Assessing the impact of gender roles on food insecure households in Lesotho: A case study of 'Maneo village in Southern Lowland district

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Declaration

I, Joseph Ts'oeu Washi Mokati, hereby present for consideration by the Disaster Management Training and Education Centre for Africa (DiMTEC) within the Faculty of Natural and Agricultural Sciences at the University of the Free State (UFS) my dissertation in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master's in Disaster Management.

I hereby declare that this dissertation is the product of my own work and no other person has published a similar study from which I might have copied and at no stage will this work be published without my consent and that of the Disaster Management Training Education Centre for Africa (DiMTEC). All sources of information used have been correctly referenced and any other assistance rendered has been fully acknowledged.

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Abstract

The purpose of the study was to assess gender roles of food insecure households in **'Maneo village in Southern Lowland district** of Lesotho. The 2015/2016 drought hit the Southern Lowlands comprising Mafeteng, Mohales'hoek and Quthing districts. The prime minister declared the drought a national emergency. The country sought support from the international community to ease the negative effects of the drought. El Nino caused a severe shortage of water for human consumption and livestock. It also resulted in poor agricultural yields. Drought affects households leading to a strain on household livelihoods and gender roles as families struggle to make a living.

The case study used the mixed method approach to assess gender roles from food insecure adults affected by drought and the extent to which drought altered common gender roles in the process of mitigating the drought situation. A semi-structured questionnaire was used to collect qualitative and quantitative data. The data was collected from 160 households in Maneo Village comprising five sub-villages. The questionnaire had five sections, demographic information, socio-economic household aspects, household assets, gender roles in agricultural activities, and the decision-making roles of the respondents. The results showed how gender roles and dynamics in Lesotho affected food insecure households during the drought.

Most households affected by the drought lost livestock and crops. The study recommended that all programmes or project designed to address food insecurity challenges should include assessment of gender roles played by each household member to bring food or generate income for family survival. More studies need be done to assess how gender inequality contributes not only regarding food insecurity caused by drought but on other catastrophes caused by emerging accidents resulting from altering climate and natural conditions.

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List of abbreviations and acronyms

AFSUN	African Food Security Urban Network
AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
CARE	Cooperative for Assistance and Relieve Everywhere
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CFS	Committee on World Food
ED	Electoral Division
EIGE	European Institute for Gender Equality
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organisation
FF	Food Forward
GBV	Gender Based Violence
GDI	Gender Development Index
GII	Gender Inequality Index
GNI	Gross National Income
HEA	Household Economy Approach
HFIAS	Household Food Insecurity Access Scale
HH	Household
HHH	Household Head
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IANR	Institute of Agriculture and Natural Resources
IFRC	International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
IJMS	International Journal in Multidisciplinary Studies
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IPC	Integrated Food Security Phase Classification
IREX	International Research and Exchange Board
LBOS	Lesotho Bureau of Statistics
LCN	Lesotho Council of Non-government Organisations
LNCW	Lesotho National Council of Women
LNWPC	Lesotho National Women Parliamentary Caucus
LVAC	Lesotho Vulnerability Assessment Committee
RVAA	Regional Vulnerability Assessment Analysis

SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SIDA	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
SLL	Southern Lowlands of Lesotho
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
WFP	World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organisation
ZAR	Zuid-Afrikaansse Rand /South African Rand

Definition of terms

Drought –is rainfall deficiency over an extended period, relative to the statistical multi-year average for the region (IFRC, 2014).

Food access –is achieved when all people have physical, social and economic access to enough food (World Food Summit, 1996).

Food availability –refers to food supplies that must be enough to feed the whole population (World Food Summit, 1996).

Food Insecurity –it is a situation where all or part of conditions applicable to the food security definition below are not fulfilled (World Food Summit, 1996).

Food Security-is a situation when all people, always have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life (World Food Summit, 1996).

Gender –it is the physical and or social condition of being male or female, or the grammatical divisions of masculine, feminine and neuter into which nouns, adjectives etc. are divided in some languages (EIGE, 2016).

Livelihood Protection –is the ability to sustain local patterns of livelihood, including covering the costs of productive inputs (seeds, livestock drugs, etc.) and basic expenditure on health and education (WFP, 2016).

Survival threshold-costs to cover the bare minimum requirements for survival comprising:

- meeting food needs - minimum 2100 Kilocalories/per person daily.
- cover basic non-food needs–for preparation and preservation of food and if necessary purchase/pay for drinking water (LVAC, 2018).

Chapter 1: Background of the study

1.1 Introduction and background

The Lesotho United Nations Resident Coordinator's report (2016:7) stated that, Lesotho like other parts of Southern Africa is experiencing effects of extraordinary El Niño consequences followed by two successive years of drought and erratic rains. The number of food insecure people in the country increased from 463 936 in 2015 to 532 502 in 2016 according to the Lesotho Vulnerability Assessment Committee (LVAC) rapid assessment report (2016:15). The situation triggered Lesotho government to declare a state of emergency on 22 December 2016 because of the drought and requested international support to alleviate the situation. In 2017, the records of food insecure people indicated a drop to 306 946, which is still a significant figure based on Lesotho's population of about 2.2 million. This shows that most food insecure households will continue to feel the impact of the drought. The drought resulted in poor harvest, rising food prices, limited labour opportunities and poor access to water resources. The hardest hit areas were the southern parts of the country that is, Mafeteng, Mohales'hoek and Quthing districts. The World Food Programme (WFP), in partnership with the Ministry of Forestry and Land Reclamation implemented a humanitarian relief programme and piloted resilience projects in these districts.

Enarson, et al (2004:130) posited that, gender-based inequalities linked to the food production chain, starts from farm production right up to food consumption. It affects the realisation of food and nutrition security. The inequalities if not harmonised, can jeopardise weaker gender's vital contribution that can improve household food and nutrition security. Enarson, et al (2004:135) further stated that emotional abuse and physical violence to women and girls increase after disasters in low-income countries like Lesotho. Enarson, et al (2004:130-146) quoted the CARE International report (2002), which stated that young women in Cambodia who reported sexual abuse migrated to cities in search of work after a flood disaster as a strategy to repay debt. Drought consequences can also cause similar threats to vulnerable households especially women headed households. Therefore, the study intends to investigate the effects of drought on gender roles and responsibilities of adults in the southern lowlands of Lesotho using a case study of 'Maneo village in Mohales'hoek district. The village is predominantly urban though there are some rural areas in the peripheries of the council. The district is in the middle of the three southern districts of Lesotho that were all severely affected by the 2015-2016 drought.

1.2 The study area

The study area is Maneo village located in Mohales'hoek and falls under Thaba-Mokhele council and Mpharane constituency. Mohales'hoek is part of the three Southern districts of Lesotho including Mafeteng and Quthing affected by the 2016 drought. The area is peri-urban according to the LVAC (2016:20) report. This makes it suitable for the study as it portrays both urban and rural characteristics of gender and food security issues in Lesotho.

The area forms an electoral division (ED) or a group of villages managed in one office. It comprises five villages with approximately 300 households and an average of five members as per LVACs' household size estimates. Maneo area consists of five villages forming an electoral division (ED) out of eight electoral divisions (EDs).

Two of Maneo ED villages of Seterekemane and Thaba-masimo have an urban influence while the other villages are more rural. The term peri-urban is used by the LVAC (2016:12) report to classify the different elements. The area has both urban and rural features that make it vulnerable to drought effects. This makes the area ideal for the study as it has the required features to capture characteristic drought effects on people influenced by both urban and rural food security practices.

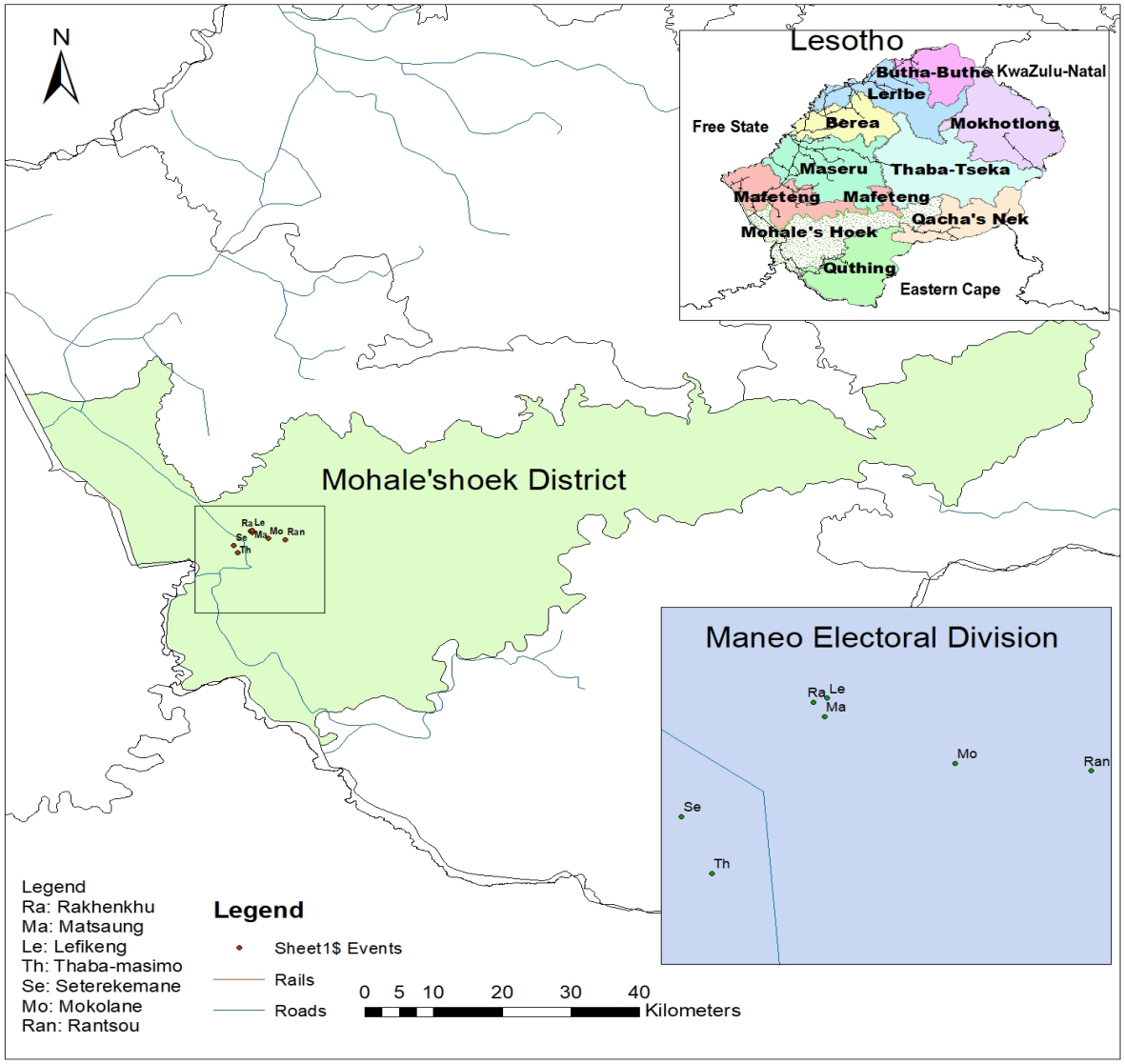

Figure 1.1: Maneo Electoral Division map in Mohales'hoek District

1.3 Theoretical and conceptual framework

The study draws its theoretical understanding from research within the sociology of science and looks at the feminist theory. The feminist theory according to Crossman (2017:1-6) builds on and challenges the functionalist, symbolic interactionist and conflict theories. Crossman (2017:9) further argued that the theory emphasises structural forces, values, worldviews; norms and everyday behaviours that create inequalities and injustices based on gender. It also reflects on social problems, trends, and issues ignored by historical leading male viewpoints within social theory.

The most moderate feminism branch of egalitarian-mainstream feminism or liberal feminism considered by Rodriguez (2018:40), Crossman (2017:1-11), and Chambers (2017:210) proposes that *'all people are created equal and should not be denied equal opportunities because of gender'*.

This theory is based on the insight and belief of rationality, education and natural rights spreading to both men and women alike. The theory argues that society does not need complete restructuring to achieve women empowerment and incorporate them into meaningful and fair roles. It should rather consider women's potential and support them to uphold their equality based on own choices and actions. This way, women are empowered for meaningful incorporation into society and play fair roles that support food security and improved household welfare. Middle class women who place a high value on education and achievement adopt this view according to 'The Sociology of Gender' study. Mill (1869:2) in his essay "*The Subjection of Women*" argues that it is also relevant to lower class women who might have had no opportunity to be educated but would wish to educate their children like those in the middle class (working class).

'The Sociology of Gender' study cited that the key strength of the feminist viewpoint is its ability to link sociological theories and account for societal norms in all its forms. Crossman (2017:8) further stressed that the theory also examines ways to change social forces to allow for a just and equal society where no one is chastised or impaired because of their gender. Although this theory strikes a balance between other two theories, that is, the egalitarian-mainstream feminism or liberal feminism, cited above as its strength; some disagreements about some elements essential for inclusion to develop its philosophy exist. The disagreements, according to Ollenburger and Moore (1992:36) have emerged because the theory challenges the patriarchal status quo and androcentric bias typical in most of sociological research and theory; that rendered feminist perspective to entice dissent that limits its acceptance by some sociologists.

Rocheleau, Thomas-Slyter & Wangarai (1996) in Enarson et al (2004:135) cited that the feminist political ecology combines many ideas like examination of gender relations in certain environmental contexts. Environmental degradation and disaster vulnerability directly or indirectly affect household food security or insecurity. These are of concern as women's roles put them in the position of primary resources users and managers. African rural women depend on natural resource-based livelihoods to serve their families and communities with household necessities all the time. This becomes a difficult task during disasters, especially during a drought when food and water are usually scarce, and households face drastic supply and demand shocks and stresses. Women have no choice but to labour, spend sleepless nights walking to fetch water far from their homes and even resort to cutting down their meals so their families can be adequately cared for.

Women are vulnerable and are affected more by the hazardous conditions that put families, homes and neighborhoods at disaster risks of drought, and to some extent other hazards as stated by Cutter, Tiefenbacher & Soleci (1992) and Steady (1993) in Enarson et al (2004:136). Low-income female household heads are more vulnerable to the consequences of disasters because of lack of similar opportunities like their male counterparts during disaster projects implementation according to Rivers (1982) in Enarson et al (2004:138), women's and girls' food insecurity and lower caloric intake, makes them physically weaker and less able to survive injuries and deprivations following disasters like drought.

1.4 Preliminary literature study

The response to the El Niño induced drought of 2016 in Lesotho continued beyond August 2017 to complete humanitarian activities needed to pave the way for more resilience building dimensions UN Resident Coordinator's Report (2017:2). This led to the undertaking of the first urban and rural vulnerability assessment in June 2017. The vulnerability assessment showed that there were 306 946 food insecure people from September 2017 to March 2018. Of these, 224 664 were in the rural areas and 82 278 in the urban areas. These figures showed a reduction of 156 90 and 225 556 respectively in 2015 and 2016 UN Resident Coordinator's report (2017:2).

The United Nations report showed an increase in reported cases of Gender-Based Violence (GBV) registered in Lesotho following the drought. Furthermore, the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) established a referral system to strengthen, support and build the capacity of local communities to prevent and coordinate cases of Gender-Based Violence. The water, sanitation and hygiene sectors in Lesotho supported over 70 000 people in Maseru, Mafeteng, Mohales'hoek and Butha-Buthe districts with training on improved response to issues related to clinical, psychological and legal assistance to victims of GBV. The report further highlighted that the integration of GBV on drought related issues was the first study of its kind in Lesotho. This shows the importance of assessing gender roles of household adults because of the effects of drought as this study intends doing.

The impact of a drought can be direct or indirect. It affects the incidences of gender-based violence and related roles and responsibilities according to Garrido (2014:56). The direct tangible effects are in the form of suppressed water supply for domestic use, hydroelectricity and fish farming needs. The intangible direct effects are seen on the environment, aquatic and forest systems supporting both human and animal's life. The direct impacts are evident in the agro-industrial sector, agricultural employment, tourism and service sectors, while the indirect effects are seen in

human health and exposure to diseases. Theses stresses can contribute to changes in the roles and responsibilities played by males and females to secure household food security in extreme situations. Poor households who rely on natural environment produce, like wild fruits, vegetables, berries and other plants to support their livelihoods, feel the burden the most.

Some households sell wood and surplus vegetables to raise funds to cover other family needs. Food security is not only about production, but also about income as cited by Schuh (1997:78) and Paterson (2002:126). The household poverty situation can trigger negative power dynamics leading to gender-based violence. Humanitarian intercessions can radically alter gender roles by giving women greater control over water and food distribution in some societies per SIDA study report (2015:26). There are several activities, decisions and ideologies, practiced in many societies, that can convey gender and poverty related factors.

According to Bradshaw (2017:98-123) issues of gender, place and culture, call for the development of suitable tools that can display and measure gender and poverty relationships. Economists suggest that income, pay and wealth inequalities are parameters used to analyse poverty and inequality. Income can be defined as all the money received from employment such as wages, salaries, bonuses and other earnings; investments savings, shares, state benefits and rent. Pay represents a pure payment for work done on an hourly, weekly, monthly and or annual basis. Wealth in this study is the total number of assets owned by a household or an individual.

Cowell (2014:24) states that an accepted approach is a good measure of inequality and gender relationships problems when analysing poverty. Cowell (2014:79) further reports that the auxiliary method sets standards and taxonomies that lists a minimal set of axioms or principles to which inequality or poverty comparisons ought to follow. The axiom approach uses mathematical logic to characterise classification of measures that fulfill established values and accommodates additional adages to narrow down the measurement of events. The study intends to assess gender roles and relationships among food insecure households living in the southern lowlands of Lesotho by following Cowell's suggested principles of poverty and inequality assessment.

1.5 Problem statement

Adults at household level share and observe similar and different gender roles or responsibilities that can be difficult to define due to distinct sexual orientations, culture and upbringing of male and female human offspring. Young boys and girls are taught to behave in certain ways to groom them for future parenthood roles and responsibilities.

Household and community culture influence gender roles and responsibilities. These adult roles can hinder individual contributions to sustain and secure livelihoods if not changed in crises like drought and other disasters. The study intends to explore the effects of drought and assess different gender roles and responsibilities related to food security activities and respond to the questions in the next section.

1.6 Research questions

The main research question underpinning this research is to find out how different gender roles and responsibilities of household adults affect food security during drought in Lesotho. The following sub-questions drawn from the main question are:

- How do different gender roles and responsibilities of adults at home shift in conventional household food security or insecurity during drought?
- Which specific gender roles or responsibilities shift during a drought induced disaster situation?
- Why and when do the roles change or shift?
- What are the consequences of the shift or change in roles?

1.7 Research objectives

The overall study purpose is to assess different gender roles and responsibilities of household adults in food insecurity during drought in Lesotho.

Specific objectives:

- To determine the effects of gender roles on selected food security activities.
- To find out the type of gender roles predominant in food production tasks/activities during drought disasters.
- To determine commonly distributed gender roles in a household during drought disasters.
- To analyse which gender roles dominate household decision-making process during a drought.
- To propose possible ways of addressing gender roles that negatively affects food security during a drought.

1.8 Research design and methodology

The research is a case study, which adopts a mixed method approach for data gathering. The focus of the study is to assess the impact of gender roles on food insecure households following the 2015/2016 drought that compelled the government to declare a 'state of emergency' in Lesotho. The results of the impact of drought on gender roles will provide information that can form the basis for new theories or observations resulting from the consequences of the event. The study will use interviews, observations, literature review and pertinent documents to gather required information. The individual interviews will be conducted using structured questionnaires administered to a random selection of participants. Both primary and secondary data sources will be used to strengthen the results of the study.

1.9 Data presentation and analysis

Although the study is predominantly qualitative, quantitative aspects will also apply. Results will be presented in cross-tabulated forms, graphs, charts and frequency tables to test data significance. Microsoft excel and SPSS statistical analytical software will be used to filter results. Content analysis will be used to review interpretations and implications of material from observation reports, documents and interview discussions.

According to In & Lee (2017:3) data and information should be displayed in an effective format that makes it easy for the reader to understand and appreciate results, interpretations and issues researched. Data can be presented as text, in tabular or graphical forms depending on data format, method of analysis and relevant information (In & Lee, 2017:5). Text is appropriate when the information requires equal attention. Graphs give a visual presentation of the data and allow readers to understand general trends in the data and make a contrast of explored ideas. The presentation of results will be simple, easy to follow and understand.

The presentation of text as defined by In & Lee (2017:6), conveys information, explains results, trends and provides contextual information. Ageing (2010:12) argued that it is appropriate to use text or written language instead of tables or graphs if quantitative information contains one or two numbers. However, if more data is to be presented or information on data trends is to be shown, the use of a table or graph is more appropriate.

In & Lee (2017:5) argued that data presentation conveys information that can be converted into words or numbers in rows or columns that are easy to understand for any literate person. Tables are useful for comparing and summarising different variables from qualitative information. The study will use tables to compare and summarise information from several variables.

1.10 Interpretation of results

Data will be presented using bar and pie charts, frequency distribution tables and graphs to ensure understanding and assimilation of results. Many researchers support pictorial results presentation as it portrays different levels of numerical values difficult to explain in statistical graphs and numbers.

Bar and pie charts are useful when comparing different parts of the whole or highlighting a certain part of the results for easy interpretation. Readers are able to understand information from what might otherwise be meaningless or dry figures in a report. The bar and pie charts will be used to enrich understanding of results per EdrawSoft (2014:3).

According to EdrawSoft (2014:4), frequency tables are suitable for use with assessed variables at all data measurement levels. It is imperative to begin with class intervals edifices for interval and ratio data to enable data cross-tabs to display information summary of two or more variables. Cross-tabs allow one to observe how a single distributed variable relates to that of another variable. Frequency tables according to Duquia et al. (2014:5-7) present variable values that can be displayed in tables and graphs, for comparative measure of the observed part from overall responses within a variable. The study will apply these systems to clarify and interpret the results.

1.11 Delineations and limitations

The study on gender roles and responsibilities of household adults' effects on drought disasters is too broad and requires huge financial, human and material resources that the researcher lacks. The time required to cover most issues forced the researcher to limit the study to common food security practices related to agricultural produce by most household adults living in the Southern districts of Lesotho.

The study will not cover national and regional issues even though they are equally important due to financial and time constraints. Reaching out to all households within the Southern districts is costly and time consuming; hence the choice of 'Maneo village as a representative sample of other villages in the Southern Lowlands Districts.

1.12 Assumptions

The study assumes that the selected case study area represents common features of gender roles significant in most households affected by drought in the three southern districts of Lesotho.

1.13 Significance of the study

The study results and proposed recommendations will inform policy makers on the effects of drought on household adult gender roles/responsibilities shifts or changes due to drought disasters. This will assist policymakers and disaster managers to make informed and sound decisions when dealing with drought-affected households. The results and proposed recommendations can be useful for food programmes in Lesotho, as a water-scarce country.

1.14 Summary

The chapter discussed how every year Lesotho Vulnerability Assessment Committee (LVAC) carries out household vulnerability assessments that reflect a need for humanitarian assistance for poor households. A review of each year's vulnerability status from 2015 to 2017 and Disaster Management Authority's response mechanism and financial inability points to the need to include gender roles assessment of households affected by drought disasters. Gender roles are cross cutting and are seen to have a strong effect on food insecurity by the organisations working in drought affected Southern districts of Lesotho. Apart from a generalised study that included gender-based violence covering the whole country, few studies have been carried out on this topic. The following chapter reviews literature related to the impact of gender roles on household food security.

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

Disparities between men and women according to Hyde (2016:235) hurt global growth and success. It hinders talent exposure and the opportunity for better life by the oppressed gender, distorts self-esteem for sound decision-making, better choices and good leadership skills that can lead to improved economic status of the household, the community and the nation. The inequalities affect women because they have fewer opportunities than men in relation to better education, decision-making, earning and political power. The World Bank in 2018 reported that gender equality can assist in reducing poverty, increasing economic growth, production and productivity and better health if it is well practiced and supported.

The International Research and Exchange Board (IREX) reported that when studying obstacles to gender equality, resistance to change has bad results, and that those opposing open opportunities to others usually lessen chances for themselves. Gender issues need to recognise and address resistance and organised women subordination that occur through male-controlled power structures. At the same time, adequate funds need to be sourced to support empowerment for both genders to attain gender equality without resistance from males who fear that gender equality is about taking power away from them other than seeing it as liberation for all.

In Lesotho, the response to El Niño induced drought of 2016 continued beyond August 2017 according to the United Nations Resident Coordinator's Report (2017:2). Humanitarian activities were carried out to pave a way for more resilience building dimensions. The first urban and rural vulnerability assessment study in Lesotho was done in June 2017 and it projected that 306 946 people will be food insecure between September 2017 to March 2018. Of this number, 224 664 people were from rural areas and 82 2278 from urban areas. The number of food insecure people comprised 14 percent of Lesotho's population. The number of people likely to feel the impact of food insecurity is significant since Lesotho has a small population of 2 248 370 million with 1 107 257 males and 1 141 113 females per Country meters (2019:2) records.

The United Nations Resident Coordinator's report (2017:3) showed an increase of reported cases of gender-based violence (GBV) in Lesotho following the drought. The report further showed that the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) established a referral system. The system helped to strengthen, support and build the capacity of local communities to prevent and coordinate cases of gender-based violence. The Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH) sectors in Lesotho supported over 70 000 people in Maseru, Mafeteng, Mohales'hoek and Butha-Buthe districts with

information dissemination and improved response to issues related to clinical, psychological and legal assistance to victims of gender-based violence (GBV). The support was in the form of water purification tablets supply, sanitation and hygiene education. The report further highlighted that the integration of GBV in drought related issues was the first study of its kind in Lesotho following the drought emergency of 2015/16.

2.2 Global perspective of food security

Food security according to CFS (2012:3) refers to the access to sufficient, good, healthy and culturally suitable food. The CFS (2012:4) report defined sufficient food to mean food that meets individual dietary needs that can support a healthy, active and happy life. The food should be in accordance to individual taste and preference. The food should be acceptable culturally and of the type people are accustomed to and content. Food should be nutritive and sustaining, rich in mineral salts, energy, fibre and vitamins that the body requires for a person to be healthy.

According to Food Forward (2017:35), the concept of *food security* progressed after the World War II in the 1940s and forty-four liberal governments met for the first time in Virginia-United States of America (USA). One goal set at the meeting was freedom from want in relation to food and agricultural practices. Concepts and core terms related to food security like food access, availability and utilisation grew from this meeting and others followed later. In 1966 the United Nations held the International convention on *"Economic, Social and Cultural Rights",* that established several rights like the right to adequate food and freedom from hunger. Countries were obligated to improve food production mechanisms such as food upkeep and circulation by using scientific and technical knowledge to facilitate fair food distribution (Article 11 of the UN Charter).

Several events like worldwide successive poor grain harvest, food shortages in markets, inflated food prices and significant decline in per capita grains and other starchy staple food in the 1970s trigged the evolution of food security concepts. These events and many others that occurred in the 1980s led to the 1996 World Food Summit (WFS). Food security was defined as *"existing when all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for active and healthy life"*. An understanding of food security was instituted from the four dimensions of food namely availability, access, stability and utilisation stated in the definition.

According to FAO (2001:10) report, food security is attained when all people, have physical, social, and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and

food preferences for their healthy and active life. The FAO (2006:29) report stated that the world has the potential to produce enough food to feed everyone, even though there are millions of undernourished people. The report stated that poverty and not food availability is the major cause of global food insecurity. Food security extends beyond food supply. It covers food availability, access and utilisation by men and women of all age groups, ethnicities, religions and at various socioeconomic levels. At this stage, the different roles played by each gender are affected positively or negatively by household food security.

2.3 General food security overview

According to the Global Food Security report (2019:9), modern agriculture evolved after the Second World War. Industrialised nations reverted to peacetime economy following the war and developing countries gained independence from colonisation that gave them control over the farming business. Many countries involved in war introduced food rationing that lasted until the 1950s. The massive production of anti-biotic medicine led to a significant increase in global population and high demand for food. Many countries began to increase food production to escape food supply challenges experienced by some rich countries during and soon after the war.

Mechanised agriculture, heavy use of oil-based fertilizers and pesticides according to Barrow (2014:252) took place from 1945 to 1970 and was integrated into what is known as the green revolution. The green revolution improved crop production with seed varieties suited to most developing countries. This farming revolution resulted in high yields and formed part of the high production technology. The green revolution era recorded outstanding food production figures for wheat, rice, maize and other crops from many parts of the world. International trade and political relations were revised to ease global trade. The green revolution for wheat began in Mexico and extended to the rest of the world. During this time, some scientists and activists argued against the heavy use of chemicals. The emphasis was on good health, loss of biodiversity and other issues that would ultimately render productive lands less fertile as per the Global Food Security report (2019:7).

The World Food Programme stated that 13 percent of the world's population estimated at nearly 800 million people do not have enough food to eat per Schewe (2018:79). Schewe (2018:102) reported that most poor countries or governments are subsidising production of staple food like sugar, oil, bread, pulses and others deemed necessary for improved nutrition. Volatile prices result in high costs and food shortages that pose political and social problems. Movement protests globally and disturbances such as the 2011 '*Arab Spring*' revolution are believed to have been

sparked by high prices. The Arab Spring caused change in international dynamics that will take a long time to stabilise.

According to FAO (2008:10) report, four dimensions cover basic food security. These include physical food availability that is associated with the supply part of food security, economic and physical access to food. It also covers food security policy on issues of markets, prices, income, and expenses related to attainment of food security. Food utilisation addresses nutrients content in the food and overall health of the consumers. The fourth aspect is concerned with monitoring the stability of the other three dimensions over time as any of them can be altered without warning. Any alteration can affect food access due to periodic supply or production instabilities caused by bad weather, political instabilities, economic factors or any risk. Therefore, according to the FAO's (2008:46) report, it is only when the four dimensions are working simultaneously that food security is achieved.

Food insecurity operates at two levels. Chronic food insecurity refers to persistent or long-term conditions, and transitory food insecurity is marked by short term or temporary food insecurity FAO (2008:65). The FAO (2008:79) report further stated that chronic food insecurity occurs where there is an inability of people to meet their average minimum daily food requirement of 1800 Kcal for a continuous period. Transitory food insecurity occurs when there is a rapid drop in people's ability to access or produce enough food to meet their dietary needs.

The WFP (2016:34) and FAO (2016:73) reports agree that chronic food insecurity results from lengthy poverty, lack of assets and access to productive or financial resources. These can be resolved by engaging long-term development processes like education and provision of productive resources like credit or direct access to food that will enable them to raise their productive capacity. Short-term shocks and fluctuations in food availability and access cause transitory food insecurity. The variation can be on annual local food production, food prices and household income to counteract food availability. Good programming and planning coupled with interventions such as early warning capacity and safety-net programmes implementation can help solve the problems.

According to the WFP (2019:9) report, 41 million people in the SADC region could face hunger at the peak of the 2018/19 season period. The food insecure people across SADC exceeded the level of need during the 2016/17 El Niño crisis. For instance, the eastern and central parts of the SADC area encountered the driest season for the past 35 years with crop failure experienced in Southern parts of Zambia and Zimbabwe, Northern Namibia, Southern areas of Angola and Botswana. Variable and late rains in Lesotho, Eswatini and Southern parts of Mozambique trigged

poor crop production. The cyclone Idai and Kenneth destroyed and damaged crops harvest in Eastern Zimbabwe, Southern Malawi and central parts of Mozambique according to the WFP (2019:12) food crisis report.

2.4 Food security in Lesotho

According to the Knoema report (2010:69) Lesotho's rural poverty rate was 61.2 percent which is a significant reduction from 68.9 percent in 1994. The rural poverty rate is expressed as the total population of people living below the national rural poverty line Knoema (2010:95). The results show that there is a higher poverty rate in rural areas than in urban areas. Many studies emphasized the importance of increasing women's representation on issues of policymaking. The inclusion will reduce costs of increased poverty associated with gender discrimination as shown by Beckman (2015:137).

Several factors influence boys and girls to observe communally created stereotypical customs that support gender disparity from a young age through to adulthood. Food security in Lesotho and other least developed countries can be directly or indirectly associated with gender inequality and division of labour FAO (2016:38). For instance, the IPC (2019:6) report stated that about a quarter of Lesotho's population (349 000) is exposed to severe acute food insecurity with IPC phases 3 and 4 classification that sought charitable support from May to September 2019. Those under emergency (phase 4) were 68 000 and in crisis (phase 3) were 280 000. This situation negatively affects vulnerable groups comprising of women, girls, elderly and the disabled people who are unable to withstand El Nino induced food production threats.

FAO (2019:12) defines the Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC) as the standardised scale, which guides the classification of food insecurity magnitude and severity for any area, country, region and or continent. IPC is a multi-agency global initiative instituted by a group of eight agencies and international non-government organisations such as CARE International, FAO, The Famine Early Warning Systems Network(FEWS NET), The Joint Research Centre of the European Commission(EC-JRC), Oxfam Great Britain, Save The Children UK, Save the Children USA and WFP. It is an international standard measure used as an evidence-based tool that enables comparability of food insecurity situations across countries and over a specific period.

IPC use is the process of consensus building that assists decision makers with arduous food insecurity analysis on response measures based on emergency and or development initiatives. The IPC according to FAO (2010:13) extracts five phases of food security and humanitarian situations that each bears overall description of explicit key position effects as shown in the table below.

Table 2.1: IPC phases of food security

IPC Phases		General Description
1A	**Generally, food secure**	Food is usually adequate with stable food access and moderate to low risk of falling into phases 3,4 or 5
1B	**Generally, food secure**	
2	**Moderately/Borderline food insecure**	Adequate food access is at borderline mark though with recurrent high risk of falling into phases 3, 4 or 5 due to likely hazards events and high vulnerability.
3	**Acute food and livelihood crisis**	Highly stressed and critical lack of food access with high to above normal malnutrition and accelerated depletion of livelihood sustaining assets that, if continued, will throw people into phase 4 or 5 that will result with likely chronic poverty.
4	**Humanitarian Emergency**	Severe lack of food access is experienced resulting in excess mortality, very high and increasing malnutrition; and irreversible livelihood asset stripping.
5	**Famine/Humanitarian Catastrophe**	The situation of extreme social upheaval mixed with complete lack of access to food and other necessities and mass starvation, with eminent consequences of death and displacement.

Source: FAO (2010)

The 2018/19 season in Lesotho reflected a worrying food security situation as the number of food insecure households steadily increased from the past season as stated by the IPC (2019:13) report. The map below shows that in six districts 280 000 people are in phase 3 (crisis) and the other four in phase 2 (stressed). The map shows the general outlook of acute food insecurity from May–September 2019.

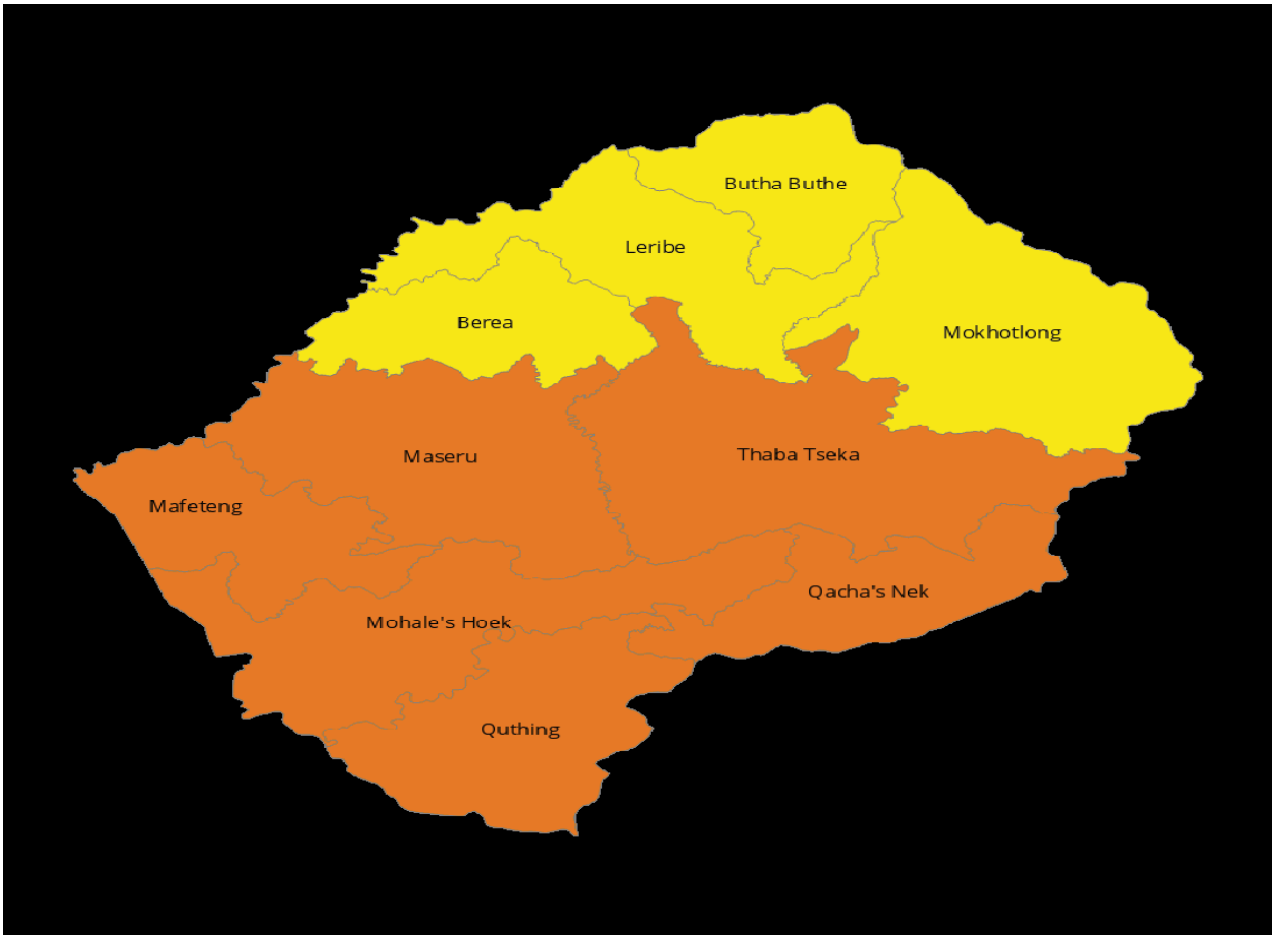

Figure 2.1: IPC phases of food insecurity in Lesotho: May-September 2019

Source: IPC Technical Working Group, Lesotho (2019)

During food crisis situations vulnerable communities drain essential assets like ploughs, drought animals, consume seeds, or sell tools used for food production to purchase food. All these practices are common in situations where there is a huge food consumption gap as indicated by the Lesotho IPC (2019:13) report. The report projects severe food insecurity for approximately 430 000 people from October 2019 to March 2020. The situation caused by excessive El Nino will affect food production, and increase the food prices (especially staples). Mohales'hoek, Quthing and Qachas'nek districts are at IPC phase 3 (crisis stage) or a higher emergency stage. From 2018 to 2019 they were joined by three other districts as shown on the food insecurity map, other districts were at the stressed stage (IPC phase 2). The whole country is projected to be deficit in food agricultural job opportunities for very poor to poor households who usually depend on agricultural work to sustain their livelihoods. The 2018 LVAC report cited an insecure food situation until 2020 as shown by the food insecurity map below.

Figure 2.2: The projected acute food insecurity map from October 2019–March 2020

Source: IPC Technical Working Group, Lesotho (2019)

It is projected that the whole country will be in the 'Crisis' food insecurity stage that will affect 433 000 people as El Nino conditions are predicted at 50% chance of occurrence. The predicted conditions are likely to delay the planting season and ultimately have a negative effect on poor households' job opportunities. The prices of staple food are likely to increase. The projections can be used by the Disaster Management Authority in the country to position itself and be prepared to undertake programmes that will build community capacity to absorb food insecurity, mitigate its impact and carry out long-term resilience promoting measures IPC Technical working group report (2019:15).

2.5 Defining general gender

The term '*gender'* according to WHO (2016:7) is defined as socially created appearances commonly played by men and women such as their customs, roles and relationships and alliance between them. Gender varies from society to society and can be changed easily. Understanding gender requires one to appreciate the idea that most people are born as either male or female and taught by society appropriate norms and behaviours expected of them.

Historically, the term ‘gender’ was created in many stages as seen by Chevalier & Pant`e, (2016:39). For instance, from the 1950s a persuasive psychologist John Money used the term to express ‘gender role’ and later to refer to ‘gender identity’. It was used in educational and cultural factors when assigning a child to a sex category of being identified as a boy or a girl. Later, Robert Stroller used the term to link it with ‘intersex patients’ and theorized the term ‘gender’ as an informally resolute feature of sexual identity detached from biological or reproductive sex.

Sifuentes (2016:89) further argued that most people are have an incessant and clear sense of inner gendered self of either being male or female. Some individuals may experience gendered-self while others do not. This viewpoint led to the generalised idea that people should distinguish sex from gender to better use and understand the term ‘gender’.

It is an accepted idea that sex is related to biology while gender is connected to socialization or individual identity that includes roles and or responsibilities placed on an individual by the society he or she lives in. For instance, Berlinsky-Schine (2019:527) stated that gender roles are societal expectations that dictates the behaviour that males and females should adhere to; based on the ‘gender’ that people assigned to them at their birth. Society teaches boys and girls different roles and responsibilities beginning from their infancy. For example, fathers usually teach their sons to fix materials around their houses while mothers give their daughters cooking and caring lessons which reinforces men as household material fixers and women as best cooks and household caretakers.

2.6 General gender issues

Gender equality according to Schwertheim and Trunk (2018:123-209) forms the cornerstone of democratic rule and is an integral part of the success of sustainable development as defined according to the fifth UN Sustainable Development Goal. The goal focuses on efforts to achieve gender equality and empowerment of women and girls to reach their full potential in all spheres of their lives. It advocates for the removal of any form of discrimination against women and promotes the attainment of sexual and reproductive health rights and due recognition for their unpaid work within their families. Women according to the fifth Sustainable Development Goal should be given access to reproductive resources and equal participation opportunities in political, economic and public life like men.

In 1948 following the Universal Declaration of Human Rights by the United Nations, many countries reaffirmed their commitment to include gender equality and women empowerment in

international agreements UN (2018:33). The Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women together with the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action established essential tools for action. Goal number 5 from the 2013 agenda complements these tools. States and governments policies and programmes are expected to mainstream gender perspectives and successfully execute Agenda 2030 sustainable development goals.

Gender differences and inequalities between men and women according to EIGE (2016:5) reflect major features of social exclusion and poverty when viewed from a gender perspective. The food and nutrition insecurity is a political, economic and environmental issue. BRIDGE (2015:67) stressed that these can also be called gender justice issues; and that inequalities are a cause and outcome of unjust food access, consumption and production. This is worsened by limited access to productive resources, education and decision-making. Women are not paid for work such as care-work for household, domestic chores and other activities that lead to gender-based violence (GBV) and HIV and AIDS.

The history of gender issues according to Dilli (2015:1); shows that New Zealand in 1893 became the first country to give women the right to vote in the national elections while Saudi Arabia gave women permission to take part in municipal elections in 2015. According to Sen (2001:24), World Bank Reports (2001:2) and Dilli (2015:10), gender equality regarding voting rights was attained after a long struggle. Gender issues have many facets and gaps that can be judged based on access to health-care, fiscal resources, time use, and decision-making power in civic and private issues.

Leach (2016:78) and Sida (2016:25) support Dilli (2015:19) perspective that gender equality is attained by creating a situation where both social and cultural environments see men and women as having equal value. Wang & Degol (2017:87) cited that since the 1970s, national and global attempts have been made to remove gender disparities in all domains of women's daily lives including choice of Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) careers.

The struggle led to the United Nations (UN) decade for women that stretched from 1976 to 1985. Gender issues are prioritised in the development agenda. In 1979, the UN General Assembly developed the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) with an accompanying set up of an agenda for national action to end discrimination against women. To eliminate all forms of discrimination towards women, the World Economic Forum produces annual reports based on the rate of estimated change and time required to close the gap created between men and women in areas of employment, education, health and politics.

Two hundred and two (202) years are required based on observed trends from the past twelve years to close the gap according to the World Economic Forum (2018:12). The report showed that the political empowerment gap will require 107 years to be closed as it has lapsed back to 22.3 percent following the +8.7 percent improvement observed over the past 10 years. The report further showed positive overall drifts although there are many underlying features showing economic opportunities based on gender differences that require a long time to be realised.

The 2018 global gender gap report estimated that 61 years is needed to close the gap in Western Europe, 70 years in South Asia, 74 years in Latin America and Caribbean and 124 years in Eastern Europe and Central Asia. Sub-Saharan Africa required 135 years, 153 years in the Middle East and North Africa, 165 in North America and 171 years in East Asia and the Pacific. These trends can be achieved in less time if local, regional, continental and global partners and or other organisations can speed up progress through stronger and joined efforts.

There are continuous efforts in place locally, regionally and globally to eliminate all forms of discrimination against women and children. For instance, Bigelow (2018:5) cited that global gender inequalities affect infant life expectancy with under five years old girls facing survival challenges in highly populated countries like India and China. Studies indicated that in China infant girl's mortality is 7 percent more than that of boys and in India 75 percent. In 2017 of the 1.6 billion women of reproductive age in the developing world, 63 percent attended a minimum of four anti-natal care visits globally and only 72 percent gave birth in a health facility. Two thirds of illiterate adults in the world are women. In 2016, women occupied only 22.6 percent of government positions (Bigelow, 2018:3).

According to Bigelow (2018:5), 71 percent of human trafficking consists of adult women and girls globally and girls account for three out of every four trafficked children globally. The discrimination of women and inequality is unlikely to end soon. Awareness needs to be created among males and females of the importance of promoting and supporting gender equality constructively. Efforts were put in place as early back as 1911 when the International Women's Day was first celebrated. Other dates like the International day of Zero Tolerance to Female Genital Mutilation, World Water Day, International Day of Women and Girls in Science, Global Day to end violence against women and many others intended to raise awareness on gender equity, equality and discrimination against women are also celebrated. Despite these efforts, little success is recorded as gender inequality persists in many parts of the world.

Women according to Whiting (2019:38) encounter many inequality challenges ranging from cultural representation, household burdens and child marriages. Whiting (2019:73) reported that 12 million girls under 18 years, are married each year because they are seen to be of less value than boys. These marriages are regarded as a way of transfer of the 'economic burden' to the marrying households. Many women living in rural settings of sub-Saharan Africa carry unequal workload of household firewood and water collection. This is a sign of continued discrimination Whiting (2019:15).

2.7 Gender issues in Lesotho

Gender inequality in Lesotho according to Hlalele & Letsie (2011:39) exists, despite the substantial steps taken to achieve gender equity and equality. Hlalele & Letsie (2011:56) argue that there are challenges related to gender dynamics regarding legal frameworks and policy. In the 1990s, women lobbied for political representation in decision-making through women-led organisations and female-members in political parties. It resulted in the provision of quotas in favour of women during local governance elections. This same quota is not applicable for general assembly seats although there is possibility to include it for proportional representation (PR) parliamentary seats.

Female representation in the Lesotho cabinet has stayed at 22 percent for both 2015 and 2017 years per Gender Links (2017:12). There are only five female cabinet ministers and three deputy ministers out of the 36 cabinet members. Lesotho parliament has 120 seats with 27 occupied by females; this constitutes only 1.2 percent representation. The parliamentarians elected a male speaker to replace the former female speaker. This act was seen as discrimination against women.

The National Assembly Election Act, 2011 tries to address gender parity issues in Lesotho. The Act stipulates that the number of men and women in a *Proportional Representation* (PR) seats list submitted to the Independent Electoral Committee should be equal (50/50). The UNDP 2013 report on Socio Economic Policy Brief showed that 30 percent quota is common for women inclusion in parliamentary seats in Lesotho and other countries like Rwanda, South Africa, Indonesia and Uganda where female parliamentary caucuses (WPC) exist. Same quota does not apply for general assembly seats although there is possibility to include it for proportional representation (PR) parliamentary seats.

In practice, the 30 percent quota is rarely attained in many countries because of persisting gender inequality that is influenced by cultural practices and social norms. Even when there are laws supporting the quota, male resistance and feelings of being threatened hinders fast progression to gender equality in Lesotho and other countries. Labour in these countries is considered a production factor based on gross domestic product (GDP) per capita rather than human capital as a determinant of economic growth Kalbeer & Natalie (2013:29).

Lesotho needs to address certain structural issues before women can fully realise equality status. Traditionally women depend on male family members for economic support and representation. Women could not own or inherit property according to the old common law (*Laws of Lerotholi* "Melao ea Lerotholi"). This law preceded the '*Legal Capacity of Married People's Act of 2006* that elevated women status and rights to those of their spouses. Deeply rooted gender roles and stereotypes easily become worldviews and cultural values, leading to tolerable practices without gauging the consequences.

Gender is perceived as more cultural than biological, and this can lead to the idea that gender inequalities occur because of cultural activities according to Mosetse (2006:37). Deeply rooted gender roles and stereotypes easily become worldviews and cultural values, leading to tolerable practices without gauging consequences that could be positive or negative to the household wellbeing and food security. According to Hlalele & Letsie (2011:22), people's actions are subject to power dynamics in their daily environment. Power relations affect the way people interact and respond to shocks caused by disasters like drought, Human Immunodeficiency Virus (/HIV) and Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS) and other common threats in Lesotho.

Leduka, et al. (2015:38) cited that female-headed households in Maseru-Lesotho are higher on the mean household food insecurity access scale (HFIAS) score than other household types studied. However, this does not show the relationship between gender and food security. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) 2008 labour-study mentioned that the division of labour changes with time and can be influenced by several factors related to social, economic and political changes in society.

UNDP (2018:2) statistical updates on Human Development Indices (HDI) and indicators like gender development index (GDI), determine gender inequalities in health services measured by male and female life expectancy at birth; expected schooling years and mean aging years for adults from 25 and above; and command on economic resources based on gender national income

(GNI) per capita. The 2017 Lesotho's human development index value for women was 0.519 and men 0.516 that resulted in a GDI value of 1.004, which placed the country on a 135 ranking out of 160 countries in 2017 on gender inequality index (GII). Lesotho is one of the countries with a high rate of gender inequalities based on this ranking.

Lesotho's global gender gap index report of 2018 of 0.6930 placed it at number 81 in contrast to the 2010 index gap of 0.7678 that placed it at the 8th position. The country deteriorated by 73 steps from global eighth ranking in 2018. It is a clear indication of the gender gap that used to be the best in Africa in 2010 and at the global level improved 10 gender gap indices. Allen (2011:46) argues that the improved ranking of 2010 can be attributed to the country's historic emigration when men in Lesotho left their families to work in South African mines.

The male population migration to South African mines forced women to take jobs to sustain their families. For instance, common agricultural practices like crops and livestock farming shifted to women. However, recent retrenchments have forced men to go back home and try to resume their former positions. Because of retrenchments, a vast number of men are looking for jobs locally and women might become sidelined back to the act of reproducing children and performing household chores.

Braun (2010:42-56) argues that despite retrenchments from South African mines, a significant number of men from poorer rural areas are still migrant labourers in non-mining sectors in South Africa and other areas in Lesotho. Due to this situation, some women enjoy autonomy within the household. The returning migrant men reduced women's role in agriculture to that of marketing and selling agricultural products, carrying water and collecting fuel wood or rearing poultry and small animals (Braun, 2010). Men engage in farming, raising livestock and other labour activities with more income than less income generating activities done by women. Men end up having more financial independence.

Help Lesotho (2016:9) cited that women gained equal legal standing with men from 2006 under "the Legal Capacity for Married Persons Act" giving them legal rights to own land, inherit property and make their own decisions which were not possible before 2006. The 2003 Sexual Offences Act was enacted to fight all forms of sexual violence stating that marriage or any other relationship cannot be used as a legitimate defense against sexual violence. The laws show an improvement on gender and inequality issues in Lesotho.

Lesotho has enacted good laws aimed at addressing gender inequality between males and females. Help Lesotho's (2016:32) study discovered that customary land allocation practices allocated land to men through inheritance. These forced women to access land through their husbands or male counterparts despite the existence of the 2006 Legal Capacity for Married Persons Act, which gives them equal rights. Braun (2010:37) argues that Lesotho's women get inadequate support from the state despite enacted laws to neutralise gender inequality.

Braun (2010:453-464) states that, lack of female support is reflected in what is termed "not so gender-neutral" compensation policies of the Lesotho Highlands Water Project (LHWP) development authority during the Katse Dam construction project. During this project, people lost materials and possessions and some were injured. There was need for compensation after the completion of the project. The study indicated that women rights diminished at the expense of reinforcing LHWP development policies instead of challenging gender inequalities. Compensation was given to men while women who lost land received no compensation. The compensation policy did not include women in the inheritance of land, as the case was before the enactment of the 2006 Legal Capacity Act nor was it amended after the Act was passed.

The Gender Links for Equality and Justice (2016:16) reported that the country has high levels of inequality, poverty in the rural areas and high unemployment rates that expose poor women to abuse traps like rape, forced sex work and other benefits or material gifts than their male counterparts. The country has attempted to achieve gender equity and equality, but there are still legal gaps related to traditional and cultural discriminatory laws and practices such as those pertaining to early child marriages, inheritance and chieftainship succession. Females cannot inherit chieftainship. They, however, can succeed their husbands only if they are married to a chief.

Gender inequality in Lesotho is worsened by the low socio-economic status of women and legal standing. Cultural values and norms observed and respected by both male and female offspring from a young age to adulthood intensifies the problem. Girls are expected to take roles and responsibilities played by their mothers and boys those done by their fathers. Those who violate laid social norms and values are severely discriminated and firmly punished in the sight of everyone to instill fear from doing the same things.

The Gender Links (2014:25) report states that although opportunities exist for women to excel in many aspects of their lives especially in politics, they do not elect other women. This practice undermines gender equality efforts in politics and other spheres. Women do not trust other women

and would rather elect a male candidate in political leadership positions and other areas over a female candidate. This was reported as being common not only in Lesotho, but, in many countries. It was therefore, impossible to attain 50/50 gender parity by 2015 based on the existing progress reports from most countries. More efforts are needed to achieve the 2015 agenda.

In addition, Cida (2000:5) and Little et al. (2014:79) argue that gender roles are cultural and personal, and can influence how males and females think, speak, dress and interact within a societal context. The influence seems to occur irrespective of the presence of good laws like the Lesotho's 2006 Legal Capacity advocating for equal treatment for both genders. Therefore, many social agents teach and reinforce gender roles from a young age to adulthood, which influences household behaviour and gender roles. The influence ultimately prompts people to see certain roles to suit one gender than the other, especially on roles related to providing food for the household.

2.8 African gender perspective

According to the African Union Gender Strategy 2018-2027 report findings, women and girls still face challenges in getting education, legal rights, health and economic resources. These challenges exist despite the hard work of member states to address women's gender inequality issues. While significant development is recorded on national gender policy advancements, structures, guidelines, action plans and programmes dealing with gender inequalities at national and regional level, implementation at grassroots level is not taking place or been enforced in most countries on the African continent.

Many African countries lag behind global growth and improvement regarding participation of women in development initiatives. According to Murunga (2017:96), deep-rooted unfair views related to the roles and positions of girls and women in society influences lack of women participation. These views are rooted in what is termed *'harmful traditional practices'* that usually drive various forms of violence against women through forced and early marriages, pressure to please men, dowry price and other practices. Murunga (2017:159) cited that women are unable to tap into their latent power and become fruitful society members as they lack equal access to education, healthcare, economic opportunities, participation in governance and politics like men.

Discrimination of women and inequality occur despite many designed strategies to do away with it such as the "2003 *Protocol on the Rights of women in Africa, the* 2006 *Maputo plan of action on Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights",* which aimed at providing universal access to

comprehensive sexual and reproductive health services in Africa by 2015. These initiatives are yet to be realised. The *2008 African Women's Decade* was intended to fast track and implement Dakar, Beijing and African Union Assembly decisions on gender equality and women empowerment using top-down and bottom-up approaches. The 2011 *Framework for Action and Recommendations on Harmful Traditional Practices* were intended to prioritise actions to do away with harmful traditional practices.

The Southern African Development Community (SADC) in 2008 approved a Protocol on Gender Equality and in 2004; the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) developed a gender policy to be mainstreamed into policy design and implementation as an initiative to deal with gender inequality in the continent. Many African countries have enacted laws intended to do away with many forms of violence against women and discriminative laws. Many African countries designed and implemented programmes and projects to promote gender equality like women empowerment, inclusive women participation in development, promotion of women in decision-making and many others.

2.9 Global perspective on gender and food security

Over 113 million people globally face acute hunger that calls for urgent food, nutrition and livelihoods support FSIN report (2019:13). The FSIN (2019:25) report showed the global situation ratings standing at IPC/CH phase three. The classifications according to FAO (2008:7) look at changing food security phases and humanitarian situations in relation to observed results concerning people's lives and livelihoods. The results show immediate hazards and basic consequences that are subject to specific vulnerabilities to livelihood systems such as assets and projected strategies.

The IPC classifications are divided into 5 phases of g*eneral food security* consisting of 1A and 1B sub-sections, m*oderate or borderline food insecure*, a*cute food and livelihood crisis* constituting phase 3 of 2019 global rating, h*umanitarian emergency* and f*amine or humanitarian catastrophe*. Each phase according to FAO (2008:13) is linked to a wide-ranging set of factors that affect human welfare and livelihoods that guide the classifications. The guides include, but are not limited to simple mortality rate, serious malnutrition, disease, food access and or availability, dietary diversity, water access or availability, poverty and displacement, civil security, coping mechanisms and livelihood assets.

The 2018 food crises in order of their severity were as follows: Yemen, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Afghanistan, Ethiopia, the Syrian Arab Republic, Sudan, South Sudan and Northern Nigeria per FSIN (2018:37) report. The countries were reported to represent two-thirds of nearly 72 million people facing acute food insecurity globally. The number of affected people in 2018 reduced to about 124 million people from 52 countries in 2017. This is a slight improvement although the affected population is still beyond global support capacity. The report further reiterated that since 2016, 2017 and 2018 over 100 million people globally have consistently faced acute hunger.

According to the FAO (2018:19) report, world hunger has been on the rise for the past three years in a row and the number of people facing chronic food deficiency increased to around 821 million in 2017 from about 804 million in 2016. The global food insecurity is reported to have persisted due to instability in war zones like Syria, Iran, Sudan and others. In addition, hostile climatic conditions like cyclones, drought, floods and heavy snow in different regions of the world; and economic slowdown's hitting peaceful regions has resulted in worsened food security.

Food insecurity and vulnerability studies indicated that the increase in the number of people affected by hunger in 2017 and 2018 is ascribed to the shocking climate changes. The severe 2017 shocks of drought, flooding, rains and extreme temperature brought about by the 2015 -2016 El Nino effects, badly affected Latin America, the Caribbean, the Asian-pacific region, East and Southern African countries Lesotho included. The El Nino effects led to this research to assess gender roles in relation to household food insecurity in the affected districts in Lesotho.

The global IPC 3 classification of 2018 according to the FSIN (2019:34) report indicated the crisis or worse acute hunger stage could result in high levels of acute and chronic malnutrition in children residing in the affected area. Direct drivers of under nutrition in children include poor economy, conflicts or instability, severe climatic conditions, diseases and poor dietary intake that affect provision of key micronutrients critical for their growth. Most countries outlined in the FSIN (2019:147) report indicated low numbers of children consuming minimum acceptable dietary intake of 1200–1800 Kcal/day for girls and 1400–2200 Kcal/day for boys cited by the American Heart Association (2019:73). FAO (2008:29) reported that most people get 2100 Kcal per person per day because of stripping of their assets.

Climate related shocks and conflicts will continue to drive food insecurity in many parts of the world. The effects of El Nino are likely to affect agricultural production and food prices in Latin

America and the Caribbean, dry weather in Southern Africa and drought in Central America's Dry Corridor. Gender equality according to De Schutter (2013:176) in the SDC report is the single most important determinant of food security and should be carefully observed if food security programmes and systems are to be successful.

The SDC (2013:156) report stressed that it is critical to analyse division of tasks between men and women when assessing food security. The report stated that the division of labour should be investigated in the food system to address challenges related to food security. This should be done regardless of whether the project or programme focuses on food production, processing, storage, marketing, preparation or consumption. Gender equality and equity are essential elements helpful in dealing with food insecurity issues. A few studies incorporate household division of labour when dealing with food insecurity in relation to gender roles of family members, especially in crises.

Decision making control over key assets within the food system is important for improved food security either at household, community, national or international levels as cited by SDC (2013). Johnson et al (2016:321) indicated that in many parts of the world men own assets like land and equipment and have a monopoly on primary decision-making powers regarding assets than women. Nyasimi (2014:143) cited that most women in Africa and globally constitute a larger number of rural poor populaces wholly dependent on natural resources to sustain their livelihoods. Women are highly susceptible too and badly affected by climate related risks like unpredicted rain, floods and droughts.

The 2019 Oxfam report on gender inequalities, and food insecurity cited that following ten years after 2007-2008, food price hikes and operational factors affecting female farmers still exist and have not been addressed. The food security situation does not show any improvement and makes women and girls more vulnerable than men and boys in all food security issues related to food access, utilisation, stability and availability.

The situation is worsened by extreme climate changes that make women living in rural areas susceptible to global warming shocks as reported by Oxfam (2019:17). Poverty and food insecurity are present in the rural areas especially in cases where subsistence farming is declining and people rely on the markets. Oxfam (2019:56) reported that women are vulnerable to all food security dimensions when food security is linked to market access other than food production.

Nyasimi (2014:133) indicated that with the changing climate and increasing agricultural fragility, female and male equality in relation to access of physical, financial and human resources are very important. Women and children mostly feel the effects of climate change more than other groups. Nyasimi (2014:152) further argues that children under five years of age born during drought situations are 50% more likely to be malnourished. In addition, the transformation of agricultural production calls for the removal of gender biased legislative and socio-cultural factors that put women at a disadvantaged position. Women are unable to access climate smart practices, technologies and innovations; climate information, services and micro-finance to ensure food security and resilience to climatic shocks (Nyasimi, 2014:167).

In countries where male children are favoured more than female ones, daughters are likely to receive less or lower quality food than sons as observed by Spahr (2014:92). This perpetuates injustice cycles causing most girls to lack the necessary nutrients needed for cognitive development and protection against diseases. Women in developing countries experience greater food insecurity than men because of less control over food allocation and other resources.

Gender inequality per SDC (2013:39) report, is evident in the roles played by men and women in food production activities like planting, harvesting, marketing, food distribution, preparation and consumption. According to Relieveweb (2017:28) report, male and female roles and responsibilities differ from country to country. For instance, in West Africa, cowpeas are produced, stored and sold by women with very little involvement of men. In Benin, women sell crops at local markets although they must invite men when deciding which crop to sell.

According to WFP (2019:8), any attempt to attain food and nutrition security for all people can only succeed if food assistance policies and programmes make conditions that enable gender equality and women empowerment. Women should be at liberty to shape their own lives and equally contribute to shaping the lives of their families, communities and societies like men do. In so doing, women will have a sound contribution in building a world with zero hunger when they have equal opportunities, access to resources and a decision-making voice like their male counterparts. The WFP's (2019:57) report is in support of Sustainable Development Goal 5 focusing on gender equality and women and girls' empowerment.

The SDC (2017:102) report states that post-harvest activities are often reserved for women in many societies; men may have technical roles to play in food handling especially where taboos or cultural beliefs exist. A woman having her menstrual period is not allowed to handle food and this can

influence decisions on who undertakes which task. SDC (2017:123) noted that women in most communities are responsible for food preparation and consumption although men's involvement in food preparation at household level is currently increasing. Gradually, men are also taking part in roles commonly assigned to women with ease although women do not penetrate male assigned roles with the same easiness due to some cultural norms and beliefs in many societies.

While women handle and serve food at the household level, more male Chefs work in most prestigious hospitality businesses like hotels and eateries per SDC (2017:138). According to the Guardian (2016:3) report, professional female chefs in the United Kingdom (UK) are fewer than males by a fifth despite changes in kitchen culture. Furthermore, of the 250 000 professional chefs in (UK) in 2016, women accounted for 18.5%; the number decreased from 20.5% in 2015. The profession is reputed to be tough and dominated by men, which puts women off although women generally dominate the global household food preparation role. Due to women playing a key role in food preparation at the household level, more women are expected to be in this profession, but the results reveal a different picture when it comes to professional food preparation and serving.

2.10 Gender and food security in Africa

Food security in Africa in 2018 according to the FAO report (2018:13) indicated that Africa's hunger prevalence has risen following many years of decline. Central and Western Africa experienced the worst hunger and in 2018 about a fifth of Africans were undernourished with an average of 257 million individuals affected. Of the 257 million people affected, 237 million is from sub-Saharan Africa and 20 million from North Africa. Slow economic growth is caused by the global economic downfall, worsening climate conditions and conflict per FAO (2018:29). Furthermore, obesity is on the rise in children under 5 years of age from Northern and Southern Africa in particular. In many African countries, conflict combined with adverse climate conditions has left millions of people in dire need of food assistance.

Kings (2018:171) indicated that rainfall changes posed a challenge on the African continent as 80% of herders and farmers rely on rainfall for farming. The lack of rain means crops and livestock activities fail as shown by the 2015-2016 El nino that resulted in a severe drought in Southern Africa. Kings (2018:197) added that when crops fail it forces countries to import critical staple foodstuffs like rice, wheat and maize that eventually push prices up as demand increases and production is limited. Therefore, many people will be forced to spend less on other foodstuffs like

vegetables, milk, meat and others required for the consumption of a balanced diet to minimise malnutrition and promote good health.

The FAO (2019:12) report states that globally 672 million people are obese and 821 million are undernourished and that the hardest hit group by this dietary problem is children. In Africa, about 10 million children are overweight although they do not receive enough nutrients required for a healthy diet. The report stressed that, food security and resilience in Africa can be attained if irrigated agriculture is used and the cultivation of crops that can withstand drought and the altering climate. Most farmers in Africa and the world are becoming less resilient to weather shocks like hailstorms, droughts, floods and other harsh climatic conditions that now occur regularly and concurrently as reported by FAO (2019:17).

Food insecurity according to the FAO report in Clarke (2016:18) is excessively high in West Africa. The FCPN reported that 9.5 million people needed food assistance in the region to protect their livelihoods and fight malnutrition. The FAO (2016:6) report stated that changes in food insecurity trends show that 50% of women represent agricultural labour supply in Africa. IFAD on the other hand, estimated that women make up 89% in Sahelian countries. Women involvement in food security is important for the attainment of food security as they play a vital role in food and livestock production.

FAO (2018:11) report argues that gender gaps in African agriculture should be addressed directly as they hold back efforts to end hunger. Women's representation on issues of governance, decision-making procedures, access to land and financial resources needs to be improved. Women must be included in social protection programmes, equal services and opportunities in all aspects of governance and life improving activities.

The report stated that in many African countries, women engage in 60% of family farming activities. In addition, women carry the added responsibility of growing vegetables, preservation of harvested food, rearing of small stock like sheep, goats, pigs and chickens; and are responsible for good family nutrition associated with meal preparations. Gender inequality affects rural women more than those living in urban settings and employed.

The FAO (2018:23-25) report indicated that many organisations provide gender equality technical support in many African countries to empower rural women. These organisations include IFAD, UN Women and WFP. They have initiated women economic growth programmes in Ethiopia,

Liberia, Niger and Rwanda that train women to use advanced agricultural technologies and access improved financial services and markets. The World Bank (2014:3) report further stressed that African women are likely to work in less productive sectors, less profitable, low wage and unpaid domestic work or in the informal wage sector.

African women unlike their counterparts in developed world, face 1 in 31 chances of dying from pregnancy or childbirth complications as opposed to 1 in 4300 from the developed world. The report further indicated that African women and girls have little to no influence over resources and norms, choice of jobs and crops, which limit their earning potential in agriculture, business and labour markets. Women have poor access to legal rights, sexual and reproductive health services, limited freedom of movement and political voice in most African countries as reported by World Bank (2014:9); especially in countries dominated by Islamic regimes.

African women according to Arbache et al (2010:73) have fewer educational opportunities and less available time in the job market due to domestic errands. Women also have limited access to credit as they are required to seek their male partners' consent first and their inability to control a bigger share of household capital constitutes big gender differences at household level. Cultural and social norms have assigned chores like caring for children and elders, cooking, cleaning and other domestic tasks to women. This makes it hard for women to engage in job market activities like their male counterparts. Arbache et al (2010:85) stressed that women tend to have lower bargaining power in the family due to holding a smaller share of income generation than their male partners.

2.11 Gender and food security in the SADC region and Lesotho

The Southern African Development Countries (SADC) region comprises 15-member states that include Lesotho. The area according to the SSYB (2012:7) report has an estimated population of over 285 million with an annual growth rate of 2.2 percent and average fertility rate of 4.9 births for childbearing age women. Women and youth empowerment are critical for improved food and nutrition security in the SADC region. However, gender inequalities persist, and women and children are the most affected groups per SADC (2014:5) report. SADC gender protocol alliance comprises 15 country networks with each being represented by a focal point or organisation in

each of the 15 SADC member countries. For instance, Women and Law in Southern Africa (WILSA) represents gender protocol alliance in Lesotho.

The SADC region is known to be an epicentre of HIV and AIDS with declining records of new infection rates according to SADC Gender Protocol Barometer (2018:3) report. The report stated that gender inequality is currently a strong driver of the HIV/AIDS pandemic. There are 59 percent new infections for women, although 53 percent of AIDS-related deaths are of men. Furthermore, 10 percent of the population constitutes young women aged 15 to 24 years leading to 26 percent of new HIV infections. The consequence of a high infection rate among young women means low numbers of productive women and high risk for newborn babies.

Regarding issues of power and governance, the Barometer (2018:7) report cited a decline of one percent from the 2009 set base that made 26 percent women representation in the SADC parliament. The proportion of women went down from 49 to 40 percent in Angola and from 38 to 30 percent in Lesotho. With regard to economic decision-making, only 2 percent points were reported over a decade from 19 to 20 percent with Botswana scoring highest with 44 percent and Mauritius with no women representation. The SADC representation though generally declining is reported to be 2 percentage points above global and Sub-Saharan average of 24 percent. Women representation in regional cabinet is reported low at 20 percent and local government 23 percent. The situation is deteriorating in terms of power sharing and representation in governance in the region despite governments' constitutional reviews to promote gender equity and equality.

The SADC (2014:19) report indicated that, despite huge donations support, regional food and nutrition security remains uneven and volatile. The report echoed that the proportion of malnourished people in Sub-Saharan Africa ranged from 33 to 35 percent from 1970 to date. The proportion of food insecure people in the SADC region stays high although improved food production has been attained in some member states. The SADC (2014:22) report indicated that vulnerability to food and nutrition insecurity in children, women and youth is high in many SADC member states.

The SADC (2014:29) report and other food security studies agree that food and nutrition challenges and poverty are interrelated. Poverty is a big challenge in the SADC region and about half of its population lives on less than US$1 per day. It is reported that hunger, gender inequalities, malnutrition, marginalisation, high morbidity, exploitation, and communicable diseases are some of the challenges contributing to poverty and food insecurity in the region.

According to Nakale (2019:112), frequent droughts and floods, high food prices and global financial crisis worsen food insecurity in the SADC region in the past years. These leave many people without food and necessitate the need for humanitarian support. The region according Nakale (2019:123) had to meet its cereal requirements through imported food and food-aid. High HIV/AIDS prevalence worsens the situation as it leads to loss of agricultural labour as many people rely on farming to sustain their livelihoods in the region. The regional cereal production is reported to be unstable and unable to meet regional demands through member state's early warning systems like REWU and NEWUs in each member state.

The WFP (2019:7) report projects an increased number of acutely food insecure people to 12.7 million during the peak season extending from January to March 2020. The report stated that 9.2 million people fall under integrated phase classification (IPC) classification 3 of food crisis stage and 4 depicting emergency stage requiring food and nutrition assistance. WFP plans to support about 5.4 million people with life-saving assistance and critical livelihoods interventions in Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Lesotho, Eswatini, Namibia, Madagascar and Malawi.

Reddy & Moletsane (2011:98-101) argue that food security cannot be detached from wider socio-political issues affecting people's lives such as access to clean water, land and other natural resources. Issues like effective waste management have a significant impact on individual and community's exposure to food insecurity. Reddy & Moletsane (2011:127) highlighted the importance of gender assessment as it cuts across the multi-dimensional nature of food security if households are to be resilient to consequences of poverty and hunger.

2.12 Summary

From the above discussion, it becomes clear that gender issues affect food security. Gender inequality affects food availability, access, stability and effective utilisation. Ignoring or neglecting gender issues will not solve the food crises that countries like Lesotho face. The food insecurity issue remains elusive to many countries including Lesotho because of drought and water scarcity caused by climate change and other man-induced dynamics. Despite the enactment of legislations, policies and several platforms that tried to address gender inequalities globally, the problem persists. This has led to problems like food insecurity in Lesotho that is affecting many communities. The next chapter discusses the research design and methodology framework used to assess the impact of gender roles on food insecure households in Lesotho's selected study area.

Chapter 3: Research design and methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explores the research design and methods used to assess how gender roles affected food insecure households during the 2016 drought in Maneo village or electoral division (ED). The chapter outlines the study area, the population and the sampling methods used. The data collection procedures, and the actual fieldwork is discussed and the analysis tools that were applied in the study are deliberated.

3.2 Research design

The research design according to De Vaus (2001:12) and Trochim (2006:8) is the overall strategy used to integrate different study components in a logical and coherent way to address the research problem. Patrick (2017:15) adds that it is a plan to reveal the product before it is finalised or arranged. It is a combination of approaches and techniques selected to combine components of the research work to answer the research question. The study used both qualitative and quantitative research approaches. The descriptive phenomenon was used to explain unexplored aspects of the research subject and answer the research questions.

3.3 Research methodology

The study was carried out in Maneo village in Mohales'hoek. Mohales'hoek is in the middle of the three southern districts of Lesotho that were badly affected by the 2016 drought. A case study was used as a research method. According to Roundy (2017:8), a case study is a useful study method to do an in-depth enquiry of an event or a person. The study assessed the effect or influence of gender roles played by food insecure males and females affected by the drought.

The study used a questionnaire to gather responses that showed if there is a positive, negative or no impact on gender roles played by food insecure household affected by drought. Focused group discussions were done to get further details and clarifications from affected households. This provided more information during interviews regarding any changes in the roles played by each gender when faced with drought catastrophes as household members. Some community leaders were later engaged to confirm the validity of collected data.

3.3.1 Target population and sampling

Maneo area comprises over one thousand and five hundred (1500) households with an estimated average number of five people in each household according to the LVAC's (2016:7) report. This suggests that the area has an average population of over 7500. The study targeted household adults with the following characteristics:

- People 18 years of age and above
- Married couples
- Bread winners'/family decision makers regardless of gender.

The study targeted 300 households making up 20% of the estimated 1500 households in Maneo village or electoral division. The actual number of households reached was 160 that deciphered into 11% of the estimated total number of all households and 53% of the targeted sample of 300. The initial target of 300 households was not reached as some people were working away from home, some had migrated to South Africa in search of work and others were working in faraway fields.

3.3.2 Data collection

Data collection involves gathering information or data from all relevant sources with the aim of responding to the research problem, testing hypothesis or evaluating study outcomes according to Dudovskiy (2018:9). Both qualitative and quantitative data was collected from study participants. The study used both methods to gather information through a questionnaire, administered by the researcher and assistants to respondents to assess how gender roles affected food insecure households in the study area.

However, the researcher and assistants encountered a few challenges related to entering the homes of some respondents. Fencing and guard dogs barred the researcher from entry into some homes. Hence, the researcher randomly selected homes that were accessible and participants that volunteered to take part in the study.

The researcher had to verify some responses with a group of community leaders who postponed the meeting several times and ultimately less people attended than expected. The attendance was 4 out of 8 community leaders. In some villages, data collection was done late in the afternoon when people had returned from farm-work and some had to be done early in the morning before people left for work. Six respondents pulled out of discussions and resulted in incomplete

questionnaires that had to be eliminated. The six that pulled out insisted that they wanted to be paid after the interviews. Despite these few challenges, the data collection exercise was successful.

3.3.3 Data collection tool

A semi-structured questionnaire was used to collect data. The questionnaire was piloted, revised and modified following the pre-test to incorporate necessary changes before the actual study was done. As part of the piloting exercise, some members of Mohales'hoek disaster management team took part before finalisation. The information sought from the participants is discussed in the next section.

3.3.3.1 Demographic information

The demographic data included responses to gender, marital status, household head gender, respondent's relationship with household head, household head employment status and education. The demographic data gave information on the category and characteristics of the respondents that would reveal transparency and fairness in directing the study. The study results are related to information provided in this section.

3.3.3.2 Household assets

This section investigated farming-based assets like land, size and if it is accessible to respondents. It documents who owns land and type of crops planted. This provided information on food production and type of crops planted by most of the residents in Maneo. Most of them rely on farming for staple food supply.

3.3.3.3 Gender roles in agricultural activities

The section provided information on the farming roles of each gender and gender names appearing on land registration documents. The section also looked at who looks after the livestock, ownership and the number of the livestock. It documented gender ownership of functional farming assets, ownership registration and which gender uses which farming tools.

3.3.3.4 Decision making in the household

This section covered household decision-making responses on finances, food purchases and preparation, crops production and sales, household tasks and their administration. It also sought to find out who and how people were affected by the 2015/16 drought. It investigated coping

mechanism strategies and changes in gender roles. In addition, how the changes affected household food security activities.

3.3.4 Data analysis

O'Connor & Gibson (2003:125) argue that the data qualitative analysis is all about thinking inside and outside the box. Thinking inside the box focuses on what one is trying to find out and reasons to do the study. Outside the box focuses on ideas or themes emerging from the research relevant to the research questions. Therefore, the analysis is done on socio-economic aspects of a household that include household size, age categories; unemployment rate and household head source of income based on monthly gain using South African Rands (ZAR).

Data analysis is defined as an alteration and breakdown of data into manageable units that can be easily synthesized into a learning experience based on the undertaken study. The data analysis process according to Charmaz & Belgrave (2015:42) is not complete without data coding, developing, checking, integrating and categorizing theories in writing analytical narratives ensuing from an inquiry. The questionnaires were checked for errors and then coded. The data was captured using Microsoft Excel and SPSS software, before it was analyzed.

The gathered information was used to analyze household food insecurity based on household head monthly income and number of members to be supported. It is important to note that the study was limited only to the assessment of gender roles and their impact on household food insecurity. Ideas and themes emerging in the study were recorded as they present opportunities for future study advancement or reference forming part of thinking outside the box.

3.3.5 Study validity and reliability

Validity is the accuracy with which the method used, measures what it is intended to measure in Schopper et al. (1993) in O'Connor & Gibson (2003:217) opinion. The data measurement tool should yield representative results of what was measured per Goodwin al et., 1987 in O'Connor & Gibson (2003:17) and data validation should be continuous until the study is concluded.

Kvale (1996) in O'Connor & Gibson (2003:101) cited that reliability is concerned with study findings similarity. Reliability is a product of diligent efforts and commitment to maintain consistency throughout interviewing, transcribing and analyzing the findings. The researcher engaged a systematic and consistent way of undertaking the study informed by reviewed literature

on similarly undertaken work and laid out procedures. For instance, the same set of questions was used to collect, code, analyze and interpret data for all participants in the study.

It should be noted that not all the targeted households were available. Some of them were not willing to participate. Therefore, the next household that was willing to participate was used. Few households absent during data collection had to be revisited. Homesteads guarded by dogs in the absence of household members were later visited after prior appointments were made. The researcher and the research assistants had to return to the study area to seek clarifications on some issues and to verify some information.

3.3.6 Research ethics

Ethical clearance was requested from the University of the Free State with the number UFS-HSD2018/1206. Respondent's rights to participate or resist participation in the study were observed. It was publicly declared that participants had the right to refrain or support the study in observance of ethical principles attached to the study. The consent form that participants had to complete before actively participating in the study was signed before the survey ensued.

3.4 Summary

The chapter covered research procedures and important elements to unveil credible results concerning gender roles impact assessment of food insecure households in the Southern Lowlands of Lesotho (SLL). The research design, methodology, population and sampling, the data tools and processes and ethical issues were discussed in this chapter. A semi-structured questionnaire was used and complemented with face-to-face interviews. Information validity and consistency was tested in small group discussions. The data was collected, cleaned and captured using Microsoft excel and SPSS software. The next chapter discusses the presentation, analysis and discussion of the collected information.

Chapter 4: Data presentation, interpretation and analysis

4.1 Introduction

The chapter discusses data analysis, interpretation and presentation of findings from 160 completed questionnaires. The data from questionnaires was analysed using an SPSS software program and findings discussed per each questionnaire section with reference to research questions and study objectives. Observed change factors and variables related to how gender roles affect household adult's food insecurity are revealed according to different questionnaire sections.

The results are presented using tables, graphs and charts covering demographic information, household socio-economic aspects, household assets, gender roles in agricultural activities and household decision-making powers. The interpretation and analysis are presented in segments following the structure of the questionnaire.

4.2 Demographic information

The demographic information of the respondents is critical as it portrays the gender dynamics and other factors that might affect access to food security. This part of the questionnaire covered information on respondents and household head gender, relationship of respondent to household head, age, employment status and highest educational qualification. The data helped in contextualising the findings and in developing recommendations that eliminate gender roles, which affect the achievement of household food security.

Table 4.1: Respondents gender

Variable	Number of respondents	Percentage
Female	114	71
Male	46	29
Total	**160**	**100**

One hundred and fourteen (114) females and 46 males participated in the study as indicated in Table 4.1. This indicates that there were more females than males. It should be noted that according

to the 2016 Lesotho census, the sex distribution of the male population is 49% and 51% females resulting in a 96:100 ratio. This suggests that there are more females than males in Lesotho. However, during the data collection period, many men were out working in the fields, some were employed in South African construction works and others in Maseru and other towns looking for jobs. Most women had replaced men as household heads, although this does not necessarily mean that they own those fields they work on. This is shown in the household heads demographics as shown in Figure 4.1.

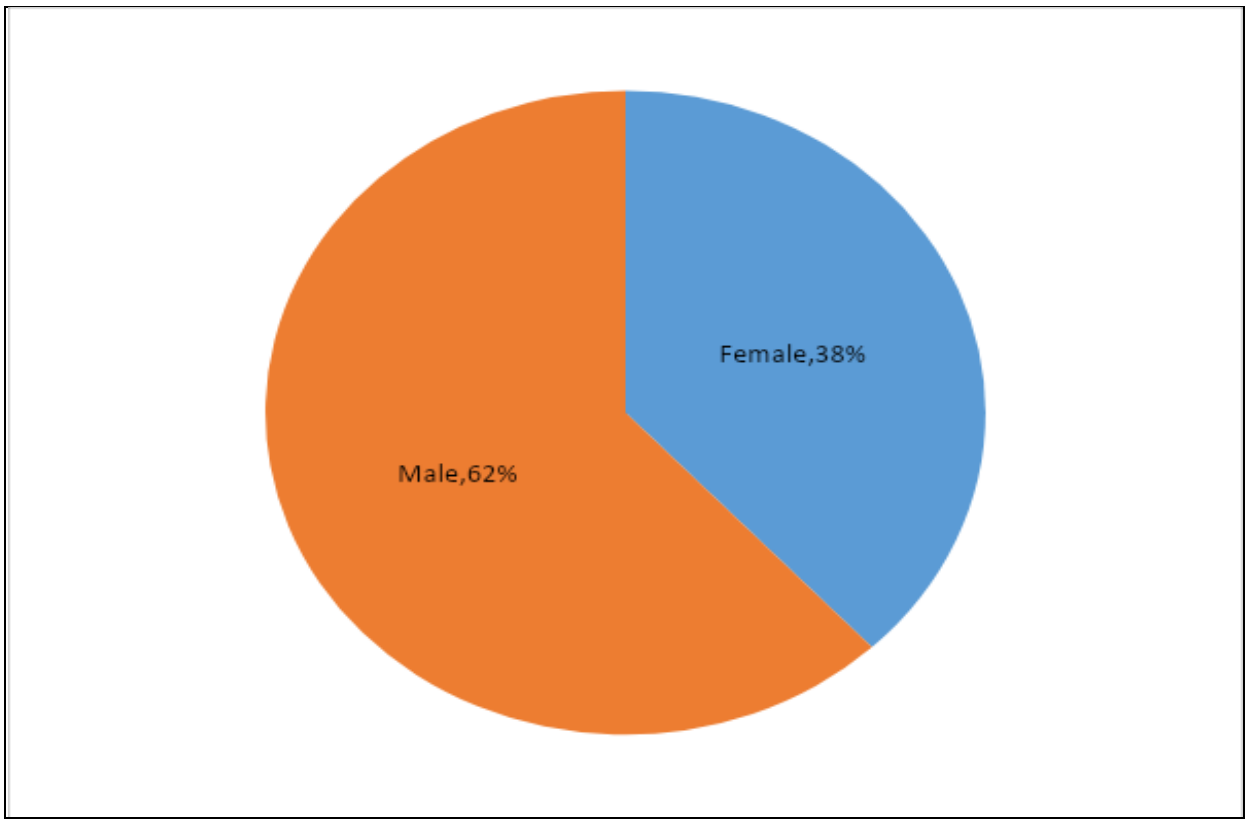

Figure 4.1: Household head by gender

Figure 4.1 indicates that 62% of household heads are male and 38% females. Even though more women participated in the study, more males are the heads of the homes. The results suggested that any outcome on the result is likely to affect more male household heads than females with differing degrees for each gender. Males are the predominant home owners hence own fields where crops are grown and the livestock to support household food security. Therefore, although women play key roles in a household administration do not own or control means of production and are subordinate to husbands who are away from home for most times.

Table 4.2: Household head marital status

Marital Status	Number	Percentage
Divorced	2	1
Married	79	50
Never Married	8	5
Separated	8	5
Single	18	11
Widowed	45	28
Total	**160**	**100**

The majority of the household heads are married (79), followed by widowed (45) and single (18). Both never married (8) and separated (8) individuals comprised 5% each of the respondents. Divorced (2) individuals were the lowest at 1%. The female widowed household heads are regarded as part of the most vulnerable groups in any society as cited by many writers. The term household head (hhh) refers to individuals who within the family pay for more than half of household expenses. The married household head therefore refers to a family man or woman who is staying with his/her spouse in nuptial arrangement and supporting one another.

Widowed household head is an individual who has lost his or her matrimonial partner in death and living without his or her support. Muleta & Deressa (2014:87) cited that widowed female household heads are more vulnerable to food insecurity and other forms of vulnerabilities like higher probability to poverty; suffer more due to hunger and lack of or poor support from responsible agencies during disasters than widowed male household heads. Widowed female household heads are like children, women, disabled and elderly people who do not have energy and capacity to fend for themselves without support from others in times of disasters or catastrophic events. They are classified under vulnerable community groups as a result. There were more female widowed household heads (36) than males (9) as indicated in Table 4.3 below.

A single person here refers to an unmarried individual while the never married person is individual living alone without a partner and considered too old to be married. The separated person refers to individuals who had been married for some time but were legally separated for differing reasons

that may include abuse, infidelity or any other reason. The divorced person refers to individuals whose marital vows or contract is terminated by law or rendered non-binding to his/her partner by a court of law.

Table 4.3: Widowed household heads by gender

Marital Status	Gender		
Widowed	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**
	9	36	45
	20%	80%	100

Many studies indicate that women, children and people with disabilities are more vulnerable and have lesser resistance to shocks or stresses than men. According to Chwarae (2015), many women in Lesotho suffer from patriarchal culture that keeps them oppressed, subjected to abuse, poverty and diseases as former laws deprived them of many rights. The situation persisted even after the Legal Capacity of Married Persons Act of 2006 had repealed marital powers that husbands had over the person and property of his wife and inheritance laws and the Land Act of 2010 that legally protected them to own and inherit land. The results, therefore, can be an indication that the widows are food insecure because their husbands are no more hence, gender inequalities persist.

According to the Help Lesotho (2017:28) report, women and girls in Lesotho are treated as minors, this makes them incompetent to own or inherit land or make major decisions of land under their control. The report further cited that, patriarchal laws in Lesotho were introduced through Lerotholi's customary laws in 1903 and did not recognize women's status. Chwarae (2015:53) cited that women's status of being viewed as 'minors' was legally removed in 2006 although traditional culture remains strong. Literature further cited that 86% of women in Lesotho reported incidents of abuse. Widowed female household heads are exposed to more abuse than male household heads and are likely to experience increased vulnerability to disasters like drought and many others.

Table 4.4: Household head age, employment and highest education attained

Employment_HH_Head * Education_HH_Head * Age_HH_Head Crosstabulation							
			Education_HH_Head				
Age_HH_Head			No school	Primary schooling	Secondary schooling	Tertiary Schooling	Total
18-24	Employment_HH_Head	Unemployed		1	2		3
	Total			**1**	**2**		**3**
25-39	Employment_HH_Head	Formal Employment	0	2	1		3
		Self-employed informal	0	5	4		9
		Unemployed	3	12	1		16
	Total		**3**	**19**	**6**		**28**
40-49	Employment_HH_Head	Formal Employment	2	4	2		8
		Self-employed formal	0	3	0		3
		Self-employed informal	1	4	2		7
		Unemployed	5	10	1		16
	Total		**8**	**21**	**5**		**34**
50-59	Employment_HH_Head	Formal Employment	3	2	0	2	7
		Self-employed formal	0	1	2	0	3
		Self-employed informal	0	3	1	0	4
		Unemployed	6	23	7	0	36
	Total		**9**	**29**	**10**	**2**	**50**
60 & above	Employment_HH_Head	Formal Employment	0	1	0		1
		Self-employed formal	1	0	0		1
		Self-employed informal	0	0	2		2
		Unemployed	10	27	4		41
	Total		**11**	**28**	**6**		**45**
Total	Employment_HH_Head	Formal Employment	5	9	3	2	19
		Self-employed formal	1	4	2	0	7
		Self-employed informal	1	12	9	0	22
		Unemployed	24	73	15	0	112
	Total		**31**	**98**	**29**	**2**	**160**

People who attended school from grade 1 to 7 were classified under primary education, grade 8 to 12 secondary and tertiary those who attended school for professional training beyond grade 12. Table 4.4 above shows that 19 household heads were formally employed of which 5 did not attend school, 9 had primary education, 3 with secondary and 2 tertiary education.

Of the seven formally self-employed people, one never attended school, four with primary and two with secondary education. There were no formally self-employed people with tertiary education. Additionally, 22 people were informally self-employed of which one had no schooling, 12 with primary and 9 with secondary education.

The majority of the people 70% (112) were unemployed of which 24 had never attended school, 73 with primary and 15 with secondary education. Most of the unemployed people had a primary

education followed by people without schooling and those with secondary education. People with primary education also comprised the highest number of formally self-employed and informally self-employed respondents with potential to raise household income that could be associated with food security.

In summary, the majority of the household heads had primary education with an age range of 50–59. Twenty-nine (29) household heads had primary, 10 secondary and two had tertiary education. Nine (9) household heads had never attended school. The age group over 60 years had 28 household heads having primary schooling, 6 secondary and 11 who had never attended school. The third is the age group 40–49, fourth is 25–39 and the last 18–24 years of age.

The results presented in Table 4.4 indicated 70% (112) as unemployed, 14% (22) informally self-employed, 12% (19) with formal employment and 5% (7) formally self-employed household heads. The majority, 70% of household heads were without jobs. The lack of employment makes households vulnerable to food insecurity. According to the AFSUN (2015:27) report, urban dwellers are more self-sufficient than people in rural areas. Households in rural Lesotho are characterised by extreme vulnerability to food insecurity and dependent on food purchases. In the study, only 30% of household heads held varying jobs and 70% were jobless.

4.3 Household socio-economic aspects

Common measures of the socioeconomic status cited by Somrongthon et al (2017:36) listed household income and education complemented by age of the household head or members as important. The authors stressed that functional capacity to lead an independent life is subject to good quality of life and attainment of happiness and satisfaction in life. These attributes are necessary for any sound functional capacity in one's daily living. The next section presents factors on household socioeconomic status displayed in figures and tables.

4.3.1 Household size and composition

Members were categorized by their age, employment and income sources using South African currency (Rands/ZAR). The data indicated the extent of household food security in relation to the number of people supported and income generated. Figure 4.2 below showed the build-up or composition of each household.

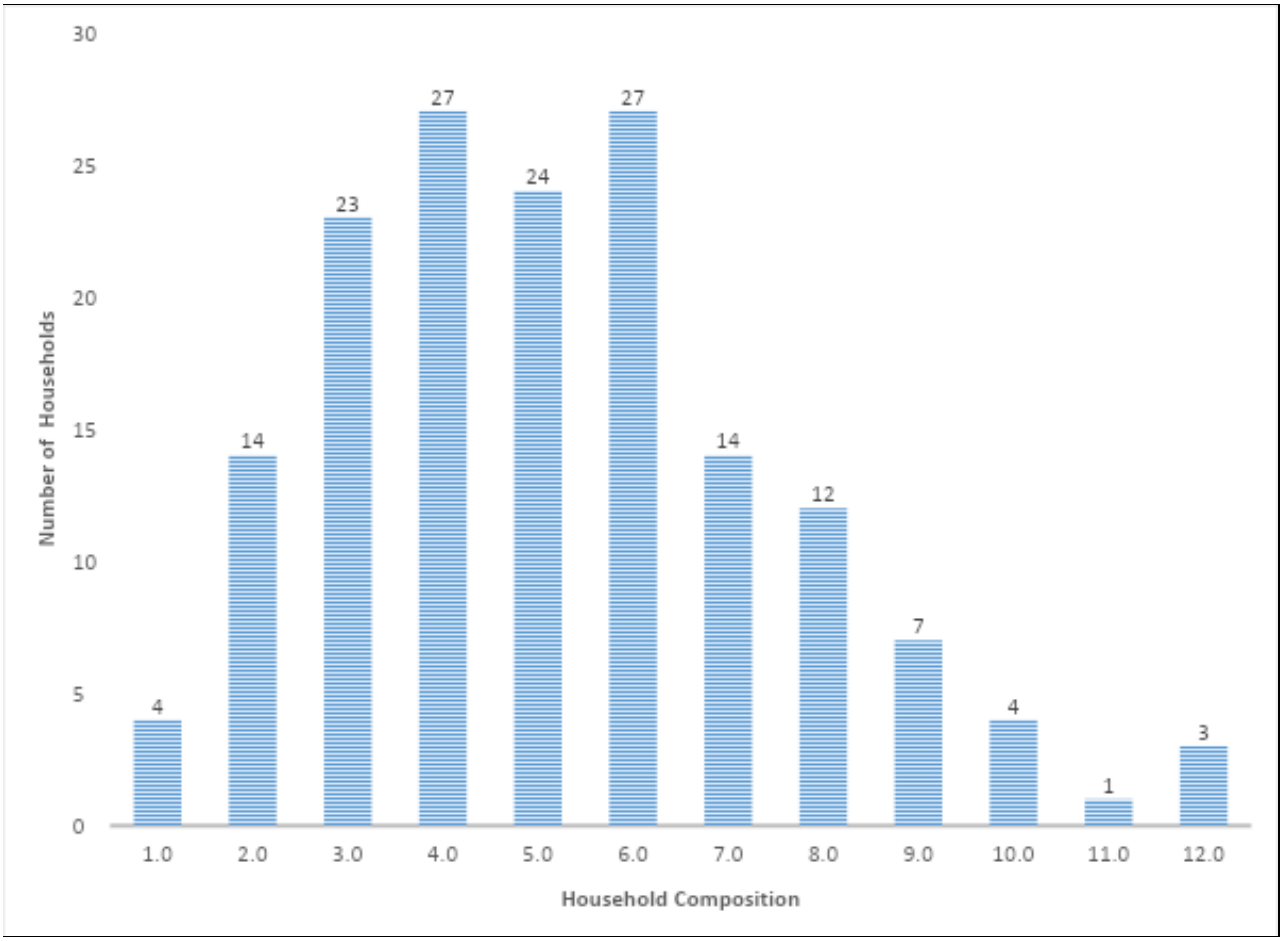

Figure 4.2: Household size and composition

The horizontal axis of the bar chart shows the number of people within each household, and the vertical axis shows the number of families with a given number of the household members (composition). Figure 4.2 shows that 27 households had four and six members each and that, only one family had 11 members. Twenty-seven (27) was the highest number of households and one was the lowest household number per each family composition reached in the study. Below is the income distribution in each household.

Table 4.5: Household income distribution

HH Size	Monthly Income distribution					Total
	0-50	101-500	501-100	1001-3000	>3000	
1.0	1	3	0	0	0	4
2.0	4	3	7	0	0	14
3.0	6	7	4	5	1	23
4.0	5	9	6	4	3	27
5.0	7	4	8	3	2	24
6.0	3	13	10	0	1	27
7.0	6	1	7	0	0	14
8.0	0	4	5	2	1	12
9.0	1	2	1	1	2	7
10.0	0	2	1	0	1	4
11.0	0	0	1	0	0	1
12.0	1	0	1	1	0	3
Total	34	48	51	16	11	160

Most household heads earn between R101.00 and R1000.00 per month catering for 4-6 members in the household. The income is not consistent as most people depend on informal or part time jobs. According to the UNDP (2017) report, 34% of the population in Lesotho lives below the food poverty line of R138.00 (approximately $10.00) per adult per month. The statistics indicated that in 2015/16 the percentage of poor people in Lesotho increased by 35% in contrast to 29.1% in 2002/03 base year. The figures show that poverty levels are increasing in Lesotho.

Lesotho is among the 10 worst countries in the world in terms of unequal distribution of wealth with a Gini coefficient or population wealth distribution of 0.53. If calculations are done using the results in Table 4.5 and the monthly poverty line earnings, a family with 6 members needs R828.00 per month to sustain itself. The majority of the respondents 70% (112) were unemployed and 14% (12) were informally self-employed. This means there is a large number of households that are food insecure in Maneo area.

Factors such as the global economic downturn, climate change, international economic policies, and an unpredictable political situation contribute to high poverty levels in Lesotho. The lack of appropriate youth education and training contributes to high unemployment and the country's poverty. The majority of respondents only had primary education or no education at all. This makes it difficult to get formal or well-paying jobs that offer adequate income to sustain their families.

4.4 Household assets

Household assets are important for addressing food security issues in communities. The study sought to assess the various household assets in the possession of the participants. The main household assets assessed were farming land and livestock, which are the backbone of many African households and in Lesotho in particular.

4.4.1 Access to farming

About 68% (109) of the households shown in Table 4.6 have access to land in Maneo ED. Sixty-six respondents (61%) own land. The other thirty-nine (24%) respondents have shared cropping land and lastly four (3%) respondents have borrowed, rented, combined sharecropping land as indicated in Table 4.6. Subsistence farming is practiced more than commercial farming in Lesotho, hence in Maneo area it is the main source of food security for households. Sixty-eight males (62%) as shown in Table 4.6 below dominate the ownership of the land.

Table 4.6: Types of land ownership by gender

Land Ownership	Owner's Gender		Grant Total
	Male	Female	
Rented	1	0	1
Share Cropping	25	14	39
Self-owned	39	27	66
Share Cropping & rented	1	0	1
Barrowed	2	0	2
Totals	68	41	109

The main crops grown by the respondents are maize and wheat and to some extent vegetables and sorghum as indicated in Figure 4.3. According to Mphale (2002) in the UNDP (2013:17) report, the average farm size in Lesotho is 1.3 hectares (3.2 acres) with only 11% (17) households owning more than 3 hectares (7.4 acres). The study showed that 44% of the people in Maneo ED own 2-5 acres that is used for shared cropping and own cultivation.

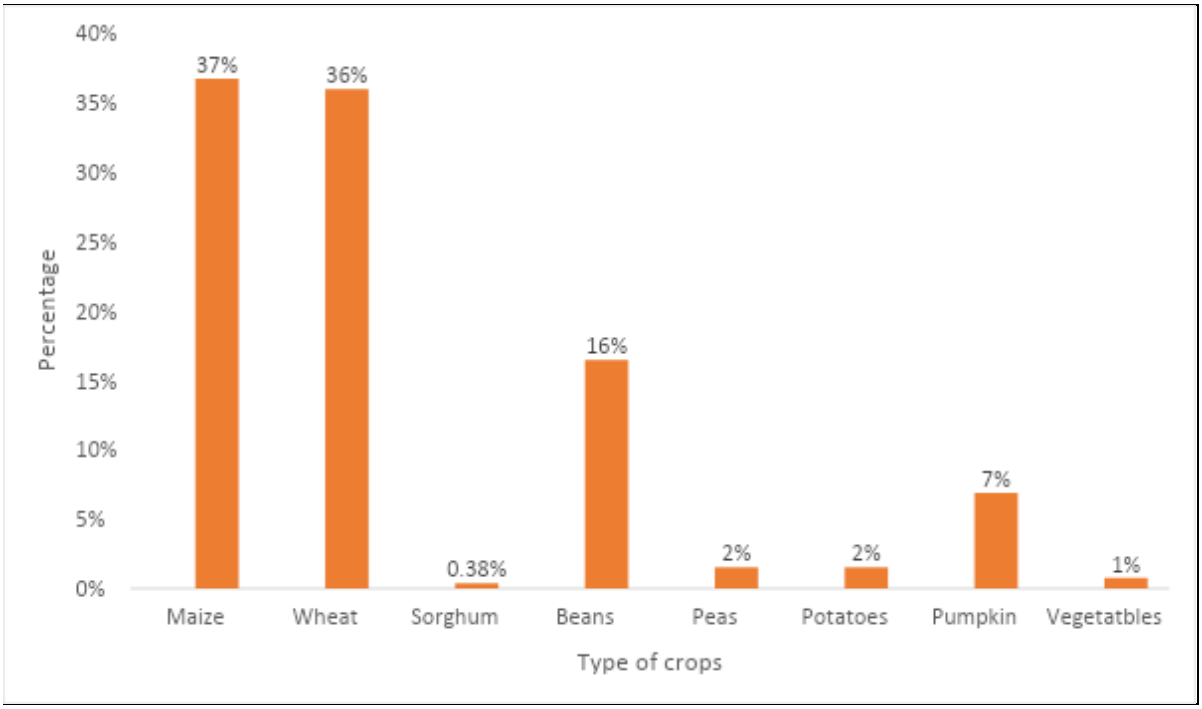

Figure 4.3: Type of crops planted

In addition, the LVAC (2018:14) report cited 2017/2018 maize, wheat and sorghum harvests as poor in comparison to the previous season. The report also indicated the early start of lean season in September 2018. Late rains, poorly distributed precipitation and high temperatures resulting in dry conditions that negatively affected land preparation and planting, marked the lean season in 2018/19. The Vulnerability Assessment and Analysis (2018:13) report stated that Mohales'hoek, Maseru, Quthing and Qachas'nek districts are under phase 3 stage which is acute food and livelihood crisis requiring serious attention.

This phase showed that the crisis stage was expected to persist until May 2019 due to late rains and prolonged dry weather caused by ongoing El Niño conditions. Maneo area is in Mohales'hoek and was predicted to expect poor harvest, which will affect vulnerable groups such as widowed household heads, children and the disabled and elderly.

The 109 people with access to land highlighted in Table 4.6 were affected by negative conditions confirmed by the IPC classification 3 for Southern lowlands districts that included Mohales'hoek. The IPC classification 3 signaled the urgency to protect people's livelihoods, alleviate food gaps and acute malnutrition within classified areas. The IPC classification implied that all households are exposed to food insecurity including those with access to land because farming depends on rain and not much could be expected under reported dry conditions.

Dry weather conditions are likely to be worsened by the high unemployment rate and fragile economy based on agricultural produce in a drought situation. Figure 4.4 and Table 4.6 showed that 109 of the 160 (68%) interviewed people had access to farming land and 51 (32%) did not. Land access and ownership differed as indicated in Figure 4.4 and Table 4.6. Figure 4.4 classified land ownership and access by acreage while Table 4.6 showed types of ownership by gender.

Various authors on land tenure systems like Hull (2019:47), Namubiru-Mwaura (2014:76) and Tenure (2010:23), view access to land as being governed by land tenure systems; and that land tenure refers to the customary or legal relationship between people with respect to use, ownership or handling of land. Farming land is also subjected to the tenure systems used in the study area as shown in Table 4.6. Self-owned and share cropping were prominent systems used to produce the crops indicated in Figure 4.3. Maize, wheat and beans are prominent crops that form part of the country's staple food.

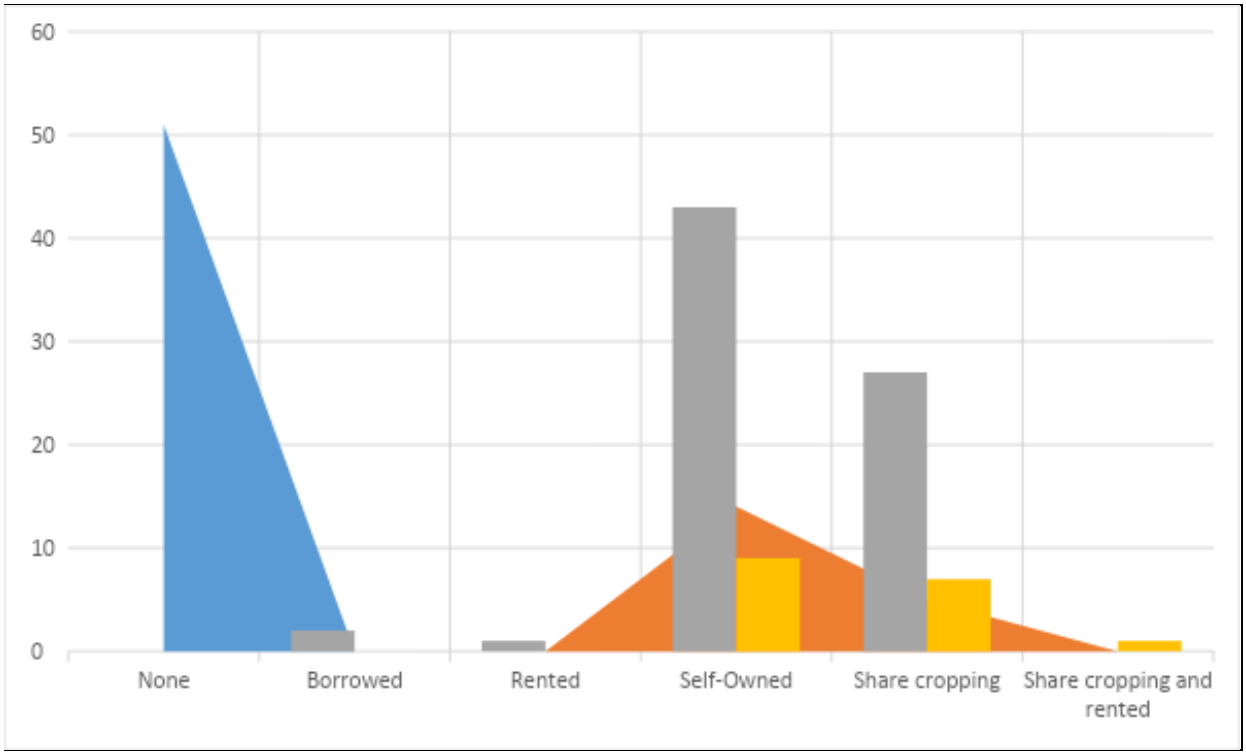

Figure 4.4: Land owned in acres

According to the FAO (2007:13) report, an average production of 0.43 metric tons of maize and 0.52 of wheat could be harvested per hectare in Lesotho. This translates into 3.2 acres for each crop yield. However, the yield cannot sustain a household with food until the next harvest during a normal year. According to LBOS report (2019:5), 1.04 ha of maize, 0.76 ha of sorghum and 1.29 ha of wheat are standard production yields expected to sustain a household with food until the next harvest. Looking at acres of land owned in Figure 4.4, many households own less than the

recommended acres and are vulnerable and exposed to food insecurity even under normal conditions.

Furthermore, 32% of the people without land could possibly access it through borrowing, renting or sharecropping if economically capable. Considering the high unemployment rate shown in Table 4.4 above, it can be concluded that the possibility of venturing into agriculture by those without land is slim. This is regardless of the fact that agriculture is the main source of food in the area. There is an increased likelihood of food insecurity in the area due to prevailing and forecasted El Niño conditions in Lesotho, especially in the Southern Lowlands districts like Mohales'hoek.

The Lesotho review report (2018:12-35) indicated that only 10% of land in Lesotho is suitable for crop production while the rest is rocks and rangelands forming the highlands or mountainous area. The combination of farming land scarcity and unreliable climate conditions together with the high unemployment rate and lack of farming inputs affects food security in Lesotho. The situation is unlikely to improve unless community members have diversified income sources beyond agricultural production to reinforce their resilience to shocks.

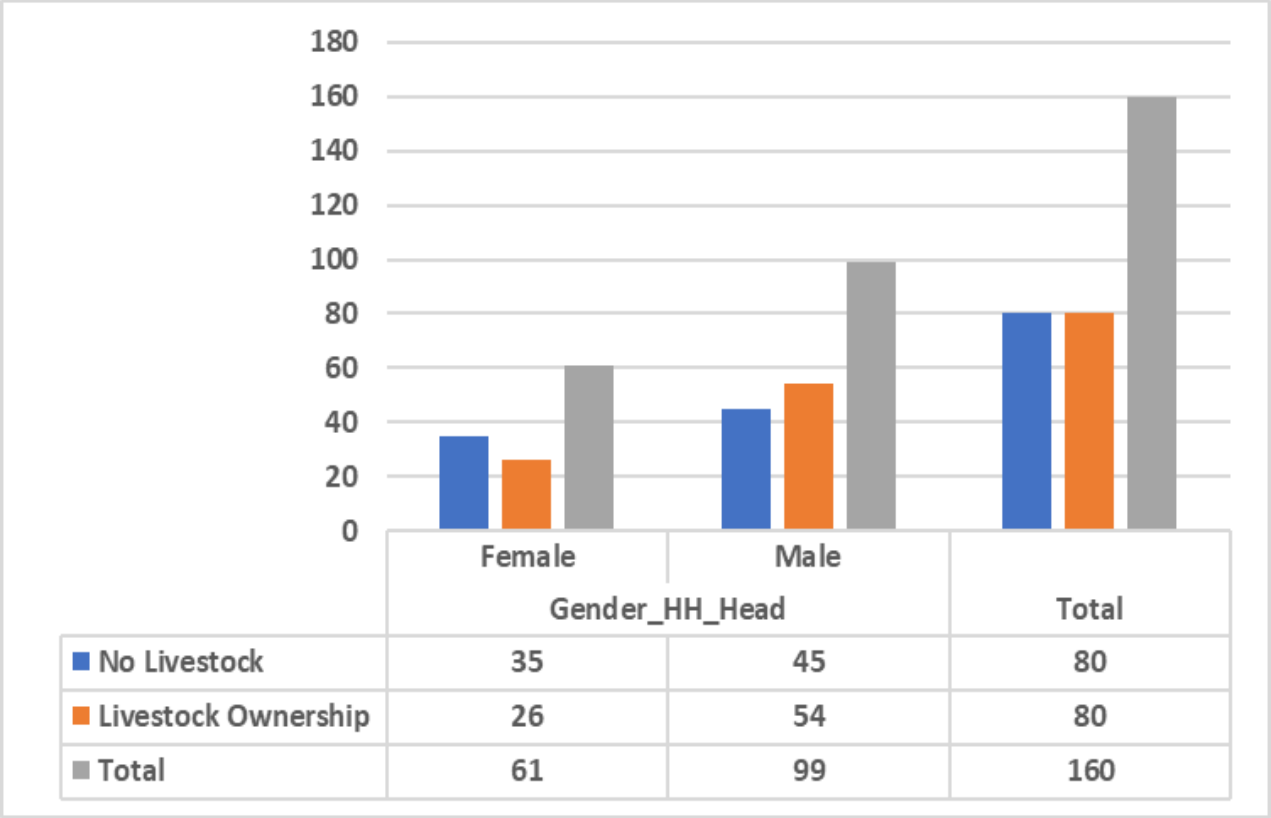

Figure 4 5: Livestock ownership

Livestock farming is practiced by 50% of the participants. The respondents reported that thirty-five (22%) female-headed households did not own livestock together with forty-five (28%) male-headed households. Fifty-four (67%) male-headed households owned livestock including only twenty-six (33%) female-headed households. Turner (1993) in Mekbib et al (2012:145) reiterated that second to crop production; livestock farming plays an important role economically and socially. Furthermore, large stock like cattle is raised to support subsistence livelihoods as they provide milk, dung for fuel, meat supply and can be used as draught animals.

Small livestock is used for wool and mohair production especially for those staying near the hills and mountain zones of Lesotho. The results suggested increased vulnerability to food insecurity on female households than male households where livestock supports livelihoods. The simple reason been that few females own livestock and traditionally male roles is to care and look after livestock.

4.5 Gender roles in agricultural activities

According to the FAO report (2011) in UNDP (2012:39), women constitute 20% to 50% of agricultural labour in developing countries and 79% in the least developed countries. Doss (2011) in UNDP (2012:45) further argues that agriculture is the primary economic activity for economically active women. Women's percentage involvement in agricultural activities ranges from 36% in Cote d'voire (Ivory Coast) and Niger to over 60% in Lesotho, Mozambique and Sierra Leone. It is further cited that although men play crucial role in household food production, they face fewer challenges than women. Cultural traditions allow them to leave farms to search for employment elsewhere and leave women behind to struggle to feed families and make ends meet.

Respondents in the study confirmed that agriculture is the main livelihood system for families in Maneo ED. In addition, men and women participated in crop and livestock production with differing degrees and levels of participation. Gender roles of households in farming activities like ploughing, planting, weeding, harvesting, threshing and chemical application was assessed and ownership of farming tools and their use also covered. For instance, ploughing and planting was completed with tractor use or livestock draught power; weeding, harvesting, threshing and chemical application was manually achieved at different degrees of participation for each gender.

The raising and caring for livestock is culturally reserved for a certain gender and may have negative impact on household food security. For instance, household food security can be attained

through sale of livestock, their products, or selling of produced foods. Household food security is affected if the power or right to sell, pricing, and decisions on household finances or property in times of need rest on a single gender.

4.6 Household farming assets

Farming success is subject to free access, ownership, proper and effective use of farming assets like draught animals, tools and inputs existing within the household. Commonly used farming assets in the study area were tractors, planters, ploughs, hand-hoes and ox-drawn-planters. Assessment of ownership and use of farming assets to find out which asset is mostly used by which gender within a household was conducted.

The UNDP report (2012:18) cited that agriculture and food security are typical of gendered proportions in that it forces women to play a lead role in agricultural production, food processing and marketing to secure food for their households. The official documents showing ownership of assets within a household frequently matched the percentage of household genders that purchased the asset and associated use according to Djebou et al (2017:65). The study observed production assets ownership and use to understand each gender's contribution.

4.6.1 Ownership and registration of production assets

Documented ownership of property, tools or any other material is defined as the right the owner has to use the property without restrictions. Doss et al. (2013:79) states that access to and ownership of land may differ based on the study or agenda in place. The use of rights to property or land and decision-making other than formal ownership of property, tools or land, are usually the basis for productivity studies. The study assessed formal ownership of farming tools or assets as a basis for gender disparity related to household food security as shown in Figure 4.6.

The Land Act no 8 of 2010 in Lesotho protects the rights of landowners without gender consideration if the holder is above 18 years of age. However, several forms of ownership include reported and documented ownership. The ownership is categorized as been reported and documented in the names of a male or female family member or both. The reported ownership refers to simply mentioning or saying with words that an asset belongs to someone without providing proof that can solidifying an ownership claim. The documented ownership is the one where the owner of the asset has proof or documents indicating ownership. The ownership of the asset can be registered in a book like a livestock-registration book, a receipt or any formal records.

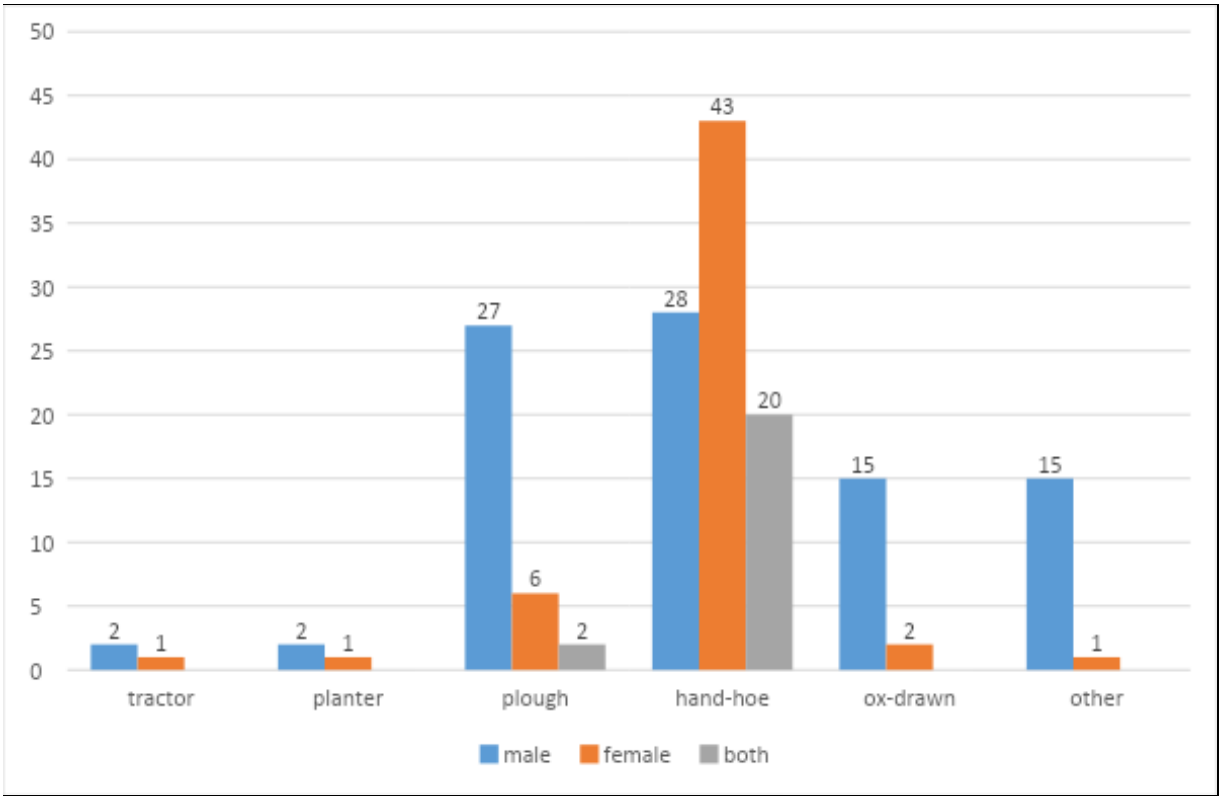

Figure 4.6: Assets ownership and registration

Doss et al. (2013:87) echoed that reported ownership is frequently used in studies; to measure types of accessibility to asset use rather than looking at documented ownership bearing registered certification and formal title deeds. Figure 4.6 shows registered ownership of useful assets in farming from the study area. The assessment looked at registered assets ownership in terms of male, female and both genders in a household.

The research assessed whether those said to own an asset had the right to use or sell it freely without an obligation to seek permission or consent from others. The fact that the name of a household member appeared on the registration document should not be the only reason to justify ownership title. The owner should have the right to use the asset with full rights tied to the country's laws and regulations. The ownership title should allow the household member to defend his or her rights to own the asset in case of threats to its tenancy.

Figure 4.6 shows that males in the study area have more registered ownership of farming assets than females or joint ownership when excluding a hand hoe farming tool. It is only the hand-hoe tool, which was owned by more women. Some farming tools like hand-hoes do not have certificates, but receipts and ownership belong to whoever purchased or holds formal receipts for the said tool.

4.6.2 Use of production assets

The use of production assets highlights the extent to which farming technology is used within the study area. Use of tractors and other mechanised equipment suggests improvement from traditional farming practices grounded on draught power. Djebou et al (2017:94) suggests that the use of agricultural technologies like tractors and other mechanized tools can improve production and reduce poverty. The reduction of poverty can increase people's resilience to disasters like drought.

FAO (2008:21) mentioned that there are strong gender-based connections related to use and ownership of farming tools and equipment. These connections showed gender differences in performing household tasks and farming. There is also a link between asset use and purchases, each gender frequently used tools directly purchased or owned by themselves as shown in Figure 4.6. Many studies also found a relationship between source of farming power and household wealth status. For instance, most poor households rely more on family labour and hand tools while the rich own and use mechanized and high technology equipment like tractors.

Table 4.7: Production asset use

Asset	Male	Female	Both	None	Total
Tractor	2	0	0	158	160
Planter	7	2	2	149	160
Plough	25	11	3	121	160
Ox-drawn planter	13	2	0	145	160
Hand hoe	27	42	19	72	160
Other	10	3	0	147	160

Commonly used production assets found in the study are shown in Table 4.7. The rate at which each gender used the assets is reported. The results revealed the hand-hoe is used the most by both genders with female dominance. The hand-hoe according to Berhe et al (2001) in FAO (2008:107) is a universal hand tool used for many operations ranging from land clearance and digging, to rigging and weeding. The plough is the second frequently used asset while an ox-drawn planter is the third. Males with the exception of the hand-hoe mostly use other assets.

4.6.3 Livestock ownership registration

Males dominate livestock ownership with 68% while females constituted only 32%. Maneo ED, being a peri-urban area, most people rely on livestock for farm power, supply of milk or meat and livestock sales to meet their household dietary needs.

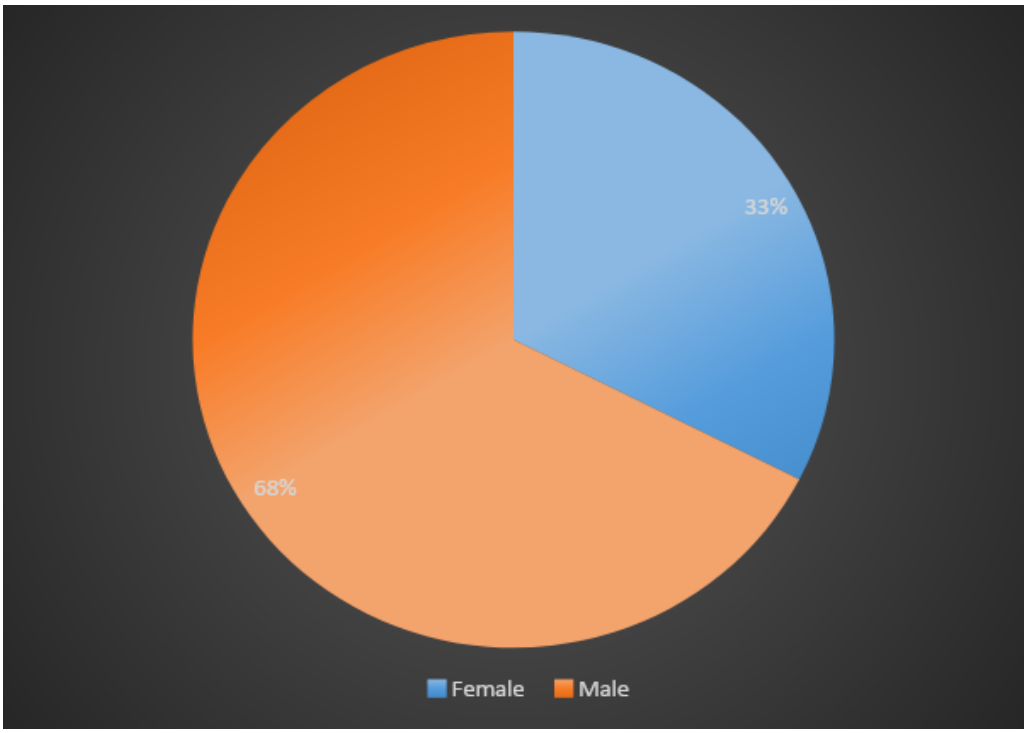

Figure 4.7: Livestock ownership registration

Most female respondents only reported ownership of the livestock, but could not produce any documented papers, while most of their male counterparts had documents proving livestock ownership. It was only in widowed household heads where female members had registered livestock ownership.

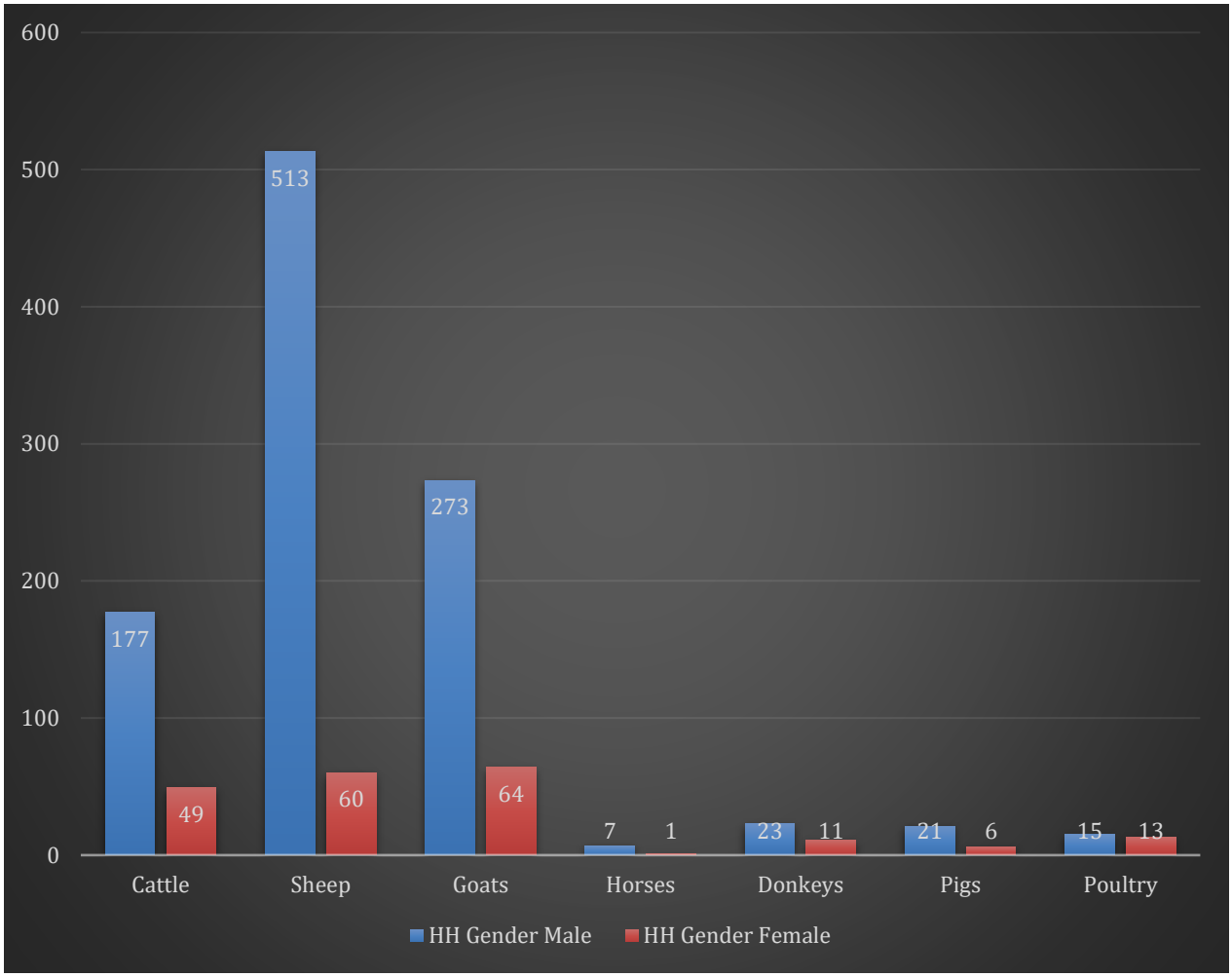

Figure 4.8: Number and type of livestock ownership

Figure 4.8 shows livestock ownership per household head gender. Males dominated all types of livestock ownership as seen in Figure 4.8. It is only with small livestock like poultry where reared numbers are close to equal for both genders. Figure 4.8 results implied that whatever benefits that could be derived from use of livestock and their products would be of more help to males than females.

4.6.4 Caring for livestock

Gender and food security studies done in India, Tanzania and Kenya indicated that mostly men are responsible for the care of livestock. Table 4.8 indicates that rural and peri-urban households raise cattle and small ruminants to support their livelihoods. In terms of gender division of labour in Lesotho and according to the ADB report (2005:13) livestock production, range management, ploughing and planting of crops are the responsibility of men.

Table 4.8: Caring for livestock

HH Gender	Both	Man	Woman	No L/stock	Total
Female	3	12	12	34	61
Male	5	41	8	45	99
Total	**8**	**53**	**20**	**79**	**160**

According to the Index Mundi report (2018:21), more males in Lesotho emigrate to South African mines in search of wage paying jobs and leave women to take care of the families. This has forced women to accept tasks that were previously the domain of males. Table 4.8 revealed that in the study area, men (33%) are still dominating on caring for livestock although significant numbers of females (13%) are recorded with a lesser number of both genders (5%) sharing the tasks. Forty-nine (49%) of respondents did not own any livestock. This means that (49%) of people are exposed to food insecurity as livestock provides draught power and other products like meat, milk and money through sales.

4.7 Decision making in the household

This section covers matters related to household decisions such as which gender has more control over finances or registered banking rights. It also highlights who makes decisions concerning food purchases and what to prepare, sales and pricing of livestock and vegetables. The study assessed which gender had power to issue work assignments within the household as this could affect family livelihood and food security status.

According to IANR (2018:28), gender equality on access to assets, land, technology, technical information, extension services, and livestock and farm inputs is hard for women to obtain. The issue of gender equality is a common problem in Asian and African countries. Todaro and Smith (2012) in IANR (2018:129) add that gender discrimination in credit markets and family practices regarding property ownership makes it difficult for women to obtain credit because of lack of collateral. In the end, women are unable to buy inputs that could increase output and their income.

Table 4.9 shows decisions related to some aspects of household food security where females influenced most decisions on food purchases, what to cook, crops planted, sales and pricing;

allocation of tasks and use of household finances. Males held the household banking account only. Joint household decisions were noted on livestock sales and pricing.

Table 4.9: Household decisions

Decisions on:	Male	Female	Both	None
Food purchases	28	113	19	0
What to cook	20	119	18	3
Livestock sales	14	14	16	116
Livestock pricing	13	11	16	120
Crop sales	6	18	14	122
Crop pricing	7	19	14	120
Crops to plant	23	29	38	70
HH tasks	30	50	43	38
HH finances	43	67	42	8
HH bank a/c holder	31	24	12	93

The higher records of '**None**' responses on livestock sales (116) and pricing (120); crops sales (122) and pricing (120) in Table 4.9 were because the respondents were not involved in any of the activities where decisions are listed or were absent.

4.8 Impact of the 2016/15 drought

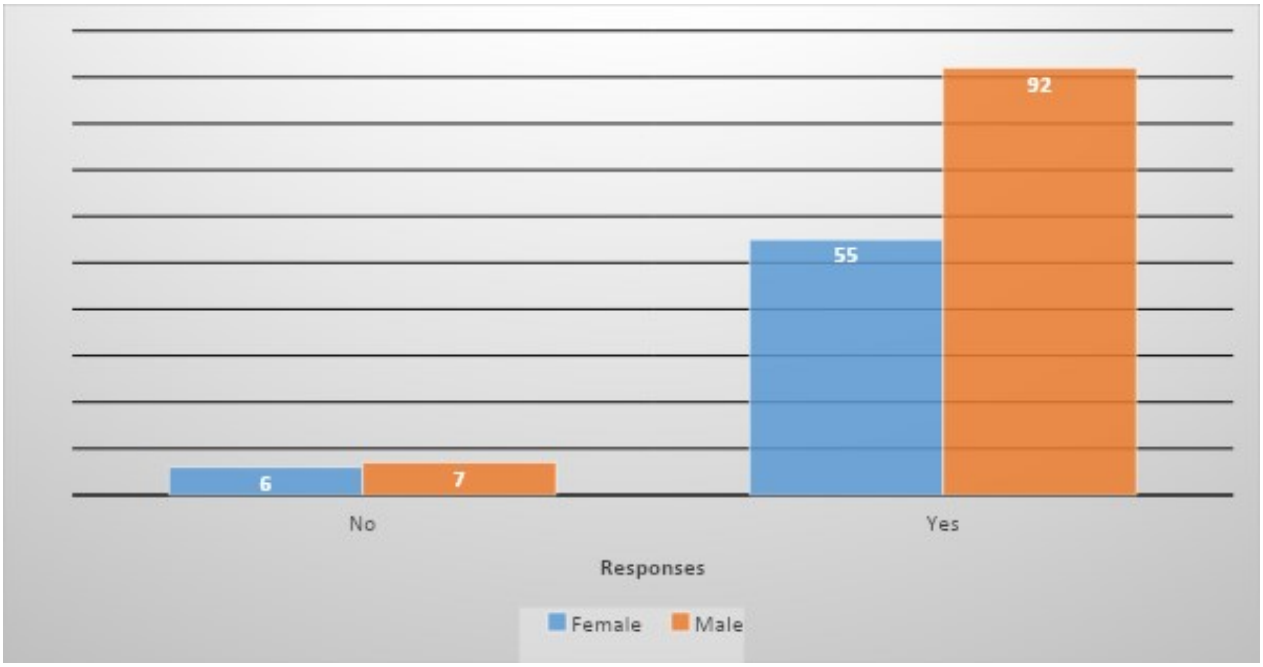

Figure 4.9: Households affected by the drought

Ninety-two (92) male and fifty-five (55) female household heads in the study area were severely affected by the 2015/16 drought while seven males (7) and six (6) females were not affected. Most of the respondents that reported not being affected by the drought were living in South Africa at the time when the area was hit by the drought. Others survived through strong network support from remittances received from household members working in South Africa. Of the 92% affected by drought, 58% were males and 34% females. The 8% that was unaffected consisted of 4% males and 4% females.

4.9 Summary

The results indicated the existence of male dominance on many facets of household food security activities. The majority of the respondents for all age categories had only reached primary education followed by no schooling. More male household heads attained primary education than females. Many households supported 4 to 6 members with an estimated monthly earnings ranging from R101.00 to R1000.00 from informal self-employment and temporary jobs.

Men own most household farming assets, women dominate only on hand-hoe ownership. Males also dominated on issues related to livestock management and care with female's figures indicating an improvement on sharing of responsibility that was previously reserved for males. This is an indication of positive change on gender roles that have long been monopolized. All household

decisions were made by women with the exception of the banking account that remained in the custody of men.

The majority, 98% of the households were negatively affected by the 2015/16 drought with considerable change in the roles on livestock management and financial decisions being taken by women. Food production and livestock management were the main sources of livelihoods affected by drought in the study area. The next chapter discusses the findings, recommendations and conclusions.

Chapter 5: Findings, conclusions and recommendations

5.1 Introduction

Men and women play different roles to secure food for their families. The role of women is to produce, process and prepare food for the household as cited by Kalansooriva & Chandramumara (2014:145). Women are household managers and food providers for their families, which makes them key players in overcoming food insecurity at household level. The study explored the contribution of both genders to household food security in Lesotho. The focus was on the Southern lowland districts of Mohales'hoek, Mafeteng and Quthing; Maneo village or ED in Mohales'hoek.

The southern districts were affected more than other districts during the 2015/16 drought. Organisations started many drought mitigation projects to support vulnerable groups with food and other needs. The study established that many factors contributed to imbalances regarding the roles played by men and women to secure food for their families during drought. The study established that household head age, marital status and education played a significant role regarding how people access jobs, own farmland and livestock, and make important decisions within the household. This chapter provides a summary of findings, recommendations and concludes the study. This is in line with the studies done in 2017 and 2018 by various organisations like Lesotho Vulnerability Assessment Committee, World Food Programme and World Vision.

5.2 Findings

The study showed that majority of people living in Maneo ED depend on seasonal livestock and crop farming jobs to sustain their livelihoods. The use of animal power is the most practiced and affordable crop production means. Most household heads are males as shown by 62% of the respondents and 38% females. Married and widowed household heads with 50% and 28% dominated participation in the study respectively. Single household heads made up 11%, never married and separated shared 5% while divorced stayed at 1%. Widowed household heads had a higher number of females at 80% and males at only 20%. The results suggested that widowed women are more exposed to food insecurity and gender inequality than males. Food security studies indicated that widows, orphans, disabled and elderly people are classified as vulnerable groups to food insecurity and other socio-economic challenges.

Most households comprised 4 to 6 members creating an average of five members per household. This is in line with the LVAC (2017:18) report on the average household size in Lesotho. Most

household heads have primary education, followed by no schooling, secondary and tertiary education. Economically active household heads are mostly unemployed and those working get a monthly wage of between R101.00 and R1000.00 from self-employment, formal and informal employment. The number of women engaged in food security activities is higher than that of men. However, women's rights are marginal than those of their male counterparts. This is reflected by the ownership of household production assets like land, livestock and farming tools that are mostly registered and controlled by males. Widowed women are the only group with registered assets. Many women have *reported* ownership that forces them to seek male consent to gain control and use the assets freely.

The study also found that females make most of the decisions related to food use at household level and that males' only control the banking account. Women make most decisions ranging from livestock and crops sales to pricing and assigning of household duties and others. Although most women do not control the household banking account, they have a say on how, when and what the finances are used for. A noticeable changing trend was observed concerning decision making about livestock sales. Gender studies in Lesotho have shown that livestock care and management used to be reserved for males. There are many discoveries from the study not stated here as the focus was on the impact of gender roles on food security at household level.

5.2.1 Farming

The study found that two farming practices, that is livestock and crop farming are the main sources of sustainable household food security. Crop farming has the following attributes:

- Crop farming is the main source of food production and job creation that sustains household livelihoods in the area.
- Men dominate ownership of production assets such as land, tools and their use. For instance, they hold larger acreage of farmland; have most of farming tools like tractors, ploughs and planters registered under their names.
- Land ownership is dominated by reported ownership for women and *registered* ownership for men. Women have limited rights to free use and control of land while men exercise complete rights and control.
- Individual crop production and sharecropping are prominent land use practices in the study area and are dominated by men.

Livestock farming has the following attributes:

- Livestock farming is second to crop production in the study area according to the LVAC (2016:4) survey report findings.
- More men own livestock than women for all types of livestock in the study area. This is different to some countries and cultures like in Botswana, where women and children own most of the small livestock like poultry according to Okitoi et al (2007) in Oladele & Monkhei (2008:132). In Ethiopia, women own more chickens than men (Yisehak, 2008:44).
- Women's role in caring for livestock increased as most men left their homes in search of employment far from home. It should be noted that livestock caring was customarily reserved for males and uncommon for women in the study and in Lesotho as stated in some studies.
- More men than women had *registered* ownership of livestock while women had *reported* ownership title. This implied that women do not have total control and rights over livestock.

5.2.2 Farming assets ownership and use

Men own and use most of the production assets in the study area. These included tractors, planters, ploughs, ox-drawn planter and tools like cultivators. The study discovered that men have registered ownership of assets and women have *reported* ownership. The only females with *registered* assets were from widowed female household heads. The study observed asset ownership in view of gender dominance and shared control between men and women living in 'Maneo village. The results indicated that tractors, planters, Ox-drawn planters and other tools like cultivators were mostly owned and used by men. The hand-hoe is the only tool where women dominate ownership and use.

The results also indicated that the hand-hoe and plough are the only tools where records of shared ownership and use existed, and this agrees with the UNDP (2017:13) report. Increased poverty in Lesotho is due to many factors that include gender inequality and equity. Early child marriage and existing cultural practices prevent women from inheriting property. This promotes unequal access and control of resources and economic activities as observed from the ownership and use of farming assets in the study.

5.2.3 Household decision making

Women's role in household decision making according to Oladele & Monkhei (2008:145) can be strengthened by placing assets in their hands. Control of assets can increase their bargaining power, decision-making and family expenditure on important issues like children's education and health. Wanjala (2014:173) reiterated that gender inequalities are due to limited interaction between legal rights and social norms forming critical indicators of women empowerment. Household decisions are critical features of food security and the study revealed that most women in the study area make decisions regarding household food security in the area of:

- Food purchases
- What to cook
- Which crops to plant
- Pricing and sales of crops

Trends observed concerning decision making include -

- Assigning household tasks to other members of the family.
- Directing how family finances should be spent even though they do not control the household bank account.
- Men control household finances through ownership of the bank account, which subscribes to the common saying that, 'he who holds money, controls the world'. Women decide on the expenditure but do not hold the family account. This makes them subordinate to their male counterparts, jeopardising the household economic growth as women carry out most of the farming activities.
- An increase in the sharing of decision-making concerning livestock pricing and sales used to be reserved for men.

Household decision-making is a complex process that depends on many factors. These include location of the area, cultural practices and education, earning power, employment status, age and many others according to Mader & Schneebaum (2013:78). The study was carried out in a peri-urban area where many people depend on farming as a source of food security. The household decisions results are supported by other gender studies. Women make most of the individual decisions on everyday purchases and children's needs while men focus on financial control.

Mader & Schneebaum (2013:92) stated that the earnings of an individual, education, age and culture-influenced character together with social standing; plays a big role on how decisions are made at household level. For instance, men make decisions about livestock sales and keeping of household bank account to boost their earning power. This supports the cultural norm that men are heads of households and therefore deserve the best share of household earnings. Mader & Schneebaum (2013:95) stated that the gender with higher education, earning or who is employed or hold rights to possessions; makes more decisions than the other partner in a financially depressed household. In contrast, O'Neil & Domingo (2015:137) stated that, where both partners have equal or equivalent education, earning power and employment status decisions are usually done jointly.

The varying education, employment, age and earning power of household heads observed from the results are in line with the conclusions reached by Nosheen et al. (2009:173). Women from developing countries in Asia and Africa are more involved in decisions related to family, farming, social, and economic matters. Males are the main decision makers as seen from this study results. There are noticeable decision-making role changes regarding livestock sales, which used to be reserved for men and are now being shared between men and women in the study area.

5.3 Recommendations

The study came up with some recommendations that could alleviate the negative impact of gender roles on food insecure household in 'Maneo ED, the Southern Lowlands districts and other areas. Gender roles cut across household, community, national and continental food production, access and utilisation levels. A few recommendations were made based on the results derived from household head gender roles on crop and livestock production, assets and decisions discussed in chapter 4 and previous sections of this chapter.

5.3.1 Crop production

Because of the drought in Lesotho, many males have left home in search of jobs. This leaves women with the responsibility to feed the families. Those owning farming land take all farming responsibilities like land tilling, planting, hoeing, harvesting, threshing and inputs purchasing in the absence of their male counterparts. Women should be sensitized to exercise their rights to entitlements and ownership of land supported by the Land Act of 2010 that allows them to register land in their names.

5.3.2 Livestock production

Women play a prominent role in agriculture including animal production and their products to withstand food insecurity and uplift household incomes. The study recommends male education about the laws that grant females the right to own and utilise family assets to support household needs. This will be another way to share family responsibilities, minimize disaster shocks, and promote resilience.

5.3.3 Household assets

Assets ownership and use at household level can boost household food production and purchases when used wisely and fairly by both male and female members. The study results exhibited that although women play vital roles on food security; they do not hold *registered* ownership like men but have *reported* ownership. The ownership does not grant them full rights to utilise assets like their male counterparts. It is recommended that special programmes are designed to train and capacitate both women and men to support women to claim their rights regarding household assets or property.

Most women living in areas like Maneo ED are not aware of laws like the *Companies' Amendment Act of 2008* that allows them to own or form companies or enterprises. Women can manage the companies and get loans or credits from commercial institutes to uplift their livelihood statuses. This knowledge is essential for women because most males stay and work away from homes. They cannot offer quick household food security and other solutions requiring use, exchange or sales of some assets to uplift household food security and promote resilience to disaster shocks like drought.

5.3.4 Household decisions

There is a need to train women about developments related to gender, governance and human rights. Training can be done through government and non-government organisations working on social behavior change that promote gender equality and equity. Legally registered organisations working with women and children like Lesotho Council of Non-government Organisations (LCN), Lesotho National Council of Women (LNCW), Lesotho National Women Parliamentary Caucus (LNWPC) and similar bodies, can advocate for women's rights to be implemented at all levels of the society.

The organisations and government departments should persuade relevant law departments or authorities to educate the society about laws like *the Legal Capacity of Married Persons Act of 2006* that put women at par with their male counterparts. This will speed up significant developments concerning household decisions and changes of roles reserved for a single gender. Women need to be taught life skills to participate equally with their male counterparts on household issues for better household food security.

5.4 Conclusion

The Lesotho Gender Policy of 2003 strengthens all laws related to the development of gender equity and equality by promoting awareness in all forms for all sectors in Lesotho. The aim of the policy is to facilitate regular gender training and awareness, provide training and management procedures; Programme design and implementation responding to gender equity and equality. The policy supports *The Local Government Act of 1997* that was later amended to the *2004 Electoral Act.* The 1997 Act ensured that at least a third (1/3) of all contested electoral divisions was reserved for women to encourage their participation in local governance. The Act was changed in 2011 to *Local Government Election Act* that reserved 30% quota for women to be elected into the local councils.

The study concluded that women play significant roles in household food security. However, they do not fully enjoy the rights accorded to them as stated in the laws and policies captured in the study. Women shy away from challenging old fading cultural norms. This gives men more power and control on many issues that include household food security, assets control and decisions.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE

INTRODUCTION

I am a student at the University of the Free State, Disaster Management Training and Education Center for Africa (DiMTEC). I am conducting research on **"Assessing the impact of gender roles on food insecure households in Lesotho".** Your area has been identified as it was badly affected by food insecurity during 2015/ 2016 drought. Please may you help me complete this survey by answering the questionnaire as honestly as possible? Participation is voluntary and you will not be asked to produce any form of identification. If you are not comfortable to participate you may withdraw anytime. The information that will be collected will be used for academic purposes only.

Note: HH ----household

Please can you tick your responses or alternatively write your response in the spaces provided!

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME!!!!!!

A. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Gender:

1	Male	
2	Female	

2. Marital status:

1	Married	
2	Single	
3	Divorced	
4	Separated	
5	Widowed	
6	Never married	
7	Other (specify)	

3. Gender of the household head if you are not HH head:

1	Male	
2	Female	

4. What is your relationship with the HH head?

1	Self	
2	Spouse	
3	Daughter	
4	Son	
5	Uncle	
6	Aunt	
7	Grandfather	
8	Grandmother	
9	Other (Specify)	

5. Age of HH head in years?

1	>18	
2	18-24	
3	25-39	
4	40-49	
5	50-59	
6	60 and above	

6. Employment status of the HH head?

1	Unemployed	
2	Self employed (informal)	

3	Self employed (formal)	
4	Formal employment	
5	Other (specify)	

7. Highest educational status of the HH head

1	No schooling	
2	Primary schooling	
3	Secondary schooling	
4	Tertiary education	

B. SOCIO ECONOMIC ASPECTS OF A HOUSEHOLD

8. How many people are in this HH?

Number of HH members by age and gender.

	9. Male	**10.** Female
1	>18	
2	18-24	
3	25-39	
4	40-49	
5	50-59	
6	60 and above	

11. How many people are working in the HH?

12. Source of income for HH head.

1	No income	
2	Social grant	
3	Remittances	
4	Formal salary (with formal employment	
5	Wages (with contractual employment)	
6	Own business	
7	Pension	
8	Earnings (e.g. from vending or petty trade)	
9	Casual Labour	

10	Livestock sales	
11	Crop sales	
12	Remittances	
13	Other (Specify)	

13. What is the total HH monthly income in Rands?

1	None	
2	>50	
3	100-500	
4	501-1000	
5	1000-3000	
6	3001-5000	
7	Above 5000	

C. HOUSEHOLD ASSETS:

14. Does your HH have access to farming land?

1	Yes	
2	No	

15. Estimate the total land you have for agriculture acres.

1	> 1	
2	2– 5	
3	6– 10	
4	>11	

16. Who owns the land you are using?

1	Self	
2	Borrowed	
3	Rented	
4	Share cropping	
5	Block farming	
6	Other (Specify)	

17. Which **main** crop do you mainly plant?

1	Maize	
2	Wheat	
3	Sorghum	
4	Beans	
5	Peas	
6	Potatoes	
7	Pumpkins	

8	Vegetables (*moroho*, tomatoes, carrots etc.	
9	Others (Specify)	

18. List other crops you also plant from list given in Q17:

_____

_____

_____

D. GENDER ROLES IN AGRICULTURAL ACTIVITIES

Who does the activity in the HH?

		Male	Female	Both
19.	Ploughing			
20.	Planting			
21.	Weeding			
22.	Harvesting			
23.	Threshing			
24.	Chemical spraying			

25. If this is your land, whose names appear on the registration documents?

1	Man	
2	Woman	
3	Both	

Livestock

26. Do you own Livestock

1	Yes	
2	No	

How many of the following livestock does your HH own?

	Livestock	**Number**
27.	Cattle	
28.	Sheep	
29.	Goats	
30.	Horses	
31.	Donkeys	
32.	Pigs	
33.	Poultry	
34.	Other (specify)	

35. Who looks after livestock?

1	Man	
2	Woman	
3	Both	

36. Whose name is the HH livestock ownership title registered?

1	Man	
2	Woman	
3	Both	

Who has any of the following functional production assets in your HH?

		Male	Female	Both
37.	Tractor			
38.	Planter			
39.	Plough			
40.	Hand hoe			
41.	Ox-drawn planter			
42.	Other (specify)			

Who uses which of the mentioned HH production assets?

		Male	Female	Both
43.	Tractor			
44.	Planter			
45.	Plough			
46.	Hand hoe			
47.	Ox-drawn planter			
48.	Other (specify)			

Under whose name are the HH assets registered?

		Male	Female	Both
49.	Tractor			
50.	Planter			
51.	Plough			
52.	Hand hoe			
53.	Ox-drawn planter			
54.	Other (specify)			

E. DECISION MAKING IN THE HOUSEHOLD

55.	Who decides which food to purchase?	Male	Female	Both
56.	Who decides what should be cooked?			
57.	Who decides what livestock to sell?			

58.	Who decides the price of the livestock?			
59.	Who decides what crops should be sold?			
60.	Who decides on the crop price?			
61.	Who decides which crops should be planted?			
62.	Who assigns family members farming tasks?			
63.	Who is responsible for the family finances?			
64.	Who owns the family bank account?			

65. Were you affected by 2015/16 drought that affected Lesotho?

1	Yes	
2	No	

66. If yes, explain how you were affected.

_____

_____

_____

67. If no, how did you manage to avoid the drought effects?

_____

_____

_____

68. Is there anything that the males and females in your HH do differently now after the 2015/16 drought disaster?

_____

_____

_____

69. If there are any differences in gender roles as stated in **Q68**, what do you think are the reasons for that?

_____

_____

_____

70. If there are no differences in gender roles as stated in **Q68,** how has this affected household food insecurity?

_____

_____

_____

71. How do you think these differences/no differences in gender roles are assisting in increasing household food security?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank you for your time!!!!!!!

Appendix 2: Ethical Clearance

Natural and Agricultural Sciences Research Ethics Committee

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Faculty of Natural and Agricultural Sciences

10-Oct-2018

Dear **Mr Joseph Mokati**

Ethics Clearance: **Assessing the impact of gender roles on food insecure households in Lesotho: A case of 'Maneo village in Southern Lowland district.**

Principal Investigator: **Mr Joseph Mokati**

Department: **DiMTEC Department (Bloemfontein Campus)**

APPLICATION APPROVED

This letter confirms that a research proposal with tracking number: **UFS-HSD2018/1206** and title:

'Assessing the impact of gender roles on food insecure households in Lesotho: A case of 'Maneo village in Southern Lowland district.' was given ethical clearance by the Ethics Committee.

Your ethical clearance number, to be used in all correspondence is: **UFS-HSD2018/1206**

Please ensure that the Ethics Committee is notified should any substantive change(s) be made, for whatever reason, during the research process. This includes changes in investigators. Please also ensure that a brief report is submitted to the Ethics Committee on completion of the research.

The purpose of this report is to indicate whether or not the research was conducted successfully, if any aspects could not be completed, or if any problems arose that the Ethics Committee should be aware of.

Note:

This clearance is valid from the date on this letter to the time of completion

1. of data collection.

2. Progress reports should be submitted annually unless otherwise specified.

Yours Sincerely

Dr. Karen Ehlers

Chairperson: Ethics Committee

Faculty of Natural and Agricultural Sciences

Appendix 3: Participants' Filled Consent Form

UNIVERSITY OF THE FREE STATE
UNIVERSITEIT VAN DIE VRYSTAAT
YUNIVESITHI YA FREISTATA
UFS UV

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY (Ho lumela ho nka Karolo boithutong)

('Na) I, MAPALEO MATSOLO ([**Lebitso**]participant name), confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation. **(Ke tiisa hore motho ea nkopileng ho ka karolo litabeng tsa boithuto bona o mphile lintlha tsohle tse amanang le tse ka nkamang ka ho nka karolo boithutong bona)**

I have read (or had explained to me) and understood the study as explained in the information sheet. I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty (if applicable). I am aware that the findings of this study will be anonymously processed into a research report, journal publications and/or conference proceedings. **(Ke utloisisa taba tsa boithuto bo boletsoeng ebile ke botsitse lipotso moo ke sa hlakeloeng. Ke amohela ho ka karolo boithutong bona ka boithaopo joaloka ha ke na le boikhethelo ba ho ikhula ho bona ha ke lakatsa joalo. Ke etse hloko hore boithuto bona bo tla qetella ka khatiso le tlaleho e tla phatlalatsoa le ho baloa ke batho ba bang).**

I agree to the recording of the *insert specific data collection method*. **(ke amohela ho botsoa lipotso le hore likarabo tsaka li ngoloe pampiring ea likarabo)**

I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement. **(Ke fuoe pampiri eo ho itekenoang ho eona e le sesupo sa hore ha kea qobelloa hon ka karolo boithutong bona)**

Full Name of Participant:(**Mabitso a motho ea nkang karolo**) MAPALEO MATSOLO

Signature of Participant: (**Tekeno**) M MATSOLO Date: (**Letsatsi**) 13/11/2018

Full Name(s) of Researcher(s): (**Mabitso a moithuti**) Joseph Mabati

Signature of Researcher: (**Tekeno ea Moithuti**) Date:(**Letsatsi**) 13-11-18

205 Nelson Mandela Drive/Rylaan, Park West/Parkwes, Bloemfontein 9301, South Africa/Suid-Afrika
P.O. Box/Posbus 339, Bloemfontein 9300, South Africa/Suid-Afrika, T: +27(0)51 401 9111, www.ufs.ac.za

Appendix 4: Study Report

UFS-HSD2018/1206 (Joseph T.W. Mokati)

Research Completion Report:

Assessing the Impact of Gender Roles on Food Insecure Households in Lesotho: A Case of 'Maneo Village in Southern Lowland District.

The above indicated study data collection was completed with success. The study began with recruitment and training of three questionnaire administrators. The questionnaire was pre-tested with enumerators at a different location to the study area on day one. The minimum planned house-to-house and face-to-face interviews were 150 and the team attained 161 from 300 targeted households in 7 sub-villages constituting 'Maneo village/area or electoral division (ED). Data collection began on 11th and ended on the 16thNovember 2018.

Achievement/s:

- Planned interviews were exceeded by 11 and all 7 sub-villages forming 'Maneo Village or ED were covered.
- All household adult categories of Married, Divorced, Separated, Single, widowed and never-married were reached.
- Most respondents were registered under the disaster management authority as food insecure and received food assistance in 2015/2016 drought disaster (Got Ideal target group).
- Both masculine and feminine genders were interviewed
- Data collection was completed in 4 days although was planned for 5 days.

Challenges:

- Some households had to be omitted though randomly picked due to strong sites fencing that made them unapproachable by interviewers.
- Households guarded with 'biting' dogs and no one to protect interviewers were avoided.
- 2 of the 7 community leaders were opposed to the study fearing it will promote women movements to oppose male leadership at household level. They were objected and voted out by other 5 leaders that supported the study.
- The weather condition was at times windy and dusty, or too hot and prompted interviewers to start too early in the morning and stop when it is getting warm until it was cooler in the afternoon.
- Some respondents were too busy with household chores and could not welcome interviewers.
- The Elizabeth Glaser Paediatric AIDS Foundation (EGPAF) was registering clients for support in the same area on the last day of data collection and respondents expected data collectors to register them for HIV support.

Conclusion:

Generally, the study was successfully completed, and data cleaning and capturing has started.

Appendix 5 : Confirmation letter

H.D.K.M

LANGUAGE AND TECHNICAL EDITING • PROOFREADING • PLAGARISM CHECKING • ACADEMIC RESEARCH (HONS AND MASTERS) AND PROJECT SUPERVISION • BUSINESS PROPOSAL

22 January 2020

LETTER OF CONFIRMATION

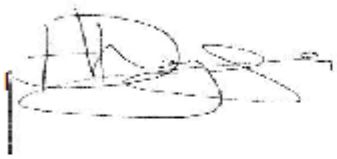
I hereby confirm that I have done the language editing for the following dissertation:

Author:	Joseph Tsoeu Washi Mokati
Title:	Assessing the impact of gender roles on food insecure households in Lesotho: A case study of 'Mano village in Southern Lowland district
Document:	Master of Disaster Management

This letter serves to confirm that I have edited Mr J Mokati document and I have made appropriate changes and highlighted areas that the student needs to revisit. The document was edited using track changes and comments in Microsoft word.

I am not responsible for any additional information that is added to the document after I have edited it. The student is responsible for the final document submitted.

I trust you find the above in order.



Hazvinei Majonga

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