



The impact of non-governmental organisations' development programmes in addressing food security in Chief Mazivofa, Mberengwa District, Zimbabwe

MS Hove

 **orcid.org/0000-0002-6166-9299**



Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree *Master of Social Work* at the North West University

Supervisor: Dr E Smit

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Student number: 26781328

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DECLARATION

I, Mazorodze Simon Hove, declare that the dissertation entitled **"The impact of non-governmental organisations' developmental programmes in addressing food security in Chief Mazivofa, Mberengwa District, Zimbabwe"**, hereby submitted for the degree of Master of Social Work at the North-West University, has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other institution. I further declare that this is my own work in design and execution and that all materials contained herein have been duly acknowledged by means of complete references.

Signature.....

Date.....30/08/2019



ABSTRACT

Food insecurity is one of the biggest challenges faced by mankind. It is a main priority of governments and ranks second on the list of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) 2015 - 2030. With approximately 124 million people in about 51 countries facing acute food insecurity or worse (IPC level 3 or above), the full effects of this phenomenon hit the hardest in developing countries, especially in rural areas. Its causes range from climate change, economic meltdowns to political instability. While governments are trying to combat food insecurity, Non-Governmental Organisations have taken centre stage in this fight. Thus, the limelight that NGOs enjoy has attracted scrutiny on the impact of their programmes. The literature reveals that there are critical gaps in ascertaining the actual impact of programmes run by NGOs in addressing issues of food security. The biggest response by NGOs has been through relief aid and various income-generating as well as food production community projects. Given this context, the aim of this study was to be examine the impact of programmes implemented by NGOs in addressing food security challenges in Chief Mazivofa, using CARE as a case study.

A qualitative research approach was used when conducting this study and data collected through in-depth interviews with research participants. The findings show that economic and ecological factors are responsible for food insecurity in Chief Mazivofa, Mberengwa District, Zimbabwe. It was further revealed that while relief aid was highly impactful during emergency situations, and empowerment or long term programmes run by CARE had limited impact due to the top-down approach implemented by CARE. The top-down approach failed to appreciate local knowledge and to capture the community's expectations, thus resulting in unintended consequences such as relief aid dependency at the expense of productiveness, empowerment and sustainability. It is recommended that NGOs adopt models that are more inclusive, thus more empowering. It is specifically recommended the ABCD model as a model or approach, to be adopted by CARE and other NGOs in implementing their food security programmes.

Key words: NGOs, Development, Programmes, Food Security, Empowerment, Sustainability.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ABCD: Asset Based Community Development

CARE: Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere

FAO: Food and Agriculture Organisation

IPC: Integrated Phase Classification

LDS: Lutheran Development Service

NGOs: Non-Governmental Organisations

SDGs: Sustainable Development Goals

OECD: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development.

UNICEF: United Nations Children's Fund

UNDP: United Nations Development Programme

USAID: United States Agency for International Development

CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 Background to the study

In recent years, Zimbabwe has succumbed to an unprecedented political and economic crisis, characterised by rising market prices as well as poor harvests, resulting in food shortages (UNICEF, 2009). Chazovachii, Mutami & Bowora (2013:15) argue that this crisis has resulted in the deterioration of the livelihoods of people in Zimbabwe. Mawere (2011) as cited in Chazovachii *et al.* (2013:15), states that by mid-2005, the local currency had lost 99% of its value, the unemployment rate and cost of living had risen to extraordinary levels, and inflation representing a staggering 1280%. This situation resulted in the shrinking of services provided by the state. Thus, this socio-economic and political crisis created a void with regard to the provision of social services, which NGOs have since taken upon themselves to fill.

Chief Mazivofa Village is situated in the Midlands Province of Zimbabwe; an area rich in natural resources. Mining of iron-ore, asbestos, chrome, beryl, gold, emeralds and platinum takes place in this Province. Jerie & Matanga (2011:3) posit that Mberengwa lies in natural region four (4) of Zimbabwe's agro-ecological zones and is a hot and dry area most suitable for cattle ranching. Moyo (2008), cited in Jerie and Matanga (2011:6), provides a list of notorious drought years that have hit Zimbabwe, including Mberengwa (i.e. 1982-83; 1986-87; 1992-93; 2002-03; 2004-05; 2007-08, with the 1992-93 episode being the most gruesome). These natural catastrophes have been exploited by NGOs to intervene and alleviate their impact on a vulnerable population, and this partially explains the multifarious presence of these donors and aid agencies in the Midlands Province.

It has been observed that different NGOs established interests and influence in the area through haulage trucks that delivered food parcels to destitute households. For example, CARE provided relief food such as barley, maize, soya beans, cooking oil, bleach detergents, such as Jik and green bars of laundry soap. This observation is supported by Jerie & Matanga (2011:2), who maintain that in all these drought situations, the main response by NGOs was to deliver relief and food aid. Mberengwa is among Zimbabwe's most severely affected districts, and it is a normal trend for droughts to hit the area at least once in every two years. To address the

impact of these natural catastrophes, multiple NGOs have always been present in Mberengwa.

CARE began working in Zimbabwe in 1992 in response to a severe regional drought. After establishing a drought mitigation program, CARE began longer term developmental programs with local partners in building small dams, strengthening local microfinance institutions, and launching projects to assist small businesspersons in the rural areas. CARE Zimbabwe's overall goal is to empower disadvantaged and poor households to meet their basic needs. Programs promote sustainable livelihoods of poor and vulnerable people. CARE's food and nutrition security work spans from responding to emergencies to enabling people to sustainably increase productivity, access markets, build resilience to climate change, and ensure the nutrition of their families (CARE, 2019).

It is against this background that the role of CARE was examined as the organisation has become an alternative in addressing food security challenges in Chief Mazivofa. The aim of this study was to investigate and explore the scope of the impact of CARE programmes in addressing food security challenges in Chief Mazivofa's area, Maberengwa, Zimbabwe. The limelight that NGOs have been exposed to, has attracted serious concerns around the impact of their programming, thus the need for research on their activities. Edwards & Hulme (1996:4) argue that even though evaluation is commonly espoused as a tenet of good NGO work, the collective body of industry evaluations reveals very little about their actual impact. Mawere & Chingozha (2015:140) moot that such inadequacies necessitate further research to situate the capabilities of NGOs in executing the role that they purport to play in society.

1.2 Problem statement

Food insecurity is a major concern throughout the world. Its harsh effects strongly hit developing countries, where monetary checks tend to make the degree of this challenge deeper than it generally is in developed nations. The socio-economic and political meltdown in Zimbabwe incapacitated the state, thus creating a vacuum in the provision of social services, resulting in NGOs playing a central role in filling the void. While there is a strong presence of NGOs in Chief Mazivofa village, food insecurity remains a significant threat. It has been observed that the level of

development of those who receive help from NGOs is stagnant. One may speculate that development programmes spearheaded by NGOs are not effective or that they do not address the real needs of the Mazivofa community. If this is the case, then CARE first has to understand the contextual needs and challenges of this community and, subsequently, refocus its objectives to effectively address the real pressing issues.

It is assumed that given the number of years that NGOs have been operating in Mberengwa, they should by now have crafted and delivered enduring solutions towards food security and empowerment of locals. Such empowerment initiatives would have eliminated the dependency syndrome and sustained locals when NGOs cease to operate in the area. It is in the light of this apparent disconnection between interventionist development and lack of an empowered local population that the impact of NGO projects is questioned in this study. The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (1997) survey of such assessments as cited in Werker & Ahmed (2008:87) strongly indicates that there doesn't seem to be any concrete and dependable substantiation on the impact of development projects and programmes provided by NGOs. The most openly accessible programme evaluations by NGOs, such as case studies on a website, hardly contain thorough analysis and often do not provide an account for downbeat outcomes, thereby presenting a cosmetic impression of the efficacy of their interventionist programmes.

This study, therefore, sought to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent do programmes offered by CARE assist beneficiaries in order to attain food security?
2. What if any, are the empowerment strategies provided by CARE to beneficiaries of its food security programmes?
3. What are the views of the community regarding food security programmes offered by CARE? and
4. What are the challenges faced by CARE in its service provision efforts?

1.3 Aim and objectives of the study

The aim of this study was to investigate and explore the extent of the impact of CARE programmes in addressing challenges with regard to food security in Chief Mazivofa area, Mberengwa, Zimbabwe.

The Objectives of the study were to:

- Examine the extent to which CARE programmes yield food security to its beneficiaries;
- Assess the empowerment strategies employed by CARE to ensure food security for recipients;
- Explain how community members view food security programmes offered by CARE; and
- Identify and describe the nature of challenges faced by CARE in its service delivery efforts.

1.4 Significance of the study

1.4.1 To further research

De Vos *et al.* (2011:21) posit that Social Workers are increasingly getting positioned in NGOs that engage in social service and development activities. This study is important to the field of Social Work, as it seeks to provide an understanding of how NGOs operate in third world economies, including Zimbabwe. Furthermore, this study adds to existing knowledge in the field of Social Work, specifically with regard to working with NGOs. De Vos *et al.* (2011:24) argue that research targeted to develop knowledge and critical reflective practice, is vital and of international significance, as many countries continue to search for more appropriate modalities in response to changing national and global needs.

1.4.2 To policy

De Vos *et al.* (2011:24) argue that research in the field of policy and programme development, including the monitoring and evaluation of new policies and programmes, remains a critical priority. The study compliments this line of argument, especially if one considers the *modus operandi* of the Social Welfare Department and government in Zimbabwe. Such a study is relevant and useful in the sense that it provides an understanding of the impact of NGO projects. It also enlightens stakeholders on the scope and niche area for the operation of NGOs. Thus, this could assist government and the Department of Social Welfare to know areas that they should cover if they are not already covered by NGOs. In a nutshell, this study has a direct bearing on government policy formulations that guide the operations of NGOs.

1.4.3 To practice

This study is seminal to NGOs themselves as it gives them an independent assessment of their work and programmes. The study will in turn, assist NGOs to make reflections and judgements on their programmes; it also provides them with a chance to make informed decisions about the impact and effectiveness of future activities. This study has a direct bearing on the impact and sustainability of programmes run by NGOs, as it highlights their achievements and failures in the context of the area selected for the study.

This study is of significance to the community of Chief Mazivofa as well as the rest of Zimbabwe. It amplifies, for dependent communities, the scope and objectives of NGOs and situates them in the matrix of the power play entrenched in the structures of NGOs as institutions. In this manner, communities can actively work together with NGOs to ensure that they fully benefit from such intervention projects. This study also challenges the community and compels them to craft ways that ensure the sustainability of projects or services currently provided by NGOs.

1.5 Delimitation of the study

This study was confined to Chief Mazivofa village and no other village in Mberengwa. One of the reasons for choosing this area is because the researcher is familiar with the culture and language of the people in Chief Mazivofa village, thus it was easier to negotiate entry into the area. This did not only enable the researcher to negotiate entry but ensured that the quality of the research remained at a high standard. In 2012, a survey conducted by the Parliament of Zimbabwe for Mberengwa North constituency, revealed that the road network in Mberengwa was poor (Parliament of Zimbabwe, 2012:8), thus covering a larger area was strenuous for the researcher and may have compromised the quality of the study as the researcher would have had to cover some distances on foot. The researcher, however, in this respect, managed to cover physical distances in Chief Mazivofa area. Furthermore, Chief Mazivofa Village is home to most NGOs that operate in Mberengwa. Thus, the choice of CARE was reasonably representative and reflective of the role played by NGOs.

1.6 Definition of concepts

Non-Governmental Organisations

There is no clear-cut definition of NGOs. As a result, different schools of thought put forward various propositions and many of those propositions will be discussed in the literature review. However, to give us a taste of what it is that we are dealing with, Kane (1990) as cited in Forkour & Agyemang (2018:134) propounds that the concept of NGOs varies from charity in the noble or religious sense of the term, to political associations that primarily focus on local and popular development initiatives. This definition on its own is complicated and as a result, Kane (1990) as cited in Forkour & Agyemang (2018:134) simplifies the matter by proposing three criteria for the definition of NGOs:

- NGOs should be privately set up and structured; above this they should be autonomous in their financing and operational field activities.
- NGOs should be non-profit-making establishments that ensure their generous and charitable status.
- They should support development, as this is what fosters their public interest character even if the government's legislations limit the areas in which public interest can be exercised.

Food Security

FAO (2004a), as cited in Magombeyi, Taigbenu & Barron (2013:13) argue that the definition of food security has four intertwined scopes which are availability of food, access to food, utilization of food, and stability of available food at a household level. According to (Stats-SA, 2012) as cited in Magombeyi, Taigbenu & Barron (2013:13) Food insecurity transpires when one or more of these scopes are compromised, as no single scope guarantees food security individually. There are three sequential variations of food insecurity which are: i) seasonal food insecurity, that happens immediately before harvests when food supplies are limited and prices are high; ii) transitory food insecurity (acute) refers to short periods of extreme food insecurity, this are resultant of impulsive and abrupt happenings like climatic shocks, natural disasters or economic shocks; and iii) chronic food insecurity (moderate) alludes to long-term shortage which is closely linked to chronic poverty, lack of assets, and

structural deficiencies in the local food systems in the economy (Stats-SA, 2012) as cited in Magombeyi, Taigbenu & Barron (2013:13). Magombeyi, Taigbenu & Barron (2013:13) there for conclude arguing that achieving food security requires households to have adequate resources to obtain appropriate foods for a nutritious diet.

1.7 Overview of Literature and theoretical framework

The history of NGOs dates as far back as the 1960s. Barret (2002) as cited in Werker and Ahmed (2008:76) is argues that as early as 1964, over 6% of the United States government's foreign aid budget was channelled through voluntary agencies. Early government involvement with NGOs was in the form of food aid and freight as part of the Food for Peace programme. Voluntary agencies would take surplus food from the United States and distribute them to needy recipients in developing countries. The history of NGOs in Zimbabwe dates back to the early independence days (1980) and Chikwanha-Dzenga (1999), as cited in Moore & Moyo (2016:6), states that during this period, NGOs mostly assisted the state in the provision of social services and were encouraged to do so.

There is no clear-cut definition of the term NGO and defining the term has proved to be problematic. However, Gwarinda, Taylor & Masango (2015:119) define Non-governmental organisations as sovereign players that are comparatively permanent as well as driven by volunteerism and universalistic principles. They are fixated on providing social services to either complement state services or fill the gap left by the state. With the hype and attention that NGOs have received, a fair share of scrutiny has also followed. Banks, Hulme & Edwards (2015:707), thus, maintain as follows: *"Clearly, we are at a point in the NGO debate at which significant questions are being raised about the ability of NGOs to meet their long-term goals of social justice and transformation in the development discourse."* Banks *et al.* (2015:708) lament the weak roots of most NGOs in civil society of countries they work in as well as those where they generate resources; a weakness which limits impact and influence of NGOs as drivers of social change.

The World Report (2016:931) maintains that at least 2.8 million people in Zimbabwe (a fifth of the country's population) are facing food shortages. Ongoing droughts forced the government to declare a state of disaster in February 2015, even as the

international community scrambled to raise money necessary to mount a response. The Report further states that Zimbabwe, once known as the breadbasket of southern Africa, had suffered pockets of droughts over the past five years, but nothing on the scale of 2015. NGOs have exploited these natural catastrophes to intervene and alleviate their impact on a vulnerable population, and this partially explains the multifarious presence of these donors and aid agencies in the Midlands Province.

In understanding the impact of NGO programmes in addressing food security, the researcher was guided by the Systems and Ecological theories. The systems theory enabled the researcher to interrogate how the three rudiments (NGOs, Government and people from Chief Mazivofa village) work together towards attaining food security (Kirst-Ashman and Hull, 2015:20). One can concur with the notion that there should be an interrelation between the set elements, and that combined, they should be able to fulfill a purpose, which is to ensure or achieve sustainable food security in Chief Mazivofa village. On the other hand, the Ecological perspective enabled the researcher to explore NGOs in the context of the Social environment of Chief Mazivofa, looking at how they adapt and cope, as well as understand the kind of input and output they bring along (Kirst-Ashman and Hull, 2009:12). This same concept also assisted in terms of providing an understanding of how the people of Chief Mazivofa village (person in the environment) interact with the social environment where NGOs operate as social welfare providers.

1.8 Overview of research methodology

1.8.1 Research approach

A research approach can be defined as the way in which research is conducted (Taylor *et al.*, 2015:3). A qualitative research approach was used in conducting this study. The use of a qualitative approach enabled the researcher to explore and interpret the diverse views of participants with regard to the impact of developmental programmes of non-governmental organisations in addressing food shortages in Chief Mazivofa village.

1.8.2 Research design

A case study research design was used in this study. Yin (2013:4) posits that a case study allows investigators to focus on a case, to retain a holistic and real-world

perspective and they do this in a manageable context. Concentrating on a smaller area enables the researcher to get deep findings within a contained frame. The researcher focused on one NGO (CARE) operating in Chief Mazivofa Village, Mberengwa in order to determine the impact of developmental programmes of non-governmental organisations in addressing food shortages.

1.8.3 Population of the study

A population can be defined as a collection of elements from which a sample is selected (Babbie & Mouton 2001:175; Bryman, 2012:714). In this study, the population of the study consisted of households in Chief Mazivofa village and key informants (CARE personnel and community leaders) residing and operating in Chief Mazivofa village.

1.8.4 Sampling

Two non-probability sampling methods (snowball and purposive sampling) were used in the study. Kumar (2011:208) defines snowball sampling as a non-probabilistic form of sampling in which persons are selected using networks until the required number is reached. Snowball sampling is used when the population is challenging to locate (Babbie, 2016:188).

Key informants were also included in this study, and their selection was done through purposive sampling. Such sampling is based on the judgement of the researcher as to those people who can provide the best information to meet the objectives of the study (Kumar, 2011:207).

1.8.5 Data collection

Interviews and observations were used to collect data for the study. These yielded data in the form of verbatim quotations and descriptions. Babbie (2016:311) defines an interview as an interaction between the interviewer and the participant in which the interviewer has the general plan of enquiry, including the topics to be covered by the interview. Kumar (2011:390) states that an observation is a data collection method in qualitative research whereby data are collected by watching and listening to a phenomenon as it is occurring. A tape recorder was also used as a complementary tool in case some details are missed during notes taking.

1.8.6 Data analysis

Data analysis is the process of making meaning out of the collected data. Generally, one can say that data analysis is dissecting chunks of data, reducing them into meaningful units that can be weaved into a comprehensive research report. Thematic analysis was used to analyse data. Thematic analysis was used because of its strength in deriving a wealth of information from in-depth interviews. Braun, Clarke and Terry (2012:60) describe thematic analysis as a method of identifying, organising and offering insights into patterns of meaning across data. Interview recordings were also used during the analysis phase to fill in the gaps of the interview notes.

1.8.7 Ethical considerations

During research, process ethics need to be safeguarded and taken into account to protect the rights of participants. There are always ethical issues involved in research. These include avoidance of harm, voluntary participation, informed consent, avoiding deception and anonymity.

- **Avoidance of harm:** Social research should take measures to avoid harming participants. This can include physical, legal and emotional harm. According to Babbie (2007:27), a fundamental rule of social research is that it must bring no harm to participants.
- **Voluntary participation:** The researcher assured participants that participation in the study was voluntary. Babbie (2016:71) argue that participation should always be voluntary, and no one should be forced to participate in a project
- **Informed consent:** Informed consent implies that participants voluntarily agree to participate in a study upon understanding all the risks involved (Babbie, 2016:64).
- **Avoiding deception:** Deception refer to deception as misleading participants by deliberately misrepresenting facts or withholding information from participants.

- **Anonymity:** Anonymity is an ethical principle achieved by making sure that information from respondents cannot be linked to a given respondent (Babbie, 2016:65).

1.8.8 Limitations of the study

Various challenges were faced during the data collection stage. Some participants were unwilling to take part for free in the study as they expected the researcher to reward them for their participation. Thus, the researcher had to identify participants who were willing to participate without any form of compensation. Due to the sparse road network, the researcher also experienced challenges in reaching far flung areas. Thus, the researcher had to reschedule some appointments since some areas could not be easily accessed during the times agreed by both parties.

Time was a constraint as the researcher had to travel to some destinations on foot to gather data due to bad roads, hence he could not reach the initially intended sample size of 30. However, a point of information saturation was reached with the sample size that the research had accessed.

1.9 Outline of the study

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter stimulates interest and provides the reader with an understanding of where the ideas of the study stem from. The problem statement, research questions, aim and objectives of the study, significance and delimitation of the study are also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 2: Literature review and theoretical framework

This chapter focuses on the literature review and theoretical framework that informed the study. In so doing, this chapter sets the scene on current as well as previous studies on the issue under investigation.

Chapter 3: Research methodology

Chapter 3 focuses on the research methods used in conducting this study. The reader is taken through the research design, population, sample and sampling strategies. The tools for collecting data, procedures employed analysing data, issues

of ethical considerations observed during the study are also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 4: Data analysis

This chapter focuses on the presentation, analysis and discussion of the findings of the study. These findings are divided into themes according to the research questions and objectives of the study. The themes emerged from issues raised by participants in the course of the interviews.

Chapter 5: Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

This chapter provides a summary of the entire study. The summary also provides answers to the research questions and recommendations emanating from the findings of the study.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter focuses on the literature and theoretical frameworks that informed the study. In so doing, the chapter sets the scene on current as well as previous studies conducted on the issue under investigation.

2.1 Definition of Non-Governmental Organisations

There is no clear-cut definition of the term NGO and defining this term has proved to be problematic as demonstrated by Fisher (1997) as cited in Werker and Ahmed (2008:74) who argued that the term NGO is shorthand for an eclectic assortment of formal and informal associations. Fisher goes on to say that there is slight agreement about what NGOs are and maybe even less about what they ought to be termed. Ezeoha (2001:128) maintains NGOs are often presented as unselfish, benevolent actors that allow wealth to trickle down from the rich to the poor; subsequently, poverty is reduced if not, eradicated and the poor empowered. Furthermore, Mawere & Chingozha (2015:140) maintain that NGOs are viewed as saints who do no evil and are not corrupt; they are for the poor and, above all, are the third eye.

Gwarinda, Taylor & Masango (2015:119) argue that Non-governmental organisations are sovereign players that are comparatively permanent as well as driven by volunteerism and universalistic principles. They are fixated on providing social services to either complement state services or fill the gap left by the state. Following this argument, one can, therefore, maintain that the distinctive characteristic of NGOs is that they focus on social issues or areas of service provision.

Hillhorst (1990), as cited in Gwarinda *et al.* (2015:119), defines NGOs as intermediate organisations positioned between the state and the market that bring development to the poor and marginalised. NGOs are an arena that arbitrates against the over-indulgences of both, with the aim of shielding susceptible citizens. This argument presents NGOs as benevolent actors in the development space, and to this effect, Mawere & Chingozha (2015:138) argue that NGOs often take a benevolent angle in a top-down paternalistic effort with little contribution by beneficiaries. They further argue that such NGOs include those with activities focused on meeting the needs of the poor and the aged. Thus, unlike other types of

NGOs that call for maximum participation of beneficiaries, charitable NGOs characteristically stand on the donating end, while recipients stand on the receiving end.

2.2 NGOs as development agencies

Salamon (1993) as cited in Saarien, Rogerson & Manwa (2013:87) argue that some observers hold the view that the third world is being swept by a nongovernmental, associational, or “quiet” revolution. Salamon further argues that this quiet revolution may *“prove to be as significant to the latter twentieth century, as the rise of the nation-state was to the latter nineteenth century”*. Fisher (1997) as cited in Werker and Ahmed (2008:74) echoes the same sentiments and maintains the potential of the global associational explosion has captivated the imagination of a wide variety of developmental planners, policymakers, activists and analysts. Thus, Edwards & Hulme (2014:5) submit that NGOs have become the “favoured child” of official development agencies, hailed as the new panacea to cure the ills that have befallen the development process. Vivian (1994) as cited in Edwards & Hulme (2014:5) hammers this line of argument by postulating that NGOs have been imagined as the “magic bullet”, which will mysteriously, but effectively, find its target.

From such appealing arguments, one can see that NGOs are believed to play a fundamental, if not, a leading role in development. Central might sound too sentimental, but it is a valid terminology in this regard, as even developing countries that are politically at loggerheads with developed countries, still receive aid from NGOs that originate from these countries. Harare has a sour political relationship with Washington and London (VOA:2010); however, NGOs from London and especially Washington’s USAID and CARE, still find their way into Harare, Mberengwa to be specific, as agencies of development. Barret (2002) as cited in Werker and Ahmed (2008:76) is of the opinion that as early as 1964, over 6% of the US government’s foreign aid budget was channelled through voluntary agencies. Early government involvement with NGOs was in the form of food aid and freight as part of the Food for Peace programme. Voluntary agencies would take surplus food from the United States and distribute to needy recipients in developing countries.

2.3 NGOs in Zimbabwe

The growth and development of civil society in Zimbabwe can be linked to the historical period in which they arose from the colonial to the post-independence period. While the various organisations developed at different periods, those from preceding years have continued to operate alongside newer forms of civil society. The most documented history of NGOs in Zimbabwe dates back to the early independence days (1980), Chikwanha-Dzenga (1999), as cited in Moore & Moyo (2016:6), states that during this period, NGOs mostly assisted the state in the provision of social services and were encouraged to do so. Due to this symbiotic relationship, Ridell & Robinson (1996) as cited in Moore & Moyo (2016:6) observed that about 850 NGOs operated in various parts of Zimbabwe at the time. Gwarinda *et al.* (2015:122) have their historical account of NGOs starting in 1990. They firmly argue that by 2006, Zimbabwe had about 1500 NGOs operating within her borders. These organisations included CARE, ZimProject, ORAP and CAMPFIRE, among others, and they became a stronghold in the development field. Moore & Moyo argue that in the 1990s, many NGOs inclined to a human rights, constitutionalist, and liberal democratic outlook that identified with global trends and retorted to the ruling party/government's oppressive dealings.

Development of NGOs from the 1930s – 2000s



Adapted from: www.zimbabweinstitute.net, "State of Civil Society Study 2008"

2.4 NGOs and civil society versus the state (Zimbabwe)

The scenario of NGOs being the champion of civil society in Africa has raised more questions than answers. Several states have been at loggerheads with NGOs. BBC news Africa (5th March 2012) headlined that "Malawi's President, Mutharika, tells donors 'go to hell'". In the article, the president declared as follows: *"If donors incite NGOs to lead civil society into protesting economic policies, and then call that democracy, to hell with them!"* The civil society led by Malawi's umbrella group, the Council for Non-Governmental Organisations (CONGOMA), dismissed the allegations of any involvement in protests. In Uganda, President Museveni threatened to ban NGOs that promoted gay rights. A minister declared as follows: *"NGOs are channels through which monies are channelled to recruit homosexuals"*.

NGO groups have been critical of many African states. In Zimbabwe, many of them have invariably clashed with the state, which sees them as agents of regime change. The Herald (October 17, 2011) paper carried a story in which Western countries were being castigated for inciting political volatility and chasing a regime change schema in Zimbabwe. The Minister of Rural and Urban Planning was quoted as follows: "While the government acknowledged the efforts by NGOs, the government would not remain silent when it is overstepped". The minister gave a stern reminder to NGOs that they were supposed to only play a complementary role to the state instead of acting as rivals and competitors. Such utterances make it crystal clear that the relevance of NGOs is time and again questioned, prompting one to ask whether their aid is genuine or tied aid, instead? Several NGOs and donor groups have pulled out of African countries repeatedly as a way of coercing the government to make reforms that suit their operations through social welfare protests from the masses.

In the 1990s, Zimbabwe plunged into high social service anxiety and little economic progress; the public spending surpassed government revenue, resulting in high budget shortfalls. In a bid to remedy the situation and resuscitate the economy, Zimbabwe introduced the infamous Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) as well as several social policy reforms. Saunders (1996:8) argues that this resulted in the country being firmly stuck in a quagmire of rising unemployment, inequality and fewer job positions for fresh young intellectuals. Most of these young intellectuals found themselves taking up employment opportunities within NGOs, which

were blooming as the role of the state depreciated. The economy became liberal and social provision and spending were censored. The state encouraged the expansion of the civil society institution purporting that it was fundamental to democracy and public process. This harmonious environment saw NGOs evolving from being welfare-centred into advocacy clusters that had a national focus.

At this point, the relationship between NGOs and the State was symbiotic and complementary as observed by Chikwana-Dzenga in Moore & Moyo (2016:6). However, with time, the relationship started to turn sour as the NGO space became an incubator for a cohort of young activists who became proponents of the sovereign civil society, political heterogeneity and economic justice. Moore & Moyo (2016:6) lend support to this assertion and conclude that this incubation process contributed to the emergence of stronger political opposition than before. In the political arena, it seems most opposition politicians in Africa are critical of the state, and they seek legitimacy by aligning with the West to push for regime change. In Zimbabwe, the Morgan Tsvangirai-led Movement for Democratic Change (MDC), which is the country's main opposition party, has been accused by the state of inciting the NGO sector to pull out its resources so that the masses can push for reform or regime change.

The masses in Zimbabwe mostly associate NGO aid with the opposition; a publicity stunt that the opposition has used to draw the masses to itself. Thus, the state has come cracking heavily on the NGO sector, banning some and interfering in the affairs of others. It seems ZANU PF the ruling party has reduced the role of NGOs in Zimbabwe to social welfare rather than advocating for political change. There is truth in the fact that the USA and UK-backed NGOs in Zimbabwe have, at some point, pushed for political reforms. The ZANU PF government knows and understands how influential NGOs can be if left unchecked. Gwamanda *et al.* (2015:122) assert that in 2003, several pieces of legislation and policies were instituted as a direct response to the rapid growth of the NGO sector and what they stood for. These policies were instituted to regulate the sector further. Gwenya (2013:40) argues that there are currently significant policy risks and challenges faced by NGOs in Zimbabwe, and this phenomenon dates as far back as 1999 with the birth of the Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) opposition party.

Hoeffler and Outram (2011:40) support this observation and argue that it is universal truth that a donor with money will spend and will do so primarily in pursuit of its interest. Jeater (2011) as cited in Mawere & Chingozha (2015:142) in a study on NGOs in Zimbabwe, observes that these organisations are mistrusted because they are perceived as part of the political strategy of donor governments directly funded through organisations such as USAID, NORAD or indirectly through various arms of the UN. Tran (2012) as cited in Mawere & Chingozha (2015:142), in a study by the University of Manchester, questions the legitimacy of large development NGOs and maintain they are heavily influenced by corporate donors and governments where they come from.

2.5 Concerns over NGOs

With the hype and attention that NGOs have received, a fair share of scrutiny has also followed. Banks, Hulme & Edwards (2015:707) thus maintain as follows: *"Clearly, we are at a point in the NGO debate at which significant questions are being raised about the ability of NGOs to meet their long-term goals of social justice and transformation in the development discourse."* While NGOs are fundamental in the provision of welfare services, there are shortcoming that cannot go unnoticed, let alone, unattended. Edwards & Hulme (1996) as cited in Werker and Ahmed (2008:87) argue that even though evaluation is commonly espoused as a tenet of good NGO work, the collective body of industry evaluations reveals very little about their actual impact.

The OECD (1997) survey of such assessments as cited in Werker & Ahmed (2008:87) deepens the matter by propounding that there is still lack of firm and reliable evidence on the impact of NGO development projects and programmes. Most publicly available programme evaluations by NGOs, such as case studies on a website, rarely contain rigorous analysis and almost never report strong adverse outcomes. Moyo (2009:44) moots that in nearly all cases, short-term aid evaluations give the erroneous impression of the success of aid. Short-term evaluations are scarcely relevant when trying to tackle Africa's long-term problems. The effectiveness of aid should be measured against its contribution to long-term sustainable growth and whether it moves the majority of people out of poverty in a sustainable way. When seen through this lens, aid is found to be wanting.

Sogge (2015:280) strongly warns that the manner in which NGOs are perceived should be taken as sheer utterances of conviction, or at best, half-truths which should be queried. Gwarinda *et al.* (2015:119) posit that in contexts where there is lack of state response towards socio-economic and developmental needs of its citizens, NGOs step in to fill the gap. However, it is ill-informed to esteem NGOs as the answer to effective social welfare policy processes. Davies (2014b) as cited in Mawere and Chingozha (2015:0) avers that NGOs enjoy a high degree of public trust, which in turn can make them useful, but not always “sufficient proxy”, for the concerns of society and stakeholders. Davies’ argument highlights the inadequacies of NGOs in their role as agencies for development.

Some schools of thought evoke reason as to why such analyses and evaluations are scarce. For example, Banks *et al.* (2015:708) lament the weak roots of most NGOs in civil society of countries where they operate as well as countries where they generate resources; a weakness which limits the impact and influence of NGOs as drivers of social change. Barr & Fafchamps (2006) as cited in Werker & Ahmed (2008:87), shed more light on the weaknesses and maintain the public opinion of NGOs is generally high in rich countries and poor countries alike. As such, the demand for rigorous evaluations is correspondingly low. Riddell & Robinson (1995) as cited in Werker & Ahmed (2008:87) confirm the same observation and argue that lack of explicit objective evaluations should not be surprising. It is in neither the interests of the NGOs nor the official donor agency, complicit as a funder, to publicise less than stellar results. Werker & Ahmed (2008:86) sum up this argument by positing that limited critical literature has emerged that question the effectiveness of NGOs in improving the lives of intended beneficiaries.

2.6 Gaps in the literature on NGOs

The argument by Werker and Ahmed unmask the inadequacies of previous opinions as it invokes a new dimension of scholarly thought on available literature regarding NGOs. Fisher (1997) as cited in Boglio-Martinez (2011:7) asserts that the literature is replete with sweeping generalisations, optimistic statements about potentials of NGOs for delivering welfare services, implementing development projects, and facilitating a nebulously defined democratisation agenda, as well as instrumental treatises on building the capacity of NGOs to perform these functions.

Few writings and research are concerned with getting a deep understanding of the role played by non-governmental organisations as agencies of development. Fisher (1997) as cited in Lewis and Kanji (2009:109) qualifies this observation by strongly propounding that the literature is based more on faith than fact. There are few detailed studies of what is happening in places or within specific organisations, few analyses of the impact of NGO practices and relations of power among individual, communities, and the state, and little attention to the discourse within which NGOs are presented as the solution to problems of welfare service delivery, development and democratisation.

From this benchmark, it could be argued that the degree of importance and glory that has been attached to NGOs has robbed the academic world of a robust and theoretical interrogation of the innocence or complicity of NGOs. The gap and theoretical inadequacies are unmasked by Banks *et al.* (2015:7), who argue that after decades of research, they are better positioned to revisit the issues, given the expanding depth and breadth of academic knowledge about NGOs. However, they are yet to find a forum through which they can bridge the gap that exists between NGOs and academics in this contentious subject. The admission that there is a gap in the subject area endorses this research as it tries to add value to the body of knowledge on NGOs.

2.7 NGOs and food security

Jones, Ngure, Pelto and Young (2013:482) state that food security may be said to be in existence when all people, always, can access adequate nourishing food, which is safe to consume as well as that which meets both their food preferences and their dietary needs, for a lively and healthy life. Generally, the notion of food security rests on the nature of accessibility to food, the availability of food and the sustainability of food supply. FAO (2004a), as cited in Magombeyi, Akpofure & Jennie (2013:13) maintain that the definition of food security has four intertwined scopes which are the availability of food, access to food, utilisation of food and stability of available food at the level of the household.

Misselhorn *et al.* (2012:7) state that food is fundamental to human well-being and development. The authors further assert that increased food production remains a keystone stratagem in the struggle to assuage food insecurity. Though food

production on a global scale has managed to keep stride with demand, at this juncture, roughly one billion people in the world do not have enough food to eat and a further one billion lack proper and adequate nutrition (Misselhorn *et al.*, 2012:7). The Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations has found that although there is a significant reduction in the number of people who are underfed in the past 20 years, the number of people anguishing from long-lasting starvation is still excessively high, hence extermination of hunger remains a major global delinquent that requires added attention (FAO, 2012). Food insecurity continues to worsen in many countries, and the pace of development in many developing countries continues to be affected by food shortages.

Per (Stats-SA, 2012) as cited in Magombeyi *et al.* (2013:13) states that food insecurity transpires when one or more of these scopes are compromised, as no single scope guarantees food security individually. There are three sequential variations of food insecurity which are:

- i) seasonal food insecurity that happens immediately before harvests when food supplies are limited, and prices are high;
- ii) transitory food insecurity (acute) refers to short periods of extreme food insecurity, these are results of impulsive and abrupt happenings like climatic shocks, natural disasters, or economic shocks; and
- iii) chronic food insecurity (moderate) alludes to long-term shortage, which is closely linked to chronic poverty, lack of assets, and structural deficiencies in local food systems in the economy (Stats-SA, 2012) as cited in Magombeyi *et al.* (2013: 13). Magombeyi *et al.* (2013: 13) argue that achieving food security requires households to have adequate resources to obtain appropriate foods for a nutritious diet.

2.8 Causes of food insecurity in Chief Mazivofa

2.8.1 Ecological factor: drought

Mavhura, Manatsa & Mushore (2015:2) argue that the primary challenge to food security for many communal and small-scale commercial farmers in Zimbabwe is water for crop production. Smith & Petley (2009), as cited in Mavhura *et al.* (2015:2), term this a meteorological drought, meaning that cumulative precipitation for the

entire growing season is less than the amount required to produce a crop. They further assert that this situation results in total crop failure. Enfors *et al.* (2008), as cited in Mavhura *et al.* (2015:2), however, introduce us to another form of drought, which they refer to as agricultural drought that happens during seasons with higher precipitation totals than those defined as meteorological droughts. Nyakudya & Stroosnijder (2011) state that agricultural drought is much more common than meteorological drought. They further maintain this is caused by a variety of factors, such as dry spells, water losses from the field through run-off, drainage of soils and rates of evaporation. On the other hand, dry spells occur as short periods of water stress that last for a few weeks during crop growth, at the same time, crops may experience water stress earlier than needed, even though there is enough rainfall required by plants. They conclude that this phenomenon is referred to as induced drought.

A change in climate, which has a direct bearing on food security, is a reality that has evolved and continues in this present day. Worldwide, an understanding of the degree and harshness of climate change on food security has dawned, not just in the present but for future generations too. Indicators of change in climate comprise unpredictable rainfall patterns, leading to extended periods of drought, global warming, melting glaciers, raging floods resulting from cyclones and hurricanes. Zimbabwe, just like any other sub-Saharan African country, has its economic and social welfare (food security) backbone dependent on Agriculture. This sector is heavily dependent on a sound climatic atmosphere. Unfortunately, in the past decade or so, the most vulnerable countries of the world have been hit the hardest by these erratic climatic trends (United Nations Development Programme (UNDP): Africa Human Development Report 2012: Towards a Food Secure Future, 2013).

As alluded to in the introduction, Moyo (2008) cited in Jerie & Matanga (2011:6) provides a list of some notorious drought years that have hit Zimbabwe, including Mberengwa as follows: 1982-83; 1986-87; 1992-93; 2002-03; 2004-05; 2007-08, with the 1992-93 episodes being the most gruesome. NGOs have exploited these natural catastrophes to intervene and alleviate their impact on a vulnerable population, and this partially explains the multifarious presence of these donors and aid agencies in the Midlands Province. According to the World Report (2016:931), at least 2.8 million

people in Zimbabwe (a fifth of the country's population) were facing food shortages. Ongoing droughts forced the government to declare a state of disaster in February 2015, even as the international community scrambled to raise the money necessary to mount a response. The Report further states that Zimbabwe, once known as the breadbasket of southern Africa, has suffered pockets of droughts over the past five years, but nothing on the scale of 2015.

2.8.2 Economic factor

As already alluded to in the introduction, Zimbabwe plunged into an unprecedented political and economic crisis, characterised by rising market prices as well as poor harvests, which resulted in food shortages (UNICEF, 2009). According to Gwarinda *et al.* (2015:122), Zimbabwe is facing severe fiscal crises, negative economic growth, rising unemployment and poverty. Chazovachii, Mutami & Bowora (2013:15) contend that this crisis resulted in the deterioration of the livelihoods of the people of Zimbabwe. Mawere (2011) as cited in Chazovachii *et al.* (2013:15) observes that by mid-2005, the local currency had lost 99% of its value, the unemployment rate and cost of living had risen to extraordinary levels, and inflation representing a staggering 1280%. The severity of the situation is summed up in the argument by Towedzera & Crush (2016:1) who posit that for two decades, Zimbabwe underwent a catastrophic political, economic and social cacophony. This situation resulted in the shrinking of services provided by the state. Thus, this socio-economic and political crisis created a void for the provision of social services, which NGOs have since taken upon themselves to fill. Gwarinda *et al.* (2015:122) echoes the same sentiments and argue that this situation accelerated the growth of NGOs that sought to fill the vacuum left by the state in social policy and welfare.

2.9 Response to food insecurity

2.9.1 Food aid

In the face of significant and persistent climatic mishaps faced by Zimbabwe, which led to droughts and subsequently food shortages, compounded by a forever deteriorating economic outlook, the major response has been relief aid (foreign aid). This view is corroborated by Sithole & Coetzee (2013:33), who argue that, as in many other countries in similar situations of distress, the most common response to the food crisis in Zimbabwe has been the provision of food aid by the international

donor community, targeting vulnerable people mainly in rural areas. The World Report of 5th March 2016 sheds light on the state of food security in the country and reveals that at least 2.8 million people in Zimbabwe (nearly a fifth of the country's population) face food shortages. Tawodzera & Zanamwe (2016:1) submit that the country went from a net exporter to becoming a net food importer and, above all, a major receiver of food aid.

Based on the above arguments, one can subscribe to the notion that Zimbabwe, especially Chief Mazivofa village, became a perfect food aid candidate. A perfect food aid candidate is summed up in Moyo (2009:77) who argues that Africa is addicted to aid. For the past sixty years it has been fed aid. Like any addict it needs and depends on its regular fix, finding it hard, if not impossible, to contemplate existence in an aid-less world. In Africa, the West has found its perfect client to deal to. Nunn & Qian (2013:2) share an essential premise that humanitarian aid is one of the vital policy apparatus used by the international community to help lighten hunger and suffering in the developing world. They further stress that the main constituent of this humanitarian aid is food aid. Major donors of American or British origin, for example, CARE Zimbabwe, which is pro-America, has been one of the organisations that have provided food aid response in Mberengwa during times of gross need.

The current big debate revolves around the efficacy of aid in solving mainly food security issues in Africa. The current literature clearly articulates this. Nuun & Qian (2013: 2) argue that, in recent years, the efficacy of humanitarian aid and food aid has received increasing criticisms, especially in the context of conflict-prone regions. Sogge (2002:7) as cited in Mawdsley (2012:259) observes that aid is given with a glow of contentment and received with appreciation; the givers and receivers in their public utterances, provide a standing ovation for foreign aid as a noble idea that should persist. Along similar lines, Moyo (2009:45) posits that aid proponents are of the view that aid works; the fact is just that wealthier countries have not given enough of it. They (aid proponents) argue that with a big push, a substantial increase will occur in aid targeted at key investments. Africa can escape its persistent poverty trap, that is, what Africa needs is more aid, much more aid, in massive amounts, only then will things start to get better.

Critics of foreign aid (among the main critics being David Sogge and Dambisa Moyo) have put forward compelling arguments that might sound unfair yet with a lot of substance. Their arguments come as a wakeup call for Africa and the world at large to find better and sustainable ways of addressing the ongoing food crisis in Africa. Moyo (2009:45) puts forward an uncensored argument that one of the most depressing aspects of the aid fiasco is that donors, policy makers, governments, academics, economists, and development specialists know in their hearts of hearts that aid does not work, has not worked, and will not work. Sogge (2002) as cited in Mawdsley (2012:259) states that in some aid-targeted places, public management and services have decayed or collapsed, poverty and inequality have worsened, and insecurity prevailed. This view is strongly shared by Moyo (2009:23) who posits that there is no meaningful help recorded in communities that receive food aid even though the sums of funds injected towards the food aid cause are vast. Sogge (2002) as cited in Mawdsley (2012:259) however, feels that a great unfairness arises from the kind of attention aid receives. It is posed as a remedy to the enormous, old, complex problems of poverty, growth, and governance, whereas it is not the panacea to solving food insecurity.

This argument holds water when one looks at the current state of Mberengwa. NGOs have been highly regarded and have been thought to have all the solutions; chances are that the government has become reluctant to address food challenges in areas where NGOs operate. However, the time for Africa to keep on turning to aid for rescue has lapsed. A new viable and sustainable development solution must be in play for Africa to be food secure. To this effect, Sithole and Coetzee (2013:38) argue that, given the undesirable effects of food aid on human capital development and the negative impact it has on growth, food aid should be minimised and replaced by efforts to improve the food security status of rural people.

2.9.1.1 Negative effects of food aid: dependency

Sithole & Coetzee (2013:37) argue that in as much as food aid is beneficial to the receiving communities, as it saves lives, it, however, generates problems eventually as it is short-term in nature and no continuity of aid can be expected. Further, it creates dependency among recipient communities. Moyo (2009:75) strongly argues that Africa is addicted to aid; for the past sixty years, it has been fed aid. Like any

addict, it needs a regular fix, finding it hard, if not impossible to contemplate existence in an aidless world. In Africa, the West has found its perfect client to deal with. This argument clearly shows how much Africa is now suffering from a dependency syndrome. This premise is shared by Gitu (2004:58), who argues that food aid is not beneficiary overtime as it brings about a dependency syndrome to vulnerable/beneficiary groups who know that even if they do not produce (farm), relief food will be provided. Sithole and Coetzee (2013:38) agree with Gitu (2006) as cited in Wanjiru (2015:17) and maintain that over time, people receiving food aid often end up not introducing their children to agricultural production. As a result, this perpetuates a cycle of dependency on food aid as well as poverty.

On the other hand, Sithole & Coetzee (2013:38) are of the view that the above arguments do not imply that food aid does not form an essential part of development assistance. This notion was further developed by Ho & Hanrahan (2010:12) who argued that food aid has been vital in saving lives around the world particularly during crises and or natural disasters.

2.9.2 Empowerment

It is assumed that with the number of years that NGOs have operated in Mberengwa, they should have crafted and delivered enduring solutions towards ensuring food security and empowerment of locals. Empowerment places people at the epicentre of the development process where the bottom-up approach supersedes the bureaucratic and top-down approach. The top-down approach is what Foot & Hopkins (2010:7) refer to as the more familiar 'deficit' approach, which focuses on the problems, needs and deficiencies in a community such as deprivation, illness and health-damaging behaviours. It designs services to fill the gaps and fix the problems. As a result, a community can feel disempowered and dependent; people can become passive recipients of services rather than active agents in their own lives and those of their families.

The beauty of empowerment is captured by Livingstone (2012:23), who postulates that empowerment is a process that assists people to have a sense of ownership over a project that is being implemented in their area. Livingstone (2012: i) expands the argument by maintaining that empowerment enhances the power of beneficiaries to influence and to make the organs that fend for them answerable. Narayan (2002:

xviii) as cited in Livingstone (2012:23), states that empowerment is an expansion of the forte and capabilities of beneficiaries to participate in, negotiate with, influence, control and hold accountable institutions that affect their lives. Livingstone (2012: 23) avers that empowerment expands the abilities of beneficiaries to tackle future programmes through the notion of participation.

Based on the above arguments, one can, therefore, conclude that empowerment has its thrust on giving power and knowledge to beneficiaries for them to realise a better standard of living. This will ensure that in the future, recipients are armed with a skill set that will make them less reliant on outside forces for fundamental services and infrastructure.

2.10 Theoretical framework

This section focuses the theoretical framework that informed the study. In Social Work, theories can be said to be part of a discourse that brings meaning to the field. A discourse or discourses can be described as contestations, different belvederes and disagreements between intellectuals that are normally exhibited in debates, articles and conferences. Taylor (2013:14) states that the term “discourse” denotes a “system or collective of meanings”, by which a social phenomenon can be built, for example, knowledge and or intervention. Taylor expands the definition by stating that post-structurally discourses can be said to be bents of language practices that mould our identities, opinions and actions.

But first, what is a theory? Sheldon & Macdonald (2010:34) analyse a dictionary characterisation of a theory and put forward a suggestion that a theory constitutes a layman’s understanding as well as a scientific understanding. They argue that in a layman’s conceptualisation, a theory refers to abstract thoughts, whereas scientifically, a theory can be said to be a body of knowledge or universal principles achieved through accepted scientific procedures that describe a phenomenon. Payne (2015:5) echoes similar sentiments, however, with an expansion, that a theory is a generalised set of ideas that define and enlighten our knowledge of the world systematically. Payne, therefore, concludes that a Social Work theory helps us to understand Social Work. Fook (2016:44) cautions us by submitting that there are various meanings of the term “theory”, making it crucial to be inclusive in defining it, so as not to exclude useful ideas.

To better understand why a theory is important, the following information in Table 2.1 below was adopted for this study. Payne (2015:12) puts the table into four key points that highlight the importance of theory as follows:

- A theory reveals and makes clear things that might not be obvious, thus generally, it aids us in understanding and debating ideas;
- Social workers deal with complex social phenomenon; thus, theory explains these complexities and brings order to the intricacy;
- A theory gives practice framework that organises ideas and research that has guidelines of what to do in complicated events; and
- Clients, agencies, and colleagues expect practitioners to be able to clarify and validate what they are doing and why, thus, theory moulds accountable and self-disciplined professionals.

Table 2.1 Why use theory in Social Work?

Reason	Theory helps you to:	Four uses of theory
Accountability	be accountable to agencies, clients, and colleagues	Professional
Boundaries	locate the limits of permitted and required practice	Professional
Causation	understand causation	Explain
Control	control situations you are involved with	Practice framework
Critical	be critical of and contest assumptions and ideas	Ideas
Cultural understanding	understand how general cultural differences affect us	Explanation
Cumulation	build experience from one situation to another	Explanation

Discourses	identify debates about meaning in our lives	Ideas
Effectiveness	decide what is most likely to be effective	Practice framework
Explanation	explain human development and social phenomenon	Explanation
Focus	identify relevant and irrelevant factors	Practice framework
Framework	organise practice consistently	Practice framework
Guide	guide actions	Practice framework
Identification	identify concepts and theoretical traditions	Ideas
Ideologies	understand the impact of organised systems of thought	Ideas
Intervention	identify potential interventions	Practice framework
Knowledgebase	use knowledge to inform your actions	Explanation
Mobilisation	get support to potential objectives	Professional
Neutrality	avoid bias in decision-making	Ideas
Outcomes	select intervention outcomes	Practice framework
Prediction	predict outcomes	Practice framework
Professional	behave professionally rather than as an amateur	Professional

Self-discipline	avoid irrational response	Professional
Simplification	simplify complex phenomenon	Explanation
Understanding	understanding behaviour	Explanation
Value positions	avoid taking dogmatic value positions	Ideas

Source: Healy (2005), Hardiker and Barker (2007), Fraser and Matthews (2008), Greene (2008: 4-8), Gray and Webb (2009) and Walsh (2010)

The Systems theory and the Ecological approach were used in this study. These theories are closely related, and one may mistake them for one entity, yet, they are distinctively different as discussed below.

2.10.1 The Systems Theory

It is vital in Social Work to understand the systems theory as it helps one to evaluate a presenting problem from various lens/multiple perspectives. Zapf (2011:31) asserts that the aim of using the systems theory is to re-establish the “equilibrium or equipoise within close social systems where there has been an interruption. Kirst-Ashman & Hull (2009:9) argue that systems theory provides social workers with a theoretical standpoint that can steer how they view the world, since social work focuses on the relations of various systems in the environment, including individuals, groups, families, organisations and communities. Systems theory, thus, is used to develop a thorough understanding of individuals existing within these various systems and how they influence and interact with one another (Kirst-Ashman & Hull, 2015:20). Systems theory is particularly relevant to a generalist practice as it allows social workers to focus on a system of any size.

A *system* is defined as “a structured whole made up of mechanisms that interact in a way distinct from their interaction with other entities and which endures over some period” (Anderson *et al.*, 1999:4). Kirst-Ashman & Hull (2015:20) maintain “...a system is a set of rudiments that are methodical and interrelated to a functional total”. Systems may consist of micro, mezzo or macro. Microsystems could refer mostly to individuals, a mezzo system refers to small groups, while the macrosystem refers to larger elements, such as communities and organisations. In a layman’s understanding, a “rudiment” can be said to be an incomplete part of a

structure. Using this basic understanding as a basis, one can, therefore, conclude that a rudiment, on its own, is not sufficient to address the issue of food security, hence the need for interdependency. Kirst Ashman & Hull (2009:9) submit that systems theory can quickly point you in the right direction of where change can be best pursued, recognising that when a single microsystem is strengthened or improved, it affects the broader system that it is interacting within. As a result, in using the systems theory, the researcher was able to interrogate how the three rudiments (NGOs, Government and people from Chief Mazivofa village) work together towards attaining food security. One can concur with the notion that there should be an interrelationship between the set elements, and that combined, they should be able to fulfill a purpose, which is to ensure or achieve sustainable food security in Chief Mazivofa Village.

Kirst Ashman & Hull (2015:21) postulate that specific to generalist social work practice, there are four critical identifiable systems: "the client system (Chief Mazivofa Village); the change agent system (NGOs – CARE); the target system; and the action system". The change agent system refers to the instrument that initiates the change process.

2.10.2 Ecological perspective

From the ecological perspective, Kirst-Ashman and Hull (2009:12) argue that it is resolute on the primary concepts of social environment, the person in the environment, transactions, energy, input, output, interface, adaptation, coping, and interdependence. This case study explores NGOs in the context of the social environment of Chief Mazivofa, looking at how they adapt and cope, as well as understand the kind of input and output they bring along. This same concept also assists one to understand how the people of Chief Mazivofa (person in the environment) interact with the social environment where NGOs operate as social welfare providers. The kind of input and output they provide in the process can be explored as well as the interface which is the exact point at which the people interact with NGOs, for example, through participation in their projects.

2.11 Concluding remarks

The arguments above prove that NGOs have a sentimental value as far as the question of development is concerned. However, there are other arguments that

various schools of thought have thrown about, leaving the former glory of NGOs tainted. If these arguments are to hold, then it becomes imperative that more studies be conducted to nullify the unpalatable connotations that hang over the "Magic Bullet". Hence, from this benchmark, it is justifiable to argue that an improved contribution from a Social Work standing (like the current study) would enrich the literature. De Vos *et al.* (2011:24) argue that research in the field of policy and programme development, including the monitoring and evaluation of new policies and programmes, remains a critical priority. In summing up the arguments, one can share the same conviction that the literature at our disposal on NGOs, provides an outside understanding of the role of NGOs as agencies of Development. However, this study will usher in a different dimension into the whole matter as it will bring about an understanding of what NGOs are from the inside. The next chapter provides the research methodology.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the research methodology adopted in conducting the study and in answering the research questions. The research paradigm, research approach, research design, population of the study, location and sampling techniques are discussed in this chapter. Furthermore, the methods used to collect and analyse data, measures of trustworthiness, limitations of the study and ethical considerations are examined and discussed.

3.2 Research paradigm

A research paradigm can be defined as a model or frame through which to observe and understand (Babbie, 2016:32). In simple terms, it is a set of ideas and values that guide the research process. These ideas and values form a belief system that serves as a foundation in research. There are two dominant research paradigms in research, positivism and interpretivism, also known as the humanism paradigm. The positivist paradigm is more concerned with explaining human behaviour and experiences using natural laws. In the positivist paradigm, human beings are perceived as external objects and, therefore, natural laws and controlled measurements can be used to determine their behaviours (De Vos *et al.*, 2011: 308).

In contrast, interpretivism is more interested in the subjective experiences of human beings, which emanates from their interpretation of a specific phenomenon (Bryman & Bell, 2007:402; Taylor, Bogdan & DeVault, 2015:3). With this in mind, the researcher employed an interpretivist approach in the study in order to understand the experiences, views and behaviours of participants themselves and how they relate to their environment (De Vos *et al.*, 2011:308). Therefore, the interpretivist paradigm enabled the researcher to interact with participants throughout the whole data collection process to understand their views and experiences. It also enabled the researcher to continuously interpret the text that was transcribed during interviews. Bernard (2017:18) states that interpretivism allows the researcher to continue interpreting and reinterpreting texts to derive meaning out of it. This enabled the researcher to establish and evaluate the impact of developmental programmes of

non-governmental organisations in addressing food shortages in Chief Mazivofa village, Mberengwa District, Zimbabwe.

3.3 Research approach

A research approach can simply be defined as the way on how research is conducted (Taylor *et al.*, 2015:3). A qualitative research approach was used in conducting this study. This approach was chosen due to its strength in getting diverse opinions from participants (Taylor *et al.*, 2015:10). Unlike a quantitative approach, which concentrates on testing preconceived hypothesis, the qualitative approach aims to understand reality in the eyes of participants or how they view the situation (Smith, 2015:2). With this in mind, the qualitative approach enabled the researcher to explore and interpret the social experiences participants (Smith, 2015:2). Thus, a qualitative approach enabled the researcher to explore and interpret the diverse views of participants on the impact of developmental programmes of non-governmental organisations in addressing food shortages in Chief Mazivofa village, Mberengwa District, Zimbabwe. Additionally, the researcher chose a qualitative approach because of its flexibility and ability to give rise to subjective and unique views of participants. The researcher was also interested in getting in-depth information on the views of participants on the impact of developmental programmes of non-governmental organisations in addressing food shortages in Chief Mazivofa village, Mberengwa District, Zimbabwe. Thus, the quantitative approach in which the responses of respondents are structured, preconceived and reduced into numbers, were deemed less useful for this study (Smith, 2015:2).

A qualitative approach enables the researcher and the researched to establish rapport, and it takes place in a natural setting for participants (Taylor *et al.*, 2015: 10). The qualitative approach enabled the researcher to observe and conduct interviews in the natural setting of participants and to establish rapport by engaging with them. This was important as it gave rise to cooperation and enabled probing of issues as well as uncovering their underlying attitudes and beliefs.

3.4 Research design

A case study research design was used in this study. A case study research design is one of several forms of Social Science research. Other forms include experiments,

surveys, histories and archival analyses such as economic or statistical modelling (Yin, 2013:2). A case study is used in cases whereby one wants to have a full understanding of an occurrence or phenomenon (Kumar, 2011:126). In putting this motion further, Yin (2013:4) posits that the distinctive need for case study research arises out of a desire to understand the complex social phenomena. In brief, a case study allows the investigators to focus on a case, retain a holistic and real-world perspective and do this in a manageable context. Concentrating on a smaller area enables the researcher to get deep findings within a contained frame. Thus, the researcher focused on Chief Mazivofa Village in Mberengwa to determine the impact of developmental programmes of non-governmental organisations in addressing food shortages.

3.5 Type of research

Grinnell & Unrau (2010:20) state that social work research can be described as pure (basic) or applied. They go on to argue that the goal of pure research studies is to develop theory and expand the profession's knowledge, while the goal of applied studies is to develop solutions for problems and applications in practice. Considering this assertion, this study is largely basic research as it aims to expand the profession's understanding of NGOs working in the food security sector. However, with time, these findings could be used to address issues such as policy formulation by government and NGOs, as well as improve the quality of service provided by NGOs.

3.6 Population of the study

A population can be defined as a collection of elements from which a sample is selected (Babbie and Mouton 2001:175; Bryman, 2012:714). In this study, the population consisted of households in Chief Mazivofa village as well as key informants (CARE personnel and community leaders) residing and operating in Chief Mazivofa village. The rationale for collecting data from different kinds of participants was to facilitate triangulation of data from which comparison and contrast could be made as well as validate data in case analogous results are obtained. Participants selected for the study were mainly those who work and reside in the community where the NGOs were carrying out their operations. Thus, they were considered the most appropriate people with adequate knowledge of the impact of NGOs in addressing food shortages in their community.

3.7 Study area

The study was conducted in Chief Mazivofa Village which falls under the Mberengwa North political constituency. Chief Mazivofa Village consists of 2 Wards namely; Magamba and Mazivofa wards (Parliament survey, 2012:18). The total population of these two wards combined according to the Parliament survey (2012:28), is 7829, averaging five heads per household. Mberengwa West, Chief Mazivofa Village is characterised by poor infrastructure, for example, poor road network (Parliament Survey, 2012:18). Registered NGOs operating in the area include CARE, Lutheran Development Service (LDS) and Save the Children. These NGOs focus on ensuring food security in Mberengwa West, Chief Mazivofa Village. This area was chosen because it is one of the areas in Zimbabwe that experiences food shortages due to droughts and other related factors. Chief Mazivofa Village in Mberengwa West was chosen in order to assess the impact of developmental programmes of non-governmental organisations in addressing food shortages. This area was also chosen because the researcher is familiar with the culture and language of the people in the area, making it easier to negotiate entry into the area.

3.8 Sampling

Sampling is the process of selecting units for observation from a population (Babbie, 2016:103). In simple terms, sampling is the selection of participants to be included in the study from the population of interest. There are two broad types of sampling procedures: probability and non-probability sampling. A non-probability sampling technique was used in this study since the research is qualitative in nature and interest was not on significant samples but in the depth and richness of data gathered. The other reason for using non-probability sampling was because the researcher did not have a proper sampling frame as NGOs were unwilling to provide the list of beneficiaries of services, thus a challenge in identifying prospective targeted participants. A non-probability sampling process has many advantages, notably, it is not sophisticated and reasonably cheap regarding time constraints and financial expenses.

Two non-probability sampling methods (snowball and purposive sampling) were used in this study. Kumar (2011:208)) defines snowball sampling as a non-probabilistic form of sampling in which persons are selected using networks until the required number is reached. Snowball sampling is used when the population is

challenging to locate (Babbie, 2016:188). To identify both the families that were receiving services from NGOs and those that were not, the researcher used snowball sampling to first identify two participants from families that were receiving aid from NGOs. These participants later referred the researcher to other participants. This process was repeated until data saturation was reached. The researcher also identified one participant from families that were not receiving aid from NGOs who then referred him to other participants who were not receiving aid from NGOs, thus the process continued until data saturation was reached.

Key informants were also included in this study, and their selection was done through purposive sampling. Purposive sampling is based on the judgement of the researcher as to those people who provide the best information to meet the objectives of the study (Kumar, 2011:207). In this study, the researcher purposefully identified CARE workers operating in Mberengwa North, Chief Mazivofa Village. Participants identified were project officers from CARE, the NGO involved in providing food aid to the community of Chief Mazivofa Village. Also identified as key informants, were community leaders (Headman and Regent of the Chief) who were considered gatekeepers within the community. This was done to get specialised evidence and knowledge from professionals dealing with the provision of aid to the people of Chief Mazivofa Village. These key informants were also important in providing practical recommendations for making developmental programmes of NGOs more effective in addressing food shortages in Chief Mazivofa Village, Mberengwa District, Zimbabwe.

3.8.1 Sample size

Samples in a qualitative study are generally smaller compared to those used in a quantitative study. In qualitative research, the focus is usually on gaining in-depth knowledge of a situation, occurrence or phenomena and so a smaller sample is selected (Kumar, 2011:192). Thus, in this study, the quality, depth, understanding and richness of the data were the primary concern, so a small sample size was used as illustrative and was not aimed at being statistically representative of food security efforts in Zimbabwe. As soon as new information was not forthcoming from additional participants, the researcher assumed that data saturation had been reached and that it was largely unnecessary to add further participants. The sample

size for this study was sixteen, fourteen being direct beneficiaries and two were non-recipients.

3.9 Gaining entry

An ethical clearance letter was requested for and obtained from the North West University before entry into the community. A meeting was held with the headman of the village to gain access into the Village. Obtaining approval from village authorities was essential for ethical reasons and to ensure support from village authorities. Meeting with the village headman was necessary in order to introduce the project, its purpose and procedures to be followed. The head man (a beneficiary as well as a key informant) also assisted in the identification of some participants (non-recipients) who were involved in this study.

3.10 Research instruments

Research instruments are fact finding strategies or tools for data collection, these principally include questionnaire, interview, observation, and transcribing (Godfred, A., 2015). In this case, interviews were conducted, and unstructured questionnaires were used to guide the interview process. The researcher trained two research assistants who helped to transcribe notes during the interview process and during observation.

3.10.1 In-depth interviews

An interview can be defined as an interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee in which the interviewer has the general plan of enquiry, including the topics to be covered during the interview (Babbie, 2016:311). According to Depoy & Gilson (2008:108), interviewing is the predominant mode of data collection in qualitative research. The authors further argue that researchers obtain information through direct interchange with an individual or a group that is known or is expected to possess the knowledge they seek. There are fundamental things that a researcher has to do if they are to produce a proper research report when using this method. These are summed up by Monette, Sullivan & Dejong (2005:178), who argue that the quantity and quality of information exchanged depends on how astute and creative the interviewer is at understanding and managing the relationship with participants. Therefore, to get detailed, quality information, the researcher employed interviewing skills acquired in his years as a Social Science researcher. The

researcher also established rapport with participants and trust for them feel free and comfortable in sharing information with the researcher during the interview.

In-depth interviews were explicitly used as the method of data collection. In-depth interviews allow participants to develop their account of issues that are important to them (Green & Thorogood, 2009:94). Participants were not influenced to respond in a particular manner. The interviews also provided new ideas that the researcher had not thought about before the study. Also, in-depth interviews are more flexible than structured interviews since they allow for probing and clarification of questions and responses (Kumar 2011:251). With this in mind, the researcher was able to discuss issues in detail with participants and wherever responses were left hanging, the researcher probed for more information. The researcher clarified questions in a manner that could be understood by participants, thus giving rise to more valid findings. Open-ended questions, one question at a time, were asked and the researcher ensured that they were brief and clear. The interviews were conducted in venues where participants felt comfortable and away from any form of distractions or disturbances (see appendix 14.2.).

3.10.1.1 Interview notes

During the in-depth interviews, the researcher transcribed the information as the participants gave their responses. A researcher has to take notes of the interview because this helps him or her to remember the details of the interview long after the interview. Babbie (2011:315) argues that it is vital to take accurate and full notes of what transpires and warns that one must not trust their memory more than they have to. De Vos *et al.* (2011:359) advise that one should sit down immediately after the interview and write down any significant impressions. The authors further maintain such notes help one to remember and explore the process of the interview. The researcher carefully took notes during the interviews by actively listening to the participants and taking down their responses as quickly as possible.

3.10.1.2 Recording

There are high chances of missing vital information when taking interview notes. A tape-recorder was also used to record interviews as a complementary method of data collection in order to guard against loss of information. The recordings were also useful during analysis of the data as the researcher could replay the sessions.

De Vos *et al.* (2011:359) posit that if it is possible and if permission is obtained from participants, the researcher should tape, or video record the interview. Smith *et al.* (1995:17) share the same conviction and maintain a tape recorder allows a much fuller record than notes taken during the interview. In this study, a voice recorder was used to capture the full contents of interviews. Participants were informed before the interview that a voice recorder would be used as an assistive device. The voice recorder was only used in interviews where participants had consented to its use.

3.10.2 Observation

Observations were used in order to complement the in-depth interviews. An observation is a data collection method in qualitative research whereby data are collected by watching and listening to a phenomenon as it is occurring (Kumar, 2011: 390). A non-participant type of observation was used in the study since the researcher was just a passive observer, watching and listening as participants acted. The researcher observed participants as they received food aid from NGOs and also observed some projects designed to reduce food shortage in Chief Maziofa Village, Mberengwa West. The researcher took notes in a field book during the process. The importance of observation, informal discussions and interactions with members of the study population, was also noted as they are necessary apparatuses of this method. Since they were recorded in the field, they contained invaluable data which could not be recorded using the voice recorder.

3.11 Data analysis

Data analysis is the process of making meaning out of the data collected. Generally, one can say that data analysis is dissecting chunks of data, reducing them into meaningful units that can be weaved into a comprehensive research report. Schwandt (2007:6) defines data analysis as a process of bringing order, structure, and meaning to the mass of collected data, and broadly, this is an activity of making sense of, interpreting and theorising data. Qualitative research aims to understand the phenomenon from the different viewpoints of participants.

Thematic analysis was used to analyse data because of its strength in deriving a wealth of information from in-depth interviews. Thematic analysis is a method of identifying, organising and offering insight into patterns of meaning across data (Braun, Clarke & Terry, 2012:60). Six phases of thematic analysis were followed in

analysing the contents of the interviews and observations. The first phase involved the researcher familiarising himself with the data, by immersing in the data through reading and rereading the interview transcripts (Braun *et al.*, 2012:60). During this stage, the researcher and assistants went through the interview transcripts and listened to the audio recordings repeatedly in order to understand the data intimately. The researcher and assistants took notes, which enabled them to think more deeply about the meaning of the data. During this phase, the researcher repeatedly reviewed the recorded and transcribed data.

The second phase involved the generation of initial codes. During this stage, codes were identified and provided with a label for future data relevant to the research question (Braun *et al.*, 2012:61). The researcher conducted this stage by reading the texts to identify an extract to be coded. Once the extract was identified, the researcher wrote down the code. As the researcher proceeded with the coding, new codes were identified for new data and existing ones modified to cooperate with the existing ones.

The third phase involved searching for themes. According to Braun and Clarke (2006:82), a theme captures something important about the research question and represents some level of meaning within the data set. Themes were generated by reviewing the coded data and identifying areas of similarity, clustering or grouping codes that shared similar features. This clustering of codes is described as the process of coming up with themes.

The fourth phase involved reviewing possible themes (Braun *et al.*, 2012:64). The researcher examined emerging themes and compared them to the coded data and the entire data set. This was to check if the coding and clustering were done correctly. The fifth phase involved defining and naming the themes (Braun *et al.*, 2012:66). During this stage, all unique aspects of each theme were stated. The researcher made sure that the themes contained the research questions asked in the study. These themes were named, and some extracts were selected to present and analyse the data under each theme. Data under each theme was narrated in a manner that informed the reader of the interpretation of the data and its meaning. The last phase consisted of writing the report.

3.12 Trustworthiness

In qualitative studies, it is difficult to measure the validity and reliability of the research data. Qualitative researchers have proposed different criteria by which qualitative studies should be judged or evaluated. According to Bryman (2012: 390), some qualitative writers have suggested that qualitative studies should be judged according to different a criterion. Thus, the term trustworthiness has been found to be a right criterion to ensure that qualitative methods measure what they are supposed to measure. Measures to ensure trustworthiness of data are discussed below.

3.12.1 Confirmability

Confirmability refers to the ability of the researcher not to allow his or her values and judgement to intrude on the findings (Bryman, 2012:49). The researcher did not influence the views of participants or alter the findings of the study. The findings of the study are a true reflection of the views of participants. To ensure confirmability, data collection and analysis were done by the researcher, an assistant and a peer from another institution. Recordings were replayed to ensure that the data was transcribed correctly as articulated by participants.

3.12.2 Dependability

Dependability refers to the constancy of the results if the same thing is measured twice (Kumar, 2011:185). To achieve dependability of the findings, the same data were analysed by two researchers at separate times and these findings compared. Inconsistencies in the data were discussed and addressed. The data were also coded and recoded after a few weeks to see if the findings were still the same. The findings were also discussed with a peer registered for Doctoral Studies in another institution. The peer helped to identify categories that were not covered by the research and other themes left out during the analysis.

3.12.3 Transferability

Transferability refers to the degree to which the results of a study can be generalised and transferred to other contexts (Bryman, 2012:392). The researcher ensured that the findings could apply to related studies from similar contexts. Furthermore, the researcher ensured that the data collected from participants and recorded were analysed to the best of the researcher's ability. This was done so that those who

wish to use the findings for policy and in other contexts similar to the study, would find it easy to use. The researcher also thoroughly described the process adopted for data collection for others with similar studies to follow and replicate.

3.12.4 Credibility

Credibility is concerned with establishing that the results of the study are believable from the perspective of respondents (Kumar, 2011:185). Thus, the researcher has to submit the results back to respondents to ensure that he or she has understood their social reality. This is called respondent validation (Bryman, 2012:390). Thus, the credibility of the findings was ensured by using triangulation whereby interviews were supplemented by observations to ensure that the findings of the study are credible.

3.13 Limitations of the study

Various challenges were faced during the data collection stage. Firstly, some participants were unwilling to take part in the study as they expected some form of reward for their participation. Thus, the researcher had to identify participants who were willing to participate without any form of compensation. Due to the sparse road network, the researcher also experienced challenges in reaching far flung areas. Hence, the researcher had to reschedule some appointments since some areas could not be easily accessed during the times agreed upon.

3.14 Ethical considerations

During research, process ethics need to be safeguarded and taken into account to protect the rights of participants. There are always ethical issues that are involved with research, and the sections below focus on ethical concerns that were addressed in this study such as avoidance of harm, voluntary participation, informed consent, avoiding deception and anonymity.

3.14.1 Avoidance of harm

Social research should take measures to avoid harming participants. This can include physical, legal and emotional harm. According to Babbie (2016:27), a fundamental rule of social research is that it must bring no harm to participants. Generally, in Social Sciences, harm that can be caused is usually emotional, thus the researcher avoided asking questions that were too personal, and before the study, the researcher thoroughly explained the potential impacts of the study to participants. Additionally, to avoid emotional harm during interviews, the researcher

requested participants to notify him of any discomfort during the interviews, they should inform the researcher. Participants were also informed that they were free to withdraw from the interviews whenever they felt uncomfortable.

3.14.2 Voluntary participation

The researcher assured participants that participation in the study was voluntary. Babbie (2016:71) argue that participation should always be voluntary, and no one should be forced to participate in a project. Participants were also informed that they could withdraw from the research at any moment without giving any reasons for doing so.

3.14.3 Informed consent

Informed consent implies that participants voluntarily agree to participate in a study upon understanding all the risks involved (Babbie, 2016:64). According to Bryman (2012:138), the principle of informed consent implies that prospective research participants should be given as much information as they might need for them to make informed decisions about whether to take part in the study or not. Participants should never be forced into participating without understanding the purpose and other information related to the study. Grinnell and Unrau (2010:37) argue that the respect for persons requires that research participants must be given the opportunity of choosing what shall or shall not happen to them. In this study, the researcher provided written informed consent forms to all participants as a form of proof. The researcher then explained the significance of the study and why their information was important. After participants had understood the purpose of the study, they were expected to sign the consent forms as proof that they had consented to participate in the study.

3.14.4 Avoiding deception

The other ethical consideration that the researcher took into account was to avoid deception of research participants or respondents. Struwig *et al.* (2001:69) refer to deception as misleading participants by deliberately misrepresenting facts or withholding information from participants. For example, participants in this study felt participation would result in them benefiting from NGOs in the study area, thus it was the duty of the researcher to clearly outline and explain that there were no material or financial benefits other than providing data and that the study was solely for

academic purposes. The researcher was also truthful in describing the purpose of this study and any other information required by participants.

3.14.5 Anonymity

Anonymity is an ethical principle achieved by making sure that information from respondents cannot be linked to a given respondent (Babbie, 2016:65). To safeguard the responses of participants from being connected directly to them, pseudonyms were used instead of real names.

3.15 Conclusion

This chapter has spelt out the research methodology used in conducting this study and in achieving the objectives of the research project. The research paradigm, research approach, study design and type of study were described and discussed. The population, location and sampling techniques used in the study were also explained. Furthermore, the methods used for data collection and analysis, measures to ensure trustworthiness of data, challenges encountered during data collection and ethical concerns were also discussed. An explanation of the choice of a qualitative approach and its techniques were also provided. The next chapter focuses on the presentation, analysis and discussion of data collected during interviews, observations and analysis of documents.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the presentation and analysis of the findings of the study. The findings are presented through tables, and each table only captures responses from participants whose input directly referred to or addressed the theme in question. Firstly, the central themes are identified, before connecting factors, arguments and perceptions of the themes into more specific sub-themes. Each sub-theme is substantiated by direct quotations from the in-depth interviews. Finally, themes and sub-themes are compared and contrasted with relevant sources from the literature discussed.

Data were collected through in-depth interviews. A total sample of 20 participants were identified for the study. However, sixteen participants were current or previous recipients of the CARE programme, two were non-recipients, while two others were employees of CARE involved in programme operations. All beneficiaries of the programme and two non-beneficiaries were engaged in farming activities as a primary source of food security. Six of the recipients also supplemented their livelihoods through casual employment opportunities (piece jobs).

4.1.1 Basic information and demographic data

Demographic data was collected to profile and describe recipients of CARE food security programmes. The average age of participants was 50.81 years, 10 respondents were female and 6 were male. Most of the respondents had no employment history and relied on subsistence farming as a source of income.

Table 4.1 Basic information and demography

Participants	Age	Gender	Marital status	No of family members	Employment history	Current source of income
Participant 1	56	Male	Married	4	Retired	Son's salary + subsistence farming
Participant 2	58	Female	Widow	10	None	Subsistence farming
Participant 3	23	Male	N/A	4	None	Father's salary + subsistence farming
Participant 4	67	Male	Married	7	Retired	Son's salary + subsistence farming
Participant 5	60	Male	Widower	7	Retired	Children's salaries + subsistence farming
Participant 6	45	Female	Married	6	None	Husband's salary + subsistence farming
Participant 7	48	Male	Married	10	None	Subsistence farming

Participant 8	81	Female	Widow	3	None	Subsistence farming
Participant 9	50	Female	Married	7	None	Subsistence farming
Participant 10	79	Female	Widow	5	None	Subsistence farming
Participant 11	65	Female	Widow	4	None	Subsistence farming
Participant 12	43	Female	Married	5	None	Husband's salary + Subsistence farming
Participant 13	46	Female	Married	5	None	Husband's salary + Subsistence farming
Participant 15	57	Female	Widower	5	None	Sons' salaries + subsistence farming
Participant 16	35	Female	Divorced	5	None	Subsistence farming

Data analysis techniques employed in the study included triangulation of data from in-depth interviews, observation transcripts, documents analysis and research memos. These were entered into an Excel database to provide structure and flexibility to the management and integration of different types of data (Bazeley, 2009). The research questions and conceptual framework generated an initial start list of analytical codes, developed during data analysis. Triangulation enabled the search for convergence and divergence in multiple sources of information gathered to build and confirm (or disconfirm) analytic themes (Creswell, 2013).

Thematic analysis was then applied as the primary data analysis method with the aim of bringing out the central themes that emerged from the research questions.

The broad research questions that guided the interviews and data analysis were as follows:

1. To what extent do programmes provided by CARE assist beneficiaries in order to attain food security?
2. What if any, are the empowerment strategies provided by CARE to beneficiaries of its food security programmes?
3. What are the views of the community with regards to nature of food security programmes provided by CARE? and
4. What are the challenges faced by CARE in its service provision efforts?

4.2 Overview of themes

Five major themes and 17 sub-themes were identified in the study. The following major themes were identified in the study:

- Interventions by CARE with regard to food security;

- Empowerment and empowerment challenges;
- Community and individual efforts to ensure sustainability;
- The role of government in food security; and
- Challenges faced by CARE in its food security quest.

These themes are presented and discussed in detail in the following sections.

4.3 Interventions with regard to food security

Interventions by CARE with regard to food security in Chief Mazivofa Village emerged as the first major theme. This theme emerged after analysing the duration, types and forms of food support received from CARE by villagers.

4.3.1 Types of interventions

It emerged that villagers received basic food allocations monthly. This included maize, beans, barley, cooking oil, mealie-meal and peas. Some villagers received cash or mobile money transfers to purchase foodstuffs while some indicated that they received cash vouchers. The researcher concludes that the discrepancy in different food stuffs/benefits was based on their individual needs and situation. These were direct food security interventions aimed at meeting the immediate consumption needs of communities. Table 4.1 presents the findings on actual food support received by participants.

Table 4.2: Food support from CARE

Recipient No	Barley	Beans/Peas	Mealie meal	Cooking oil	Cash
Beneficiary 1	x	X	X		
Beneficiary 2	x	X	X	x	
Beneficiary 3	x	X		x	
Beneficiary 4	x		X	x	
Beneficiary 5	x	X	X	x	X
Beneficiary 6					X
Beneficiary 7					X
Beneficiary 8		X	X		X
Beneficiary 9	x	X	X	x	
Beneficiary 10			X		
Beneficiary 11	x	X	X		

Beneficiary 12	x	X	X	x	
Beneficiary 13	x	X	X		
Beneficiary 14	x	X	x		
Beneficiary 15	x	X	x	x	
Beneficiary 16		X		x	

The degree to which food support was definite (and, therefore, secure) is classified into a sub-theme discussed below. The relief approach to addressing food shortages in Chief Maziofa village through basic foodstuffs as listed above, is almost consistent with what other researchers doing studies elsewhere have found in their research. Jerie & Matanga (2011:2) indicate that in drought situations, the primary course of action was to deliver international relief and food aid. Sithole & Coetzee (2013:33) concur with this view and argue that, as in many other countries in similar situations of distress, the most common response to the food crisis in Zimbabwe has been the provision of food aid by the International donor community, targeting vulnerable people mainly in rural areas. The authors do not, however, mention the distribution of actual cash as a form of intervention. This was identified as a form of intervention in the current study as alluded to by participants 5, 6 and 7. The researcher believes that this method of intervention allows the recipients to buy some of the essentials they do not have.

4.3.2 Period of food security and consistency

Jones, Ngure, Peltó & Young (2013:482) state that food security may be said to be in existence when all people, always, can access adequate nourishing food, that is safe to consume as well as that which meets both their food preferences and their dietary needs, for a lively and healthy life. Generally, the notion of food security rests on the nature of accessibility to food, availability of food and the sustainability of food supply. With this argument in mind, participants discussed the period during which they have been receiving food support as well as the consistency of such support. Consistent support over a long duration is an indication of some guaranteed security of the programme. The findings from the interviews show that participants received support for at least three years with some, however, suggesting that CARE had been operating in the area for 15 years.

With regard to monthly consistency, participants stated that they received food aid every month, with the exception of one participant who was skipped for some of the months on a technicality but was later compensated for those months. Such mistakes by CARE results in skipped families being exposed to the harsh effects of hunger due to food shortages. Table 4.2 shows a summary with regard to consistency of support received by participants in the last 12 months before the interviews.

Table 4.3: Consistency with regard to food aid (short-term interventions) - 12 months

Support in the last 12 months	Participant
11 Months	Participant 4
12 Months	Participants 1,2,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14 and15
Four times a year	Participant 16

Generally, there was consistency in the provision of food supplies (according to most participants). Under the same sub-theme, however, participant 3 indicated that it was possible for CARE to stop supporting any household due to policy changes. This situation amplifies the matrix of the power play entrenched in the structures of NGOs as institutions *vis-à-vis* recipients. CARE Zimbabwe on their website indicates that their overall goal is to empower disadvantaged and poor households to meet their basic needs and that their programs promote sustainable livelihoods of poor and vulnerable people (CARE,2019). However, responses from participants appear to suggest that they are at the mercy of CARE and have no power or control over projects implemented in their area. Based on this premise it can be concluded that recipients are not sufficiently empowered to attain food security in the absence of CARE programmes. This observation comes short to what Livingstone (2012: i) envisages empowerment to be, he argues that empowerment enhances the power of beneficiaries to influence and make the organs that fend for them answerable. Narayan (2000: xviii) as cited in Livingstone (2012:23), posits that empowerment is an expansion of the forte and capabilities of beneficiaries to participate in, negotiate with, influence, control and hold accountable, institutions that affect their lives.

Participant 3 narrated how this sudden loss of support occurred in his household as follows:

[CARE] helped a lot in this area. However, we are struggling now that they have excluded us only to give the elderly and the sick. - Participants 3

The plight highlighted by this participant, who is a father of four, is an indication of how insecure CARE programmes could be. Their intervention could or can be withdrawn at any time despite having existed for a long period. This view corroborates with that of Sithole and Coetzee (2013:37) who argue that in as much as food aid is beneficial to receiving communities, as it saves lives, it, however, generates problems eventually as it is short-term in nature and no continuity of aid can be expected. This scenario raises more questions than answers as to the effectiveness and sustainability of intervention in terms of food aid.

While participant 11 concurred that CARE suddenly stopped supporting some households, some provided a different reason; they were of the view that food aid ended as a response to changes in their food security status as captured in the excerpt below:

CARE stopped because people started having good harvests – Participant 11

Participant 20 (a key informant) concurred with the view shared by participant 11 and maintained as follows:

They usually end towards the farming season and harvesting season because they believe people can be able to provide for themselves through the harvest. It also depends on the availability of funds. – Participant 20

The above inconsistencies between participant 3 who was taken out of the programme and participants 11 and 20, present a challenge in ascertaining and reconciling the actual food security situation and the efficacy of short-term interventions.

CARE also implemented several medium to long-term interventions that were meant to enhance food security within Chief Mazivofa community. Specifically, these were community gardens where households farmed vegetables; the provision of water

wells to support gardening and the *mazhanje* (*Uapaca kirkiana* or *sugar plum*) Jam-making project. These are captured in Table 4.3 below.

4.4 Community gardens and Jam-making (Medium – Long-term interventions)

Participant 2	<i>We have also made sure that we fully take part in community gardens projects and we are doing well in that area.</i>
Participant 3	<i>Yes, they have started small gardens and taught us Jam-making from Mazhanje fruit.</i>
Participant 4	<i>There was much development through their projects, and we gained so much knowledge but what is lacking is the capital and equipment investment to start our projects that will make us less dependent.</i>
Participant 5	<i>We appreciate how they helped us with the digging of wells; this reduced the distances we walked to fetch water.</i>
Participant 6	<i>CARE encouraged people to work for themselves, and this helped a lot, but they should have helped people with entrepreneurship skills so that they can market their products and make a living.</i>
Participant 9	<i>Digging of wells near our homes and educating us on making fruit Jam to earn a living were some of the things they did.</i>
Participant 10	<i>We do community gardens; this helps us to boost our food coffers as well as improving our diet.</i>

There is a perception that intervention by CARE in this regard was positively received and is consistent with findings by Sogge (2002) as cited in Sogge (2015:280) who observed that aid is given with a glow of contentment and received with appreciation, the givers and receivers, in their public utterances, give a standing ovation to foreign aid as a noble idea that should persist.

Table 4.5: Medium-long term interventions

Participant 3	<i>I feel they should assist us to build a community processing plant where we commercially produce Mazhanje jam. Equip the youth with entrepreneurship skills so that we can be able to market and sell the jam to bigger markets.</i>
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Participant 5	<i>CARE helped a lot with food items, but we think they should also help with funding so that we do easy projects that we know about like broiler and layers chicken rearing.</i>
Participant 7	<i>CARE helped a lot in this area in times of need, but we also need sustainable projects other than to be given food items. When CARE leaves, we need something that will sustain us.</i>
Participant 11	<i>Projects like poultry, livestock rearing, since we are in region 5 of the country, growing up, we knew this region as cattle ranching zone. They could entrust the livestock in the hands of a community or groups of people, in that way, they would get maximum care and will not be sold just like that as there will be consensus needed at first.</i>
Participant 14	<i>Speaking of projects, many of our people feel that the government and NGOs, especially CARE, should capacitate us to produce a surplus and, in that way, we can cushion the old and the sick under our traditional methods like durarashe/zunde ramambo (Chief's granaries where food is stored and distributed to the needy in times of lack).</i>

Participant 3 believes CARE should have invested in a processing plant to unlock the value of projects introduced. Participant 5 is of the view that CARE should introduce projects that the community is familiar with such as poultry farming. Participant 7 indicated that while CARE projects were welcome, the organisation should consider the sustainability of such projects. In all these instances, respondents identified gaps between current food security projects provided by CARE and food security projects expected by participants. The comment by participant 1 points towards limited consultation with affected communities as a reason for this discrepancy as captured in the excerpt below:

However, we wish that CARE can consult more and understand what exactly we need to come out of.

The above assertion concurs with the researchers' assumption that development programmes spearheaded by NGOs do not address the real needs of the Mazivofa community. Mawere and Chingozha (2015:138) point out that benevolent-focused NGOs generally concentrate on sustaining a giver-receiver relationship where they provide aid to the receiver without much consultation. Their focus is to meet an immediate need rather than a long-term sustainability goal. This approach poses dangers of disempowering the recipients and fostering dependency. This argument is strongly evident in the views of participants that there is inadequate consultation by CARE. The researcher is of the opinion that CARE has to over time refocus its objectives to adequately meet the pressing issues of the area under study by understanding the contextual needs and challenges of the community, through an extensive needs assessment process.

4.3.3 Justification for intervention

Another sub-theme with regard to food security consisted of the justification for CARE support provided to households. It emerged from the findings that participants qualified for relief based on the following criteria:

- Need;
- Age;
- Health status; and
- Their status as orphans.

The requirements above are constant with Mawere and Chingozha's (2015:138) assertion that benevolent angle NGOs often include those with activities focused on meeting the needs of the poor and the aged.

A problematic economy, unemployment, large dependency ratios, drought and low agricultural productivity are factors that contribute to the request for assistance. These factors are confirmed by Gwarinda *et al.* (2015:122) who argue that Zimbabwe faced a severe fiscal crisis, negative economic growth, rising unemployment and poverty. Under the given circumstances, participants generally concurred with the view that CARE support was a critical necessity and helpful intervention.

Table 4.5: Selection criteria for food aid by CARE

Participant	Food security and Welfare scenario before CARE intervention.	Selection criteria for CARE
Participant 1	<i>No food, drought, no farming equipment</i>	Age and need
Participant 2	<i>We survived through wild fruits and the harvest we got from our subsistence farming.</i>	Age and need
Participant 3	<i>There was drought, and as you can see from what we harvest, it is not sufficient.</i>	Need
Participant 4	<i>There was malnutrition among the people; many families were hungry.</i>	We have orphans and age
Participant 5	<i>There was prolonged drought, and the harvests were poor.</i>	Age
Participant 6	<i>We survived on wild fruits</i>	Age
Participant 7	<i>People survived on wild fruits; some would go to bed without having eaten.</i>	large family
Participant 8	<i>Life was hard</i>	Age
Participant 9	<i>Not enough, we survived through wild fruits.</i>	Need
Participant 10	<i>Things were tough</i>	Age, widowed
Participant 11	<i>Drought</i>	It was giving everyone
Participant 12	<i>It was terrible; we used to do piece jobs for those who had food for us to survive.</i>	Orphans
Participant 13	<i>People were struggling.</i>	Age, sickness
Participant 14	<i>People were struggling because of the drought.</i>	Age and need
Participant 15	<i>We did buying and selling; if one had good harvests, you would sell to others.</i>	Age
Participant 16	<i>Hunger</i>	CARE was giving everyone

The table above shows that Mazivofa community was quite needy when CARE intervened and CARE's support, *prima facie*, was a timely intervention. Tawodzera and Crush (2016:1) discuss the social, economic and political challenges that

Zimbabwe went through in the past two decades and how this exposed communities to food security challenges. The harsh economy, alongside an unfavourable climate, were significant causes of hunger. Hunger and scenarios of food shortage are vividly depicted in the findings where capacity of participants to fend for themselves was severely diminished. However, participants did not mention political upheaval as a cause of food insecurity. They limited the causes of food insecurity to ecological factors.

4.4 Empowerment

The second major theme that emerged from the findings was in respect of the effect of empowerment programmes provided by CARE on Chief Mazivofa Village community.

4.4.1 Post-CARE food security scenario

With regard to empowerment, participants highlighted possible food security scenarios that could occur if CARE was to leave. These discussions focused on whether or not the community was empowered to sustain its food security after the 3 to 15 years that CARE had offered support and food packages to them.

There was a strong feeling that the community was not empowered enough to sustain itself if CARE were to withdraw its support at the time. This was due to various justifiable causes such as economic challenges, unfavourable climatic conditions and the generally high dependency ratio in the community (large numbers of aged and sick people who needed support). Dependency, which is one of the identified post-CARE effects, is discussed later as an independent sub-theme. The view that the Mazivofa community had not been sufficiently empowered resonates with the literature on the scope of empowerment rendered through NGOs where Foot and Hopkins (2010:7) state that the more familiar 'deficit' approach focuses on the problems, needs and deficiencies in a community such as deprivation, illness and health-damaging behaviours. The deficit approach designs services to fill the gaps and fix the problems. As a result, a community can feel disempowered and dependent; people can become passive recipients of services rather than active agents in their own lives and those of their families.

Table 4.6 shows some possible adverse scenarios that could occur if CARE were to withdraw from the community (from the perspectives of participants 1, 10 and 12).

Table 4.6: Post-Care scenarios

Participant 1	<i>Hardships. However, when at times CARE takes time to respond to our challenges, Social Welfare helps. The rains are poor, and we have no source of income-generating projects.</i>
Participant 10	<i>People would struggle because generally, the economy is bad, and the harvests are poor because of an unpredictable climate.</i>
Participant 12	<i>Things would be hard, and people would be forced to resort to other activities like food for work.</i>

Participants, in this instance, believed that the community was not sufficiently empowered with self-sustaining projects and the pre-CARE scenario would resurface where “...life was very hard”, as submitted by participant 8. This fear, as observed by participants 1, 8 and 12, has also been evident in the literature where Hoeffler and Outram (2011:40) state that NGOs pursue organisational agendas at the expense of realistically empowering the populace such that they could function on their own, and as a community. If this is the case that the community is not sufficiently empowered, it is vital for CARE to refocus its objectives and align with the real needs of the community. Aligning with the community will ensure improved participation and consequently an improved impact.

A view that directly contrasts the one above is that Chief Mazivofa community could survive on its own after CARE’s withdrawal. This is largely justified on the basis that parallel government projects were already running in the area and these would, in the views of participant 1, Social Welfare will immediately close the gap CARE would have left. Participants shared the view that the Food-for-Work Programme, where the government gave people food for participating in public work programmes, would probably absorb some of the burdens. Table 4.7 shows the responses from participants 6, 8, 12 and 16, who shared the view that the Food-for-Work Programme would assist the community if CARE were to leave.

Table 4.7: Food-for-work as a potential post-Care intervention initiative/strategy

Participant 6	<i>“People will enrol on food for work programmes.”</i>
Participant 8	<i>“Food for work but people would go hungry.”</i>

Participant 12	<i>"Things would be hard, and people would be forced to resort to other activities like food for work."</i>
Participant 16	<i>"People will survive on food for work."</i>

Participants 8 and 12, however, indicated that life would be slightly harder even with food-for-work programmes, while participant 8 believed people would go hungry.

Other potential projects expected to help close the gap and that could come in the post-CARE period would include the following: the *Mucheneko* Project (a loan-oriented mechanism that provides input and takes back more through the payback time) where the government lent communities farming inputs; promoted irrigation projects; and government social welfare programmes.

The view that hunger would set in if CARE were to leave, aligns with Sithole and Coetzee's (2013:37) argument that NGOs did not guarantee continuity of food security and aid in general. This possible scenario would quickly plunge communities that would have become accustomed to the aid, into a crisis once the NGOs left. However, some community members believe government had set up mechanisms to replace NGO aid if it was to cease.

4.4.2 Dependency

The effects of the dependency syndrome created by CARE support programmes in the Chief Mazivofa Village community could result in greater suffering and impoverishment of the community if CARE were to leave. According to some participants, this is an indication that CARE's programmes might not have empowered communities enough to sustain their food security needs. Participants 5, 17 and 18 support this view as shown in the table below.

Table 4.8: Post-CARE scenarios

Participant 5	<i>"People will continue with farming, but it will be rather difficult because the rains are still not reliable. Some who have the habit of waiting for CARE, will surely starve."</i>
Participant 15	<i>"I think those who are dependent might suffer. However, some might rediscover their form in subsistence farming."</i>

Participant 16	<i>"It will be an inconvenient situation for most of these people since they do not have enough skills to survive without food aid."</i>
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Participants also spoke about negative behavioural traits that materialised alongside the dependency syndrome discussed above. Some community members stopped farming altogether with others relocating from productive farmlands for the mere purpose of getting food aid. Others are reported to have stopped working for themselves even when provided with employment opportunities. This behaviour perpetuates the cycle of food insecurity as it has been already discussed that there is likelihood of policy uncertainty that can leave CARE recipients vulnerable. These behaviours are captured in the statements of participants 3, 7, 11 and 16, as shown in Table 4.9 below.

Table 4.9: Dependency syndrome resulting from CARE support

Participant 3	<i>"...somehow, I feel that the presence of CARE has made some people lazy; when the rains are bad, they easily give up."</i>
Participant 7	<i>"People are now becoming lazy and being too dependent on CARE. Back in the days, we used to farm and produce a surplus that we would sell to GMB. Now, people do not fully farm but rather, wait on aid."</i>
Participant 11	<i>"Yes, people are too dependent, even if [distribution of food packs] was far people would go to receive food aid. A lot of people have stopped engaging in meaningful crop farming as they prefer to wait for CARE."</i>
Participant 17	<i>"The challenge is that these programmes have destroyed the work ethic of our people. Instead of working in their respective fields to produce even a small harvest, some wait until CARE responds to their need."</i> <i>"Some people left their plots and went back to the reserves to receive CARE. That is the bad side of it, but like I said, they do make a difference during hard times."</i>

There is a general agreement that CARE's assistance and interventions are necessary, although this is causing the development of an unfortunate dependency tendency and defeatism in some households. Sithole and Coetzee (2013:37) discuss excessive dependency on aid as one of the consequences of heavily relying on NGOs. Communities eventually begin to lack the ability to sustain themselves even when the situation permits. This is evident from discussions with participants that a considerable section of the community was now solely dependent on food aid even if they could produce their food if they put some effort into it.

4.4.3 Necessity versus Dependency

While some blame food aid programmes for creating unnecessary dependency in the community, others hold the view that environmental challenges rather than general laziness were to blame for this unfortunate scenario. The harsh macroeconomic and climatic environments created a situation where some households simply had no option other than to depend on food aid. Table 4.10 below summarises the views of participants 1, 3, 7 and 8. These participants believed that community members, sometimes, merely had no option other than to depend on food aid.

Table 4.10: Necessity versus dependency

Participant 1	<i>I cannot say there are many people who are dependent on CARE, but environmental factors affected their crops. In the past years, the rains were good, and we had a lot of people staying in this area. However, a lot died due to HIV & Aids, some migrated due to economic hardships, and this left the old and sick behind. The old and sick cannot work in the fields and produce much, so CARE is their saviour.</i>
Participant 3	<i>Yes, people are now dependent because there is scarcity of maize seeds and some cannot afford to buy food. The harvests are inadequate, and that leaves us without an option but hope that CARE will help us. However, somehow, I feel that the presence of CARE has made some people lazy [such that even] when the rains are good, they quickly give up.</i>

Participant 8	<i>Times are hard, the economy is not performing, and our children cannot send money to assist us. Here, the climate is terrible, and we have experienced prolonged droughts, and that has resulted in reduced harvests. These scenarios leave us without an option but to depend on food aid.</i>
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Participant 1 mentioned high dependency ratios because of migration and death of economically active persons who used to be capable producers of food in the community. Participant 3 blames it on lack of affordability of foodstuffs while participant 8 attributes dependency on CARE to the harsh economy and climatic conditions.

From the observations above, it can be deduced that participants identified two types of dependency. The first one is where the community reneges on its role of putting efforts towards its food security needs, instead it takes advantage of the fact CARE would take responsibility for these needs. The second one is where there is an acceptance that there is a part of the community that may not have any other option but is forced to wholly depend on CARE.

4.5 Empowerment challenges

The Chief Mazivofa Village community has faced various impediments to empowerment and self-sustenance. These made it difficult for the community to become self-sustaining with regard to food security. Issues pertaining to empowerment challenges include funding, accessibility to projects and skills as well as knowledge.

4.5.1 Funding challenges

Funding emerged as a commonly acknowledged shortcoming that made it difficult for the community to be empowered and develop its own food security. From the interviewees, finance was required for start-up, expansion and commercialisation of entrepreneurial projects inspired by CARE. These included jam production, market gardening, poultry and livestock production and crop production. Such funding was required either as grants or loans. Participants 4, 5 and 6 mentioned the importance of funding for projects as shown in Table 4.11 below.

Table 4.11: Funding challenges

Participant 4	<i>"...but what is lacking is capital and equipment investment to start our projects that will make us less dependent."</i>
Participant 6	<i>"They should help with sustainable projects like piggery, educate people on how to do these projects and help with capital investment."</i>
Participant 5	<i>"CARE helped a lot with food items, but we think they should also help with funding so that we do less complicated projects that we know like broiler and layers rearing."</i>

Participant 4 believed CARE's support impeded self-sustenance by not providing funding for the implementation of income generating projects. Participants 5 and 6 also share the view that CARE ought to do more in its community support value chain by following-up on trained community members with funding for the implementation of various sustenance projects.

4.5.2 Challenges with accessibility to projects

Participants indicated that some of the projects run by CARE were not easily accessible, either because they were far away from the community, or were connected by a bad road network. Also, community members (older people and those who had health challenges) found it challenging to access these sites when they wanted to contribute towards food security. In such a state one can assume that there is reduced participation by the community resulting in less food production. Table 4.12 below provides responses associated with the physical accessibility of project sites.

Table 4.12: Challenges with regard to accessibility

Participant 2	<i>"Community gardens are far, and there is a need for better irrigation equipment to make the labour easier."</i> <i>"The roads are in a bad state, and this is making it difficult for us to travel. If I were to have a good business, say I produce eggs, I would not be able to take them to the market as the transport network is bad because of the deteriorating state of the roads. Most projects here in our village suffer because of the poor roads, and</i>
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	<i>this makes us remain in poverty."</i>
Participant 3	<i>"If we are to realise any progress, we need to have a good road network. We can do a lot of projects, but without good roads, we cannot access the market."</i>
Participant 4	<i>"They should help with fixing our roads so that it does not become costly to access the markets at Mberengwa growth point to sell our products."</i>
Participant 18	<i>"They should increase community gardens closer to the people and drill more boreholes."</i>

Participant 2 mentioned both physical distance and a sparse road network as impediments to accessibility to the market. Participant 3 maintained access to markets (to sell produced output) was also a challenge to self-sustenance while participants 18 and 3, felt that the distance to sponsored projects was too long for the community.

It can be inferred from the above assertions that CARE's efforts could, therefore, be affected by factors outside its control such as the state and nature of the road network. The community, however, still expects CARE to provide these amenities to them. With regard to distance, there is a view that the community needs might not have been thoroughly assessed to take into consideration the distances that community members would have to travel to participate in such projects actively. There is corroboration between Livingstone (2012:23) and Narayan (2000:xviii) that empowerment places people at the epicentre of the development process, where the bottom-up approach supersedes the bureaucratic and top-down approaches. One can therefore conclude that CARE failed to fully empower the community as they used a top down approach.

4.5.3 Skills and knowledge deficit

It was revealed that there was lack of skills in farming and entrepreneurship for CARE beneficiaries in Chief Mazivofa village. These were identified as hindrances to the success of food security projects introduced by CARE in the Chief Mazivofa

Village community. This scenario is contrary to what is depicted in existing literature. Livingstone (2012:23) argues that empowerment expands the abilities/skills of beneficiaries to tackle future programmes through the notion of participation. Participants 3, 5, 6, 9, 14 and 16 noted that market skills that would spur the commercialisation of goods produced, were essentially required in the community. Table 4.13 shows a summary of responses obtained from research participants.

Table 4.13: Challenges with regard to skills and knowledge

Participant 14	<i>"People should be exposed to entrepreneurship skills. In this way, they can generate income through effective identification and supply of markets with their produce."</i>
Participant 18	<i>"It will be an inconvenient situation for most of these people since they do not have enough skills to survive without food aid."</i>
Participant 3	<i>"CARE should invest more in equipping the youth of this area with income-generating projects...Equip the youth with entrepreneurship skills so that we can be able to market and sell the Jam to bigger markets."</i>
Participant 5	<i>"We were taught about Jam making, but we lack mass production equipment to commercialise the skill and entrepreneurship skills to market our produce..."</i>
Participant 6	<i>"CARE encouraged people to work for themselves, and this helped a lot, but they should have helped people with entrepreneurship skills so that they can be able to market their products and make a living."</i>
Participant 9	<i>"Although we were taught how to make fruit Jam and some other skills, I think they should help us with a ready market, and we also lack some entrepreneurship skills to boost our projects. It would be great if they educated us on some of these skills."</i>

The statements captured above show that participants viewed entrepreneurial interventions by CARE as incomplete. They capacitated the production of Jam and other items without integrating this with the access to market component required to convert the community efforts into sustainable income. This explains why the

community's food security status remained precarious despite their ability to produce marketable products.

4.6 Community and individual efforts towards food security

The community, as well as individuals, also had a role to play in ensuring food security during the CARE and possible post-CARE periods. The roles and efforts were comprehensive enough to constitute a theme whose sub-themes are explored below.

4.6.1 Conservative consumption

Some households indicated that they had become more economical in their consumption of agricultural produce as well as food aid. The conserved surplus would be consumed if CARE stopped food aid support. Table 4.14 shows the verbatim statements of participants who shared this view:

Table 4.14: Conservative consumption

Participant 2	<i>"We budget and minimise on wasting until the next allocation."</i>
Participant 3	<i>"Budget what we are given as much as possible."</i>
Participant 4	<i>"People are budgeting, and some are fully utilising community gardens."</i>
Participant 5	<i>"We are budgeting, we are taking part in community gardens, but the gardens are far. I believe our production levels would go up if the gardens were closer to us."</i>
Participant 6	<i>"People are budgeting because they know how hard things are..."</i>
Participant 7	<i>Some are budgeting, but some with smaller families are selling.</i>
Participant 8	<i>We are budgeting the little we get.</i>
Participant 11	<i>We were budgeting.</i>
Participant 16	<i>Budgeted money and food as well.</i>
Participant 18	<i>They are budgeting and supplementing with what they get from gardens as well.</i>

Ten participants indicated that budgeting was their strategy for ensuring future food security. The conservation practices mentioned above did not mean that communities had enough food to save for the future. Instead, communities were minimising and possibly going hungry so that they could have some food in the future. The statement by participant 8 that *"We are budgeting the little we get"*, (which means saving) is sufficient evidence of this assertion.

4.6.2 Community gardens

Participants also indicated that they participated in community gardens as part of building food security outside the food aid programmes. The community gardens get water from boreholes and small dams built by CARE and some that already exist in the community. Table 4.15 below presents the direct quotes from seven participants who talked about community gardens being their way of ensuring sustainability of food aid received.

Table 4.15: Community gardens

Participant 1	<i>"Our family is a bit small, and we are managing, we are growing vegetables in the garden. We, however, do not have enough equipment to make the Mazhanje jam at a commercial scale, and we do not have the market to sell it."</i>
Participant 4	<i>".... some are fully utilising community gardens."</i>
Participant 5	<i>"... we are taking part in community gardens, but the gardens are far. I believe our production levels would go up if the gardens were closer to us."</i>
Participant 10	<i>"We do community gardens; this helps us to boost our food coffers as well as improving our diet."</i>
Participant 12	<i>"People work at the irrigation even though the garden is far."</i>
Participant 14	<i>"We are working at the irrigation, and this helps beef up the food aid provided by CARE and by the government."</i>
Participant 18	<i>"They are budgeting and supplementing with what they get from gardens as well..."</i>

With regard to the number of participants who mentioned community gardens and their involvement in such projects, it can be concluded that community gardens were one of CARE's commonest medium-term interventions. Additionally, participation in community gardens also shows that participants were not wholly docile but did contribute towards ensuring food security in their community.

4.7 The role of Government

From the interviews, the government's role in ensuring food security in the Chief Mazivofa Village was widely discussed. The primary concern was to determine if the government was renegeing its responsibility of supporting impoverished and drought-stricken communities and leaving this role to Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), particularly CARE. From the responses of interviewees, it emerged that the government seemed to be playing a limited role in food security initiatives. Table 4.16 shows identified government interventions on food security within the community.

Table 4.16: Role of Government

Participant 2	<i>Government helps the elderly with money to buy livestock. It also provides maize seeds and the renovation of schools.</i>
Participant 3	<i>A programme called Mucheneko, where we are given maize then return when we have good harvests.</i>
Participant 4	<i>Yes, they do through Food-for-work, this is a programme where we work to develop our area, and in return, we get food. Mucheneko as well, this is where they give us maize in times of need, and we reimburse the government after our harvests.</i>
Participant 5	<i>Mucheneko programme, where we are given maize and return when the harvests are good.</i>
Participant 6	<i>Livestock, seeds and farming equipment.</i>
Participant 7	<i>Social welfare, food for work.</i>
Participant 8	<i>Social welfare</i>
Participant 9	<i>The government helped after CARE left, there was a programme called Mucheneko.</i>
Participant 10	<i>Introduced a programme called Mucheneko whereby they</i>

	<i>gave us maize, and we would return when we had harvested.</i>
Participant 11	<i>Mucheneko programme, whereby we were given maize seeds</i>
Participant 11	<i>The government provides food and social welfare services.</i>
Participant 12	<i>The Government gave people inputs like maize seeds and fertilizers.</i>
Participant 14	<i>Mucheneko programme, this is where we are given inputs by the government, and when we harvest, we must give a certain percentage to the government to help boost national food security.</i>
Participant 15	<i>The government provided maize seeds and fertilizers through a programme called Mucheneko.</i>
Participant 16	<i>The government offered little help, and it was those who were politically affiliated who benefited.</i>
Participant 17	<i>The government gave us land under the land reform programme; we also received farming inputs under the government programme called Command Agriculture. These government initiatives have helped many who have taken part in the projects.</i>
Participant 18	<i>The government introduced a programme called Mucheneko for small-scale farmers and then introduced Command Agriculture for large-scale farmers.</i>

The responses above reveal that the government had three types of interventions - short-term, medium-term and long-term interventions. Short-term interventions were aimed at providing immediate community feeding needs. These are exemplified by the Food-for-work Programme and Social Welfare Programmes (participants 2, 4, 7, 8 and 11). Medium-term interventions were meant to provide food security seasonally through agricultural support programmes, namely *Mucheneko*, to loan agrarian inputs to the community, which must return such inputs when the harvests were good (participants 3, 4, 5, 9, 10, 11, 14 and 18). Long-term interventions, as

derived from the perceptions of participants, included the provision of farming land (participant 17).

The government, therefore, played some role in providing and promoting food security in the Chief Mazivofa community. This role appears to be widely accepted (by 15 participants), an indication that it was quite well received by community members.

4.7.1 The political nature of Government intervention

With regard to the role of government in providing food security to the Chief Mazivofa Village community, it emerged that some participants saw government's role as politically motivated and, therefore, selective. The government, according to participants 9 and 11, provided aid to persons and households affiliated to a particular political following. This left a vacuum that CARE had to fill by supporting those households neglected and sidelined by the government because of their different political affiliation. Below are direct quotes from participants 9 and 16 on the political bias arguments presented above:

CARE helped a lot; we wish it comes back. It was also not politically inclined. Digging of wells near our homes and educating us in making fruit jam to earn a living were some of the things they did.

Participant 16 stated as follows:

Government offered little help, and it was politically affiliated.

Participant 9 believed that CARE's support was superior to that provided by the government because it was not based on political affiliation – persons and households were assisted regardless of their political affiliation. Participant 16 boldly refuted the general view that government is helpful in providing food security to the community as the participant charged the political bias in assistance rendered.

While only two participants were of the view that government's role in providing food security was politically biased, there is a possibility that many participants might have felt the same way but were afraid to state such views publicly. Zimbabwe is generally known as a repressive political environment, where people fear reprisals that may come from speaking against the government. Some participants might, therefore, have chosen to be self-preserving and cautious by not criticising the government.

4.8 Challenges faced by CARE

The interviewing process also involved two officials employed by CARE and who were directly involved in the administration of various food security projects in Chief Mazivofa community. The officials interviewed, participants 19 and 20, highlighted several challenges faced by CARE faced in its food security agenda. These are discussed in the sub-section below.

4.8.1 Beneficiary targeting

Participant 19 stated that one of the challenges was that every person, regardless of economic status, wanted to become a beneficiary. Unfortunately, CARE had a cut-off system where its field workers identified beneficiaries according to need as captured in the following excerpts:

Challenges we encounter mostly is that everyone wants to be involved in the programme, it becomes difficult to give a cut-off point.

Participant 20 had this to say:

Targeting challenges, available aid not always sufficient to meet all the vulnerable populations due to insufficient donor funds.

The statements by participants 19 and 20 above are corroborated by a complaint from (participant 3) who stated this:

It helped a lot in this area. However, we are struggling now that they have excluded us only to give the elderly and the sick.

This participant was excluded from CARE's food aid programmes when (according to participant 3) a decision to support only the elderly and the sick was made.

4.8.2 Challenges with regard to funding

CARE officials also mentioned funding constraints that negatively affected their capacity to meet their desired food security objectives in Chief Mazivofa Village. Participant 19 indicated that the continuity of each food aid support cycle was dependent on the availability of money. Support with food aid stopped once CARE ran out of funds as captured in the excerpt below from participant 19:

They usually end towards farming season and harvesting season because they believe people can be able to provide for themselves through the harvest. It also depends on the availability of funds.

The views expressed by participant 19 lead one to question the level of food security provided by CARE. If CARE ran out of funds before communities had harvested their produce, there is a possibility that households wholly dependent on CARE could starve.

4.8.3 Managing expectations

From the responses of interviewees, a challenge of meeting vast and divergent public expectations was deduced. Participants expected CARE to take on broader community development roles that included infrastructural support. Some participants anticipated CARE to provide them with good road networks, dams and educational facilities for their children – a role customarily expected of local, provincial and national governments. The quotes extracted from interviews with participants 1, 4 and 5 below support the above observation:

However, we wish that CARE can consult more and understand what exactly we need to come out of. Like now the conditions of our schools are bad and we want our kids to have a better education.

They should help with fixing our roads so that it does not become costly to access the markets at Mberengwa growth point to sell our products.

Construction of dams for irrigation, more community gardens which are nearby to reduce long distances walked, more irrigation equipment which can also be used by the elderly.

These participants also indicated that more was expected of CARE, possibly due to government's lack of capacity to meet the infrastructural needs of the community.

However, CARE, as a donor-funded institution, did not always have the ability to meet such needs.

Other challenges faced by CARE included abuse of the funding and support process. Participant 19 indicated that non-disabled persons, sometimes, misused funding and support meant for the children and the aged as captured in the excerpt below.

Also, the misuse of funds by the people who will be representing young kids and elderly people.

4.9 Conclusion

Thematic analysis was used to present and examine data collected through structured interviews with 20 participants from Chief Mazivofa Village. From the analysis, six themes were identified as follows: food security interventions by care; empowerment; empowerment challenges; community and individual efforts to ensure sustainability; the role of government in food security; and challenges faced by CARE in its food security quest. The broad research questions asked in the study were as follows: To what extent do programmes offered by CARE assist beneficiaries with regard to attaining food security? What are impacts of the empowerment strategies provided by CARE on recipients of its food security programmes? What are the community views concerning food security programmes provided by CARE? and What are the challenges faced by CARE in its service provision efforts?

These questions were answered during data analysis. With regard to the first research question, it was evident that CARE provided immediate food security interventions in the form of basic foodstuffs and money to buy food. The empowerment strategies provided by CARE were agricultural and jam production. With regard to the third question, the community viewed CARE's programmes as necessary although they also created dependency. Additionally, more support, particularly funding, accessibility and skills development were required to enhance their sustainability. With regard to the last research question, CARE faced funding

challenges, beneficiary selection problems and expectation challenges when dealing with communities.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter focused on the presentation, analysis and discussion of the findings of the study. This chapter provides a summary of the findings of the study, conclusions and recommendations in accordance with the aim of the study, which was to investigate and explore the impact of CARE (NGOs) programmes in addressing challenges of food security in Chief Mazivofa village. To achieve this task, a set of research questions as well as research objectives were developed. Data collection was done through in-depth interviews with sixteen participants plus four key informants. Of the sixteen, fourteen were current or previous recipients of CARE programmes, two were non-recipients, while two key informants were employees of CARE involved in the operation of programmes and two other key informants were community leaders.

The following research questions were asked in this study:

1. To what extent do programmes provided by CARE assist beneficiaries with regard to attaining food security?
2. What if any, are impacts of the empowerment strategies provided by CARE to recipients of its food security programmes?
3. What are the views of the community with regard to impact of food security programmes provided by CARE? and
4. What are the challenges faced by CARE in its service provision efforts?

5.2 To what extent do programmes provided by CARE assist beneficiaries with regard to attaining food security?

5.2.1 Food aid

It was revealed that before CARE's intervention, through food aid, the food security situation in Chief Mazivofa community was in a dire state as submitted by participants in Chapter 4 in the context of the justification for CARE's intervention. Chief Mazivofa community fell victim to successive droughts that resulted in a compromised food security status. These droughts left residents with very limited opportunities to manipulate food shortages. The Zimbabwean economy, which was stubbornly bad between 2002 and 2009, aggravated the situation as demonstrated in

the Literature Review. The demand for food rose sharply while its supply decreased consequently, skewing the balance of scale. Thus, it could be concluded that CARE's food aid intervention was timeous and assisted beneficiaries to attain food security and that equals a great impact.

It was also revealed that CARE, among other beneficiaries, rescued people who were incapable of producing food for themselves even if the natural environment was conducive for food production. These included those living with disabilities, chronic illnesses, the aged and orphaned children. There is evidence as shown in the in-depth interviews that Chief Mazivofa community harbours a significant population of people who cannot work to produce food. CARE considers the vulnerable as its primary beneficiaries and has tried its level best to ensure that the population at risk gets food first. This again firmly attests to the fact that CARE's food aid intervention had a great impact in Chief Mazivofa community.

While food aid was essential and made a huge difference, given the food security status prevailing in Chief Mazivofa, it is acknowledged in this study that food aid brought about some comings in the form of dependency. It was found that some community members stopped farming altogether with others relocated from productive farmlands (Land reform allocated land) back to non-productive land (reserves) for the mere purpose of getting food aid. It was also discovered that community members had stopped working for themselves even when provided with employment opportunities. This situation is not unique to Chief Mazivofa as it is consistent with findings from other studies that preceded this study as shown in the Literature Review.

5.2.2 Community gardens and Jam making projects (Self-reliance projects)

CARE did not only provide its beneficiaries with food aid but tried to promote self-sufficiency and sustainability through establishing community gardens as well as equipping beneficiaries with knowledge and skills with regard to jam making. It was revealed that community gardens were a direct response to erratic rainfall patterns in Chief Mazivofa community. The unpredictable rainfall patterns resulted in severe droughts, thus resulting in acute food shortages. Community gardens were intended to avert food shortages by producing supplementary food. It emerged that the impact of community gardens was limited, and this can be attributed to the proximity of

community gardens to recipients. It was also established that gardens were situated far away from residential areas as alluded to in the data analysis Chapter by some beneficiaries. The researcher observed that farming entails serious manual labour in Chief Mazivofa hence, the farming energy gets diminished as a result of long walks to the gardens, resulting in production levels being compromised.

More so, CARE trained Mazivofa community members to make jam from the *mazhanje* fruit. The goal was the same with that of community gardens, however, on jam production, greater emphasis was placed on making money than consumption. This project failed because beneficiaries were not fully equipped with production and marketing skills. Production was compromised due to lack of skills and CARE did not invest sufficient time into ensuring the growth of the project thus, beneficiaries failed to sustain the little knowledge they had gathered.

5.3 What are the empowerment strategies provided by CARE to recipients of its food security programmes?

It was discovered that there are two major empowerment strategies implemented by CARE. These two strategies formed CARE's medium to long-term interventions meant to enhance food security in Chief Mazivofa community. Specifically, these were community gardens where households farmed different crops and the *mazhanje* jam-making project. However, the medium-long term interventions by CARE were inadequate or were not in sync with community needs. Table 4.4 in the data analysis Chapter and its analysis clearly show that while these projects were appreciated by the community, there was disconnection between the intervention and community needs.

5.4 What are the views of the community with regard to food security programmes provided by CARE?

5.4.1: Food aid

It was revealed that emergency relief (food aid) had the greatest impact with regard to addressing food security issues in Chief Mazivofa village. Beneficiaries indicated that prior to CARE's intervention, food shortages were high. There is a consensus that CARE's response was timeous and, as a result, reduced the severity of food shortages.

5.4.2: Community gardens and Jam making projects

Chief Mazivofa community also received the community gardens (Irrigation) initiative. This project helped the community to produce supplementary food on their own and had an opportunity to sell the surplus as a way of earning the so much needed income. In addition, Mazivofa community is of the opinion that CARE's food security programmes equipped them with some new skills. The jam production from *mazhanje* fruit was a new concept for the community and they appreciated the opportunity as they had never before n exposed to such skills in their history. They expressed their keenness to be equipped with skills that elaborate their production capacity, which to them, is a gigantic step towards their self-sufficiency.

However, contrary to the above, Mazivofa community expressed concern over CARE's programmes for not being holistic. For instance, community gardens and the jam production projects were incomplete. With regard to community gardens, there was no significant training to convert inputs into outputs and this led to low productivity. Apart from that, entrepreneurial skills were not significantly provided. Mazivofa community is of the view that CARE's interventions could have been successful if people had been fully empowered entrepreneurially.

5.4.3: CARE's intervention model

Furthermore, CARE's programmes were challenged for following the top-down approach of development. CARE brought ready-made programmes to the people instead of facilitating change by working with the community and not working on the community. Needs assessment was not properly done, people were not fully consulted to give a list of their needs and highlight the ones that they felt needed urgent attention. Under normal Social Work practice, people are viewed as masters of their own destinies and the role of Social service professionals is just to facilitate change. In this regard, the Mazivofa community complained about not being consulted and this brought a disconnect between the community's expectations and the intervention programmes.

Furthermore, the disconnection is displayed in Mazivofa's community view that CARE's programmes could have been better appreciated if the organisation had also indulged in infrastructural development rather than narrowing its interventions to food security only. The view of the community is that food is not the only urgent need

in Mazivofa village, better educational facilities are an urgent need as well and the refurbishment of roads. Mazivofa community perceive education as the key to success hence, they felt if CARE had put greater emphasis on improving educational facilities, the community could have attained self-sufficiency. Apart from that, they also believe if CARE could have focussed on improving the road network of Mazivofa community, the success of some of its programmes could have been guaranteed. The community fully attribute all these shortfalls to lack of consultation, and believe if CARE had consulted them, they could have informed the organisation of their pressing needs, thus bringing relevant development programmes into Mazivofa community.

5.4.4 Sustainability

Additionally, CARE's programmes were critiqued for lack of sustainability. Community members averred that such programmes come and go with CARE. As mentioned above, consultation was lacking in CARE's programmes. The main negative consequence of imposing programmes on people is lack of ownership. In this regard, Mazivofa community lacked ownership of CARE's programmes.

5.4.5 Dependency

Moreover, Mazivofa community discredited CARE's intervention for occasioning dependence syndrome among some community members. The relationship between CARE and some of its beneficiaries resembled an infant-mother relationship. Some beneficiaries became extremely lazy to the extent of stopping to work for themselves. They became full dependents of CARE. Without CARE's food security programme, survival of such people was at risk. In light of this discussion, it can be asserted that Mazivofa community is of the opinion that CARE's intervention caused a dependency syndrome.

5.5 What are the challenges faced by CARE in its service provision efforts?

5.5.1 Resources versus need

CARE encountered some major challenges in its service provision endeavours, which included lack of adequate finances as alluded to by one of the key participants. The study revealed that the need was greater than the help that CARE could render and, as a result, this minimised the number of beneficiaries. As mentioned at some point, CARE had to cut its number of beneficiaries and only

provide food assistance to orphans and those with chronic illnesses. Primarily, CARE intended to provide food assistance to all those in need, however, due to budgetary constraints, it had to limit its services to limited populations.

5.5.2: Expectation versus Reality

Failure of CARE's projects, for instance, community gardens and jam production projects, can to a large extent be attributed to lack of a proper needs assessment and community consultation processes. Participants expected CARE to take on a broader community development role that included infrastructural support. Some participants expected CARE to provide them with good road networks, dams and educational facilities for their children – a role customarily expected of local, provincial and national governments. In view of the foregoing, it can be convincingly argued that if CARE had done a proper needs assessment, its empowerment programmes could have been different and probably more successful.

5.5.3: Lack of entrepreneurial skills

Furthermore, the study revealed a lack of skills with regard to entrepreneurship. This was identified as a hindrance to the success of food security projects introduced by CARE to Chief Mazivofa Village community. Participants viewed the entrepreneurial interventions by CARE as inadequate. They capacitated the production of jam and other items without integrating this with the market access component required to convert the community efforts into sustainable income. This explains why the community's food security status remained precarious despite its ability to produce marketable products.

5.5.4 Geographical challenge

As already alluded to, 'there is a strong feeling in this study that the community gardens project was appreciated by the community, even though the impact was limited. The limitation was attributed to the fact that community gardens were distant from the beneficiaries. This is full proof that CARE lacked understanding of how the geographical challenge would impact on the community's uptake of the project. There is a feeling that had the gardens been closer to the beneficiaries, the production and uptake of the project was likely going to be better, thus resulting in improved production.

5.6 Conclusion

The aim of this study was to investigate and explore the impact of CARE (NGOs) programmes in addressing challenges of food security in Chief Mazivofa. This study revealed three intervention projects carried out by CARE as follows: food aid; community gardens; and *mazhanje* jam projects. There is overwhelming evidence that food aid, which was a short-term intervention, was a success as it came at the right time when the community was in dire need of food. The downside however was that some community members became reluctant to engage in other food production activities, fully waiting for food hand-outs. There is also overwhelming evidence that the other two projects apart from food aid had a limited impact, attributed to various challenges such as budgetary constraints on the donor's part, lack of skills to follow-up the jam project and the distance factor in respect of the community gardens project. This research found that there is need for improvement with regard to NGO programmes for them to meet the challenges of the community in a holistic and sustainable manner as indicated in the recommendations. As a result the aim of this study was achieved.

5.7 Limitations of the study

- There were a few noticeable limitations faced by the researcher. Some participants in this study thought that participation in the study would result in them benefiting from the NGOs, especially CARE. Thus, in order to mitigate this limitation, the researcher made it clear to participants that the research was only for academic purposes only and that no material benefits were attached to their participation. Merriam (2014:35) sums up this limitation by arguing that research using human subjects, increases the chance of ethical dilemmas and it can, in turn, undermine the overall validity of the study.
- The other limitation was that the study might lack consistency and reliability since the researcher made use of various probing skills to avoid participants choosing to disclose some stories while concealing others.
- The study lacks a quantitative analysis and presentation of the impact of NGO programmes in addressing food security issues in Chief Mazivofa as it was purely qualitative in nature. However, it should be emphasised that the

approach adopted in this study allowed the researcher to collect rich data to effectively meet the aims and objectives of the study.

5.8 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study and its conclusion, therefore, the following recommendations are made:

- a) There is need for NGOs to rethink and strongly focus on the sustainability of their projects. There is evidence enshrined in this study and other studies that preceded it that communities where NGOs operate tend to struggle when such organisations terminate their services. This is because it is either the NGOs are doing short-term projects, or their long-term projects are not fully capacitated. To bring this argument into perspective, there is need for CARE to upscale and refine community gardens and the *mazhanje* jam projects as a way of increasing production and income-generation. Such scaling up would surely ensure that when CARE withdraws its operation from Chief Mazifova village, people will be left with projects that they can further develop and sustain.
- b) This study also revealed that there is need for NGOs to focus on fully empowering recipients of their programmes. It was discovered in this study that members in Chief Mazivofa community lacked entrepreneurial skills and the ability to transform existing projects into viable food producers and income-generators. This will effectively deal with the dependency syndrome that has crept in among some of the aid recipients in Chief Mazivofa.
- c) There is need for NGOs to do an extensive needs assessment before they implement programmes. In relation to the findings of this study, needs assessment was not properly done, people were not fully consulted to give a list of their needs and highlight the ones that they felt needed urgent attention. The community gardens and the jam project were noble projects that the Mazivofa community appreciated. However, the community felt that these two projects were not sufficient in terms of addressing food security issues within the community. This disconnection between the community's expectations and the interventionist programmes reduced the impact.
- d) There is need for the government to work hand in glove with NGOs in providing solutions to food security issues in Chief Mazivofa community.

There seems to be no relationship between the two entities as revealed in this study. The study also revealed that while government has its own programmes that are focused on addressing food security challenges in Chief Mazivofa village, the programmes were affected by their partisan nature. There is need for government to relook into its Social Welfare policy and make sure it is fully and fairly implemented to the benefit of all citizens, regardless of their political affiliation.

- e) It is also recommended that the leadership of the community of Chief Mazivofa village should be proactive and be a solid and sound voice for the community. As the custodians and gatekeepers of the community, they should spearhead efforts of help social service providers with a clear identification of community needs, strengths, weakness and resources. This will help social service providers to have a holistic understanding of the community and implement programmes that address the needs of the community. This will benefit the community as well as save NGOs from wasting resources by pumping them into projects that will fail.
- f) It is also recommended that NGOs and Government move away from the top-down approach and start implementing the Asset Based Community Development (ABCD) model. The asset approach values the capacity, skills, knowledge, connections and potential in a community. It does not only see the glitches and the breaches that need fixing. The asset approach views the glass as half-full rather than half-empty while the more popular 'deficit' approach (top-down model) concentrates on the hitches, needs and insufficiencies in a community such as lack, ailment and weaknesses instead, it enterprises services to fill the breaches and dose the problems. Resultantly, a community ends up feeling disempowered and dependent; people can become passive recipients of services rather than active agents in their own lives and those of their families.

5.8.1 Suggestions for future research

- a) This study was carried out on a minor scale, there is need for a study of this nature to be conducted throughout Mberengwa District in order to have a

better understanding of the impact of NGO programmes in addressing food security.

- b) There is need to conduct research of this nature in Chief Mazivofa area using the quantitative approach in order to compare results and determine whether there are any significant differences in understanding the impact of NGO programmes in addressing food security challenges. Over and above, there is need to conduct research at a national or regional scale using different methods in order to fully test and assert the impact of NGO programmes in addressing food security.

5.9 Implications for Social Work practice

The Social Work fraternity has a fundamental role to play in food security issues. The importance of the issue as placed on the SDGs 2030, compels the profession to bring its expertise in community work to help governments and other social service providers such as NGOs, to use methods that are inclusive and ensure full community participation. Social Work has its thrust on empowering communities so that they become independent and self-sufficient. To achieve this, there is need for Social Work practice to conduct a thorough needs assessment and then take action together with the community based on the identified needs.

The skills possessed by the Social Work fraternity, were certainly deficient in CARE's programmes aimed at addressing food security issues in Chief Mazivofa. This explains why the community felt un-empowered despite the presence of multiple NGOs dealing with food security issues within its borders. This, again, explains the limited impact of the long-term or sustainability projects implemented by CARE.

In conclusion, one can concur with the sentiments that the field of Social Work should take a leading role in educating NGOs and governments on different and effective methods of community practice. The field should also influence the national Social Welfare policy framework. The policy should be holistic and enforceable to avoid manipulation by partisan influence. Last but not the least, the Social Work fraternity should empower communities and also advocate for them so that they can fully hold accountable social service providers in order for them to implement sustainable projects that are in line with the needs of the community.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

Example of a consent letter

18/06/15

Researcher: Mazorodze Simon Hove

Tel: +27743823947/ +263715316970

Email: hovesimon@yahoo.com

INFORMED CONSENT FOR PARTICIPANTS

Introduction

This letter kindly invites you to participate in this research study. The content of this letter gives you all the details of what this study entails before you can agree to be part of it. If the contents are not clear enough, you reserve the right to ask the researcher for clarity.

1. Research title

THE IMPACT OF NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS' DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAMMES IN ADDRESSING FOOD SECURITY IN CHIEF MAZIVOFA, MBERENGWA DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE

2. Outline

This study requires you to take part in an interview with the researcher, and for the researcher to accurately gather all the interview details, a recording device will be used if you permit. However, if you are not comfortable, the researcher will not use it but rather take notes as you speak. During the interview, you will have to demonstrate your knowledge and understanding of the projects and services rendered by NGOs in this village and illustrate how you have benefitted as an individual as well as the whole village.

Firstly, please provide a brief background of how the village was before the coming of NGOs and pinpoint events leading to their coming. Secondly, the researcher will ask you a set of questions and you are kindly requested to answer them as honestly as possible. This interview will last between 20 and 30 minutes.

3. Dangers

No dangers are predicted by your involvement in this study.

4. Gains

By taking part in this study, there will not be any direct or indirect remuneration in monetary or any other form.

5. Participant's rights

You are not obliged to take part in this study; thus, your participation is purely your choice. If you are willing to take part in this study, you reserve the right to discontinue with the interview at any given time. You will not be subjected to any form of sanctions or consequences as a result.

6. Confidentiality

All the information gathered from you will be treated with the highest level of confidentiality. Your personal information and other identifying details will never be disclosed and will, therefore, not appear in the research report or any other publication. Only the researcher and the supervisor will have access to the interviews for study purposes. The information that you would have provided will not be used in any other study without your permission. If you have any concerns or questions, do not hesitate to contact the researcher on the following contact details- Tel: +27743823947/ +263715316970, Email: hovesimon@yahoo.com.

I have full understanding of what this study is about, and I know the reasons why and how it will be carried out. I, therefore, willingly agree to take part in this study.

.....

Signature of participant

.....

Signature of researcher

.....

Date

.....

Date

Example of an In-depth interview questionnaire

NAME OF INTERVIEWER _____

DATE COMPLETED _____

PARTICIPANT CODE _____

NAME OF REVIEWER _____

INSTRUCTIONS TO THE INTERVIEWER

1. Observe that the sampling technique has been followed before commencing the interview.
2. The chosen officials per plan only are to be interviewed.
3. Select and decide on a suitable venue and time.
4. Greet the participants and confirm if they are willing to participate.
5. Inform the participants on the amount of time the interview will take and ensure that they are comfortable with it.
6. Read the questions the way they appear in the interview questionnaire and explain if need be.
7. Do not skip any question because you assume it is not necessary unless that is what is expected.
8. Record the answers provided by participants rather than making up what you think the participant is saying or what you think they should have said.

Guiding questions for CARE (NGO) officials

1. How long have you been working for CARE?
2. How long has CARE been operating in the area of Chief Mazivofa?
3. How was the status of food security before CARE came into the area?
4. What do you think are the causes of food insecurity in this area?
5. State the CARE programmes aimed at improving food security?
6. What are the desired outcomes of the programmes?
7. How do you select beneficiaries of these programmes?
8. How many beneficiaries do these programmes reach?
9. What do you think are the attitudes of the people towards CARE's food security programmes?
10. What is the impact of your food security programmes in Chief Mazivofa?
11. What are the impact indicators of your programmes?

12. What would you say are the impacts of your food security programmes on food availability, accessibility and utilisation in this area?
13. If CARE services could come to an end, what do you think would happen?
14. What are the empowerment strategies you have imparted onto recipients?
15. Are your programmes sustainable?
16. What is your exit strategy?
17. Is Government taking part in addressing food security in this area?
18. What are the challenges you encounter in your service provision efforts?
19. How do you report on your activities?
20. Do you have any suggestions that can improve on your programming?

Guiding questions for beneficiaries

1. Who is the head or bread winner of this household?
2. Is the head or bread winner of the household employed?
3. How big is your household?
4. What are your sources of food?
5. Do you have a field?
6. What types of crops do you grow?
7. How much food do you normally harvest?
8. How long has CARE been operating in Chief Mazivofa.
9. How was the status of food security before CARE came into the area?
10. Do you receive assistance towards boosting your food security from CARE?
11. If so, how were you selected as a beneficiary?
12. What kind of assistance do you receive from CARE?
13. How many times have you received assistance from CARE in the last 12 months?
14. What are your views concerning CARE's food security programmes?
15. What do you make of the observations that people are too dependent on NGO aid?
16. If CARE food security programmes could come to an end, what do you think would happen?
17. What empowerment strategies provided by CARE have imparted on you in case they cease to operate in this area?

18. What are you doing as an individual or community to ensure sustainability of the aid you receive?
19. Is the Government doing something towards addressing food security in this area?
20. What do you think CARE should do to help you boost food security in Chief Mazivofa?

Figure 9.1: Map of Mberengwa Ward

