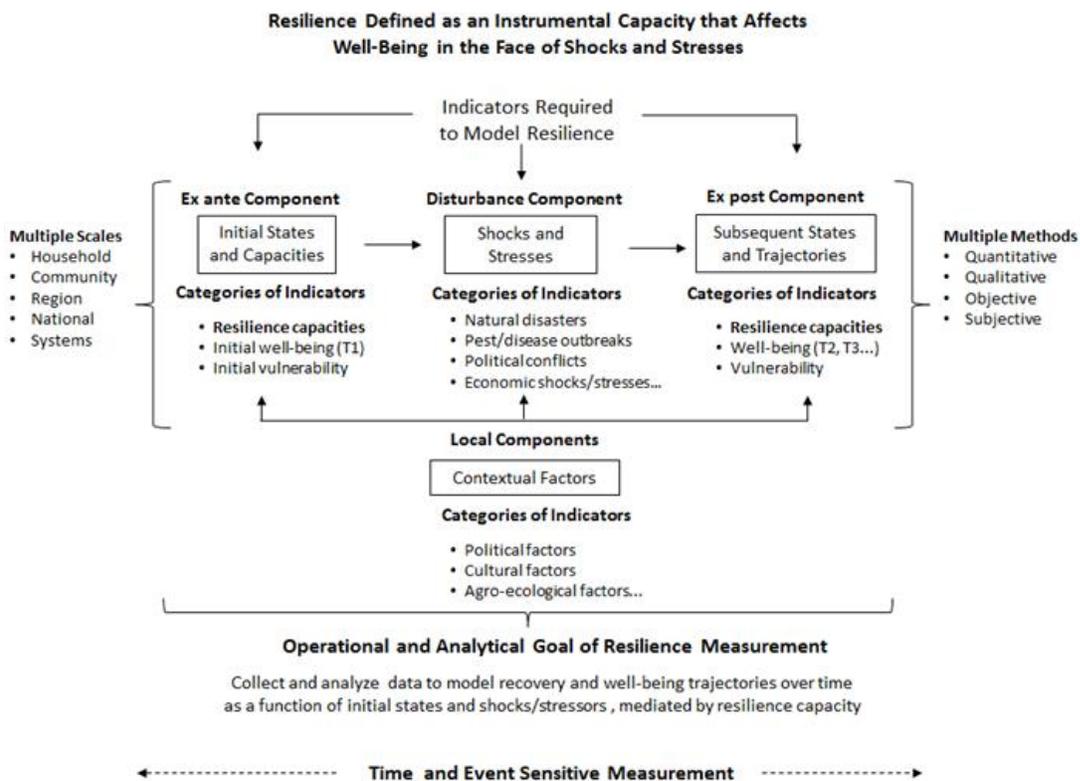
⁶⁸ Government of Zimbabwe and UNCT Zimbabwe. 2014. Zimbabwe Country Analysis: Working Document. Dated 4 November 2014.

⁶⁹ Government of Zimbabwe and UN Zimbabwe. 2010. Country Analysis Report For Zimbabwe.

⁷⁰ Government of Zimbabwe and UNCT Zimbabwe. 2014. Zimbabwe Country Analysis: Working Document. Dated 4 November 2014.

⁷¹ Conostas, M. and C. Barrett. 2014. Resilience measurement for development: theory, metrics, and analytical strategies. In prep. New York: Cornell University.

Figure 6. Resilience measurement integrated framework.



Substantive features comprise initial- and end-state measures, disturbance measures, and capacity measures. The indicators required to measure resilience fall under the following components: i) ex ante component (i.e., Initial states and capacities), ii) disturbance component, which represents shocks and stresses, and iii) ex post component that represents subsequent states and trajectories. Resilience measurement will be focusing on multiple scales (e.g., individuals, households, community, district/provincial, national and systems).

There are four key factors to consider in measuring resilience:

- Identify the well-being outcomes to be achieved and measure resilience in relation to these outcomes.
- Identify the shocks and stresses that individuals, households, communities and systems are exposed to and the severity and duration of these shocks and stresses.
- Measure the absorptive, adaptive and transformative capacities in relation to these shocks and stresses at different levels.

- Identify the responses of individuals, households, communities and systems to these shocks and stresses and trajectory of well-being outcomes.

The following categories of indicators will be measured:

Ex ante component: resilience capacity; initial well-being outcomes; and, initial vulnerability.

Disturbance component: natural disasters; pest/disease outbreaks; political conflicts; and economic shocks/stresses.

Ex post component: resilience capacity; well-being outcomes; and vulnerability

All three components must be understood in relation to contextual factors. The categories of contextual indicators include political factors, agro-ecological factors; and Cultural factors.

Structural and methodological features highlight the way in which data will be collected.⁷² Structural-methodological features introduce questions about the scale, timing, and types of measurement employed to measure resilience. How these dimensions of measurement interact is illustrated in Table 1.

⁷² Frankenberger, T., M. Constan, S. Nelson and L. Starr. 2014. Resilience programming among nongovernmental organizations: lessons for policymakers. Food Policy Report. Washington, D.C.: IFPRI.

Table 1. Analysis of resilience measurement practices.

Orienting Questions	Potential Dimensions	Examples of Measurement Dimensions
Substantive Features of Resilience Measurement		
Initial & subsequent state measures What is the outcome of interest?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dimensions of well-being • Contextual factors • Systems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poverty, food security, health, nutrition, social connectedness • The contexts and systems that enable attainment of targeted outcomes
Disturbance measures To what set of conditions is resilience a response?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Covariate shocks • Idiosyncratic shocks • Stresses • Cumulative effects of stresses 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Catastrophic events, climate change, socio-political events, health events, agricultural events, economic events
Capacities measures What resources and responses are included as measures of resilience capacities?	Resources <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Human-social • Economic-financial • Political-institutional • Material-physical • Agro-ecological • Ecological 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individual capacity, social cohesion, asset holdings and productive assets, markets, stability of government and institutions, physical infrastructure (e.g., roads, electricity), resources to support agricultural production, natural resources
Structural-Methodological Features of Resilience Measurement		
Scale of measurement For whom and/or for what entities will the capacity for resilience be examined?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individuals • Households • Communities • Institutions & governments • National economies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individual demographic sub-categories (e.g., women, children, displaced persons, community), geographic sub-categories (e.g., urban, peri-urban, rural), institutional functioning, component of national economy (e.g., trade)
Temporal aspects of measurement At what points in time will data be collected?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Frequency • Specific timing • Duration 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quasi-arbitrary points (e.g., baseline, mid-line, endline), developmentally-sensitive, episodically-determined (e.g., occurrence of a shock event)
Type of measurement What type of data are included as part of resilience measurement?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Objective and subjective • Qualitative and quantitative 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Factual records of shocks • Perceptual data on well-being • Projective data on future states • Rating scales, interviews, ethnographic observations

Multiple methods will be used to collect the data, which will include quantitative, qualitative, objective and subjective data. In Zimbabwe, the following specific indicators are needed to measure resilience capacity:⁷³

- Economic Resources** (assets market access, supply chain efficiency).
- Livelihood Strategies** (diversity across risk profiles, climate smart).
- Risk Management Strategies** (risk exposure and perception, decision making and planning).
- Human Capital** (education, skills and abilities, nutritional status, health and wellness).
- Social Capital** (bonding, bridging, linking).

⁷³ Adapted from a Power Point Presentation by Tim Frankenberger and Mark Constas, Harare, Zimbabwe, August 2014 (Unpublished).

- ❑ **Technology and Innovation** (Agriculture, Tele-communication).
- ❑ **Service Infrastructure** (Roads and transportation, access to markets, water and sanitation, vet services, medical services, security).
- ❑ **Institutions and Governance** (coverage, structural integrity, effectiveness, conflict mitigation mechanisms).
- ❑ **Social protection** (focus and type, strategic aim, integration and duration).
- ❑ **Agro-ecological** (soils and water resources, natural resource management, cropping and grazing practices).

Other Indicators that can affect observed resilience dynamics are: gender, ethnic group, cultural identity, agro-ecological zones, livelihood groups, geography, and other spatial factors that affect shock exposure. These variables can help explain why resilience capacity varies contextually, theoretically and programmatically, and should be taken into consideration during analysis.

As previously mentioned, building resilience requires strengthening the absorptive, adaptive and transformative capacities of individuals, households, communities and higher-level systems (e.g., government, ecosystems), and that these capacities are interconnected, mutually reinforcing and exist at multiple levels. Thus, programme interventions often cut across more than one type of resilience capacity. The following are illustrative examples of potential resilience building investments appropriate for Zimbabwe.

Programming approaches for building absorptive capacity

❖ **Disaster Risk Reduction**

Disaster risk reduction (DRR) or disaster risk management (DRM) strategies help people prepare for and respond to shocks, i.e., reduce their vulnerability to, and increase their adaptive capacity for dealing with, shocks.⁷⁴ DRR/DRM strategies are preventive in nature and are therefore implemented *ex ante* – before a shock or stress occurs (e.g., crop diversification, use of drought-tolerant crops/livestock, weather-indexed insurance). However, mitigation and coping strategies are employed *ex post* – after a shock has occurred – in order to minimize its immediate and longer-term impacts. Common disaster mitigation strategies include use of household savings, labour migration, and reliance on community contingency plans. Unfortunately, vulnerable households incapable of meeting basic needs in the wake of a shock or stressor often employ negative coping strategies (e.g., sale of productive assets, reduction in quantity and quality of meals, over-exploitation of natural resources) that are detrimental to livelihood strategies and reduce household adaptive capacity and ultimately, resilience capacity.

DRR/DRM interventions should also emphasize capacity building of DRR/DRM institutional frameworks at local and national levels and should support identification of effective risk reduction and adaptation strategies, comprehensive risk assessments, and development of community-based early warning systems and disaster-preparedness plans, with special consideration of CCA.

In Zimbabwe, programming aimed at enhancing resilience through improved DRR/DRM approaches might involve the following:

- Building local and national capacity to analyse risks, shocks, and stressors (e.g., trends), particularly related to climate change.
- Increasing local and national early warning capacity and systems, including in data collection and analysis.
- Reduce risks through use of weather-indexed insurance instruments and community-based savings associations, which can be instrumental in helping vulnerable households – particularly those headed by women – cope with the impacts of shocks.⁷⁵

⁷⁴ Frankenberger, T., T. Spangler, S. Nelson and M. Langworthy. 2012. Enhancing resilience to food security shocks in Africa. Discussion Paper. November 2012.

⁷⁵ TANGO International. 2011b. Final Evaluation – PSNP Plus Project. December 2011.

- Strengthening the capacity of communities to take collective action to mitigate the effects of shocks and stressors (i.e., improved absorptive, adaptive and transformative capacities), particularly through community-managed (or community-based) disaster risk reduction (CM-DRR/CB-DRR) approaches. CMDRR involves drawing on communities’ existing knowledge and skills to identify and plan responses to the range of potential hazards they may face, culminating in development of community action plans that reduce their vulnerability to shocks and stressors,⁷⁶ as well as community-based contingency and humanitarian plans.

❖ **Informal safety nets**

Informal safety nets at the community level have traditionally been critical to smoothing food consumption and protecting assets among disaster-affected households. Unfortunately, many informal safety nets – particularly in disaster-prone regions – have continually deteriorated while the number of chronically vulnerable households continues to increase. Most communities have some access to informal safety nets provided by religious groups, social clubs, traditional authorities, and savings and credit associations. Informal safety nets are often more effective in dealing with idiosyncratic shocks (those affecting individual households) due to the fact that they incorporate community-specific knowledge and account for cultural, physical and economic differences among affective communities. They tend to be less effective than government-supported formal safety nets in dealing with covariate shocks (those that affect all members of the community).

❖ **Peace building/conflict resolution**

Zimbabwe has also experienced conflict related to natural resources and land reform.⁷⁷ To bolster national peace infrastructure, the National Peace and Reconciliation Commission (NPRC) was established in 2013. UNDP has also trained over 5000 Zimbabweans in negotiation and conflict management.⁷⁸ Climate change and other stressors may continue to negatively affect availability of and access to natural resources, which is likely to contribute to continued conflict and migration. Integrated peace building and disaster risk reduction efforts have been shown to increase resilience capacity of vulnerable populations by ensuring access to productive resources needed for maintaining livelihood security.⁷⁹ In Zimbabwe, peace building and reconciliation efforts have helped promote a “cohesive and resilient society” through collaborations between communities, the government, private sector, CSOs and others.⁸⁰

Programming approaches for building resilience in Zimbabwe should consider creating and/or maintaining the enabling conditions required for peace building over the longer-term and may involve strengthening the institutional, structural, administrative and operational systems and processes

⁷⁶ Cordaid and the International Institute of Rural Reconstruction (IIRR). 2011. Community managed disaster risk reduction experiences from the Horn of Africa. Cordaid, The Hague; IIRR, Nairobi.

⁷⁷ Ibid.

⁷⁸ UNDP and UNPF. 2006. Draft Country programme document for Zimbabwe (2007-2009). New York: UNDP.

⁷⁹ Ibid.

⁸⁰ Government of Zimbabwe and UNCT Zimbabwe. 2014. Zimbabwe Country Analysis: Working Document. Dated 4 November 2014.

comprising provision of infrastructure (e.g., roads, markets, schools, communications) and basic services (e.g., health, education, security), investments in human capital, development of livelihood alternatives (particularly for the disenfranchised), and strengthening government, local/traditional authorities and the public sector in social services delivery, respect for and advocacy of human rights, equal representation of men and women in decision-making processes at all levels of governance, access to and delivery of justice (e.g., legal aid services), and institutional accountability.

Programming approaches for building adaptive capacity

❖ Climate Change Adaptation

Climate change adaptation (CCA) refers to the ability to anticipate and respond to the effects of climate change. CCA can be protective in nature (e.g., preventing or minimizing negative effects of predicted climate change) or opportunistic (e.g., taking advantage of opportunities that arise from predicted climate change). Early adoption of well planned adaptation strategies can save money and lives.⁸¹

In Zimbabwe, programming aimed at enhancing resilience through improved CCA practices in vulnerable communities might involve the following:

- Promoting informed decision-making by addressing gaps in knowledge about adaptation and developing CCA platforms as 'one-stop shops' for Zimbabwe-specific information on appropriate adaptation strategies.
- Promoting climate smart – and nutrition-sensitive – agriculture to improve livelihoods and nutritional status, and increase production and productivity at the community and household levels, such as diversified livelihoods strategies, use of drought-tolerant crop varieties and livestock breeds, high-value crops, bio-fortified crops, value-addition, reducing pre- and post-harvest losses, and grain storage improvements.

❖ Access to markets and financial services

Support for increased production and alternate livelihood opportunities need to be linked to improved access to financial services and innovative financial products. Coordination between agencies, government, and private sector is needed to provide access to financial services such as credit and insurance along with improved access to agricultural inputs. Savings are a critical element for being able to engage in markets. Support to voluntary savings and loan organisations will provide a way for the very poor to gain access to capital.

Access to, and participation in well-functioning markets is also important for improving absorptive and adaptive capacities, as this helps ensure that farmers have consistent access to agricultural inputs and markets, and ultimately to diverse streams of income. Improving market access requires not only creation of market infrastructure (e.g., roads, market facilities) but also access to credit, price information, and innovative technologies. Savings are also a critical element for being able to engage in markets and can be promoted through voluntary savings and loan organisations. In areas with highly

⁸¹ http://ec.europa.eu/clima/policies/adaptation/index_en.htm.

mobile populations, livelihood diversification and participation in markets are also dependent on government policies that support education and skills training, and encourage and regulate (rather than restrict) cross-border trade. Finally, governments, donors and implementing agencies can directly contribute to greater adaptive capacity at the household and community levels by providing access to and creating incentives for adoption of innovative technologies.

Overall, building resilience in Zimbabwe includes promoting increased engagement of farmers in markets by enabling greater access to financial services, market information, market infrastructure, and trade associations.

❖ **Enhanced livelihoods and productivity**

Promotion of livelihood diversification in general – and reducing dependence on low-potential agricultural livelihoods in particular – is critical for improving the adaptive capacity of rural households in Zimbabwe.⁸² The same is true for accumulation and diversification of productive assets. Household accumulation of a diverse set of productive assets reduces vulnerability to shocks. Improved adaptive capacity results from the ability of households and communities to access and utilize these key assets in a way that allows them to respond to changing circumstances. Promoting livelihood diversification among vulnerable populations dependent on agriculture will also require attention to issues related to ecosystem health, collective management of natural resources (e.g., land, water, forests) and legal rights governing access to them (e.g., land tenure, water allocation, harvest/kill quotas). Given the pressure that climate change places on rural livelihoods, governments, donors, and implementing agencies should continue to seek ways of enhancing income through increased production, improved productivity (e.g., value-addition) and promoting ‘off-farm’ income generating opportunities.

Livelihoods diversification includes promoting livelihoods with different risk profiles. For example, crop production involves risk of drought, regardless of how many different crops are grown or their degree of drought tolerance. Thus, diversification through adoption of livelihoods strategies that are not subject to the same risk profile (e.g., drought) are critical for building resilience to certain shocks and stressors.

Improved dietary diversity is also important for building resilience. Programming for nutrition-sensitive agriculture, livelihoods diversification, and income generation all contribute to a more diverse diet, either through direct production (e.g., home gardens, horticultural crops) or purchase (e.g., from increased income earned through improved and/or diversified livelihoods). Although most households are consuming on average six food groups, food consumption is dominated by maize (e.g., mealie meal), which lacks important nutrients. According to ZIMVAC, most households eat maize on a daily basis whereas meat, dairy products, pulses, roots/tubers, and fruits are consumed only two days per week or less.⁸³

⁸² Frankenberger, T., T. Spangler, S. Nelson and M. Langworthy. 2012. Enhancing resilience to food security shocks in Africa. Discussion Paper. November 2012.

⁸³ ZIMVAC. 2014. Rural livelihoods assessment. Powerpoint presentation. Harare: FNC and SIRDC. Available at: <http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/ZimVAC%20Rural%20Livelihood%20Assessment%202014.pdf>.

Resilience building programming to enhance livelihoods, increase productivity, and encourage economic empowerment for at-risk communities might include:

- Policy work to create/enhance the enabling environment (transformative capacity) for food production and alternative livelihoods at the local level (e.g., DRR, community preparedness strategies/plans).
- Developing, implementing and testing innovative approaches to local economic development, and livelihoods, food and nutrition security for both the rural and urban poor that are based on a clear understanding of the nexus between food and nutrition security, agricultural production and poverty in Zimbabwe – including rural-urban migration.
- Strengthening local economic empowerment for women and youths in the formal and informal sectors with a focus on employment and sustainable livelihoods.
- Rehabilitation of irrigation equipment, adoption of low-cost mechanization programmes, and promotion of integrated agricultural water management (AWM), such as smallholder irrigation schemes, micro-irrigation systems, rainwater harvesting and management strategies, and improved on-farm water-use efficiency.
- Reducing risk through risk financing mechanisms including weather-indexed crop and livestock insurance.

❖ **Natural resource management/conservation**

Enhancing resilience among poor, rural populations living in risk-prone areas – most of whom are dependent upon small-scale agriculture and livestock rearing – requires acknowledgement of the critical nature of healthy ecosystems.⁸⁴ Degradation of land, water and biodiversity from deforestation, overgrazing, over-exploitation of natural resources, and poor land management practices reduces the capacity of the natural environment to provide livelihood resources and ecosystem services to rural populations that depend on them.

As in many countries in southern Africa, use of natural resources forms the primary livelihoods base for the majority of rural households in Zimbabwe, where they are used to produce food and other goods for consumption or sale. These include land, forests, rivers, clay, and various types of animal and plant species for farming, forestry, fishing, production of non-timber forest products, food processing, handicrafts and other forms of rural livelihoods. Access to such resources is a key element of livelihoods security in rural areas of Zimbabwe. Conservation and sustainable management of Zimbabwe's natural resources will help ensure longer-term sustainability of otherwise vulnerable livelihoods.

Traditional management systems are often less damaging to the environment⁸⁵ and should be considered along with non-traditional systems to improve ecosystem health in resilience building programming. Development actors can complement proven traditional resource management practices

⁸⁴ Frankenberger, T., T. Spangler, S. Nelson and M. Langworthy. 2012. Enhancing resilience to food security shocks in Africa. Discussion Paper. November 2012.

⁸⁵ Mortimore, M. with contributions from S. Anderson, L. Cotula, J. Davies, K. Facer, C. Hesse, J. Morton, W. Nyangena, J. Skinner, and C. Wolfangel. 2009. Dryland Opportunities: A new paradigm for people, ecosystems and development, IUCN, Gland, Switzerland; IIED, London, UK and UNDP/DDC, Nairobi, Kenya. x + 86p.

through promotion of integrated watershed management, conservation agriculture, farmer managed natural regeneration (FMNR), drought-tolerant crop and livestock systems, integrated pest management, conservation and utilization of local genetic resources, breeding (crops and livestock) for local adaptation, and other climate smart agricultural practices.⁸⁶ Ecosystem-based planning, including payment for ecosystem services (PES),⁸⁷ can also help rehabilitate degraded natural resources and ensure the environmental sustainability of livelihood activities reliant on agriculture or other natural resources. Policies can support achievement of greater resilience by promoting development of feasible financial incentives for engagement of communities in environmental remediation efforts.⁸⁸

It should be noted that environmental degradation is not only exacerbated by extreme weather events (e.g., drought, flood, high temperatures) but also by increasing human (and livestock) population pressure, both of which affect the carrying capacity of an ecosystem.⁸⁹ Burgeoning human population growth – and its impact on access to and availability of natural resources (e.g., for livestock production) – represents a potentially slow onset shock that should not be ignored in resilience planning. Zimbabwe’s population is currently highly skewed; two-thirds of the total population is below the age of 25, and two-thirds lives in rural areas, though urbanisation is an emerging issue.⁹⁰ A long-term perspective will be required to minimize any potential negative impact a future population explosion might have on Zimbabwe’s natural resources.

Interventions that contribute to resilience might include:

- Use of ecosystem-based planning that enables improved access to and management of the natural resources upon which people depend. This may require regional approaches to address cross-border issues and ensure coexistence of livestock and wildlife, where relevant.
- Compensating communities for conserving landscapes and ecosystem services (e.g., biodiversity, water catchments, soil protection and wildlife).
- Use of natural resource management approaches, including in extractive industries, for food security, jobs and livelihoods.

Programming approaches for building transformative capacity

❖ Access to basic services

Application of a resilience lens to programming that seeks to improve well-being outcomes (e.g., food and nutrition security, poverty, health) typically involves both demand- and supply-side approaches. Ten years of economic decline, coupled with migration of Zimbabwe’s highly-skilled and educated citizens,

⁸⁶ Frankenberger, T., T. Spangler, S. Nelson and M. Langworthy. 2012. Enhancing resilience to food security shocks in Africa. Discussion Paper. November 2012.

⁸⁷ Examples of PES include compensation of communities by external actors for conservation of landscapes, wildlife corridors and carbon sequestration.

⁸⁸ The Montpellier Panel. 2012. Growth with resilience: Opportunities in African Agriculture. London: Agriculture for Impact.

⁸⁹ The carrying capacity of an ecosystem is the size of the population that can be supported indefinitely upon the available resources and services provided by that ecosystem. Carrying capacity depends on the resources available in the ecosystem, the size of the population, and the amount of resources being consumed.

⁹⁰ Zimbabwe Country Analysis. 2014. Working Document.

have significantly compromised the government's ability to deliver many basic services. Lack of access to safe drinking water and sanitation services is associated with common diseases such as diarrhea, as well as disease outbreaks such as cholera. Zimbabwe is off target to reach the MDG of halving the proportion of people without access to improved sources of water. Stark inequalities between urban and rural areas remain in terms of access to improved sanitation. Roads and transportation services are critical for moving products to markets. Thus, economic growth depends, at least in part, on the quantity and quality of basic services being delivered by the government (or other providers). Thus, resilience building initiatives should strengthen government capacity to deliver basic public services, for example, support development and promotion of improved local and institutional capacity in WASH, health and nutrition, education and other basic service delivery mechanisms. At the policy level, programmes should support the integration of Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) strategies into local systems and policies, such as early warning systems.

❖ **Governance/political leadership**

Governance can be defined as “the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources for development”,⁹¹ and includes a wide range of public, private, formal, and informal organizations, policies and processes that function at local, national and international levels.⁹² Good governance involves ensuring delivery of core functions (e.g., providing public services) and ensuring accountability and transparency. Representative, responsive, transparent and accountable governance is critical for enabling households and communities to exercise their rights, benefit from equitable laws and policies, attain sustainable food, nutrition and livelihood security, and achieve greater resilience capacity in the face of potential shocks.

Creating the enabling conditions (transformative capacity) for effective governance is critical for resilience building initiatives in that these structures and processes determine household and community access to resources, skills, technology, services, markets and information. Policies that strengthen existing local institutions, advocate for decentralized and participatory decision-making (including women), strengthen linkages between various levels of governance, and seek to address existing imbalances in power relations will enhance the adaptive capacity of communities by helping them anticipate, prepare for, respond to and recover from shocks and stresses.

Enhancing resilience in Zimbabwe through governance initiatives might also involve policy work aimed at bridging divisions between sectors (e.g., agriculture, health, food and nutrition security), formal and informal governance systems and promoting complementary approaches to resource management, resolution of conflicts, adjudication and social development.

Reform of governance and institutional transformation is a long-term – and often difficult – process that may require many years of coordinated and concentrated effort by a range of diverse stakeholders.⁹³

⁹¹ Gubbels. 2011. Escaping the Hunger Cycle: Pathways to Resilience in the Sahel. Sahel Working Group.

⁹² Frankenberger, T., T. Spangler, S. Nelson and M. Langworthy. 2012. Enhancing resilience to food security shocks in Africa. Discussion Paper. November 2012.

⁹³ Ibid.

Donors can help facilitate political will, build strong state institutions and promote good governance to prevent recurrent humanitarian crises. Broadly, potential interventions might focus on:

- Building capacity for coordination and leadership of resilience building initiatives within Zimbabwe.
- Promoting decentralized and participatory decision-making.
- Strengthening links between local, district and national levels of government.
- Promoting integrated approaches to livelihoods security, DRM and CCA.
- Addressing underlying structural causes of food insecurity and poverty.

❖ **Government capacity strengthening**

Effective and sustained engagement by government (and other actors) will require building their capacity to develop, implement, coordinate and monitor resilience building initiatives, including technical capacity in climate change adaptation, peace building/conflict mitigation, DRR/DRM, livelihoods diversification, and delivery of basic services (e.g., health, nutrition, education, water, sanitation). In light of recurring shocks and crises, governments must have not only the political will but also the capacity to respond quickly and effectively to early warning systems, which must in turn be based on quality data collected at community, sub-national and national levels. Government capacity to collect and analyse data is also critical to building and maintaining resilience capacity over the long term.

❖ **Social protection**

Social protection programmes are typically targeted at chronically vulnerable populations and attempt to address both immediate and longer-term needs, typically through cash or food transfers in exchange for creation of physical, human, and financial assets at the household and community levels.⁹⁴ They play an important role in enhancing resilience to shocks by effectively linking humanitarian and longer-term development outcomes and providing guaranteed support that allows households to increase their adaptive capacity (through asset accumulation or livelihoods diversification) during times of non-stress conditions while cushioning households from destitution during times of stress or humanitarian.

Transfers of cash or vouchers have in many cases proven an effective means of addressing food insecurity while helping beneficiaries enhance livelihood activities and prepare for potential shock in the future. The reliability of cash transfers/vouchers provided through social protection schemes provides poor households with more flexibility in the use of limited financial and food resources. Cash and vouchers can counteract erosion of traditional/informal safety nets and help stimulate local economies. Coordinated social protection schemes can also create economic opportunities for vulnerable households by linking safety net interventions with efforts to increase access to agricultural inputs, credit, skills training and other strategies for helping the poor accumulate, diversify and invest in assets.

⁹⁴ Frankenberger, T., T. Spangler, S. Nelson and M. Langworthy. 2012. Enhancing resilience to food security shocks in Africa. Discussion Paper. November 2012.

Table 2. How social protection programmes help promote adaptation.⁹⁵

Social Protection Category	Social Protection Instruments	Adaptation and DRR Benefits
<i>Protective</i> (coping strategies)	- social service provision - social transfers (food/cash), including safety nets - social pension schemes - public works programmes	- protection of those most vulnerable to climate risks, with low levels of adaptive capacity
<i>Preventive</i> (coping strategies)	- social transfers - livelihood diversification - weather-indexed crop insurance - social insurance	- prevents damaging coping strategies as a result of risks to weather-dependent livelihoods
<i>Promotive</i> (building adaptive capacity)	- social transfers - access to credit - asset transfers or protection - starter packs (drought/flood-resistant) - access to common property resources - public works programmes	- promotes resilience through livelihood diversification and security to withstand climate related shocks - promotes opportunities arising from climate change
<i>Transformative</i> (building adaptive capacity)	- promotion of minority rights - Equality campaigns - social funds - proactively challenging discriminatory behaviour	- transforms social relations to combat underlying social and political vulnerability

Humanitarian assistance programming can have a positive impact on food and nutrition security and livelihood recovery.⁹⁶ While social protection mechanisms are typically coordinated through national governments, civil society organizations and donors can contribute to greater resilience of vulnerable populations by complementing social protection schemes where they exist, or advocating strongly for their establishment where they do not.

Programming activities for building resilience should include:

- Development of social protection strategies and policies that ensure protection for the most vulnerable based on a clear understanding of existing biases regarding gender, age, and people with disabilities (including HIV/AIDS).
- Development and implementation of mechanisms and systems that develop and ensure social protection in times of stress and humanitarian.

❖ **Empowering women, youths, the elderly and disabled**

Women play a critical and potentially transformative role in social and economic processes at the household and community levels. Despite their potential, women continue to face cultural, political and

⁹⁵ Davies, M., K. Oswald and T. Mitchell. 2009. Climate Change Adaptation, Disaster Risk Reduction and Social Protection. In Promoting Pro Poor Growth: Social Protection. Development Assistance Committee Network on Poverty Reduction (POVNET). Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development.

⁹⁶ Frankenberger, T., T. Spangler, S. Nelson and M. Langworthy. 2012. Enhancing resilience to food security shocks in Africa. Discussion Paper. November 2012..

economic obstacles limiting their ability to make decisions about agricultural production, their access to and decision-making power over productive resources, their control over use of income, leadership opportunities within their communities, use of their time, and most importantly, to control their reproductive health decisions (e.g., birth spacing, family planning).

Shocks and stresses contribute to or reinforce existing gender inequalities. Female-headed households cope differently to shocks and stresses than male-headed households. Building resilience capacity in the Zimbabwe context involves challenging the deep-rooted social inequalities that exist between men and women, and ensuring that women's voices are represented in decision-making over the long term. Gender-sensitive programming begins with a thorough analysis of the challenges, strengths and opportunities for change as perceived by men and by women independently. Addressing gender-disparity is a long-term process involving efforts at multiple levels, including implementation of gender-sensitive policies and programming at local, sub-national, and national levels. A commitment to addressing gender inequality at multiple levels will be critical for all programmes seeking to improve long-term resilience of vulnerable populations in Zimbabwe.

Although progress has been made toward the MDG on *Promoting Gender Equality and Empowering Women*, more work is needed, particularly ensuring inclusion of women in decision-making processes and reducing gender-based violence, which remains high in Zimbabwe. Although the government continues to advance work on incorporating gender issues into national development processes, implementation and enforcement of gender policies remain a challenge. Resilience building efforts in Zimbabwe should help strengthen national efforts to introduce "gender-sensitive budgeting, legislative reform and increasing gender awareness that focuses both on women's rights and women's economic empowerment."⁹⁷

Resilience building programmes should also address gender and economic empowerment issues by focusing on the provision of skills training and greater employment/income-generating opportunities for the most vulnerable (e.g., women, asset-poor youths, displaced, the elderly, the disabled). Programming might also:

- Seek to ensure active and meaningful participation of marginalised groups and promote gender equality and social inclusion through, for example, establishment of platforms for participation of marginalized and disenfranchised groups, as well as engaging the media to help influence public opinion.
- Promote greater inclusion of women, along with other key decision-makers in community-based decision-making processes (e.g., water committees, community action plans).
- Support policy work to strengthen and improve enforcement of legislation on women's rights and access to property.

⁹⁷ Government of Zimbabwe and UNCT Zimbabwe. 2014. Zimbabwe Country Analysis: Working Document. Dated 4 November 2014.

- Supporting gender mainstreaming at both a macroeconomic and finance policy level as well as helping local authorities in the mainstreaming of gender into delivery of services at the local level.
- Building capacity of duty bearers to deliver on and protect women's rights.
- Support capacity building for national gender mainstreaming and development of a national gender M&E system, including the capacity to collect and analyse relevant data.