WOMEN AND DROUGHT IN SOUTHERN MOZAMBIQUE: MORE RESPONSIBILITY, LESS POWER AND INCREASED VULNERABILITIES

A study in Funhalouro, Panda, Chicualacualá, Chigubo, Magude and Moamba

Maputo
December 2016
# Table of Contents

List of abbreviations and acronyms ................................................................................................. 3

Executive Summary ............................................................................................................................ 4
  Recommendations .......................................................................................................................... 6

1. Introduction .................................................................................................................................... 9

2. Methodology and limitations ........................................................................................................ 12
  Desk Review ................................................................................................................................... 12
  Populations covered by the study ................................................................................................. 12
  Data collection .............................................................................................................................. 13
  Easing factors and constrains ....................................................................................................... 14

3. Research findings .......................................................................................................................... 16
  Literature Review .......................................................................................................................... 16
  Community life before the drought .............................................................................................. 17
  Impact and consequences of drought to women and girls ........................................................... 22
    Increased workload and responsibilities ................................................................................ 22
    Gender-Based Violence .............................................................................................................. 29
    Sexual and Reproductive Health .............................................................................................. 30
  Emergency response and its impact ............................................................................................. 35

4. Conclusions ................................................................................................................................... 39

5. Recommendations ....................................................................................................................... 40
  To the humanitarian community ................................................................................................. 40
  To public authorities .................................................................................................................... 41
  At community level ....................................................................................................................... 42

5. References ..................................................................................................................................... 44
List of abbreviations and acronyms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CCS</td>
<td>Centro de Colaboração em Saúde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COSACA</td>
<td>Concern, Oxfam, Save the Children and Care (Consortium)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDD</td>
<td>District Development Fund (Fundo de Desenvolvimento Distrital)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FGD</td>
<td>Focal Group Discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FP</td>
<td>Family Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GBV</td>
<td>Gender-Based Violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV</td>
<td>Human Immunodeficiency Virus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HCT</td>
<td>Humanitarian Country Team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICRW</td>
<td>International Center for Research on Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFRC</td>
<td>International Federation of Red Cross</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INAS</td>
<td>National Institute of Social Action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INGC</td>
<td>National Institute for the Management of Disaster (Instituto Nacional de Gestão de Calamidades)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MCH</td>
<td>Maternal and Child Health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MZM</td>
<td>Mozambican Metical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OVC</td>
<td>Orphan and Vulnerable Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RAP</td>
<td>Rapid Assessment Procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RENAMO</td>
<td>Mozambique National Resistance (Resistência Nacional de Moçambique)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAAJ</td>
<td>Adolescent and Youth Friendly Services (Serviço Amigo do Adolescente e Jovem)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SASOL</td>
<td>South Africa Synthetic Oil Liquid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDPI</td>
<td>District Service for Planning and Infrastructure (Serviço Distrital de Planeamento e Infraestruturas)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRH</td>
<td>Sexual and Reproductive Health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STIs</td>
<td>Sexually Transmitted Infections</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNFPA</td>
<td>United Nations Population Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WFP</td>
<td>World Food Program</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Executive Summary

The current drought in Mozambique is pushing women into new economic activities that were traditionally masculine ones. Though there is transformation in the sex division of labour, the persistence of sharp gender norms hinders women’s access to power to decide on household management matters. Women’s entrance into traditionally male labour spheres increases competition over resources and exposes them to GBV. Girls are missing out classes and/or dropping out school to join female relatives in the increasingly strenuous and long process of fetching water for the household.

The points highlighted above constitute the main conclusions on the impact of drought for women and girls. The study conducted in the districts of Panda and Funhalouro (Inhambane), Chicualacuala and Chigubo (Gaza) as well as Magude and Moamba (Maputo) responds to the acknowledgment that little is known about the specific effects of the drought on women and girls. This study, commissioned by the UNFPA, used a Rapid Assessment Procedure (RAP) with an eminently qualitative methodology. Data collection included interviews with key informants and observation and focus group discussions with drought affected communities, a review of academic literature and practitioner’s reports.

Drought presents different specificities compared to other natural disasters like floods and cyclones. While for the later the impact is immediate destruction of people’s possessions and livelihood due to a visible timed hazard, the impact of drought is gradually felt over the time that is why is it known as a creeping natural hazard. Adaptation to drought is also gradual throughout the months or even years as people respond to the various levels of strenuous that they feel continuously until they unable to cope. Thus, for the context of Mozambique some of the impacts of drought may be taken as the impact of poverty. The point is that drought increases poverty thus, people more avidly engage into coping strategies already used in the general context of drought.

Findings

The table below summarizes the transitions lived from 3 years ago (time considered before the drought) to the actual scenario of drought. Divided through the main themes of impact, the table also indicates the core impact for the lives of communities but specifically to women and girls:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Life before the drought</th>
<th>Drought</th>
<th>Current life under the drought</th>
<th>Conclusions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>INCREASED WORKLOADS AND RESPONSABILITIES</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Agriculture: main women’s labour activity and subsistence | No production in agriculture | • New activities: cut reed, harvest wood and produce charcoal  
• Women embrace traditional masculine labour activities | • Shift in the sexual division of work however,  
• Maintenance of asymmetrical gendered power dynamics  
• Increased exposure to conflict and GBV |
| 2 to 5 hours collecting water | Little or no water in rivers, boreholes and other used sources of water | • 10 to 12 hours hour collecting water  
• Water collection at night and at dawn  
• Girls compulsory join water collection activities | • Compromised girls education (potential to perpetuate poverty)  
• Women’s increased exposure to marital conflict, GBV and stress |
| Traditional migration of men (urban areas and South Africa) | Reduction of sources of subsistence and income | • Continued migration of men: drought mentioned as a new reason  
• Increased migration of women and children  
• Increased burden for women and grandmothers to provide for the household | • Increased women’s vulnerability due to unchanged patterns of power in the household  
• Increased exposure to abandonment and widowhood  
• Women’s loss of authority over, specially, adolescents descendants |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Though not openly mentioned, evidence of young women and girls movement to areas of richer cattle holders and rhino hunters</td>
<td>Child-marriage: embedded practice that potentially increases as it is used as a drought coping mechanism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Child-marriage local practice though being combated | Great reduction of household income and subsistence | • Increased marital conflict due scarcity of resources | • Increased exposure to domestic violence  
• Perpetrators tight authority at home |
| Mediated marital conflict | Absence of water and food | | |
| **SEXUAL AND REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH** | **Transactional sex** practiced within scenario of poverty in areas where there were demand Availability of water | • Transactional sex as a means to access food and financial resources  
• Reports of young women migrating to male workers’ compounds and regions with wealthier men  
• Compromised women’s personal hygiene | • Exposure to HIV and ITS infection  
• Risk of unwanted and early pregnancy and maternal death  
• Compromised women's personal hygiene |
| Transactional sex practiced within scenario of poverty in areas where there were demand Availability of water | Aggravates poverty  
Absence of water | | |

Overall, it seems that the drought is increasing and creating a strain to women’s responsibilities without a restructuring on household power dynamics. Simultaneously, young women in particular, become exposed to increased chances of early and unwanted pregnancies, child-marriage, ITS and HIV infection. Thus, interpreting the table, this research shows that:

- The drought forces rural women into new economic activities that are traditionally masculine activities. However, the entering of women in such masculine spaces does not have a direct impact on access to power to decide on household management matters;

- Migration of men, as a result of the drought, implies an additional burden to women as they become the sole providers for the household thus, more vulnerable as fundamental patterns of power have not necessarily changed;

- Migration of men makes women prone to abandonment and widowhood (as some men get involved in criminal activities). Separation of families creates anxiety and added vulnerability especially for grandmothers who become responsible for grandchildren when both parents migrate;
• Girls and young women’s education is compromised due to the drought as they are forced to become helping hands in fetching water and taking care of younger siblings;

• Increased exposure to GBV through:
  o the use of child and early marriages as a drought coping mechanism
  o propensity for marital violence due to (women’s) inability to cover household (food and water) needs
  o conflict in the forests to access space and resources
  o water collection at night

• Girls and young women’s exposure to early and unplanned pregnancy as well as HIV and ITS due to the use of transactional sex as a means to access financial resources to overcome the effects of the drought.

**Recommendations**

To address the problem, this research concludes that immediate action as well as further research is required.

For the humanitarian community, the overarching challenge is to prevent GBV and exposure to the multiple conditions associated to SRH while standing ready to respond effectively when it occurs. This implies that responders need to make themselves aware of possible risk factors and become sensitive to these variables across their prevention, preparedness, response and recovery efforts.

The recommendations below are directed to the broader humanitarian community, including national and local authorities, other local civil society organizations, and international organizations.

**To the humanitarian community**

- Roll out Minimum Initial Service Package for Reproductive Health in Emergencies and Minimum Standards for Prevention and Response to Gender-Based Violence in Emergencies;

- Quality, disaggregated, gender-sensitive data on the nature and scope of GBV and on the availability and accessibility of services to inform programming, policy and advocacy as well as response (link with assessment);

- Improve data availability related to the different phases of humanitarian crisis specially under the specificities of drought as a creeping natural hazard;

- Design emergency response programs that simultaneously promote gender equity messages and work with men to re-frame/re-formulate socially expected roles in order to more efficiently respond drought challenges to his family, women and girls;

- Translate emergency gendered sensitive policies into more instructive plans easily understood by technicians in the field; integration of emergency actions;
• Invest in greater and stronger coordination between emergency response actors to standardize the response in order to avoid conflict and ostracising of vulnerable groups including women and girls;

• Universal distribution of assistance in cash rather than goods.

• Integrate Social Action and Health sectors at the design of humanitarian response and transform it into a holistic system that includes SRH and Gender equity messages and interventions.

**To public authorities**

• Allocate human and financial resources to integrate SRH into the national health emergency risk management programmes, in emergency response and recovery plans;

• Integrate SRH into assessments and provide early warning for communities and vulnerable groups. Incorporate assessments of SRH risks, vulnerabilities and capacities at all levels, informed by poverty, gender and disability analyses;

• Involve vulnerable groups in the development and implementation of community early warning systems, ensuring that their needs are addressed and that systems are gender-responsive;

• Include health emergency risk management in the curricula for SRH workers, and for the broader health emergency management community. Strengthen media advocacy on the importance of maintaining SRH services during a response;

• Address underlying health vulnerabilities of the population by ensuring strong primary health care and preventive health measures with key provisions for SRH.

• Prepare existing SRH services to absorb impact, adapt, respond to and recover from emergencies.

• Strengthen national framework to prevent mitigate and respond to GBV;

• Rethink social protection systems (that include access to financial resources) to be more considerate of women specifically in rural areas.

**At community level**

(by both public authorities and international community)

• Create awareness about the need to redirect profits from selling cattle to food, nutrition, education and family health;

• Invest in gender equity campaigns that strengthen the socio-cultural role of women in order to allow them more practical effectiveness in providing for the family.

• Build community resilience to effectively prevent and respond to GBV;

• Enlarge HIV and STIs prevention as well as FP for young women in particular due to propensity for transactional sex and child/early/forced marriage in times of emergency;
• Capacitate communities and young girls on Sexual Rights and awareness about women traffic as they are prone to become victims in the context of drought;

• Strengthen state and social institutions to avoid trafficking of women and girls to work and sex industry in South Africa and elsewhere;

• Develop in-depth combination (quantitative and qualitative) studies as well as longitudinal studies to compare indicators throughout the time and produce a better and detailed understanding of the impact of drought on women and girls.

• Increase opportunities and diversify sources of income generation for women.

• Investment in the breeding of livestock more resistant to drought as sheep and goat as well as poultry due to its high commercial demand and easiness in breeding.
1. Introduction

Since 2015 the provinces of Maputo, Gaza and Inhambane in the Southern region of Mozambique as well as Manica, Sofala and Tete in the central region have been experiencing a severe drought due to the El Niño phenomenon. Globally the drought has affected 1.5 million Mozambicans (SETSAN 2016). Much has been done in terms of understanding the impact of this crisis in relation to food, nutrition and water distribution. However, there is a lack of information related to the impact of the drought on the lives of women and young girls, particularly regarding their social roles and rights, access to basic needs, and sexual and reproductive health. This is a qualitative report that provides an analysis of the impact of the recent drought on the lives of women and girls in the southern region in the following districts: Funhalouro and Panda in Inhambane province; Chigubo and Chicualacuala in Gaza; and Magude and Moamba in Maputo.

The selection of the six districts for this study relies on the particularities of its climatic conditions combined with the impact of the current drought. Mozambique has three agro-climatic zones: (a) the northern zone of the Zambezi river is humid, with a distinct rainy season. Generally, water is available for crops for a full growing season, with drought conditions occurring only twice every ten years. (b) The central region, between the south of the Zambezi River and the north of the Save River, experiences drought conditions approximately four years in every ten. (c) The southern region has a high risk of drought conditions, with drought conditions seven out of every ten years (KLIMOS 2012).

The 2016 SETSAN report on food security indicates that Chigubo presents a critical scenario of food insecurity falling into the red category in which 48 to 81% of the population is experiencing food and nutritional insecurity due to the drought. In Funhalouro and Chicualacuala 28 to 47% of the population is facing such conditions while in Magude the percentage lowers to between 12 and 27%, and finally in Panda and Moamba the percentage varies from 4 to 11%.

The provinces of Inhambane, Gaza and Maputo are most affected by the drought together with Tete, Manica, Sofala and Zambézia (SETSAN 2016). Other than the specificities of the districts visited, the selection was restricted to the Southern region due to the impossibility to safely reach the most affected districts in the central provinces due to the ongoing political and military instability.

The study has defined its main objectives as following:

- Provide evidence on how the drought is impacting vulnerable populations (focusing on women and young girls);
- Assess the impact of the drought on women and young girls;
- Identify specific issues to be addresses, and;
• Provide recommendations on how to respond to concerns and help with early recovery and preparation to the next season.

Why a focus on women and girls?
The on-going drought in Mozambique is mentioned as one of the key factors that will contribute to decelerate growth in 2016 due to its continuing effects in agricultural production (World Bank 2016). In a country where approximately 89% of the households are engaged in agriculture, the drought becomes particularly acute to women, which make 83% of the population thus, prone to climate risks. CARE reports that during the onset of the drought, 91.9% of the female-headed households did not have adequate food provisions generated in the 4-month agricultural season to meet household consumption needs beyond 11 months. As such, up to 80% of households in the drought zone were forced to only consume two meals per day and 6% of households consume food only once per day (CARE 2016).

Evidence from various parts of the world has shown how women are directly affected by droughts. Narrowing down to Southern Africa, in Botswana, a study showed that 70% of the young people taken out of school during droughts were girls and 56% of the girls reported spending more time and travelling longer distances to fetch water for household use. Events of GBV are also presumed to rise during disaster, as some researchers have suggested, due to aggravated stress and feelings of loss of control, perpetrators tighten their authority at home, the one area in which they feel they have power (Houghton 2010). Moreover, according to the study “Girls not Brides” (ICRW 2015), during climate crises, child marriage is used as a coping mechanism because (i) the bride price/dowry is welcome income, (ii) it is one less mouth for the family to feed, clothe and educate, and (iii) the family perceives the girl will be better off and have more food security in the marriage.

Data collected in Mozambique so far has shown that the impact of droughts lead to increases in severe under-nutrition in pregnant women and in March 2016 approximately 26,000 pregnant women were facing acute malnutrition (SETSAN 2016). Such nutritional scenario may lead to maternal mortality especially with the added prevalence of chronic anaemia, iron deficiency and malaria in the affected provinces. It also contributes to high levels of low birth weight rates. In addition to the drought, some provinces such as Gaza and Sofala have high HIV prevalence rates of 25% and 15%, respectively.

CARE has undertaken a study in Inhambane province, which indicates that for many women under the age of 20, the current drought is the first catastrophic event in which they must provide food and income for themselves and their children. CARE’s study has diagnosed that within the drought-affected communities, most of the younger adolescent mothers were unable to identify short, medium or long-term strategies to address their basic needs (CARE 2016).

Corroborating with other studies, this assessment has found that:
• The drought forces rural women into new economic activities that are traditionally masculine activities. However, the entering of women in such masculine spaces does not have a direct impact on access to power to decide on household management matters;
• Migration of men, as a result of the drought, implies an additional burden to women as they become the sole providers for the household thus, more vulnerable as fundamental patterns of power have not necessarily changed;
• Migration of men makes women prone to abandonment and widowhood (as some men get involved in criminal activities). Separation of families creates anxiety and added vulnerability especially for grandmothers who become responsible for grandchildren when both parents migrate;

• Girls and young women’s education is compromised due to the drought as they are forced to become helping hands in fetching water and taking care of younger siblings;

• Increased exposure to GBV through:
  o the use of child and early marriages as a drought coping mechanism
  o propensity for marital violence due to (women’s) inability to cover household (food and water) needs
  o conflict in the forests to access space and resources
  o water collection at night

• Girls and young women’s exposure to early and unplanned pregnancy as well as HIV and ITS due to the use of transactional sex as a means to access financial resources to overcome the effects of the drought.
2. Methodology and limitations

This study on the impact of drought to women and girls followed a combination of different qualitative research techniques that characterize the Rapid Assessment Procedures (RAP). This approach has been applied to study attitudes, behaviors and motivations of individual as well as collective actors within their social and cultural cosmology. This methodology features the application of several data collection methods to verify information through triangulation (Harris, Jerome and Fawcett 1997).

The study constitutes a rapid assessment thus, it is not a comprehensive and conclusive analysis but sheds light and give key indications on the impact of the drought on women and girls.

Desk Review

The desk review constituted the first phase of the study. It allowed the gathering of relevant information to design the research instruments and protocol. The exercise comprised an analysis of relevant literature, which allowed exploring findings and conclusions produced by other researches in order to set the state of art of the topic, highlight main challenges and refine the approach and questions to be used in the study. Through the desk review it was possible to verify if the topics addressed were already covered by other assessments, in which case findings should be analysed. This exercise made it possible to avoid duplication, truism and tautology.

The literature review maximized the understanding of already researched topics to provide guidelines for the development of protocols and survey instruments, and be able to highlight the most critical points. Parallel to programmatic documents, reports, plans, strategies and others documents were included in order to bring to light analysis and intervention’s features.

Populations covered by the study

The study comprised two categories of informants. The first category, key informants, included those whose professional practice deals directly with aspects related to the drought and its impact in the population: Government, NGOs, bilateral and multilateral organization’s professionals at central and district level as well as community leaders in all the districts.

The second category of informants included citizens affected by the droughts in the six districts selected to the study: women, girls, men of diverse age groups and social condition. The selection of such categories was based on the selection of areas affected by the drought based on previous liaison with technicians from INAS at the district level. For the selection of localities the researcher liaised with the responsible technician from INAS who would indicate possible options based on the main key criteria: locality most affected by the drought. Thus, in Inhambane province in the district of Funhalouro the study covered the localities of Funhalouro-sede, Tsenane and Mucuine while in Panda district the locality of Chivalo. In Gaza province, district of Chicualacuala the study covered the locality of Matlane and in Chigubo the locality of Ndidiza. In Maputo province in Magude district the studied locality was Inhonguine and in Moamba the locality of Baptine. Field data collection in the districts took a period of 12 days.
Data collection
This study follows a triangular approach, based in qualitative methodologies. It comprised focus group discussions (FGD) as the foremost method of data but also semi-structured in-depth interviews and structured direct observation. The adoption of a combined methodology for this impact analysis allowed for the establishment of a balanced and flexible approach shifting between data collection, analysis and interpretation. Each of these qualitative methods provided specific types of information that combined permit a holistic understanding of the realities being studied.

Focus Group Discussions (FGD) are defined as group discussions involving 6 to 10 persons, oriented by the researcher. In such kind of discussion group members speak freely and spontaneously about certain issues introduced by the researcher. FGDs are meant to deepen a group’s understanding on a specific topic. It is a very insightful technique to grasp a community or group consensus on a specific matter.

In this study the researcher was faced with two events in which the FGD greatly surpassed the expected number of Informants. In Funhalouro the 2 group discussions presented 250 and 67 people\. Rather than discarding such groups the researcher changed the methodology by allowing informants to freely express their views about the asked questions. Discussions of the different viewpoints would then emerge. These groups constituted a great opportunity to collect more quantitative data. For each of the themes (for example school-dropout, young women involved in transactional sex, child-brides) the researcher requested all participants who have experienced or knew about such cases to raise their hands.

Focus groups discussions provided the opportunity for respondents to interact and discuss a topic of interest in depth. It is an ideal setting to explore the general perceptions held by the community and target group. A complete picture of experiences and practices on gender relation in times of drought could be drawn through FGD as participants are given the opportunity to corroborate and disagree with responses, provide counter examples, or fill in each other’s blanks.

In-depth interviews were used to capture information to be obtained directly from persons or groups of persons. A semi-structured interview guide that allowed one to include “new” questions prompted by the direction of the conversation oriented these interviews. The open-ended perspective in in-depth interviews provides flexibility to the research agenda by making it possible for respondents to explain their actions and thought processes in their own words, highlight certain issues, or introduce new ideas of interest. It is an ideal methodology to document the nature of drought’s impact; understanding household processes and meanings attached to women in girls in the specificities of drought; identify policy and initiatives’ dynamics at implementation level. Interviews with key informant were conducted to professionals at different strata at both central and provincial level as well as at HCT partners as well as community and household level.

Structured direct observation was conducted based on an observation checklist drawn based on the literature and dialogue with participants. The data from this exercise was used to cross-reference with the data collected by other means. Direct observation is an ethnographic

---

1 The large number of informants was due to fact, in the first case that the meeting happened with people who had gathered to receive seeds. On the second case, the group discussion started with 13 people but kept on rising as women were returning from their activities and joined those already in the discussion.
method *par excellence*. It requires long periods of observation in order to obtain data that is representative of the surveyed context. Considering the short timeframe of current survey the researcher used discretionary judgment before recording any event or fact. That activity must be seen as complimentary to all the other data collection formats described above, and also as a means to crosscheck other generated data.

The use of this technique is critical because it enables to register a type of information that no other data collection tool does. It was complemented with casual and spontaneous contacts with a very wide range of stakeholders. Direct observation required a pre-selection of topics and questions that have to be looked at during the fieldwork phase of the assignment. At the observation exercise, the researcher asked permission to take pictures in order to provide visual evidence of the dynamics of life in the context of drought. Finally, data was systematized based on the main emerging themes from research.

Below, the general data on interviews and discussions undertaken during fieldwork:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data collection instrument in the districts</th>
<th>Funhalouro</th>
<th>Panda</th>
<th>Chicualacuila</th>
<th>Chigombo</th>
<th>Magude</th>
<th>Momba</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual interviews</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key informant interviews</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group discussions</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) 250 people mixed FGD</td>
<td>(a) 27 women</td>
<td></td>
<td>(a) 16 women and girls</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) 67 women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) 5 men (community leaders)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table emphasizes that FGD were the main tool for collecting data. It was through those group discussions that the researcher gathered the main viewpoints and experiences of the selected communities on the impact of the drought for women and girls. After the FGD, the researcher would deepen the topics on selected individual interviews or smaller FGD with specific categories as happened in Funhalouro with the community leaders.

**Easing factors and constrains**

A number of factors contributed for the study to run smoothly and conquer its objectives. The constant support from UNFPA through the provision of relevant documentation and bridging the consultant with key informants has allowed for a timely and fruitful data collection with key actors in Maputo. At the district level the collaboration and flexibility of the INAS technicians to coordinate with community leaders and organize group discussions at the different localities permitted easy and timely access to informants in the communities. Additionally, at the community level the girls, women and men interviewed would openly and easily collaborate in the study by responding and putting forward their views on the points raised both at group discussion and individual interviews.

However the study undergone a number of constrains. The stretched timeframe of the study did not allow for an expanded period of time in the field. Furthermore, fieldwork happened in
late November and early December a period of exams at primary and secondary schools which reduced the possibility to interact with a larger number of girls and young women students as they were preparing for or writing exams. To overcome this specific constrain there was an investment in observation. In all districts there was time spent observing adolescent and young women in order to get in overview of their activities and practices.

At the district level, some institutions were unwilling to share relevant documentation for the study, as they had no authorization from their superiors who were absent at the time of the meetings – even the consultant having an introductory letter stamped by the district’s administration. At central level, a number of key informants were unable to provide interviews due to overlap of activities and professional commitments.

The selected districts for this study are remote which implied that long hours of traveling to reach the districts and to move from one district to the other. In addition connecting roads between the districts and between district capital (sede do distrito) and the drought most affected localities were off-road and in bad conditions, which added to the travel time.

The consultant is not a disaster specialist and the study is a qualitative rapid assessment thus, it is not a comprehensive and conclusive analysis.
3. Research findings

Literature Review
While the effects of Climate Change are, these days, widely acknowledged the recognition that some groups and regions are more exposed to associated risks than others is also highlighted (Dossa et al., 2016). Even when people and communities are exposed to similar climate-change-related events, they can be affected to different degrees in terms of losses and damage property and livelihoods; which is known as differential vulnerability (Oppenheimer et al., 2014).

Nonetheless there has been slow progress regarding recognition of the social dimensions of disaster risk and climate change (Moosa and Tuana, 2014), despite decades of research by sociologists and geographers showing how disasters are founded in social structures (Fothergill, 1996). There is growing evidence of the numerous ways in which women, men, children, older people, people with disabilities and ethnic minorities are vulnerable to environmental shocks and stresses, as well as how they mobilize different capacities to build their resilience (Le Masson et al., 2016).

Of note, is the need to understand drought as a specific kind of natural disaster. Compared to other natural disasters drought typically has an unclear onset or ending, a large spatial coverage and an extended duration which all make the drought impact assessment an even more challenging task (Ding, Hayes and Widhalm 2010: 17). The fact that the drought takes a slow pace and long duration typically makes it difficult to measure its overall impact, specifically in contexts where poverty is an issue. Drought strengthens the condition of
poverty in which people leave. Thus, coping strategies tend to include more investment on already coping mechanisms used to respond to poverty.

African countries, especially those south of the Sahara are repeatedly affected by desertification resulting from severe droughts that cause loss of human life and large-scale displacement of populations (United Nations, 1984). Studies have revealed that almost two-thirds (64%) of households rely on women to get the family’s water when there is no water source in the home (Mora Water Systems, 2016).

Girls under the age of 15 are twice as likely as boys to be the family member responsible for fetching water. While men tend to the needs of their herds, women bear disproportionate responsibilities in caring for the family and household duties. Their responsibilities include caring for children and the elderly, cleaning the home, cooking and collecting water. Women sometimes walk up to 30 kilometers to water sources, and often what they are able to collect does not meet the needs of their families. As they travel farther away to available water sources they have less time to devote to their family’s needs, resulting in social and health related consequences (Develop Africa, 2016). We know that emergencies have a disproportionate effect on the poorest and most vulnerable, particularly women and children. Eight of the ten countries with the highest maternal mortality ratios in the world are in fragile circumstances and are affected by current or recent crises. Neonatal mortality rates are highest in areas affected by humanitarian emergencies.

As the drought worsens its effects become more pronounced on women and girls. Water scarcity compromises hygiene especially for girls and women as the little water available is prioritized for drinking and cooking. Women and girls have to fetch water either on their backs or weak donkeys. Men migration leave the women behind with the usual family responsibilities but very little resources, hence they are therefore forced to engage in petty trade to put food on the table. When close to big towns prostitution becomes an option for women and girls, exposing them to HIV/AIDS risks. Culturally women also can’t make any decision to sell or even slaughter small livestock for food, and they have to wait for the men who have moved away with the rest of the livestock and therefore hard to reach (Action Aid, 2016).

Domestic violence is prone to increase in disaster situations due to the exacerbation of marital conflict caused by stress, loss of livelihoods and limited resources. Alcohol has a negative effect: drinking seems to have increased after disasters and to have caused a higher incidence of domestic violence (IFRC 2015).

Community life before the drought
In all visited districts the drought has been acutely impacting the lives of the communities. Below, the report will discuss the specific ways in which the drought is affecting women and girls. The description will highlight three main themes that reflect the impact of the drought and the coping strategies employed by the category of women and girls: Increased workload and responsibilities; Gender-based violence and Sexual and Reproductive Health.

However, before initiating with the specificities on the drought impact to women and girls, it is important to understand how the communities visited lived before this disaster.
In the districts selected to this study the main subsistence activity is agriculture and breeding of cattle. However, cattle have a more symbolic meaning as it is collected to pay the bride wealth through the lobolo ceremony and as social capital linked to the amount of cattle heads one owns. All six districts have a patriarchal social organization and polygamous traditions. A man may marry more than one wife depending on his ability to pay lobolo and support the family. As acknowledged through fieldwork there is preference that wives come from the same family in order to guarantee support of the women’s primary family and avoid dispersion of resources. It is widespread that women marry and get pregnant before reaching 18 years of age. However, there are strong governmental and civil society campaigns against such practices. These districts also have a long tradition of male migration to South Africa. It has even been considered a rite of passage to male adulthood.

The Mozambican economy is not sufficiently diverse and, as stated by the national Census (2007) 89% of the population is largely dependent on subsistence agriculture, and livestock or fisheries. In the hinterland districts of Inhambane, Gaza and Maputo selected to this study the main economic activities are agriculture and the breeding of cattle, sheep and goats. Before the drought these districts would produce a variety of agricultural products (maize, cassava, beans, peanut, sesame, sorghum and vegetables) as well as gathering wild greens that constitute the base of their diet. The surplus of agricultural produce would be sold at local markets or to resellers to distribute elsewhere in the provinces. With the money acquired from the surplus, women would buy oil, salt, soap and other cooking and domestic essentials to the maintenance of the households. Prior to the drought, the households would have three to four meals a day.

In the last three years, all districts covered within this assessment have not been able to take much from their agricultural fields. The last agricultural season (2015-16) was considered the worst as rain was completely absent thus, all seeds planted and cultures died before sprouting or being ready to harvesting. Moreover, the communities have exhausted their stock of seeds. Throughout the year they have been planting whenever there was rain. However such rain was too little and too random that did not allowed the seeds to germinate thus, the cultures died. Most informants also perceive a loss for the agricultural season 2016-17 as the raining season - that should have started in October - began in December with random, light and insufficient rain. Moreover, extreme heat persisted which killed the crops. Due to the absence of water and green pastures the cattle has either died or sold at less than half of the regular price as the cattle was to thin or sick.

The immediate consequence of the absence of agricultural production is the decrease on the variety and number of meals. Now, the communities rely on the little money they get from selling their cattle, charcoal and reed to acquire food or rely on food assistance programs in place (only for those selected as beneficiaries) in the districts (details of these programs will be developed in the last section of chapter three in this report). While three years ago (before the drought) the communities would have three or more meals a day nowadays, Generally, the households have one or less meals a day. Before the drought the meals were diverse and included produce from the household’s agriculture fields as well as products brought with income from the surplus rom the agriculture production. Presently, under the drought the communities eat maize and beans however, in Funhalouro, Tsenane some people mentioned only eating wild fruits, wild fruit juice or its alcoholic fermented version (Utchema). However, even the trees of such wild fruits are being affected by the drought and are not producing fruits.

In Tsenane, an added difficulty to reaching the forest and catch the wild fruits is the presence of armed men both from the government forces as well as from the Renamo under the political
and military tension being felt in some regions of the country. Such military tension constitutes an impediment for the populations to get access to wild natural sources of food. In Panda, in the locality of Chivalo, the main problem is the conflict between humans and animals. Elephants, whom because of the drought, look for food in the area frequently invade the community. The elephants destroy the agricultural fields as well as the villages creating an added burden for the lives of the community.

The general impact and coping mechanisms of the drought to the community are described in the table below. Here is an example of the specificities of the drought as a creeping natural hazard in the context of poverty. While some could argue that communities were using the listed coping mechanisms before, as Mozambique is a poor country, I highlight these strategies to indicate that drought has worsened the community’s social and economic and thus they have toughened such coping mechanisms. In the next section I will highlight and compare (in a table) like before the drought and the impact of the drought within the main topics that constitute specific impact categories for women and girls.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Communities’ survival and coping mechanisms under the drought</th>
<th>Impact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Borrowing</td>
<td>• Debts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Marital conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Migration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cutting wood and production of charcoal</td>
<td>• Environmental degradation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illegal hunting?</td>
<td>• New social role for women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Lack of profit due to absence of buyers/buyers exchange charcoal per food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Unfair terms of trade: 32 wood trunks per 2.5 kg of maize (Tsenane)/50kg of charcoal per 4kg of maize or 250 MZM (Magude)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Risk of fines and legal issues due to prohibitions set by the government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selling of cattle</td>
<td>• Transformation on the symbolic meaning of cows towards a market perspective of breeding of cattle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Inability to pay the FDD credit and legal complications to those who acquired cows through the <em>Fundo de Desenvolvimento Distrital</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selling of poultry, sheep and goat</td>
<td>• Raised consciousness of the value breeding smaller species for a market perspective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selling of fermented beverages made of cashew and palm trees</td>
<td>• Insufficient income to cover the household-needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Re-selling of vegetables bought in Chókwè (Chigubo)</td>
<td>• High costs of transport compromise the final profit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Ganho-ganho</em>: work in irrigated farms in Moamba (25 km away from Moamba-sede) and South Africa (Chicualacuala)</td>
<td>• Temporary migration of both men and women in the households</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Added pressure for grandparents to take-care of grandchildren</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Increased burden and vulnerability on elderly (caring of grandchildren)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Low pay in Moamba (100MZM/day to work in the farms)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Good wages in South African farms (2000 ZAR/month) but passports are required and people do not have them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selling of plots (Moamba due to high demand from Maputo city)</td>
<td>• Unwanted and teenage pregnancy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional sex</td>
<td>• Social ostracized for not knowing who’s the child father</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Single mothers as men do not take recognize pregnancies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going to bed hungry</td>
<td>Malnutrition and health problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New eating habits: meals consist on drinking wild fruit beverages</td>
<td>Children’s exposure to alcoholic beverages (derived from fermented wild fruits)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased alcohol consumption (Stress-relief mechanism and also by women in <em>barracas</em>)</td>
<td>Youth aging faster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Migration of:</td>
<td>Unhealthy lifestyle and disease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) adults in search of work</td>
<td>Family separation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) girl-children - sent children to work as babysitters with relatives in provincial capital cities</td>
<td>○ Girls exposure to abuse/transactional sex/child and early marriage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Girls to well-off areas of the districts in search of better life conditions</td>
<td>Risk of abandonment due to absent of communication/contact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compromised schooling of working girls</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Impact and consequences of drought to women and girls

Increased workload and responsibilities

Women’s new activities
As described above, in the regions affected by the drought, households are experiencing reduced access to water which hinders the ability to work the land, get agricultural produce for subsistence and income generation as well as keeping cattle and other livestock. Agriculture has traditionally been a women’s activity, however, due to the drought effect women started engaging in new economic activities. In the six districts considered to this study, as women become unable to guarantee the agricultural produce they have joined men in going to the forests to cut reed, harvest wood and produce charcoal. In Magude the technician for environment management at SDPI has mentioned the registration of two women’s associations dedicated to the exploration of charcoal, in the last term of 2016. Reed and wood are used in petty trade and do not guarantee enough income for the household as there is reduced demand comparing the supply. Charcoal is more profitable though there is more demand in Chigubo.

These activities in the forest were traditionally men’s activities. Although one notices a shift in sex division of work - women are now performing a defined male activity - the social role of women has not changed as they continue with low decision power at the household including decision power to the income originating from their own activity. Additionally, by entering a traditionally male economic activity women have to compete to have access to space for getting the resources in the forest. The conflict that emerges may expose women to GBV, as highlighted in a study gender-based violence in disaster (IFRC 2015).

These activities practiced in the forest, paradoxically, contribute to the degradation of the environment through the alteration of carbon and water cycles that worsen the quality of the environment in which communities live.

Water fetching: a source of school dropouts and marital conflict
The actual weight of the drought implies a general increased poverty. In the districts visited the households are facing thirst and famine on a daily basis. Women spend more hours to fetch water. Due to the drought women are unable to get sufficient water to perform the household duties and to guarantee the family’s hygiene. The statement below, from a woman in a FGD in Mucuine locality, exemplifies the actual scenario:

“(…) while before we would take three hours to fetch water we now leave home at 4 in the morning and only come back at 4 in the afternoon so, we spend half of the day (12 hours) looking for water.”

The hardship of water fetching is similar in all six districts. In Magude, for example, the strategy involves women and girls (but also boys) taking two trips to the source of water. In the morning, they would leave home at 4 AM and come back at 10 AM while in the afternoon the journey to get water would start at 2 PM and finish at 7 PM. The exercise of fetching water is not only a time consuming one but also a physically challenging one. Women carry water gallons of minimum 20 litres on their heads, backs or carry them on bicycles or donkeys.
Clearly, the described scenario demands more people joining the task of fetching water. As gendered social roles are set in a way that domestic activities are allocated to women, one witnesses girls joining their mothers and other female family members in the search of water. Many of the girls are still at school. However, they would miss or dropout from school in order to become helping hands in fetching water for the household. The statistics of the drought already indicate that school drop-outs in vulnerable provinces were reported to exceed 10 per cent during the first quarter of 2016 (CARE 2016). Through observation it was also possible to see that primary school aged boys were also involved in the process of fetching water². Thus, the drought is pushing children out of school, but specifically girls due to the gendered social expectations. Such scenario leads to regression on the educational outcomes, which reinforces poverty.

Through the use of FGD methodology, we requested informants who knew someone or whose own children have withdrawn from either primary and secondary school to raise hands. The graph below, indicates the proportions for the respective districts:

Graph 1: Proportion of informants whose children withdrew from school

In Moamba and Panda we were able to get annual reports for education for 2014 and 2015. The report disaggregates the number of dropouts per sex and gives the general causes of the phenomenon. As can be seen in the table below girls tend to dropout from school more at the first 5 grades of the primary education. A similar pattern is visible to boys. The numbers reach the hundreds for girls and two hundreds for boys in both years. A possible reason may be associated to the fact that the community do not see the added value of education especially at the first years, as there is no immediate gain for the families but costs. Simultaneously, children in in primary school years are of a great advantage performing domestic work: girls fetch water and take care of younger siblings while boys are active shepherds for the cattle.

Table 2: Comparative table of school dropouts in Moamba district:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2015</th>
<th>Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Funhalouro</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panda</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chicalacla</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magude</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moamba</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

²To overcome the impact of drought families also employ primary school aged boys as shepherds to other families in exchange of money, food or cattle.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary school</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EP1 (1–5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; grade)</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>430</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>-19</td>
<td>-15</td>
<td>-64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EP2 (6–7&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; grade)</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>-25</td>
<td>-13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Secondary School</strong></td>
<td>172</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>-160</td>
<td>-121</td>
<td>281</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The report from Moamba indicates that the major causes for dropouts are migration to South Africa, change of residence as well as social conflicts and unknown reasons. It is interesting to see a decrease in the number of dropouts in 2015 comparing to 2014. One of the reasons in primary school maybe associated to the introduction of school meals.

Water fetching for the household in the context of drought has a direct impact on girls’ education, as they are either absent or dropout from school. For adult women the impact is the inability to perform the remaining household duties in time, which tend to lead to marital conflict with potential to lead to GBV as well as conflict with other members of household. Conflict emerges, as water is insufficient to drink, cook, household members’ personal hygiene and cleaning. Moreover, the families are faced with food shortage, which leads to reduction on number of meals or even going to bed without meals. Women are then under a lot of stress and prone to domestic violence.

**Migration: women’s added responsibilities without power**

In the face of the intense burden of this long-term drought the families are finding coping mechanisms. Interviews with five community leaders and the mixed and women group discussions also referred to separation of couples and abandonment. The burden of the drought put men under pressure, as they feel unable to fulfil their role as the head of the household by providing for their families. Some men thus, decide to migrate. They do inform the family that they are moving in search of work. However, some do not come back and do not keep contact.
Celestina: an abandoned woman mother of 4

Celestina is a 29-year-old mother. She had her first child at 15 years old in Maputo when she was a domestic worker. The father of her firstborn child never accepted the pregnancy or the baby girl. She returned to her parents in Chivalo, Panda.

Five years later she traditionally married a local man in Chivalo and went to live with him. They had three girls together. In 2011, when she was pregnant with her last born, her husband migrated to Maputo in search of work. He would contact her and send remittances regularly but never visited Chivalo. In 2013, he informed her that he was moving to South Africa. Since then he never contacted her or visited Chivalo. This year Celestina decided to abandon her household and go back to her parent’s house.

Celestina’s decision to move back to her parents is twofold: (a) she is unable to provide for the 3 children living with her (the older girl is living with her sister in Maputo) and (b) she cannot join a new man is she stays in the household she built with her disappeared husband.

Celestina’s aim of joining a new partner works as a strategy to keep herself and her children as she survives out of agriculture, which is providing no subsistence at the present due to the drought; selling of cashew nuts and cashew alcoholic beverage.

This is a clear example of woman’s fragile situation in the areas visited. Moreover, the 10 and 8-year-old daughters of Celestina are both in first grade, which may imply a replication of a fragile situation for them in the future due to the lack of social value given to education under the cultural, social and economic reality lived in that rural area of Mozambique.
Migration in search of work is one of such coping mechanisms. All districts visited have a long traditional history of male migration to the mines and plantations in South Africa. Under the impact of the drought there have been a resurgence migration to the other side of the border. Young men continue to be main people migrating. It was rare to find reports of men migrating to work on the mines. Most migrate to work on the farms or without a specific plan but with the aim of finding a job in South Africa.

An emerging kind of activity that drives young men to South Africa is associated to the criminal act of hunting the rhinoceros to extract its horn. That is seen as a millionaire business. In Chicualacuala, Magude and Moamba there were reports of young men who joined such business as a strategy to overcome the impact of the drought and the absence of employment. As that activity is a crime, there are reports of deaths and imprisonments that have harmful effects for the wives of those men who have to carry the household alone. However, deaths also happen to those who are not involved in that criminal activity, as stated by 40-year-old woman in Chicualacuala:

“People are migrating to South Africa in search of work. However, as they do not have passports they use the old route through the Kruger Park. There, the Park’s guards are killing them as they are being mistaken for rhino hunters”.

Women migration is also becoming common. Young women, both single and married do migrate to cities in the Southern part of the country [more economically developed villages and cities in Inhambane (Massinga, Maxixe and Inhambane-Cêu), Gaza (Chokwé, Macia and Xai-Xai) and Maputo (Maputo city) to work as domestic workers and to sell in the markets. When women migrate they tend to live their children with grandparents. The situation is difficult as the grandparents lack the financial means to support children under the circumstances of drought. Even if the objective of the women migrating is to send remittances
back home, those are not guaranteed (immediately, if ever), as they have no guarantees of finding a job. In Chicualacuala, a 53 year-old-women said:

“My husband’s younger brother went to South Africa with his wife and left me with their two children to look after. It has been a year now and we get no contact from them”.

In that same group discussion in Chicualacuala, a polygamous men with 3 wives stated:

“Six of my sons and three of my daughters left to South Africa and Maputo. One of my daughters was abandoned by her husbands some years ago and decided to go to Maputo in search of work leaving her two children with us (grandparents)”. 

Migration of girls was also mentioned. Some families do send their younger girls to live with relatives in the cities (Inhambane, Xai-Xai and Maputo). Most girls go there to work for relatives taking care of their babies and younger children.

There are also opportunities for women to migrate to South Africa to work in plantations at sowing and harvesting times. However, a major requirement to work on such plantations is that workers have passports. In Chicualacuala, the district where people migrate for such plantations, women lack passports and men prefer to invest in getting the documents for themselves. One notices here a reproduction of a gendered double standard in which family’s choices for basic elements of citizenship are primarily for men.

Quantitative data collected in focus group discussions in the districts confirms that migration continues to be mostly masculine though there are also events of both parents migrating:

Deadly drought coping mechanisms with major impact to women

Ana, 26 years old and Salmina, 22 years old are two women from Moamba who have their lives transformed due the business of the horn of the rhinoceros. 

Ana’s husband was killed in South Africa in February 2016 as he was caught in the Kruger National Park trying to hunt a rhinoceros. Ana has two boys of 2 and 4 years old. Salmina, a 22 years old mother of a 1-and-a-half-year-old boy has her husband jailed in South Africa as he engaged in a similar activity. The hunting of the rhinoceros is heavily combated in the South Africa national parks in South Africa with armed forces ready to act against the hunters.

Salmina has studied till the 8th grade while Ana only finished 5th grade. Their main activity is agriculture and, as there is no agricultural production they have joined the production of charcoal as a survival mechanism. Due to the destiny of the partners they become the head of their households.

Both women heavily complain about their lives as, not only do they have to guarantee their children’ survival but their in-laws as well since the husbands are death or absent. They feel overwhelmed with the pressure they leave under and their incapacity to cover their household needs.
Due to husband’s migration women are left alone as head of the households to face the
drought. However, it is worth noting that in Gaza and Maputo most women informants
interviewed were either widows or abandoned even before the drought. Reasons associated
to this phenomenon maybe linked to the high prevalence of HIV and AIDS, specially in Gaza
as well as the tradition of male migration (some men do not return). The fact that women are
left alone constitute an added burden as they become the sole breadwinner of the family but
have no power to decide on the family’s assets and livelihoods (for example, decide to sell or
slaughter cattle).

Additionally, the relationship with children, specifically adolescents and youth had proven to
become difficult under the current drought. Parents, specifically mothers - who are the
predominant present members of the household – have stated that they have no authority
over their descendants as they are unable to provide regular meals and other basic needs.
Adolescent and young descendants do not obey their parents. In Funhalouro, there were 104
women (out of a community discussion 250 people) complaining that they could not control
their daughters dressing codes, night visits to barracas and alcohol consumption as the
daughters would claim that such behaviour guaranteed them and their household money and
food.

In all six districts there are reports of unplanned pregnancies of teenage girls. Mothers were
powerless to control their daughters and in most cases ended up taking care of the
grandchildren as in general the father was unknown or would not take responsibility of the
child as is the case of Alda, 43-year-old widow and mother of five:

“My younger daughter who is 14 years old is pregnant. She goes to school and I
do not understand where the pregnancy comes from. She says that the boy who
impregnated her refuses that he is the father”
Thus, though circumstances have changed with the men’s migration due to the drought and women have assumed more responsibilities, concomitantly they have become more vulnerable as fundamental patterns of power have not necessarily changed.

**Gender-Based Violence**

Gender-based violence refers to harmful acts perpetrated against a person’s will that are based on socially ascribed differences between male and female (IFRC 2015). The reality of natural disasters finds individuals living in moments of particular vulnerability thus; tend to be prone circumstances to GBV.

**Child-marriage**

The desk review has highlighted how, during climate crises, child, early and forced marriage is used as a coping mechanism because (i) the bride price/dowry is welcome income, (ii) it is one less mouth for the family to feed, clothe and educate, and (iii) the family perceives the girl will be better off and have more food security in the marriage.

In the districts of Panda and Chigubo, child marriage is also included as a reason of school dropout by girls. Even if no data is provided to inform if child-marriages are increasing because of the drought in a conversation with INAS in Chigubo, it became clear that such kind of marriages are the number one cause of school drop-outs by girls throughout the years.

In all focus group discussions and interviews performed with the residents no informant mentioned having practiced or knowing of child marriages. Methodologically that information is deceiving. There are fierce national campaigns against such practice that criminally prosecute perpetrators. Thus, individuals would not want to be associated with the practice and would rather refuse knowing about it. However, it is an embedded practice in the visited areas. Through observation and the data from the group discussion it was possible to acknowledge that young women interviewed within 18 and 19 years old where already married (through lobolo) and had children above 1 year old. Also, tracing back to the ages when interviewed women had their first born, it had been before they were 18 years and in most cases women got pregnant within marriage.

The visited districts in southern Mozambique are characterized by marriage traditions associated with polygamy that embrace the marriage of underage girls with older men as long as the girl belongs to the family of the first wife. Again this is a form of GBV in which girls are forced into marriage. To gather more information there is need for in-depth qualitative combination studies to be carried out in order to investigate the extent of the phenomenon at this time of drought.

In Moamba, the interviewed technician from INAS also mentioned that there is great movement of girls and single young women to the Sábie region. This region is well known for the rich cattle breeders, successful migrants and men involved in the hunting of the rhino’s corn. In his words, young women migrate to that region in search of better life opportunities and marriages. This scenario corroborates with other studies that show how because of poverty and desperation women (themselves and their families) may be forced to adopt negative coping strategies, such as child/early marriage or transactional sex, and they become more vulnerable to traffickers and other criminals. Indeed, INAS in Inhambane has built a house for two sisters who were recovered after being forced into (i) child marriage and (ii) given to a sexual trafficker by their grandfather in exchange of money in Mabote district in 2015. In general this kind of coping mechanism leaves girls at risk of sexual and physical abuse, poor nutrition and increased chance of maternal neonatal death.
Research in Somaliland and Niger found that, after disasters, families considered that child/early marriage protected their daughters (Plan International 2013). In Malawi, young girls either went with older men in order to obtain basic necessities, or parents encouraged an child/early marriage for their daughters to provide for them (or to reduce the pressure on their families) (Mercy Corps 2015). Also, in Mozambique the study by CARE shows that prior to the drought, 52% of girls in the province of Inhambane married before the age of 18 years. As of 2015, there were 631,000 child brides in the country and prior to the onset of the drought it was expected that by 2020 Mozambique would have 732,000 child brides, many aged below 15 years (CARE 2016). This suggests that long-term recovery programs play an essential role in reducing GBV (Buscher 2014).

**Domestic violence**

Published studies and reports on gender relations and disaster have argued that many of the factors associated with disasters – the separation of families, the collapse of social networks, the breakdown of norms and mores, the destruction of infrastructure, the relocation of individuals, and changed relationships within the family – seem to increase violence against women and children (and in some cases men). The reasons for such increase in violence, some authors suggest have to do with aggravated stress, feelings of loss of control which leads perpetrators to tighten their authority at home, the one area in which they feel they have power (Hougton 2010).

Data from the districts visited in this assessment show that at social level women handle the burden of having to respond to the domestic demands in a scenario where they are not able to provide it. Women are expected to provide water and food for the household. Under the drought these two dimensions become very difficult to fulfil. As a consequence, they engage constantly in marital discussions with a potential to increased domestic violence as stated by a 29 year old women married with 4 children:

> “Recently couples argue a lot because of the absence of food and water. Though husbands do not abandon wives there is more violence at home”

This general statement was shared by FGD informants in all districts however, no one self-reported being a victim or perpetrator of domestic violence. The rapid character of this assessment hindered the possibility for people to share such intimate details of their relationships. Again, in-depth studies with a cross-methodological approach would be useful to gather more details in regards to this topic.

In some of the group discussions informants mentioned mutual understanding by the couple of the drought situation but women still felt a heavier burden, as they had to cater for children, especially young children. In Moamba, members of the group discussion (6 out of 7 in a mixed group discussion) showed how as a consequence of the drought family members started to function as individual cells: adults would individually fulfil their personal needs (food, water, etc.). However, women still had to find food and water for the children while men (husbands) had the privilege of resorting to their parents, as it is a virile-local system of marriage.

**Sexual and Reproductive Health**

**Transactional sex**

A number of published studies have reported that many adolescent girls, young and adult women facing economic hardship in disaster affected had recourse to transactional sex (Mercy
Corps 2015, IFRC 2015). Country reports found that transactional sex was a direct effect of food insecurity caused by disaster. In Namibia informants stated that it occurred primarily because food was insufficient and women needed to provide for their families. In Malawi, because the food relief was not adequate, ‘women would end up exchanging sex just to feed their families’. Studies by both the World Food Programme and Mercy Corps have also reported that young girls commonly have recourse to the same strategy to escape poverty and food insecurity caused by drought (Mercy Corps 2015, IFRC 2015).

Mozambique is not an exception. As elsewhere in the current drought women become prone to engage in transactional sex as a means to get access to financial resources. It is important to contextualize: young women are facing a scenario of drought, added in many cases by migration of the father or sometimes both parents (where children are left with grandparents or other relatives) which means that children and youth are faced with a reduction of meals, absence of resources to cover basic needs and poverty.

In Funhalouro, the presence of a compound of male workers under SASOL for the installation of a pipeline in the area has driven young women who have no other opportunities in place to resort to sex with such workers in exchange of their needs. The main trigger for the girls to get involved in transactional sex was loss of livelihoods and poverty. As mentioned previously, young women in the area have not many opportunities in regards to employment of furthering their education in ways to guarantee them a stable income. Engaging in transactional sex emerges as a coping mechanism to the actual drought.

While none of the interviewed participant reported practicing transactional sex, a night spent observing the barracas (market with diverse stalls selling food and alcoholic beverages and playing loud music)\(^3\) – one of the most cited spots of transactional sex – at Funhalouro-sede market was self-explanatory. There were two groups of clients at barracas: local adolescent and young women, in the one hand, and men (most looked foreign - not from Funhalouro but from South Africa, Zimbabwe and elsewhere in Mozambique) on the other. Men were consuming food and alcoholic beverages in the company of the young women. Men would touch, grab, laugh with the young women who would respond with laughs, sensual poses, dances and caresses to men. They would pay the bills and some would go with the local young women to the nearby accommodation.

Some of the consequences mentioned of the transactional sex were an increase of unwanted and teenage pregnancies as well as the contraction of STIs, including HIV. In an interview at the health sector in Funhalouro, there were mentioning of the high prevalence of STIs and HIV. At the barracas there were no visible STIs and HIV awareness material. Also, at the health centre the specific services for sexual and reproductive health for adolescents and youth (SAAJ) were not operational, its room was being used for other kind of consultations. Adolescent and young women and men looking for SRH services got medical assistance at general consultations like, FP and MCH.

At personal level, the absence of water and sources of income create a challenge to women intimate hygiene specifically during the menstrual cycle.

The table below (2) summarizes the main drought negative on girls and women. The table disaggregates the impact into age categories.

---
\(^3\) In Funhalouro-sede close to the barracas there were a number of small huts offering accommodation and beds. The charges were made by day or by the hour. Many used such rooms to practice transactional sex.
### Table 3: Negative impact of the drought to women and girls by age categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Social roles and rights</th>
<th>SRH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| General (to all age groups) | • Poverty  
• Poor nutrition  
• Eroded resilience | • Risk of early start of sexual activity  
• Risk of sexual abuse |
| Girls   | • School dropout (illiteracy)  
• Forced maturity (household duties and taking care of younger siblings)  
• Forced migration and separation from family  
• GBV:  
  o Risk of physical and sexual abuse | • Transactional sex  
• Exposure to HIV and STI  
• Possible spotlight to human trafficking  
• Compromised hygiene  
• Increased chance of neonatal death |
| 10-14   | • School dropout  
• GBV:  
  o Exposure to child-marriage  
  o Risk of violence perpetrated by older family men  
• Risk of becoming single mothers | | |
| 15-18   | • School dropout  
• GBV:  
  o Risk of becoming single mothers | | |
| Women   | • Migration and job uncertainty  
• Increased workload and responsibilities  
• Prone to become sole provider and manager of the household  
• Vulnerability due to maintenance of gendered patterns of power  
• Stress and anxiety  
• Husband abandonment | • Transactional sex  
• Exposure to HIV and STI  
• Possible spotlight to human trafficking  
• Compromised hygiene  
• Increased chance of neonatal death |
| 19-24   | • Marriage and job uncertainty  
• Increased workload and responsibilities  
• Prone to become sole provider and manager of the household  
• Vulnerability due to maintenance of gendered patterns of power  
• Stress and anxiety  
• Husband abandonment  
• GBV  
  o Marital violence  
  o Risk of becoming single mothers | | |
| 25-49   | • Extra burden of having to take care of grandchildren due to parent’s migration | • Compromised hygiene  
• Risk of sexual abuse |
| 50+     | | • Compromised hygiene |

In regards to general health, in all districts, the presence of mobile brigades seems to cover the negative effect of people missing visits to health centres due to the drought (prioritizing the expenditure to food rather than transport to the health centre of medication, for example). Through fieldwork it became evident that communities closer to health centres had no cases of people missing consultations. However, the longer people have to walk or have transport costs to reach health centres, one observed that people prefer to find local alternatives to their ailments or wait until it is too complex to be treated locally. Data from
the FGD presents the proportion of people who have missed consultations at health centres in the respective districts:

**Graph 3: Proportion of those who missed health facility consultations**

![Graph showing the proportion of people who missed consultations at health centres in different districts.]

The table below summarizes both preceding sections showing, to each of the categories in which drought affect women and girls, how was life before the drought, what the drought has crated and how people are responding to the impact of the drought.

**Table 4: Comparison of life after drought and its impact to women and girls**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Life before the drought</th>
<th>Drought</th>
<th>Current life under the drought</th>
<th>Conclusions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>INCREASED WORKLOADS AND RESPONSIBILITIES</strong></td>
<td>Impact</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Agriculture: main women's labour activity and subsistence | No production in agriculture | • New activities: cut reed, harvest wood and produce charcoal  
• Women embrace traditional masculine labour activities | • Shift in the sexual division of work however,  
• Maintenance of asymmetrical gendered power dynamics  
• Increased exposure to conflict and GBV |
| 2 to 5 hours collecting water | Little or no water in rivers, boreholes and other used sources of water | • 10 to 12 hours hour collecting water  
• Water collection at night and at dawn  
• Girls compulsory join water collection activities | • Compromised girls education (potential to perpetuate poverty)  
• Women’s increased exposure to marital conflict, GBV and stress |
| Traditional migration of men (urban areas and South Africa) | Reduction of sources of subsistence and income | • Continued migration of men: drought mentioned as a new reason  
• Increased migration of women and children  
• Increased burden for women and grandmothers | • Increased women’s vulnerability due to unchanged patterns of power in the household  
• Increased exposure to abandonment and widowhood  
• Women’s loss of authority over, specially, adolescents descendants |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child-marriage local practice though being combated</td>
<td>Great reduction of household income and subsistence</td>
<td>• Though not openly mentioned, evidence of young women and girls movement to areas of richer cattle holders and rhino hunters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mediated marital conflict</td>
<td>Absence of water and food</td>
<td>• Increased marital conflict due scarcity of resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Increased exposure to domestic violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Perpetrators tight authority at home</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEXUAL AND REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transactional sex practiced within scenario of poverty in areas where there were demand</td>
<td>Aggravates poverty Absence of water</td>
<td>• Transactional sex as a means to access food and financial resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Reports of young women migrating to male workers’ compounds and regions with wealthier men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Compromised women’s personal hygiene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Exposure to HIV and ITS infection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Risk of unwanted and early pregnancy and maternal death</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Compromised women’s personal hygiene</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Emergency response and its impact

The drought is severely impacting the lives and well being of the populations affected. A general response has been in place both from the government as well as from the international community. Most of the interventions in emergency focus on responding to food and water distribution and even infrastructures to alleviate the hardship of people’s lives. However, little attention is directed at issues related to gender dynamics within households and communities, GBV and SRH.

In emergency situations, there is often a lack of access to SRH services, increased GBV and an impact on gender relations due to the new social dynamics impelled by the drought. Gaza and Maputo province with HIV prevalence of 25.1% and 16.2% (INSIDA 2000) respectively have an increased probability of having such percentages rise as a consequence of coping mechanisms adopted to respond the drought (non-protected transactional sex in exchange for food and money, child-marriage, sexual abuse and trafficking). Inhambane province, even if having a lower 8.9% HIV prevalence, risks an increase of such percentage due to the previously identified factors. The strengthening of SRH services, awareness about and action towards prevention of GBV are quintessential to be adopted by disaster respondents.

The Mozambican Humanitarian Country Team (HTC) has made an effort to accommodate these aspects in its strategic response plan by planning the following activities:

• Provide technical support and tools for addressing protection issues, including gender mainstreaming and gender based violence in sector-specific interventions;
• Build the capacity of women’s groups and organizations to promote participation of women and ensure access to services and assistance provided;
• Prevention of GBV at food and water distribution points through gender focal points;
• Prevention of early marriage as coping strategy through sensitization of community leaders and influential people in affected communities;
• Mobilize peer educators and youth leader to raise awareness of sexual and reproductive health in emergency contexts;
• Support integration of protection concerns in data generation and need assessments, monitoring and reporting;
• Advocate for and support monitoring and reporting of protection concerns during delivery of assistance to prevent and sanction sexual abuse and exploitation and appropriately refer and address the complaints (HCT 2016).

During fieldwork in the six districts the effective activities that could be identified regarded the prevention of child and early marriages as well and the acknowledgement of women’s role in the management of the household thus, directing food assistance to the household through women. Clearly the campaigns on child-marriage were noticeable in the field as informants would all agree that the practice was negative and even stated that it was not performed. However, the practice still exists in the visited district though it is not easily spotted, especially in a rapid assessment study.

The most visible response to the drought in the field focus on the provision of immediate life-saving and life-sustaining assistance to the affected population through provision of essential commodities and support the restoration of the livelihoods of drought-affected population through resilience-building activities. In general, the government is redirecting funds allocated to the monitoring of the emergency to respond to its impact. Through INGC, the government is distributing food to vulnerable populations. The definition of vulnerable populations follow the standards defined by INAS for the Basic Social Security Program,
which focus on households of elderly, chronically ill, widow women, breastfeeding and pregnant women, families not active in commerce, people with disability and orphans and vulnerable children (OVC), as well as woman and child headed households. Food assistance thus is not universal. In regards to its content is consists of 4kg of maize and 2kg of beans per household. INGC has not been able to regularly offer such aid in all the provinces visited thus, households contemplated to such aid received it once a month for one to three months. A key policy of such food assistance was that beneficiaries of other social programs implemented by INAS could not simultaneously benefit from other humanitarian aid, in order to avoid duplication in a context o scarcity of resources.

Additionally, the government has been active in opening and rehabilitating multifunctioning systems and sources of water for simultaneous use for agriculture, drinking water and water for the animals.

The international community is very active in the response to the acute food insecurity affecting the populations in the Southern provinces due to the drought. A number of institutions and organizations have joined forces and created consortiums to act more effectively. In early 2016 the humanitarian organizations Concern, Oxfam, Save the Children and Care initiated a response with funds from the British Government. The consortium had the aim of supporting 35 000 families in 9 districts of Gaza and Inhambane which included Chicualacuala, Chigubo, Funhalouro and Panda. The main aim was the provision of food and seeds as well as repair and rehabilitation of water sources and construction of boreholes.

Beneficiaries for COSACA aid are selected through a public consultation in the communities and the participation of the local leaders. The criteria selection includes the vulnerable categories listed by INAS but in diverse localities the specificities of the population that make them prone to vulnerability are also considered. For example, in Panda, married woman in polygamous marriages in which the husband is unable to provide to all his wives are considered head of the households thus potential beneficiaries. In Funhalouro, households that migrated due to drought and famine are also included.

For food assistance, COSACA works through a system of vouchers. From January 2016 beneficiaries monthly receive the vouchers at fair organized by the consortium where traders hired by the consortium expose the products pre-defined by COSACA. The beneficiaries trade their vouchers worth 3800 MZM\(^4\) with the products displayed. COSACA calculated their list based on a family of 5. Thus, per family the monthly standard list and quantities include: 25kg of maize, 2kg of beans, 25kg of rice, 2litres of oil, 2 kg of peanut, 2kg of sugar, 2 packs of noodles and 1 kg of salt.

In Funhalouro, from January to December 2016 COSACA has covered the 3000 families pre-defined for the district. Care International, a partner of COSACA, have reached additional funds and included 4000 more beneficiaries in the district. In Panda, food distribution is planned for 940 families and there are in place public consultations to define the most affected localities to intervene however, seeds will be distributed in the all district. So far in Panda 12 sources of water have been rehabilitated and 5 new are being built.

In Chigubo, out of the 30 605 households, 28 000 are being assisted by the different aid programs in place. WFP is also active distributing maize and beans to the households. WFP program follows INAS’s Programa de Acção Social Produtiva (PASP) logic however; payment

\(^4\) This amount has started at 1200MZM but has been raised to cover the basic needs of households
for services performed is made in food and not money. The amount of the food corresponds to 650 MZM.

Other NGOs acting in these districts include: CCM-OXFAM which in Tsenane, Funhalouro has covered 586 out of the 690 households. In Magude active organizations responding to the drought include PMA, FAO, ATAP, Red Cross. In Magude UNICEF has assisted households for a period of 5 months with 40 litres of water per family twice a week in the locality of Motaze, an area with no waterholes and with brackish water.

Throughout the visited districts and localities there are school meals at primary schools. This has been a response to UNICEF diagnostic of 140,853 children facing severe acute malnutrition in drought-affected areas (UNICEF 2016). The programs have started in the second semester of the year. Diverse NGOs are active in the schools offering different products that are cooked for the students by a group of mothers or female guardians and served at all students. In Moamba, for example ADPP covers all the primary schools in the district offering soy porridge. CCS additionally covers 10 of the most secluded primary schools in the district with a care package. CCS distributed that twice with a total quantity of 5l of oil, 4kg of sugar, 6kg of beans and 15kg of rice per child. In November, the last month of school calendar, students were given 5kg of soy to take home.

Food assistance is welcomed in all districts visited. However, there are tensions within communities resulting from such aid. The basic problem is the non-universality of food distribution. All communities agree that the drought is affecting them all. As agriculture is the main source of subsistence the absence of rain leads to a generalized absence of food and water thus, famine. Selecting just some localities and specific beneficiaries is creating a revolt amongst those excluded. The locality of Matlate in Chicualacula witnesses the food assistance trucks passing through their village to reach their destination but they are not contemplated. During group discussions the sense of injustice was visible with expressions like:

“When it is time to vote we all do but with food some eat and others don’t”

At the community level there are reports of food being stolen from beneficiaries by those not contemplated. Some beneficiaries reported pounding the received maize at night to avoid neighbours knowing that they do benefit from food assistance thus avoid being ostracized. There were also reports of quarrels amongst neighbours as small children from non-beneficiated families watch their neighbours eating while they have no food and join them. Quarrels arise as the inclusion of the neighbours’ children reduces the household’s food amount for the month. In Tsenane were the military situation is lived closely, community leaders fear for their lives as they are accused of making personalized selection of beneficiaries. A community leader described why he feels threatened:

“I have been threatened a number of times by non-beneficiaries. They accuse me of not including them and choosing my own people to get the food assistance. They do not understand that the program only accepts a total of 40 families. Once I was told that my name will be given to the military men from Renamo as a target to be eliminates because I eat alone.”

The interviewed informant from INAS in Moamba reported that in the locality of Vundissa populations threatened to attack the truck with food assistance because they were not being contemplated. In the locality of Sabie the team distributing food was threatened to be beaten by the population and had to return to Moamba without performing their work. In the
following day a different team went to Sabie to distribute food but had to initiate their activities with a prayer to lower the animosity.

In Magude, the interviewed technician from District Services of Planning and Infrastructure (SDPI) reported that in one of the communities the population have agreed to re-distribute among them all the food received through the aid. It is a secret arrangement as the leaders do not openly confirm, but in its interaction with the communities he was able to witness it.

Moreover, the diversity of products offered by diverse organizations does complicate the matter. While one group just receives maize and beans others have a diversity of 8 different products. While the amount of one donor reaches 3800 MZM per month, other is only a fifth of such amount at only 650 MZM per month. At schools, depending of the donor, some students have just soy porridge while other have maize, beans, cookie, tea and juice.

The paradoxical negative effect of the current pattern of food assistance for women and girls is their exposure to community’s ostracizing; pressure to guarantee household meals for the all month while food quantities may not last that long (especially in large and polygamous households) and absence of water.

At policy level, INGC has drafted the 2016-2020 Gender Strategic Plan for disaster. Such plans are important to raise awareness of the specificities of power relations, SRH and GBV within disaster. Currently there is still significant lack of awareness, policies/institutional mechanisms, and data. As diagnosed elsewhere (IFRC 2015), the absence of information about the prevalence of GBV in disasters contributes to the low awareness of responders, which hinders the development of mechanisms for collecting data, training staff and developing policies. The absence of institutional response mechanisms in turn deters survivors from reporting abuse, creating a ‘chicken and egg’ problem. Therefore, there is need to collect more data, take measures to prevent GBV in disaster contexts, and raise the awareness of all those who work to reduce disaster risks and assist those who are affected.
4. Conclusions

This report has analysed the impact of drought in women and girls in Funhalouro and Panda (Inhambane), Chicualacuala and Chigubo (Gaza) and Magube and Moamba (Maputo). Though considering the challenges of analysing impact of a slow pace and long duration natural disaster hazard in the poverty context of Mozambique the report has argued that there are three main areas in which women are affected.

The drought affects the social, labor and household dimensions of women’s lives by adding workload and responsibilities. Women engage in new activities that were traditionally masculine (cutting of reed, harvesting wood and production of charcoal). Together with girls, women now spend half of the day collecting water (including at night and dawn). The main impact due to these changes in the labour and household dynamics is the shift in sexual division of work, which paradoxically happens without a change in the gendered patterns of power. As women enter men’s labour sphere there is increased exposure to GBV due to increased pressure over resources. Girls education becomes compromised as they have to miss classes or dropout of school in order to collect water. That situation potentially perpetuates poverty.

While in the areas visited there is a long tradition of migration the drought works as allows for continued migration of men and increase in women and children migration. Such setting contributes to increased women’s vulnerability due to unchanged patterns of power in the household, women’s loss of authority of descendants as well as increased burden for women (including grandmothers) to provide for the household.

Under the drought, women continue to use coping mechanisms that they used under poverty to overcome its strenuous impact. Young women engage in transactional sex, families marry their girls before 18 years old. Such practices expose women to ITS, including HIV
transmission as well as the risk of unwanted and early pregnancies with severe consequences to these women’s health including exposure to maternal death.

The scarcity of resources also increases marital conflict at the household thus there is women’s exposure to domestic violence as perpetrators tight authority at home.

There is need to gather more details and information through specific combined qualitative and quantitative studies as well as longitudinal studies due to the particularise of drought as a natural disaster. Below, I highlight recommendations to respond, understand and better coordinate actions in response to the impact of drought to women and girls.

5. Recommendations

This assessment revealed the need for intervention at various levels that will directly impact on a better quality of living for women, girls and their families.

To the humanitarian community

- Roll out Minimum Initial Service Package for Reproductive Health in Emergencies (MISP) and Minimum Standards for Prevention and Response to Gender-Based Violence in Emergencies;
- Quality, disaggregated, gender-sensitive data on the nature and scope of GBV and on the availability and accessibility of services to inform programming, policy and advocacy as well as response (link with assessment);
- Improve data availability related to:
  - Preparedness Phase: The period preceding a humanitarian crisis—use of early warning signals to avert crises and/or to prepare response
  - Acute Phase: Outbreak of a crisis situation—massive destruction of lives and property, massive population displacements data- including gender, geographical disaggregation
  - Chronic Phase: Due to prolonged crisis—displaced populations (forced migrants) are settled in temporary locations, either in camps or within host communities
  - Post-crisis Phase: Return to (relative) peace and relative security—period of reconciliation, recovery, resettlement and reconstruction;
- Design emergency response programs that simultaneously promote gender equity messages and work with men to re-frame/re-formulate socially expected roles in order to more efficiently respond drought challenges to his family, women and girls;
- Translate emergency gendered sensitive policies into more instructive plans easily understood by technicians in the field; integration of emergency actions;
• Integrate sexual and reproductive health into health emergency and disaster risk management;

• Invest in greater and stronger coordination between emergency response actors to standardize the response in order to avoid conflict and ostracising of vulnerable groups including women and girls;

• Universal distribution of aid in cash rather than goods. In the rural areas visited there is no great differentiation on levels of poverty and richness. In a poor country like Mozambique, especially in rural areas, it would be more effective to cover all in need. Cash would be the privileged form of aid, as it allows household members (especially women) to make choices based on their more pressing needs (Hanlon, Barrientos, Hulme 2010);

• Integrate Social Action and Health sectors at the design of humanitarian response so that there is universalization of aid response patterns adopted by all the humanitarian community. Transform the humanitarian aid into a system that not only includes food and seed distribution (substituted by cash for all as suggested previously) but simultaneously involves SRH and Gender equity messages and interventions. The system should guarantee dissemination of messages and information on SRH, GBV and gender equity, distribution of contraception, ITS and HIV and AIDS prevention, pre and post-natal care.

**To public authorities**

• Incorporate SRH into multisectoral and health emergency risk management policies and plans at national and local levels. Allocate human and financial resources to integrate SRH into the national health emergency risk management programmes as part of national plans (contingency), in emergency response and recovery plans;

• Assure SRH services are part of national health policies and stable primary healthcare systems, which builds resilience and capacity for emergencies;

• Integrate SRH into assessments and provide early warning for communities and vulnerable groups. Incorporate assessments of SRH risks, vulnerabilities and capacities at all levels, informed by poverty, gender and disability analyses. Estimate the impact of identified SRH risks (such as vulnerable populations, high percentage of home deliveries, or lack of access to vehicles for obstetric and newborn complications) to strengthen the overall primary health-care system and plan for emergency response to address these concerns. Involve vulnerable groups in the development and implementation of community early warning systems, ensuring that their needs are addressed and that systems are gender-responsive;

• Create an environment of learning and awareness. Foster an awareness of key SRH risks and actions within a culture of improving community health, safety and resilience at all levels. Include health emergency risk management, including risk assessment, vulnerability reduction, emergency response planning and the MISP in the curricula for SRH workers, and for the broader health emergency management community. Strengthen media advocacy on the importance of maintaining SRH services during a response;
• Identify and reduce risks for vulnerable communities and SRH services by reducing underlying risk factors. Address underlying health vulnerabilities of the population by ensuring strong primary health care and preventive health measures with key provisions for SRH (and advance gender equality). Establish community networks to monitor local vulnerabilities and capacities, build all health facilities to withstand local hazards and ensure that these facilities remain functional to provide SRH services, including care for childbirth and obstetric and newborn complications during emergencies;

• Prepare existing SRH services to absorb impact, adapt, respond to and recover from emergencies. Adopt specific policies for the inclusion of vulnerable populations (women, adolescents, newborn, displaced and disabled people) that reflect risk assessment, gender and other analyses into disaster preparedness planning. Pre-position reproductive health kits, maintain vehicles to be used for referral of complications, and enact clear policies and procedures for coordination at all levels to ensure a comprehensive, well-coordinated response;

• Strengthen national framework to prevent mitigate and respond to GBV;

• To reduce women’s vulnerability: rethink social protection systems to be more considerate of women specifically in rural areas. Women in rural areas are highly dependant of agriculture and have no virtual cushion in crisis like the drought. During prosperous agricultural times they could contribute to a social security accounts so that they could have financial resources in precarious times.

At community level
(by both public authorities and international community)

• Towards reducing vulnerability of women and girls at the household: Create awareness about the need to redirect profits from selling cattle to food, nutrition, education and family health not just to acquire ostentation goods like bicycle, radio, motorcycle or new lobolo;

• Invest in gender equity campaigns that strengthen the socio-cultural role of women in order to allow them more practical effectiveness in providing for the family. Women are the carers of the family but are constrained with limited power to access resources and decision-making as that role is a privilege of men (head of households);

• Build community resilience to effectively prevent and respond to GBV;

• Enlarge HIV and STIs prevention as well as FP for young women in particular due to propensity for transactional sex and child/early/forced marriage in times of emergency;

• Capacitate communities and young girls on Sexual Rights and awareness about women traffic as they are prone to become victims in the context of drought;

• Strengthen state and social institutions to avoid trafficking of women and girls to work and sex industry in South Africa and elsewhere;
• Develop in-depth combination (quantitative and qualitative) studies as well as longitudinal studies to compare indicators throughout the time and produce a better and detailed understanding of the impact of drought on women and girls. Specific studies include the ones which:
  o diagnose the details and specificities on the transformation of sexual division of work and its impact to gender roles
  o determine the frequency of GBV during the drought, the forms it takes, and what disaster responders can and should do to prevent GBV and respond effectively when it occurs
  o understand statistically the correlation between drought and access to health services and exposure to ITS, HIV and pregnancy;

• Increase opportunities and diversify sources of income generation for women. There is a strong dependency on agriculture which became precarious in times of drought and does not provide sufficient money to overcome emergency times;

• Investment in the breeding of livestock more resistant to drought as sheep and goat as well as poultry due to its high commercial demand and easiness in breeding. These livestock have greater chance of being managed by women thus, exposing them to reduced vulnerability and re-negotiation of power within marital relationships.
5. References


CARE (2016) Hope dries up? Women and Girls coping with Drought and Climate Change in Mozambique.


HTC (2016) 2016 Strategic Response Plan Mozambique. Maputo


SETSAN (2016) Relatório da Avaliação da Situação Alimentar e Nutricional.


From the Web
