AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE CHALLENGES IMPEDING NON
GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS IN CARRYING OUT
SUPPLEMENTARY FEEDING PROGRAMMES: THE CASE OF CARE
INTERNATIONAL AND PLAN INTERNATIONAL IN ZIMBABWE

BY

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DECLARATION

I, Sibusisiwe Mpofu (209080484), hereby declare that the treatise/dissertation/thesis for Masters in Development Studies is my own work and that it has not previously been submitted for assessment or completion of any postgraduate qualification to another University or for another qualification.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The study set out to investigate the challenges faced by NGOs in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes in Zimbabwe’s rural areas. CARE and PLAN International in Zimbabwe were the two NGOs used as case studies and their operations in the Lower Gweru district of the Midlands Province Zimbabwe provided the empirical data for this study. This study was principally qualitative in nature as it sought to provide an in-depth analysis of the main challenges that NGOs face when carrying out supplementary feeding programmes in the rural areas of Zimbabwe. For the purpose of collecting data the study relied on Focus Group Discussions, in-depth interviews with key informants and document study. The key informants included Country Directors, Programme and Field officers at both CARE and PLAN International who had intimate knowledge of some of the challenges that their supplementary feeding programmes faced.

Challenges that faced CARE and Plan International’s supplementary feeding programmes were categorized into two themes, internal and external organizational challenges. Internally the study revealed that the NGOs were unable to retain critical personnel such as nutritionists and programme officers. It also emerged from the study that field officers were involved in the thefts of food meant for the supplementary feeding programmes. The management of the supplementary feeding programmes was made difficult by lack of adequate information about the target beneficiaries.

Further the study noted that there were contestations when it came to the selection of the beneficiaries of the programme. It was also found that during the rainy season it was difficult to
avail food timeously to the beneficiaries of the supplementary feeding programmes. It emerged from the study that supplementary feeding programmes were victims of political interference as the government and war veterans were suspicious that the programmes were being used to influence the voting behavior of the recipients. The global financial crisis also limited the capacity of the donors to continue availing substantial amounts of money for food procurement. As part of the broader strategy to increase the effectiveness of the NGOs in carrying supplementary feeding programmes this study recommended that NGOs should re-strategize on how they remunerate key personnel such as nutritionists. The NGOs through their mother body NANGO should constantly engage government so that there is a good working relationship supportive of poverty reduction through supplementary feeding programmes.
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT

RATIONALE AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) are an imperative aspect to a country’s development and discourse. Their emergence is from a desire to complement government effort in development and the provision of services (Tvedt, 1998: 27). The NGO coordination Act of (1990: 2) cited by the NGO Self Regulation Report of Zimbabwe, defines NGOs as ‘private voluntary groupings of individuals or associations not operating for profit or for other commercial purposes but which have organised themselves nationally or internationally for the benefit of the public at large and for the promotion of social welfare, development, charity or research in the areas inclusive of, but not restricted to health, relief, agriculture, education, industry and the supply of amenities and services.’

According to the Oxfam Handbook (1995:11), NGOs are usually organised around specific issues such as poverty, HIV and AIDS, education, health, human rights, natural resources management, agriculture, alternative trading, indigenous people and various kinds of vulnerability to mention just a few. The participation of NGOs in social development in Africa has played a significant role; which is supplementing the role of the government (Mwansa, 1995:8). The major concern of NGOs in the Third World countries is to alleviate poverty (Pearce 1993:33). In an attempt to buttress the above assertion, Klugman (2000:18) argues that many NGOs are primarily concerned with poverty alleviation. In this situation they strive to fill in gaps left by government service departments because in most cases Third World countries cannot deliver some social services due to lack of adequate resource.
At independence in 1980, Zimbabwe inherited a dual economy characterized by a relatively well developed modern sector which enjoyed targeted colonial state support co-existing with a highly marginalised, largely poor rural sector. This historical structural poverty and vulnerability template largely exists to this day despite concerted efforts by the independent state to systematically dismantle it. It remains the foundational cause and cornerstone of structural chronic poverty, vulnerability and food insecurity in the country, (Zimbabwe Millennium Development Goals, 2000-2007 Mid-Term Progress Report).

Poverty alleviation precisely in the rural areas is needed to support the rapid development and sustainability of human kind. Poverty and inequality are still the everyday experience of millions of rural Zimbabweans and finding ways to address this legacy has been the greatest challenge facing the government. The current humanitarian situation in Zimbabwe has resulted in increased participation of NGOs in food and developmental assistance.

CARE and PLAN Zimbabwe are engaged in a wide range of development work. One of their developmental mandates is to alleviate poverty through supplementary food programmes. These programmes are implemented in selected communities countrywide as means to meet basic needs to the affected population. In Zimbabwe, the majority of these programmes are in the form of food aid provided to targeted food insecure households.

In this study NGOs were identified as critical organizations towards alleviating poverty in rural Zimbabwe through supplementary feeding programmes. However preliminary investigation revealed that most of the supplementary feeding programme beneficiaries in the rural areas are
still living in poverty (Zim-Vac Rural Livelihoods Survey Report). This research was an investigation into the challenges impeding NGOs in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes in rural areas using the aforementioned NGOs as case study. The focus of this study was in Lower Gweru District of the Midlands province in Zimbabwe. The paper made recommendations as how to nurture NGOs to be effective in carrying out their supplementary feeding programmes.

Non Governmental Organizations: The paper explored the following aspects of NGOs. It defined NGOs, narrated their background, goals and targets. It went on to bring an in-depth understanding of the roles and developmental mandates carried out by CARE and Plan in Zimbabwe.

An NGO is an organization whose purpose is to serve the public rather than to earn a profit of its owners (Ben-Ner 1984). Generally it is purpose driven like every other organization, hence could be organized to serve some groups, who may include individuals or other organizations. Hall in Powell (1987) defines an NGO as an organization, which is composed of individuals or groups who associate for basically two purposes. Firstly, to perform public tasks where there is demand neither the state nor the profit organization is willing to fulfil, secondly, to influence the direction policy in the state. The NGOs exist under particular combinations of ideological, political, social, and economic conditions that are, in turn, the products of unique set of historical experiences.

The attainment of independence in 1980 ushered in a new era for the NGOs in Zimbabwe. Whilst the initial work of NGOs was to complement the efforts of the new black majority
government in the reconstruction and rehabilitation of the country as it was emerging from war, this was just for two to three years after independence (Moyo, et al, 2000:5). Thereafter, NGOs moved into development work, which was in line with a series of government transition development plans. Such work included providing support to resettled people, agricultural skills in rural areas, and programs for the advancement of women, local income generating projects, natural resources management and integration of disabled people into communities, (Retrieved from www.nango.org.zw on 23/02/2010).

According to Zimbabwe Corporate Governance Manual (2006), there are about 2000 registered organizations operating as NGOs in Zimbabwe. These are registered under the Private Voluntary Organization (PVO) Act or the Deed of Trust or with relevant ministries of the government of Zimbabwe. Their broad and diverse mandates cover the following: disability, elderly, children, youth, environment, women and gender, human rights, health sector and poverty alleviation.

The above definitions show that an NGO exists in every sector of the society and they exist to serve the public in areas where the government does not satisfy with adequate provision of resources. A lot of international and local NGOs have surfaced as means of assisting Zimbabwe in the development of their independent state. Poverty in Zimbabwe is caused by a host of factors such as unequal distribution of land and other major means of production, drought, lack of focused policy measures, poor performance by industry, effects of Structural Adjustment Programmes like job losses, high prices of basic commodities caused by withdrawal of subsidies, (Pre-national Budget Workshop Report, 2006).
The position in Zimbabwe about poverty alleviation is that the poorest households are found in the rural areas. This calls for a multidisciplinary approach towards addressing poverty reduction. While a lot of initiatives have been established by NGOs focusing on rural poverty reduction and eradication, they have had little impact. If anything, poverty has worsened especially in the context of current economic crisis.

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM

The research problem was formulated as follows:

The performance of Non Governmental Organisations in fulfilling their mandate has not been up to the standard as seen by many unsatisfied objectives in the social settings which they sought to attain.

1.3 RESEARCH SUB-FOCI

In order to reach the set goal in a manageable way and contribute in solving the problem, there was a need to come up with sub problems which are related to the main problem identified. The following were the sub- foci of the study:

1. What is the impact of the NGOs supplementary feeding programmes in Zimbabwe’s rural areas?
2. How do NGOs contribute to rural poverty alleviation through their supplementary feeding programmes?
3. What initiatives can be put forward as recommendations on how to enable NGOs in Zimbabwe to effectively implement supplementary feeding programmes?
1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions were based on discussions of the aforementioned problems.

1. What is the ideology and rationale behind the establishment of NGOs?
2. What is the role of NGOs in rural poverty alleviation?
3. What are the challenges facing the supplementary feeding schemes in Zimbabwe?

1.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

A hypothesis is a suggested, preliminary, yet specific answer to a problem which has to be tested empirically before it can be accepted as a concrete answer and incorporated into a theory (Hanekom 1997: 19). In the case of this study, the research hypothesis was formulated as follows: ‘the challenges facing NGOs are limiting the effectiveness of supplementary feeding programmes as a tool for poverty alleviation.’

1.6 RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this study were:

1. To find out the challenges inhibiting NGOs in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes.
2. To assess the impact of the NGOs supplementary feeding programmes in Zimbabwe’s rural areas.
3. To examine how NGOs can possibly contribute to the success of rural poverty alleviation.
4. To propose recommendations addressing challenges faced by NGOs hindering them from carrying out supplementary feeding programmes.

1.7 SCOPE AND DELIMITATION OF STUDY AREA

The focus of this research was on NGOs operating in Zimbabwe. There are many NGOs in Zimbabwe focusing on poverty alleviation. The extent of this work covered CARE and Plan Zimbabwe. Such a reduction in issues of focus makes the study more manageable. Lower Gweru District was chosen as an ideal study site because it is relatively in close proximity with the researcher. Furthermore the area has high levels of poverty. The conditions are attributed to low agricultural production, limited opportunities for income generation enhancement, increasing break down of family and community structures, together with adverse effects of the HIV/ AIDS pandemic (UNDP Poverty Report).

1.8 GENERAL ASSUMPTIONS

The assumption of this study was based on that NGOs are a pillar of development and growth providing a firm foundation that enables people to sustain and maintain their lives. It is believed that their primary objective is to achieve improvements in the quality of lives of deprived individuals through a process that unites people and adds meaning and values to their lives. Study of literature greatly revealed how NGOs are closely associated with a number of factors that are determined by certain specific issues such as poverty, droughts and other related natural disasters (Moyo, et al, 2000). NGOs have managed to score some success in their programmes,
but they have however been faced with challenges in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes in rural Zimbabwe.

1.9 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The increase in the interest in NGOs has come from different quarters, from academic researchers, development activists, multi bilateral donor agencies, and not least from society itself. In a way or the other these organs are set to benefit from this study. In academia there shall invariably be a widened body of knowledge and work focusing on NGOs and supplementary feeding programmes.

To multi and bilateral donor agencies an informed study on NGOs will be helpful, as NGOs have become preferred to government by donor agencies. Some donor agencies, such as World Bank now have departments specifically responsible for NGOs and departmental statements that emphasize work with NGOs hence this study will be of value to such organizations as they can draw lessons from it and aid future planning interventions. Apparently in such a time when public resources are declining, the government will also benefit from this study as enlightened government officials may increase their appreciation of the role played by NGOs in poverty alleviation.

At the local level the research will help local NGOs, District Staff, kraal heads, Community Based Organizations (CBOs) who can in varying degrees in their complex roles use the information to assist in the allocation of finite resources for effective and efficient rural planning. It is sincerely hoped that the compilation of this research and the messages the study imparts to
those stakeholders responsible for addressing poverty in rural Zimbabwe will bring greater focus to the role of NGOs in alleviating poverty.

1.10 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

Non Governmental Organization

An NGO is a "private non-profit organizations that are publicly registered (i.e. have legal status) whose principal function is to implement development projects favouring the popular sector", (Tvedt 1998: 2). The source of their support is almost always non government organizations themselves based in Industrialised countries.

Poverty

According to Cohen (1999: 47), poverty is a lack of basic human needs, such as enough nutritious food, clothing, housing, clean water and health services. Extreme poverty can cause terrible suffering and death, and even modest levels of poverty can prevent people from realizing many of their desires. In this study poverty referred to the lack of one of the basic human needs which is nutritious food, thus the need for supplementary feeding programmes.

Challenges

Harber (1981: 171) describes challenges as a demand on one’s abilities. The researcher concentrated on the challenges facing NGOs relating specifically to CARE and Plan in Zimbabwe. For the purposes of this study, challenges were seen as any demands placed on
NGOs abilities to perform their functions in alleviating poverty through supplementary feeding programmes in the rural areas of Zimbabwe.

1.11 OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1: Introduction to the research report
Chapter 2: Literature review and theoretical framework
Chapter 3: Research methodology
Chapter 4: Data interpretation and research findings
Chapter 5: Conclusion, summary of findings and recommendations of the research
CHAPTER 2: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK; LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The principle focus of this chapter is to define NGOs in the context of the study and provide an overview of NGOs by outlining their historical background and stating the rationale behind their establishment. In order to establish the challenges impeding NGOs in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes in rural Zimbabwe, as set out in the introductory Chapter One, in the main problem and sub-problems, the aspect of poverty in Zimbabwe was discussed.

2.2 DEFINING NON GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS

NGOs can be defined and categorised by the mandate of their constitution, the nature and location of their operations, their specific outputs and their constituent origins (ENDA - ZERO 1992: 71). The term NGO embraces a myriad of different types of agencies. At its broadest it includes civil society that is all groupings of individuals that fall outside the state and outside of business. This is further elaborated by a definition by the World Bank which perceives NGOs as private organizations that pursue activities to relieve suffering, promote interests of the poor, protect the environment, provide basic social services or undertake community development (World Bank, 1991).

According to Ben-Ner (1984) an NGO is an organization whose purpose is to serve the public rather than to earn a profit for its owners. Generally it is purpose driven like every other organization, hence could be organized to serve some groups, who may include individuals or
other organizations. NGOs can also be defined as "professionally staffed non-governmental agencies which seek to aid constituencies external to themselves" Howes (1997).

According to Moyo and Makumbe (2000) local and national NGOs in Zimbabwe encompass teacher's associations, youth and women's groups, church affiliated welfare organizations, burial and credit societies, advocacy and research institutions, human rights associations, rural development institutions and cultural groups. National NGOs operate at three levels: those that operate across the whole country such as Christian Care; provincial level such as the Organisation of Rural Associations for Progress (ORAP) and local level mainly community organizations such as the Environment and Development Action – Zimbabwe Environment Resource Organization ENDA –ZERO. Moyo and Makumbe (2000) further reiterate that, the greatest concentration of NGOs is in the rural areas which tend to be economically marginalized and weakly serviced by government in terms of wealth and infrastructure development.

Uphoff (1993: 610) notes that NGOs are usually referred to as the third sector in development. The government is put across as the first sector with private business organizations filling the slot of the second sector. The first sector relies on bureaucratic mechanisms and seeks enforced compliance with decisions made by government experts. The second sector issues market mechanisms to promote desired behaviour such as investment and increased labour effort. The third sector (NGOs) depends more on voluntary mechanisms involving the process of bargaining, discussion and persuasion. Decisions are taken with reference to both group and individual interest (Uphoff, 1993: 610).
2.3 GENERAL ORIGINS OF NGOs

According to Gilmurray et al (1979) the origins of Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) date back to the end of the Second World War, around the 1950s to the 60s. The general premise behind their formation was to rehabilitate a war devastated Europe socially, politically and economically. Initially they sought to provide welfare services which included psychological counselling meant to minimise social trauma caused by the war. Later their thrust expanded to include the state and community relations, that is, NGOs took up advocacy on behalf of the marginalized. Women and children were the most conspicuous categories of the marginalised groups targeted by these non state actors, although later NGOs diversified their areas of operations and beneficiary base to include other marginalized groups among them the aged, chronically ill and ethnic minorities.

2.4 INFLUENTIAL THEORIES OF NGOs FUNCTIONS

The most influential theories put forward by Tvedt (1998) about the NGO sector have been developed within an economic theoretical perspective. The *public goods theory* or the *performance failure theory* states that NGOs exist to satisfy the residual unsatisfied demand for public goods in society. It argues that the state tends to provide public goods only at the level that satisfies the median voter. Where a significant minority wants a specific kind or a level of public goods for majority support is lacking, the government cannot help, and NGOs step in to fill the gap. Some parts of the population may want more public goods than the government is willing to provide. They can obtain them by organizing themselves, demanding more social services for their particular group, organizing their own community schools, or mobilizing local
people for collective campaign of some sort. From this logically follows a theory arguing that the more heterogeneous a society is, the larger the NGO sector is likely to be.

Another influential and related theory is the *contract failure theory*. This suggests that NGOs arise where ordinary contractual mechanisms fail to provide the public with adequate means to assess the services firms produce. This lack of adequate information to control the producers in this way is called ‘contract failure.’ When contracts are difficult to define, people will trust non-profit organizations or NGOs more than commercial firms, because the former are seen as having fewer incentives to take advantage of the consumers’ ignorance.

Tvedt (1998) states that the above theories seek to explain the existence and the roles of NGOs as resulting from various forms of failure by the market or state. These theories have been developed in research on the welfare and social fields in Western welfare states. Though they do not fully explain the origins of NGOs they at least attempt to shed insight on how and why NGOs have emerged to occupy a position of centrality in the development process.

### 2.5 NON GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS IN ZIMBABWE

NGOs have undergone tremendous transformation in Zimbabwe in the last three decades with regard to their legal and organizational form, the content of their work and strategies and the nature of their constituencies. This transformation was in response to the ever changing socio-economic and political environment in which they operate. Moyo (1995) gives an account of the changing forms and nature of NGOs in Zimbabwe during the colonial period and beyond. They note that the pre-independence era was conducive to the development of only those NGOs that
were promoted and initiated by settlers through their governments. The designated white run NGOs were led by large Christian church denominations such as the Lutheran and the Roman Catholic Churches.

Moyo et al (2000) comments that in view of all these developments, changes on the political and socio-economic conditions of developing countries, the nature of donor interventions and the growing mobilization of rural people had significant impacts on the nature of the NGO work. An example is that of the Lutheran Church in Matabeleland South where people had to be converted to Christianity first, and then followed with the implementation of community projects such as borehole drilling. In fact the first NGO law in Zimbabwe enacted in 1968 was known as the Welfare Organization Act. Religious groups formed a number of NGOs because this was part of putting into practice religious teachings and beliefs. This group could be referred to as the first generation of NGOs. Much of their work revolved around welfare activities such as giving handouts and taking care of the needy such as orphans, abandoned babies, the disabled, homeless people and the elderly (Moyo, 1995).

Thereafter, NGOs moved into development work, which was in line with a series of government transition development plans. Such work included providing support to resettled people, agricultural skills in rural areas, and programs for the advancement of women through local income generating projects, natural resources management as well as the integration of disabled people into communities. This may be referred to as the second generation type of NGOs which participated a lot in infrastructural development in terms of construction of dams, clinics and
schools. A lot of international NGOs also came to Zimbabwe to assist in the development of the newly independent state (www.nango.org.zw).

The 1990s was a different period that witnessed Zimbabwe making a serious shift from its socialist policies to market driven policies. It also witnessed Zimbabwe participating in a lot of United Nations Global Conferences on Children, Environment, Women, Population and Human Rights (www.nango.org.zw). With the major failures of public policies from the mid-90s, there emerged a new group of NGOs that began to engage in policy advocacy activities. Whilst not all NGOs are doing policy advocacy, there is a strong drive towards a rights based-type of development work, which could be referred to as the third generation type of NGOs. One of the highlights of this generation was the process of reviewing the country’s constitution in the year 2000 (www.corpgov.net). This was led by advocacy NGOs such as National Constitutional Assembly and Zimbabwe Human Rights.

Today Zimbabwe is estimated to have in excess of 2000 NGOs which are engaged in a wide range of development work stretching from children’s rights, advancement of women, disabled persons, HIV/AIDS, environment protection, democracy and governance, vocational skills training, poverty alleviation to human rights, humanitarian aid to rural development (www.nango.org.zw). The large concentration of advocacy NGOs does not mean that welfare and developmental NGOs are no longer in existence. There are still playing a complementary role to the state in alleviating poverty, food insecurity and initiating development in Zimbabwe’s rural areas. Faith based NGOs still have a role to play in the face of diseases such as HIV and AIDS which place enormous emotional burdens on both the infected individuals and the affected
families especially the orphans who need spiritual upliftment to help them cope with the
demands of life. Faith based organizations also assist in economic empowerment; provide care
for the sick and advocacy.

2.5.1 POLICY INSTRUMENTS AND LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK OF NGOs

It is of critical importance to provide the policy instruments and legislative framework that
regulate the operations of NGOs in Zimbabwe. This is necessary in that the policy instruments
and legislative framework that govern the NGOs facilitate or constrain their operations. Thus
NGOs operating in Zimbabwe must recognize and abide by the laws of the country. The most
important piece of legislation concerned with NGOs is the Private and Voluntary Organisations
Act (PVO). The PVO Act provides important guidelines in that NGOs planning to register in
Zimbabwe must develop a constitution which, among other things, should show ownership,
structure, powers, roles and responsibilities of different organs of the organization, and in
addition, the constitution must show how elections and appointments would be made as well as
how conflict would be resolved (PVO Act 1996). The most important aspect of the Act is that it
precludes NGOs from meddling in the political affairs of the country and demands them to
strictly adhere to their mandate of providing humanitarian assistance.

The PVO Act provides for how to apply for registration. Every application put before the
registrar of the PVOs shall have a constitution and curriculum vitae of its promoters attached.
The constitution shall state particular objects pursued by the PVO Act. The objects listed in the
constitution of the PVO Act should be consistent with those listed within the definition of a PVO
Act under Section 2 of the PVO Act. It is a requirement to state physical address of the
organization applying for registration. It is also common in general practice that such a body should have an identity and be capable of being identified. Every registered NGO constitution should disclose its governance principles so as to operate in Zimbabwe and this is why National Association of Non Governmental Association (NANGO) is endeavoring to create an effective awareness campaign about cooperate governance issues in the NGO sector in Zimbabwe (PVO Act, 1996.)

NANGO is a membership based organization which was set up in 1967. It represents NGOs that work on various issues relating to social, economic, cultural and political justice in Zimbabwe. It is the officially recognized umbrella coordinating body of NGOs operating in Zimbabwe. NANGO recommends that its members operate and behave in a predictable manner that is acceptable and is within the Zimbabwe NGO Code of Ethics (www.nango.org.zw, 21/06/2010).

2.6 CRITICISM OF NGOs

NGOs, however, have some fundamental weaknesses which can undermine their development, advocacy and humanitarian activities. Madeley (1991) argues that NGOs tend to concentrate on small scale projects with a limited geographic spread. This approach is not viable in the face of pervasive poverty especially in Zimbabwe where 70% of the population is classified as poor (World Bank, 2006:12). Chambers (1987) contends that though NGOs claim to serve the poor they ultimately benefit the rich. This is so because NGOs are controlled by the rich who have the power to determine the target beneficiaries and trajectory of projects undertaken by NGOs.
Thus Chambers (ibid) notes that NGOs run their projects the 'government style' without giving sufficient attention to local conditions and interests within communities. This point arises from the fact that NGOs have the money but do not know so much about local conditions, language, culture, tradition, past failures and the structure of local leadership. As a result projects have failed not because NGO staff are not committed or because local communities are not interested; but because local people’s choices (involvement and control) are not part of development. Moyo and Makumbe (2000:20) criticize the NGOs on the grounds that they create a dependency syndrome in their target beneficiaries. Beneficiaries of NGO projects at times become over reliant on them such that they neglect other means to fend for themselves.

2.7 POVERTY

The aspect of poverty will be elucidated by means of a description of its nature as well as an overview of some key societal factors. In this study poverty is going to be discussed as it has a link with food insecurity which necessitates NGOs to carry out supplementary feeding programmes in Zimbabwe’s rural areas which experience food shortages. Food insecurity is a critical underlying factor that interfaces directly with extreme poverty particularly among the vulnerable groups. Many African countries including Zimbabwe, experience continued starvation year in and year out despite the rich and unexploited potential for increased food production. Unreliable weather conditions, poor food security policies, high costs of fertilizers and other farm inputs, prohibitive transportation costs, lack of credit facilities for farmers and competition for markets created by global forces are contributory factors to food insecurity in Africa. The chaotic nature of the land reforms in countries such as Zimbabwe has also increased food insecurity. This has resulted in experienced and productive farmers being dispossessed of
their land. The newly resettled indigenous farmers lack the requisite skills and capital to be productive.

2.7.1 DEFINING POVERTY

According to Christie (1998: 74), poverty can be defined as the lack of the necessary for material well being, especially food but also housing or other land assets. Christie further notes that poverty is a multidimensional social phenomenon; as a result its definitions and its causes vary according to gender, age, culture and other social and economic contexts. For an example, in both rural and urban areas, men associate poverty with a lack of material assets whereas for women poverty is defined as food insecurity (ibid).

According to Cohen (1999: 47), poverty is the condition of having insufficient resources or income. In its most extreme form, poverty is a lack of basic human needs, such as enough nutritious food, clothing, housing, clean water and health services. Extreme poverty can cause terrible suffering and death, and even modest levels of poverty can prevent people from realizing many of their desires. According to Marshall (1988:28), poverty is both an absolute and a relative term. In an absolute sense, it means a lack of resources for specific needs. In a relative sense, it refers to the extent of these resources in comparison to what other individuals in society have.
2.7.2 REASONS FOR POVERTY

When studying literature, it becomes evident that there are no simple, clear cut reasons to explain poverty. Some authors believe that poverty results from a lack of adequate resources at a global level – resources such as land, food and building material – that are necessary for the well being or survival of the world’s people (Christie, 1998:78). Others see poverty as an effect of the uneven distribution of resources around the world on an international or even regional scale (Rosenthal & Rostow, 1991:189). Poverty has many causes; some are very much basic and others much more complex and interrelated to other factors. Some primary factors that lead to poverty include overpopulation, unequal distribution of resources in the world economy, inability to meet high standards of living and cost of living, inadequate education and employment opportunities, environmental degradation, certain economic and demographic trends and welfare incentives (Thomas, 2002:47).

2.7.3 THE EFFECTS OF POVERTY

Chambers, (1988:113) posits that poverty has wide ranging and often devastating effects. Many of its effects such as poor nutrition and physical health problems result directly from having too little income or too few resources. As a result poor nutrition and health problems as well as infant mortality rates among the poor are high, and life expectancies are lower than the average. Other effects of poverty may include infectious diseases, mental illness and drug dependence. Some other effects of poverty are not easily understood.
For example, studies link poverty to crime, but by no means has this meant that all poor people are criminals. In many cases, the primary effects of poverty lead to other problems, like extended hunger, lack of employment and depression, which may sometimes contribute to criminal behavior. Many a time when children do not get something to eat at home, especially in the case of boys, they develop certain attitudes whereby the boy thinks he has to look for himself or after himself for something to eat. As a result he develops stealing skills and steals something from the nearest shop to eat (Chambers, 1988:113).

2.7.4 POVERTY IN ZIMBABWE

During the colonial administration in Zimbabwe, disparities existed in all areas of human existence. An unfair distribution of resources was accompanied by a similarly allocation of income which led to the impoverishment of the African majority. The colonial government did very little towards addressing issues of poverty among blacks. Thus there was no tangible poverty alleviation strategies put in place by the colonial administration. At independence the new government undertook to redress the inequalities of the colonial past through policies aimed at improving the conditions of the majority of the blacks. Hence the government came up with policies and programmes aimed at poverty alleviation (Mlambo, 1998).

In February 1981, the new government published its "Growth with Equity" economic programme targeting rapid growth rates of GDP, increasing incomes and social expenditures and the promotion of rural development (Human Development Report, The World Bank 1998). Growth with Equity was followed by the country's First Transitional National Development Plan (1982-4) which was a transitional plan aimed at changing the Zimbabwean economy from a war
to a peace situation, and to allow the development of an appropriate planning infrastructure (Government of Zimbabwe (GoZ), 1986).

A decade later, after an evaluation of its efforts, government adopted a new approach towards poverty alleviation (Jenkins, 1995). Accordingly in 1990, the government embarked on its Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) (1991-1995). ESAP severely affected urban households in Zimbabwe as a result of declining real wages, stagnant formal sector employment levels, reduced investment in education and health coupled with cost recovery measures in these areas. The failure of ESAP saw the launch of the Zimbabwe Programme for Economic and Social Transformation (Zimprest) (Zimbabwe Human Development Report, 1998). The Zimbabwean government adopted the programme of economic reform with formal commitment to protect the poor and the vulnerable groups from the negative impact of ESAP, hence the creation of the Social Dimension of Adjustment Programmes (SDA). However, the SDA was narrow in its coverage as it only covered the retrenched civil servants at the exclusion of the rural poor.

In 1998 the Zimbabwean government developed the Poverty Alleviation Action Plan (PAAP) (GoZ CSO, 1998). The PAAP sought to broaden the scope of the SDA by addressing the wider issues of poverty. In August 2001, the Millennium Economic Recovery Programme (MERP) was launched to address the continuing decline in economic performance through price stabilization, exchange rate stabilization and protection of the vulnerable groups. The National, Economic Revival Programme (NERP) was launched in February 2003 to provide, inter-alia, humanitarian support in the face of a long term drought.
However, all the plans aforementioned yielded little benefit to Zimbabwe’s rural folk. The major militating factor was lack of financial and material resources. This was to worsen in 2000 as the World Bank and International Monetary Fund imposed sanctions on the country for failure to service its external debts with these two institutions. The chaotic land reform of 2000 also further strained relations with the traditional donors from the western countries such as the UK who felt that the land redistribution programme was done in an unfair manner (Rukuni, 2006:2). Thus cut off from the main sources of funds all the developmental plans generated by the Government of Zimbabwe inevitably failed to achieve the envisaged goals of poverty reduction and place the country on a path of sustainable growth and development. The economic blue prints devised by government showed good intent on the part of government however their major drawback was lack of political will and adequate financial resources. There were also too ambitious given that they sought to do away with poverty in a short period of time.

According to the Zim-Vac Rural Livelihoods Survey, poverty has resulted in increased rural food insecurity. Current statistics reveal that a total number of 1.6 million people, about 18 percent of the rural population are estimated to be food insecure in the current consumption year. The highest numbers of food insecure households (21%) are estimated to be in the Midlands province where the Lower Gweru District is located. Deteriorating economic situation characterised by declining economic performance, low productivity in agriculture due to recurrent droughts and lack of inputs, and high unemployment and underemployment have been major contributing factors to this cause (Gono, 2005). The land reform of 2000 also greatly contributed to food insecurity as there were widespread disruptions on Zimbabwe’s most productive farms. In fact
the Red Cross Report (2009:100) notes that food production on the farms drastically fell as a result of the Fast Track Land Reform. Moyo et al (2000) observe that this has resulted in massive participation of NGOs in poverty alleviation programmes, especially in the rural areas where the poorest households are found.

2.8 SUPPLEMENTARY FEEDING PROGRAMMES IN RURAL ZIMBABWE

According to Rukuni et al (2005), Zimbabwe from the year 2000 to date continues to face food insecurity. The critical food security situation in Zimbabwe in recent times is exacerbated by the breakdown in service delivery and the socio-economic decline making the cost of food commodities and farming inputs prohibitive. This combination of issues and mounting poverty is compounded by impacts of climate change and delays in implementing the land reform programme. Furthermore, socio-economic and political instability has had, and continues to have, serious implications generally and particularly relating to household agricultural productivity. Such a combination of issues leads to increased vulnerability of the population in general, with magnified effects for certain sectors of the community. This sector includes those people affected or infected with HIV/AIDS, school children, the elderly and pregnant women. Thus the supplementary feeding programmes in Zimbabwe by NGOs are primarily targeted at the foregoing vulnerable groups.

According to the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society Report (2009:3) supplementary feeding programmes are deliberate action by the government and NGOs to assist vulnerable members of communities facing food insecurity with highly nutritional food. As the name suggest supplementary feeding schemes are meant to provide vulnerable community members with food
which is high in nutritional content such as beans, nutritional maize meal and cooking oil. These nutritional meals if adequately prepared by the recipients help to reduce incidences of malnutrition.

However, in carrying out the supplementary feeding programmes NGOs face a number of challenges in Zimbabwe. The UNICEF Report (2009:10) notes that the major problem facing supplementary feeding programmes carried out by NGOs is political and governmental interference. This arises from the fact that the government perceives the supplementary feeding programmes of NGOs of western origin as part of the regime change strategy sponsored by western countries such as the UK and USA. The accusation is that the supplementary feeding programmes are being used by the NGOs to influence the voting behavior of the food aid recipients, whether this is true or not is open to debate. In 2008 these accusations by government culminated in the banning of NGOs, thus affecting the effective implementation of the supplementary feeding programmes. The UNICEF report also alludes to the persistent drought in the country which makes it difficult to secure food supplies locally.

In its annual report the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society (2009:2) mentions macroeconomic instability the country has experienced since 2000, whose characteristics are hyper inflation, cash shortages, unemployment, increasing poverty and food insecurity as the main challenge facing supplementary feeding programmes. Macroeconomic instability made it almost impossible to adhere to the set budgets as the food costs increased beyond budgeted amounts and the attendant food insecurity and poverty meant that the supplementary feeding programmes become oversubscribed and as a result the NGOs could not cope with the large number of beneficiaries.
Another effect of macroeconomic instability was the brain drain which manifested itself in the form of high staff turnover and shortage of critical personnel such as nutritionists and experienced program and field officers to implement the supplementary feeding programmes.

From the foregoing observations the supplementary feeding programmes carried out by the NGOs face multiple challenges which tend to undermine their effectiveness as a poverty alleviation strategy.

2.9 CARE AND PLAN ZIMBABWE

Plan and CARE Zimbabwe are some of the biggest NGOs which have been primarily concerned with poverty alleviation in the rural areas of Zimbabwe through programmes such as the supplementary feeding programmes. Supplementary feeding programmes involve the distribution of food such as cereals, maize, oil and pulses to food insecure households, thereby alleviating poverty. This study, however, is confined to their operations in the Midlands province’s Lower Gweru district.

2.9.1 CARE INTERNATIONAL ZIMBABWE

CARE International was founded in 1946 to help rebuild countries destroyed in World War II. Over the past sixty one years, CARE has grown to become one of the largest non-sectarian, apolitical, non-governmental organizations in the world with relief and development operations in 72 countries in Europe, Asia, Latin America and Africa. CARE International began working in Zimbabwe in 1992 in response to a severe regional drought. Since then CARE Zimbabwe has
been working with the poorest communities in some parts of Zimbabwe especially in Masvingo and Midlands provinces that are characterized by semi-arid climates that can support livestock but allow only low and uncertain production of cash crops and food staples. As a means of alleviating poverty Care International in Zimbabwe operates programmes in five sectors namely:

§ agricultural and natural resources,
§ small economic activity development
§ water and sanitation
§ health and nutrition and emergency targeted food aid.


CARE International’s philosophy is that every human being has the right to adequate and affordable food, and that poverty and malnutrition are injustices that must be eradicated by every possible means. CARE International in Zimbabwe therefore emphasizes the need to support rural locals in Zimbabwe by promoting food security and ensuring that basic food is produced and distributed in ways that will meet the needs of the poor marginalized people and so reduce
people's poverty. Supplementary feeding programmes are projects that have been implemented by CARE in the Lower District of Gweru in the Midlands province of Zimbabwe under food security as means of alleviating poverty in the area, (Lindernberg and Bryant 2001). From September 2008 to March 2009, CARE successfully distributed an aggregate of 54,000 metric tons of cereals, pulses, vegetable oil, Corn Soya Blend to 1,212,135 vulnerable individuals in Masvingo and the Midlands provinces improving food security of vulnerable individuals in Gweru where the Lower Gweru District is located, (CARE Annual Report 2008 to 2009).

2.9.2 PLAN INTERNATONAL ZIMBABWE

Plan International (originally named 'Foster Parents Plan for Children in Spain) was established in 1937 in Spain by a British journalist John Langdon-Davies and refugee worker Eric Muggeridge with the aim of providing food, shelter, and education for children suffering as a result of the Spanish Civil War. After the civil war Plan extended its focus and services towards helping the needy children in countries like France, Belgium, Italy, the Netherlands, Greece, and West Germany. Then as Europe recovered from the effects of the Second World War, Plan gradually pulled out of these countries and opened new programmes and branches in less developed countries. To date, Plan works with children, sponsors, communities, partner organizations, donors and governments in over sixty countries including Zimbabwe (Plan Zimbabwe, June-July 2008 Report).

Plan started working in Zimbabwe in 1986 and it operates in districts such as Chipinge, Chiredzi, Kwekwe, Gweru, Mutasa, Mutare, Mutoko, Mwenezi and Tsholotsho. The country’s strategic plan is the blue-print of all Plans’ intervention programmes which serves to give programme
directions and objectives for the whole country. These programmes are implemented in selected communities’ country wide through programme units. These are usually divided into four implementation programmes namely food security and poverty alleviation; childhood and youth development; Primary Health Care and Communication for development. Plan responds to poverty by carrying out projects under food security such as supplementary feeding programmes. They distribute cereals, pulses oil, sugar beans, salt, maize meal, vegetable oil, corn soya blend and peanut butter in poverty stricken areas such as Chipinge, Chiredzi Kwekwe and the Lower District area of the Midlands Province in Gweru (Plan Zimbabwe, June-July 2008). According to the Plan Audited Financial Statement for 2009, Plan in Zimbabwe operates at a budget of US$36434 865 of which over US$2 382 180 is channeled towards alleviating poverty and food insecurity. They have managed to reach about 390 000 food insecure people in various provinces of the country including the Midlands province. Plan in Zimbabwe’s major donors include among others Plan Australia, Plan Canada, Plan United Kingdom, Plan United States, UNICEF and World Food Programme.

On a comparative basis CARE has a bigger budget for supplementary feeding programmes at US$ 3 500 000 than PLAN International which devotes a little over US$ 2 382 180 to its programmes. This entails that in terms of financial capacity CARE has a comparative advantage as the organization can manipulate its budget to strengthen its operations.

2.10 SUMMARY

NGOs have played an immense role in the planning and implementation of development projects in Zimbabwe. This role has been significant in the context of rural development. CARE and Plan
have also been immensely involved in promoting sustainable development by improving the productive basis of rural economies in Zimbabwe. However, the operating environment since 2000 in Zimbabwe has been extremely challenging resulting in NGOs not being fully able to carry out supplementary feeding programmes. This is one of the major motives which have impelled this study to investigate the challenges being faced by NGOs in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes in rural Zimbabwe.
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH METHODS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focused on the research design applied in conducting the research. Various research design alternatives in this study were considered in promoting the accomplishment of an effective and good research outcome. The correct research methodology increased the appropriateness of the data collected and enhanced the evaluation of findings and the drawing of conclusion. The scope of this chapter covered research approach and strategy, sampling, data collection methods and procedure, data analysis, and ethical considerations.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

This research study employed a qualitative, descriptive research design. Mouton (2005:55) states that the research design is a plan or blueprint of how you intend conducting the research. McMillan and Schumacher (1993:157) justify this by stating that research design is a plan for selecting subjects, research sites and data collecting procedures to answer the research question. The research design indicates who will be studied, when, where and under what circumstances they will be observed.

3.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

3.3.1 Qualitative Research

This research employed a descriptive, qualitative approach to a larger extent. According to Creswell (2003), qualitative methodology is unique in that it gives the researcher the opportunity to conduct research in a natural setting using multiple methods that are interactive and
humanistic and affords the researcher some flexibility. By so doing, this enables greater depth of understanding and insight into the phenomenon under study. Winberg (1997) argues that qualitative research is inductive rather than deductive in nature meaning that qualitative researchers develop their understandings in the course of the research process.

Babbie (1999:270) identifies the following key features in qualitative research:

• Research is conducted in the natural setting;
• The focus is on the process rather than the outcome;
• The primary aim is an in-depth understanding of the actors and events;
• The qualitative researcher is seen as the main instrument in the research process; and
• The actor’s perspective is emphasized.

In this study a qualitative approach was used as it provided the researcher the opportunity to determine the challenges, perceptions and experiences of the research participants. This study attempted to determine and describe the challenges the two NGOs are experiencing in their natural setting, namely the organizational setting. Their challenges, experiences and perceptions were described as well as possible strategies that could be implemented to help them carry out supplementary feeding programmes more effectively.

3.3.2 Quantitative Research

According to Mouton and Marais (1990:155) the quantitative research is mainly concerned with numbers and data that are easily quantified. The credibility of findings of this study was strengthened by employing some aspects of quantitative approach. The quantitative approach
was used to summarize the responses from the respondents that are the frequency a particular response was recurringly stated by the respondents who were interviewed.

3.4 RESEARCH STRATEGY

The discussion on the research process employed in this study has so far covered the research approach. The objective of this sub-section is to make the best choice on the most appropriate strategy. There are a wide variety of inquiry strategies that are common in qualitative approach. These according to Yin (1994) include among others experiments, surveys, histories, and the analysis of archival information. The research strategy employed in this research was a case study. The researcher made use of a case study strategy in this research because it allowed this investigation to retain holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events –such as individual and organizational real life cycles (Yin, 1994).

Case study research is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context (Yin, 2009). According to Porta and Keating cited in Bennet (2004) researchers use case studies to develop and evaluate theories, as well as to formulate hypotheses or explain a particular phenomenon by using theories and causal mechanisms.

This research made use of a case study strategy because it sought to explore the challenges impeding CARE and Plan in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes. This was meant to make explicit the challenges being faced by NGOs. CARE and Plan in Zimbabwe were the case studies under investigation.
The research design for the case study was centered on the following steps

Research questions determination and definition
Selection of case(s), data gathering and analysis techniques
Data collection and findings analysis and evaluation
Results reporting (as suggested by Yin (2009) and Stake (1995))

3.5 SAMPLING METHODOLOGY

3.5.1 RESEARCH SAMPLE

Sampling is the process of selecting units (e.g. people, organisations) from a population of interest so that by studying the sample one may fairly generalize the results back to the population from which they were chosen (Trochim, 2006.) This study used the purposive sampling technique to select the respondents from CARE and Plan. Purposive sampling is when a researcher uses special knowledge or expertise about a specific group to select subjects who represent the population (Berg, 2004). The rationale for utilizing the purposive sampling technique was that it allowed the researcher to select the subjects who had intimate knowledge of the supplementary feeding programmes and some of the implementation challenges faced by the two organizations CARE and PLAN International in Zimbabwe. The table below shows the list of respondents who were selected through the purposive sampling technique:
TABLE 1. LIST OF KEY INFORMANTS INTERVIEWED

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KEY INFORMANTS INTERVIEWED</th>
<th>ORGANISATION</th>
<th>YEARS WITH THE ORGANISATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>COUNTRY DIRECTOR</td>
<td>CARE ZIMBABWE</td>
<td>4 YEARS</td>
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<tr>
<td>COUNTRY DIRECTOR</td>
<td>PLAN ZIMBABWE</td>
<td>5 YEARS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HUMAN RESOURCES OFFICER</td>
<td>CARE ZIMBABWE</td>
<td>3 YEARS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADMINISTRATION MANAGER (HUMAN RESOURCES)</td>
<td>PLAN ZIMBABWE</td>
<td>2 YEARS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROGRAMMES DIRECTOR</td>
<td>CARE ZIMBABWE</td>
<td>3 YEARS</td>
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<tr>
<td>PROGRAMMES SUPPORT MANAGER</td>
<td>PLAN ZIMBABWE</td>
<td>4 YEARS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMMUNICATIONS MANAGER</td>
<td>PLAN ZIMBABWE</td>
<td>2 YEARS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PUBLIC OFFICER RELATIONS</td>
<td>CARE ZIMBABWE</td>
<td>2 YEARS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.6 METHODS OF DATA GATHERING

This study relied on focus group discussions, in-depths interviews with key informants and document analysis of records on the supplementary feeding programmes

3.6.1 Focus Group Interviews

Focus group interviews in this study were used as a data collecting method. De Vos (2002:305) notes that focus group interviews are a means of better understanding how people feel or think about an issue. De Vos (2002:305) further states that the participants are selected because they have certain characteristics in common that relate to the focus group. For the purpose of this research, four Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) were done at the two respective NGOs (two
FGDs with the field officers and two with the programme officers). Each FGD consisted of six members. However, FGDs have disadvantages, for example, there is a risk that passive participants may be unduly influenced or inhibited by active participants. During the focus group interviews, according to Morgan and Krueger (1998:4), the following guiding principles of facilitation should be followed:

• Be interested in the participants and show positive regard;
• Be a facilitator, not a participant; and
• Be ready to hear unpleasant views;

The focus group interviews were conducted at the premises and sites of operation of the two organizations CARE and PLAN International. The questions were posed in such a way as to get the necessary responses, perceptions and experiences from the respondents. The table below provides a summary of the Focus Group Discussions conducted by the researcher in the two organizations which were the subject of this study CARE and PLAN International in Zimbabwe.
TABLE 3.1 SAMPLE FRAMEWORK OF THE FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NGO</th>
<th>FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CARE-ZIMBABWE</td>
<td>1. FGD WITH SIX FIELD OFFICERS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. FGD WITH 5 PROGRAMME OFFICERS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLAN-ZIMBABWE</td>
<td>1. FGD WITH SIX FIELD OFFICERS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. FGD WITH 5 PROGRAMME OFFICERS</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

3.6.2 INTERVIEWS

Robson (1993:128) defines interviews as purposeful conversations initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research relevant information to satisfy set research objectives. Interviews are the most commonly used approach in social science research as they are a straightforward and non-problematic mode of finding things out. Interviews encompass a wide range of forms ranging from structured to unstructured interviews. According to Robson (1993:129) structured interviews are predetermined set of questions asked and the responses are recorded on a standardized schedule. Under structured interviews the researcher practically fills in the responses of the interviews. There are also semi-structured interviews, which are a set of questions worked out in advance but there is latitude to modify their order based on perception of what seems appropriate in the context of the conversation. Unstructured interviews are
commonly used in social science research, these are where the researcher has a general area of interest and concern, but lets the conversation develop within this area with no predetermined set of questions. The aim is to let the interviewee to divulge as much information as is possible without the constraints of a formal interview with its limiting questions.

The advantage of the interview is that it is a flexible and adaptable way of finding things out. In face-to-face interviews their main advantage is that the interviewer can modify the line of enquiry, follow up on interesting responses and investigating underlying motives in a way that postal and other self-administered questionnaires cannot (Robson, 1993:45). Through this way there is high potential to gather rich and highly illuminating data about a given social phenomenon. Face to face interviews also enable the researcher to pick out non-verbal cues which may convey messages which help in understanding the verbal response.

Though interviews are commonly used in social science research as a data collection method they also carry with them disadvantages. Interviews are time consuming as a typical interview session may be lengthy reducing the number of people who are willing to participate. To circumvent the problem aforementioned interviews need to be short, precise and timed at less than an hour especially for interviewees with a busy schedule. Apart from the fact that interviews are time consuming there is the danger of bias and exaggeration of facts which can diminish their credibility as a data collection method.
3.6.3 In-depth interviews

In-depth interviews were conducted with key informants. In this study the key informants were drawn from CARE and PLAN International Zimbabwe. Key informants were program directors, and field officers assumed to have a great deal of knowledge on the supplementary feeding programmes carried out by CARE and PLAN International Zimbabwe. Key informants were chosen to obtain an informed picture of the implementation challenges facing the supplementary feeding programmes and also to get information pertaining to policy issues and service delivery systems of the supplementary feeding programmes.

3.6.4 Secondary Data

Secondary data was used to augment data from primary sources. Literature review offers an opportunity of learning from others and stimulation of new ideas. It shows procedures, techniques and designs that are worth copying. (Moser, 1958). The advantage of secondary sources is that it can be gathered more quickly and is less costly to be collected. Furthermore it also gives scope and focus to the research study. However, the major disadvantage of secondary data sources is that, in some cases data found does not address the exact problem the researcher is addressing and some materials are outdated and do not help much in giving the current information (Dirwai and Gwimbi, 2003).

For the purpose of this study secondary sources were employed to elucidate more on NGOs and the challenges they face in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes in rural Zimbabwe. Secondary sources used include official documents and report publications of the two
organizations CARE and PLAN International Zimbabwe. The annual programme reports of CARE and PLAN International Zimbabwe provided detailed insights into some of the challenges they encountered in implementing the supplementary feeding programmes as well as vital statistics on the performance of the programmes.

### 3.7 PROCEDURES TO ENHANCE VALIDITY

De Vos (2002:166) states that validity refers to the degree to which an instrument is doing what it is intended to do. According to Struwig and Stead (2001:136), validity refers to the extent to which a research design is scientifically sound or appropriately conducted. The researcher remained as unbiased as possible through the data collecting process. The researcher tried not to contaminate data with her own ideas, perceptions and previous knowledge of the subject.

#### 3.7.1 Data interpretation

Interpretation means relating one’s findings and results to existing theoretical frameworks or models, and showing whether these are supported or falsified by the new interpretation (Mouton 2005:109). In this section interpretation of data gathered using different data gathering techniques was reported. Best and Kahn (2003:259) state that “interpretation involves explaining the findings, answering ‘why’ questions, attaching significance to particular results, and putting patterns into an analytic framework.” Struwig and Stead (2001:172) argue that data interpretation gives meaning to the raw data and that it does not entail reporting of the data but provides the reader with reasonable insights that were not obvious at first.
3.8 RESEARCHER’S ROLE

In the process of collecting data the researcher’s role included the following:

1. Identifying the respondents and modifying the domains to suit the context of this research.

2. Collecting data within the scope of the research project, and ensuring that data collected did not compromise any aspects of quality and integrity.

3. Ensuring that sampling procedures were carefully followed.

4. Clarifying questions that the respondents did not find easy to understand.

3.9 STATEMENT OF ETHICS

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) requires that human dignity and the advancement of human rights and freedom are upheld. Ethics is the foundation of committed service to humankind and should not be considered a deterrent (Pera & Van Tonder, 2005:32). Every citizen has the right to be protected against any harm whether it is his name, person, identity or property. Creswell (2003) identifies the following ethical issues that must be considered in the research process:

• respecting the rights of participants;

• honouring research sites; and

• reporting research fully and honestly.

The rights of those participating in this study were respected by providing them with the aims and objectives of the study, disclosing the researcher’s identity and highlighting the relevance of
the results of the study. All interviewee’s were treated in a manner that did not reflect bias or prejudice for or against a particular race, ethnic group, sex, or religion.

Furthermore, they were informed that they have the right to refuse to participate or withdraw at any time during the study. The researcher respected the views of the participants by reporting data honestly, giving credit for material from other sources and ensuring that plagiarism rules were not violated. The researcher also conducted this study in strict adherence to the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University ethics and protocol guidelines as outlined in the relevant forms.

3.10 SUMMARY

In conclusion, research methodology was a crucial part of the research process as it provided the framework for conducting the research; it also formed the basis for data analysis and data interpretation by the researcher. A qualitative research methodology was decided on as the best method of inquiry in order to get an insider’s perspective of the NGO’s worlds. The research methodology in this study described research sampling methodology and other related procedures that the researcher utilized in conducting the research. The interviews and focus group interviews were related to the study. Data analysis was done in Chapter four after the interviews had been conducted and the audio-taped information analyzed. Themes were identified and compared with the relevant literature.
CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This section of the study is a presentation of research findings and their analysis. A total of Ten (10) interviews were done with programme officers and eight interviews were conducted with key informants at CARE and PLAN Zimbabwe. Four Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) were done at the two respective NGOs (two FGDs with the field officers and two with the programme officers). The presentation of data followed a thematic approach in its description and interpretation.

**TABLE 4.1 LIST OF KEY INFORMANTS INTERVIEWED**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>ORGANISATION</th>
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<tr>
<td>PROGRAMMES SUPPORT MANAGER</td>
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<tr>
<td>COMMUNICATIONS MANAGER</td>
<td>PLAN ZIMBABWE</td>
<td>2 YEARS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PUBLIC RELATIONS OFFICER</td>
<td>CARE ZIMBABWE</td>
<td>2 YEARS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NB:** The key informants preferred to be addressed by their work titles rather than their individual names purportedly for professional reasons and to protect their private identities.
### TABLE 4.2 SAMPLE FRAMEWORK OF THE INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS AND THE FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NGO</th>
<th>PROGRAM OFFICERS INTERVIEWED INDIVIDUALLY</th>
<th>FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CARE ZIMBABWE</td>
<td>FIVE (5)</td>
<td>1. FGD WITH SIX FIELD OFFICERS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. FGD WITH 5 PROGRAMME OFFICERS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLAN ZIMBABWE</td>
<td>FIVE(5)</td>
<td>1. FGD WITH SIX FIELD OFFICERS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. FGD WITH 5 PROGRAMME OFFICERS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>TEN(10)</td>
<td>TWENTY (22)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Appendix 1 and 2 show the interview questions administered to key informants and the focus group discussions.*

The subjects interviewed were willing to respond to all the questions asked by the researcher, in some instances they went out of their way to furnish the researcher with detailed information that provided useful insights into how they carry out their supplementary feeding programmes.
4.2 CHALLENGES

4.2.1 SHORTAGE OF TRAINED NUTRITIONISTS

This response emerged from the FGDs and the key informants when asked to comment on the challenges facing the supplementary feeding programmes. 80% (9 from CARE and 9 from PLAN out of 22 respondents) of the interviewed respondents both in the FGDs and the key informants pointed out that the supplementary feeding programmes run by CARE and PLAN Zimbabwe were being affected by an acute shortage of trained and experienced nutritionists. The key informants in charge of the supplementary feeding programmes the Programme Directors in the two NGOs lamented that it was difficult to get nutritionists willing to work at the district level; Lower Gweru district, where the supplementary feeding programmes took place. Probed further on why nutritionists were reluctant to work in Lower Gweru the Directors unanimously agreed that the district had poor infrastructure in terms of roads, clinics, banking and recreational facilities inter alia which made it difficult for personnel such as nutritionists to adapt. It was revealed by the Directors of the two NGOs that those nutritionists who were willing to work in Lower Gweru made heavy salary and condition of service demands which the two NGOs found unsustainable to maintain. It also emerged from the interviews with the Directors that the situation was aggravated by the brain drain that the country was (and is still) experiencing which has seen Zimbabwe’s talented, skilled and experienced personnel in all the sectors of the economy particularly the health sector, which produced the nutritionists, leaving the country en mass in search of better remunerating jobs abroad.

Questioned on what PLAN and CARE International were doing to attract nutritionists to work in Lower Gweru, the Directors stated that budgetary constraints were the key challenge. The
demands made by the nutritionists were way beyond what they could afford given that organizational policy demanded that 80% of the budget was for the actual food for the supplementary feeding programmes whereas the remaining 20% was for administrative purposes and salaries for personnel. The Directors stated that any move to favourably treat the nutritionists was to have a domino effect as other personnel were also to demand a pay rise and other peaks whose effect was an upward increase in the salaries budget beyond the 20% threshold. Probed on why the two NGOs were not engaging nutritionists with lesser qualifications who may make lesser demands the Directors responded by noting that government policy required NGOs to engage degreed nutritionists who are deemed as experts and competent to manage supplementary feeding programmes. However, the two Directors indicated they were trying to generate a competitive incentive package that was going to attract and retain nutritionist within the confines of their budget guidelines.

It therefore can be concluded that the brain drain and the high salary and working condition demands by the nutritionists are a critical fact impeding NGOs from carrying out supplementary feeding programmes. The researcher observed that the success of any meaningful supplementary feeding programme rests on the availability of trained nutritionists who can monitor the impact of the programme in terms of its effectiveness in ameliorating the nutritional needs of the target beneficiaries. Their shortage means that CARE and PLAN Zimbabwe are faced with diminished capacity to implement quality nutritional programmes, including the treatment of severe malnutrition in rural Zimbabwe.
4.2.2 HIGH STAFF TURNOVER

Inextricably linked to the problem of shortage of trained nutritionists was the debilitating problem of high staff turnover that the two NGOs (CARE and PLAN Zimbabwe) under study experienced. 90% (5 from CARE and 4 from PLAN out of 10 respondents) of the interviewees concurred that high staff turnover experienced by the two NGOs under study, CARE and PLAN Zimbabwe, impacted negatively on the efficient operation of their supplementary feeding programmes. To get an informed insight into how staff turnover affected the two NGOs, the researcher held engaging interviews with the Human Resources officers at CARE and PLAN Zimbabwe, key informants who have an intimate knowledge of personnel trends in their respective organizations.

The key informant, the Human Resources officer, interviewed at CARE International pointed out that his organization had become a training ground for other NGOs operating in Zimbabwe and beyond the country’s borders with a staff turnover of 70% of personnel directly responsible for the organization’s supplementary feeding programme especially in the period 2000 to present. He went on to provide the following breakdown of figures of the organization’s personnel sections which were worst affected by the high staff turnover.
TABLE SHOWING CARE ZIMBABWE’S RATE OF STAFF TURNOVER JAN 2008 TO AUGUST 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERSONNEL</th>
<th>RATE OF STAFF TURNOVER FROM JANUARY 2008 TO AUGUST 2010 (CARE ZIMBABWE)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NUTRITIONISTS</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROGRAMME OFFICERS</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIELD OFFICERS</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRIVERS</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL ORGANISATIONAL RATE OF STAFF TURNOVER</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Human Resources Officer at CARE Zimbabwe further noted that as soon as their employees gained the relevant knowledge and experience of running the organization’s supplementary feeding programmes they were quickly lured by other rival NGOs who offered relatively better remuneration packages and some went abroad. The main reason why high staff turnover was experienced among the nutritionists, programme and field officers as stated by the CARE HR officer was that since there was a proliferation of NGOs venturing into supplementary feeding programmes given Zimbabwe’s precarious food situation as well as in conflict ridden countries such as Sudan, there was an unprecedented demand for the fore mentioned personnel. Probed
further on why the organization was not putting in place measures to curb the high staff turnover, the HR officer conceded that given the expansive nature of their operations which covered almost the whole of Zimbabwe it was impossible for the organization to offer competitive remuneration packages which rival NGOs in the country and abroad can afford mainly due to their ability to offer relatively higher remuneration packages. Though the HR officer was at pains to explain that his organization was putting in place non pecuniary benefits such as training and a conducive work environment, he constantly pointed out that the affected personnel were more interested in monetary rewards than the so called humane work environment.

The Administration Manager (HR) at PLAN international also raised concern with the high incidence of staff turnover for supplementary feeding personnel which he said was around 60% for his organization. In a similar response as at CARE Zimbabwe the Administration Manager (HR) at PLAN Zimbabwe indicated that the worst affected personnel were nutritionists, programme and field officers who were directly involved with the supplementary feeding programme. He cited NGOs such as World Vision as one of the destinations for their departing personnel, the reason being that it offered relatively better remuneration packages, though he was reluctant to state how much the organization was remunerating its staff. Probed on why PLAN Zimbabwe was not putting in place measures to return critical staff such as nutritionists, programme and field officers, he responded by stating that the departing staff were more interested in monetary rewards which his organization was not in position to afford at the time of the interview.
High staff turnover as highlighted by the two HR officers interviewed had the net effect of disrupting programme continuity, stability and sustainability. In a broad sense the high staff turnover diminished the capacity of the two NGOs to implement quality nutrition programmes, including the treatment of severe malnutrition. This corroborates the Chetsanga findings of 2005 which concluded that since 2000 the socio-economic and political instability that has rocked Zimbabwe caused a massive brain drain of skilled personnel notably nutritionists and programme officers who had the expertise to administer the supplementary feeding programmes in the NGOs and in government ministries such as the ministry of health. This has to a large measure impacted negatively on the supplementary feeding programmes implemented by NGOs as quite often there is a dearth of qualified and experienced personnel to effectively administer these noble initiatives.

4.2.3 STAFF MISCONDUCT

This point was raised in an interview with the Human Resources officers of the two NGOs. According to the Operations Directors at CARE and PLAN International, staff misconduct was one of the challenges faced by their organizations in carrying out the supplementary feeding programmes. The most prevalent form of staff misconduct was theft of food packs by field officers who sold them to the locals. It was noted by the two Programme Directors at CARE and PLAN Zimbabwe that 80% of their disciplinary cases involved field officers accused of stealing food packs from the supplementary feeding programme. The common food item at the centre of these offences was cooking oil, the reason being that it had a ready market as demand for it was high.
Theft by conversion diverted the food supplements from the target beneficiaries who deserved the assistance to non deserving people who acquired the food assistance just because they could afford to pay for the commodities illicitly sold by the defaulting staff. Though the two organizations had elaborate security measures to curb offences such as thefts it emerged from the interviews with the Operations Directors of the two NGOs that there was an intricate chain of connivance among the employees in collaboration with the security personnel to circumvent the security mechanisms currently in place. The respondents however, said they are constantly reviewing the security mechanism in a bid to strengthen them so as to prevent the high incidences of theft by their employees.

4.2.4: LACK OF ADEQUATE AND RELIABLE INFORMATION ON THE TARGET BENEFICIARIES

About 95% (5 at CARE and 4 at PLAN International out of 10 respondents) of the interviewees raised the issue of the lack of adequate and reliable information on the target beneficiaries of the supplementary feeding programmes. Since the supplementary feeding programmes were targeted specifically for school going children, pregnant mothers, and those infected with HIV and AIDS most records relied upon were school registers and records kept by the local clinics and the community leadership. The school registers indicated high figures whereas the actual numbers of the school children who came to receive the food assistance was much lower.

The field officers explained the variance by noting that, given the high primary school dropout in Lower Gweru of over 55% as given by the ministry of education officials meant there were a few children still left in the primary schools to benefit from the supplementary feeding programmes.
The records from the clinics were not helpful as the respondents noted that cases of HIV and AIDS were under-reported due to such issues as stigmatization still attendant with the disease.

Further the respondents stated that the community registers which they sometimes used which were created by the local leadership, the chiefs, village heads, Village Development Committee (VIDCO) and Ward Development Committee (WADCO) chairpersons, party leadership and the community elders were not helpful as they often carried inflated figures which included non-deserving potential. Probed to elaborate further on this point the respondents stated that corruption seem to be rearing its ugly face as the community leaders seemed to be receiving bribes to include certain undeserving elements as there is a general perception among the rural folk that the food menu under the supplementary feeding schemes was highly nutritious and available free once enrolled in the programme.

Probed further on why the two NGOs are not keeping their own records, the key respondents, Program Officers stated that the best sources for information on the beneficiaries of the supplementary feeding programmes were the schools and the local clinics and the community as they have an intimate knowledge of the beneficiaries. Another technicality raised by the Program Officers was that information gathering was a time consuming process. However, they acknowledge it is an area that they have to urgently improve as information was crucial in the monitoring and evaluation of their supplementary feeding programmes.

The disparities arising from unreliable information that the records relied upon created logistical problems in planning for the acquisition of the food supplies and distributing it to the
beneficiaries. Further the major challenge that lack of adequate data, notably quantitative data, on the beneficiaries presented was that it became difficult to measure the effectiveness of the supplementary feeding programmes.

4.2.5: DIFFICULTIES IN SELECTING BENEFICIARIES

This point was raised by 85% (8 at CARE and 10 at PLAN International out of 22 respondents) of the respondents. Though the respondents stated that their organizations had explicit criteria in the selection of beneficiaries of the supplementary feeding programmes it was noted by the respondents that practicalities on the ground made it a daunting task. It was invariably noted by the five Programme officers (three from CARE and two from PLAN International) interviewed that the key selection criteria for the beneficiaries of the supplementary feeding programmes were school going children, pregnant mothers and people infected with HIV and AIDS who were considered poor to adequately meet their nutritional needs. It was observed by the interviewees and the researcher that even pregnant women, school going children from well to do families with enough food supplies under the existing criteria were beneficiaries of the supplementary feeding programme.

Again the respondents noted that anomaly was attributable to the general perception that the supplementary feeding menu was nutritious. The intervention of the community leaders exacerbated the difficulties in selecting the suitable beneficiaries of the programme. Community leaders, it was expressed by the Program officers, argued that it was immoral to deny food assistance to people like the elderly and the community’s disabled particularly from the poor families, just because they failed to satisfy the selection criteria stipulated by the NGOs.
Difficulties and contestations over the selection criteria meant that the supplementary feeding programmes ended up benefiting or disadvantaging none deserving and deserving cases respectively. The Operations Directors interviewed, mentioned that there was need to engage the government officials on the issue of selecting beneficiaries as they had the authority to make the final decisions on who should be selected or left out of the supplementary feeding programme.

4.2.6: INACCESSIBLE DISTRIBUTION POINTS

According to the all the respondents interviewed, particularly the field officers (11 at CARE and 11 at PLAN out of 22), the major distribution points used by the two NGOs in Lower Gweru from which the beneficiaries accessed the supplementary feeding assistance were schools, local clinics, the homesteads of chiefs, village heads and councilors. However, the respondents lamented that these distribution points were not accessible because of the poor road network that linked them with the main food depots in Harare and Bulawayo. The problem of accessibility was acute during the rainy season especially when fluke floods occur in the normally dry Midlands region of Zimbabwe where this research was carried out. In this period it was noted by the respondents that the roads were difficult to traverse.

The net effect was delays in transporting the food for the supplementary feeding programme to the beneficiaries. Such delays apart from denying the beneficiaries the food assistance caused deteriorations in the food quality especially the high nutrient concentrate meals and beans. Delays increased storage costs and handling costs as the contracted transporters demanded payment whilst holding the food commodities in delayed transit. Since the two NGOs could not control nature they had to bear these extra costs.
4.2.7 PROBLEMS IN THE MANAGEMENT OF DISTRIBUTION POINTS

90% (11 at CARE and 9 at PLAN International out of 22 respondents) of the respondents, the field officers, interviewed complained that the management of the distribution points was a cause for concern. It was mentioned by the interviewees that the community leaders whose homes served as distribution points demanded huge rentals and pay which increased the handling costs. As community leaders, the respondents argued that, they were being insensitive and unreasonably wanted to benefit from a programme that served public interest.

4.2.8 DIFFICULTIES IN FOOD ACQUISITION

This point was raised by the key informants the Programme Directors of CARE and PLAN International Zimbabwe. The Programme Directors at CARE and PLAN International Zimbabwe indicated that it was difficult to acquire the food for the supplementary feeding programmes. It was noted by the two Programme Directors that for the past six years Zimbabwe, partly owing to the poor rainfall attendant with poor harvests and the fast track land reform programme which disrupted farming activities on the commercial farms- traditional sources of food- as well as the food processing industry, was not a good and reliable source of the preferred food supplements. This meant that the food supplements for the supplementary feeding programme had to be imported from far afield as Brazil, USA, China, Malawi and South Africa. Naturally this increased the costs of landing the food supplements in Zimbabwe in terms of, transport, handling and other attendant importation costs.
The Program Director at CARE Zimbabwe stated that summed up together the costs amounted to twice more than if the food was locally available. PLAN Zimbabwe’s Program Director though not in a position to give the exact figures indicated that the import costs chewed nearly 30% of their food acquisition budget.

However, local food stuff availability was reported, by all the interviewees, to have improved significantly as the 2009-10 farming season was positive in terms of harvests and the improved economic stability induced by the political dispensation resulting from the Global Political Agreement*.

*In fact the GPA is a political agreement endorsed by Zimbabwe’s three main political parties, Zimbabwe African National Union –Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF), and the two formations of the Movement for Democratic Change (MDC-T and MDC-M). Its signing culminated in the formation of an inclusive government which brought about some semblance of peace and socio-economic stability to the country which for almost a decade was in the deep throes of a multi-layered and multi faceted socio-economic instability.

4.2.9 RECIPIENT OVER-DEPENDENCY

90% (11 at CARE and 9 at PLAN out of 22 respondents) of the respondents interviewed pointed out there was a phenomenon of recipient over dependency attendant with the supplementary feeding programmes carried out by the two NGOs in question. It was noted that since the beneficiaries are aware that the food assistance made available to them through the supplementary feeding programmes was for free they tended to neglect efforts to look for alternative food sources. The field officers stated that at the time of the research alternative
sources of food such as market gardening and buying using their own resources was difficult given the high costs of food then in the country and long dry spell that hindered agricultural activity.

Recipient over-dependency burdens the programme in that it becomes difficult to wean off the beneficiaries from the supplementary feeding programmes and make them more proactive in devising initiatives to meet their own individual or community food needs.

4.2.10 LACK OF SYNERGY AND COOPERATION AMONG NGOs INVOLVED IN SUPPLEMENTARY FEEDING PROGRAMMES

The informants interviewed in the two NGOs conceded that there was a marked lack of synergy and cooperation among the NGOs in Zimbabwe particularly in the area of supplementary feeding programmes. The researcher questioned the two Operations Directors representing CARE and PLAN Zimbabwe why there was lack of cooperation while the two NGOs were members of the National Association of Non Governmental Organizations (NANGO) a coordinative umbrella body comprising all registered NGOs in Zimbabwe. Pressed on this issue the Operations Director of CARE International’s supplementary feeding programme responded by stating that the main reason there was lack of coordination or networking among the NGOs in Zimbabwe arose from the differentials in the source of funding, country of origin and the operational philosophy of individual organizations. For example the interviewed Operations Director said that CARE International was an organization whose principal focus was poverty alleviation in the rural areas. This fact alone made it distinct from NGOs like PLAN International which is child centred in its thrust towards human development. Given that differential it was difficult to establish a
workable relationship as the organizations had contrasting operational approaches to rural
development.

The Operations Director of PLAN International responsible for the supplementary feeding
programme responded by stating that the lack of networking among NGOs in Zimbabwe has its
roots in the sources of funds which dictated how their monies should be expended and which
NGOs to cooperate with. In the focus group discussions the recurring theme raised by the
respondents was that certain NGOs served the political, social and economic interests of their
countries of origin. To corroborate this assertion one respondent vividly expressed his point by
citing a document prepared by the London School of Economics a leading University of London
university college entitled *National security concerns continue to dictate government aid and
development agendas* by Jude Howell which concurred that; aid policies of countries such as
the UK and the USA were dictated by their security, political and economic interests and as such
their NGOs are compelled to work within this framework.

Another example cited was that of USAID which 80% of the respondents in the focus group
discussions state that its aid operations were mainly done to paint America as a great benevolent
country which assists smaller nations such as Zimbabwe in times of desperation. These
differences placed subtle obstacles which hinder NGOs which are seemingly engaged in the
same field of operation from cooperating or networking in terms of knowledge, technology and
expertise sharing as the political, security and economic interests as well as the desire to be
visible on the aid scene of mother countries differs.
It can be argued that lack of networking by NGOs placed a heavy burden on individual organizations as it is costly to map the logistical framework of their supplementary feeding programmes through first time baseline studies when it was cheaper to acquire information from sister NGOs.

4.2.11 THE PROBLEM OF GOVERNMENT INTERFERENCE

The respondents whilst agreeing that the government had a legitimate role to play in regulating the operations of NGOs, they nonetheless noted that, that role became impeding when it negatively affected their humanitarian assistance activities. Key informants (notably the Country Directors and Programme Directors) interviewed, probed further by the researcher, mentioned that the relationship that subsists between the NGOs and the government in Zimbabwe could best be described as a ‘love-hate’ relationship. The interviewees alleged that the government only ‘loved’ or tolerated the NGOs to the extent that they conform and confine themselves to the support role of assisting the state in developmental initiatives as dictated by it. However, the relationship rapidly soured into a hate or intolerant relationship when the government construed that the NGOs were pursuing ulterior agendas. This was worsened by the fact that NGOs such as CARE and PLAN International are of foreign origin and funding, particularly from western countries like Britain, said to be supportive of the opposition as well as pushing the regime change agenda. To give credence to this claim the respondents made specific reference to the 4 June 2008 directive which suspended the operations of all private voluntary organizations (PVOs) or Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs). In this directive it was stated by the then Minister of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare Mr. Nicholas Goche that ‘NGOs were breaching the terms and conditions of their registration as enshrined in the Private Voluntary
The respondents interviewed categorically stated that such adverse interventionist directives by government disrupted their operations. The subsequent long periods of suspension often lead to massive staff exoduses as employees move to other jobs that keep them active. This has a debilitating effect in that personnel with expertise and institutional memory in running the supplementary feeding programmes were lost. In terms of the costs this increased the wage bill as the organizations have to cater for forced severance packages which are often higher than if the severances were voluntary. Further the respondents stated that since these government suspensions come at a time when there is work in progress and food in transit the assistance usually failed to get to the beneficiaries. The NGOs are left to grapple with rising storage costs and have to make do with deteriorating food quality under storage. On a more optimistic note the respondents hoped that the inclusive government will usher in an era of a new working relationship in which the government and the NGOs will cooperate as mutual partners.

4.2.12: THE PROBLEM OF POLITICAL INTERFERENCE

Inextricably connected to the problem of state interference is the problem of political interference with a special focus on political party interference. This subject evoked animated discussion among all the respondents interviewed either individually as key informants or in the Focus Group Discussions. All the respondents unanimously agreed that their supplementary feeding operations were affected by political interference right from the national level to the micro level - the community level where their activities are centred.
The tumultuous election season of 2008 bear clear credence to this observation. It was incessantly raised by the interviewees that humanitarian assistance especially food aid was a ‘hot potato’ presently in Zimbabwe. The political party that controlled and is seen to control or has a dominant say in how food aid was distributed determined to a significant extent the voting behavior of the beneficiaries and their guardians. Parents of school children, pregnant mothers, and people infected with HIV and AIDS were threatened with denial or denied food assistance if they were suspected of belonging to a certain political party. Though the respondents were not free to name the guilty political parties in question, it was frequently stated that the war veterans, who are sworn allies of the Zimbabwe African National Union – Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF), were at the fore front of accusing NGOs of being sympathetic to the opposition.

The influence of the war veterans was said to also manifest in the selection of beneficiaries and in deciding for the bureaucrats mainly the District Administrators (DAs) NGOs that should carry out supplementary feeding programmes in particular localities. Those beneficiaries who were alleged to belong to the opposition were forcibly struck off the supplementary feeding programme registers even if they were bona fide beneficiaries. However, though this problem still persists the respondents mentioned that it significantly has subsided in the wake of the formation of the Inclusive Government which now constitute the three erstwhile main political parties ZANU-PF and the two Movements for Democratic Change (MDC) factions, MDC-T and MDC-M. According to the respondents political interference created fear amongst their employees and the beneficiaries such that the vitality of the supplementary feeding programme is diminished.
4.2.13 RESTRICTIONS IN DONOR FUNDING

Respondents interviewed invariably indicated that there is a difficult donor and funding environment in Zimbabwe involving restrictive conditions on funding. The reason noted by the respondents was the suspicion that existed between the government and the NGOs. It was stated by the respondents that the NGO Act put in place by government had stringent restrictive funding stipulations on the funds that the NGOs received externally. Funding restrictions emanated from government’s perception that such funding was being used to bolster the political standing of the main opposition (in the view of the researcher, MDC-T). The government it was raised by the Directors maintained a stranglehold on all issues that have to do with NGO funding. The country Directors of the two NGOs were at pains in explaining to the researcher that their supplementary feeding operations in Zimbabwe were none political and were done purely on humanitarian grounds. It was unbelievable to them that the government was linking them to the political affairs of the country particularly the power struggles between ZANU-PF and the MDC. There was consensus among the respondents that external assistance may not be forthcoming for nutrition interventions unless the current political situation in the country is resolved.

To exacerbate the problem of restricted funding the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe (RBZ) in the period 2004-2008 appropriated huge amounts of money from the NGOs’ foreign currency accounts a substantial amount of which was for the supplementary feeding programmes. This has affected the smooth operation of the supplementary feeding programmes of CARE and PLAN Zimbabwe. Though there are efforts being made by the management of the two NGOs to recover the appropriated funds it is taking longer than expected compounded by the fact that the RBZ is
currently in a state of insolvency. The Directors went on to inform the researcher that the situation of funding was being affected by the current global recession, as the traditional sources of funds the rich western nations were in the throes of a financial crisis which limited their ability to donate funds for aid purposes.

These funding restrictions meant that the supplementary feeding programmes constantly were under-funded and because of that could not cover as many beneficiaries as they potentially can were full funding made possible.

4.3 DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

The findings of this study, in which CARE and PLAN Zimbabwe were the case studies, have unmasked a host of challenges that impede NGOs from carrying out supplementary feeding programmes in Zimbabwe. Evidence from the study reveals that there are intra and inter-organizational as well as external challenges that impede NGOs from effectively carrying out supplementary feeding programmes in Zimbabwe. It is noteworthy at this juncture to point out that though for analytical purposes these challenges are distinctly categorized, there are in reality mutually intertwined as they tend to collude in a way that adversely affect the operations of NGOs in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes as to be shown by the ensuing discussion of the research findings.

The shortage of key personnel such as nutritionists affected the supplementary feeding programmes. Nutritionists are critical in that they are able to assess the nutritional needs of the target beneficiaries and develop an appropriate diet. The shortage of nutritionists can be
attributed to the brain drain that the country has experienced in recent as a result of political
induced socio-economic instability. Failure by NGOs to offer the favoured pecuniary benefits by
skilled personnel has seen them being unable to retain or attract specialists such as nutritionists.
Subsequently failure to offer attractive monetary rewards is attributable to high staff turnover
skilled and experienced personnel that the NGOs such as CARE and PLAN Zimbabwe are
experiencing. The implication is that NGOs have to redesign their remuneration policies in a way
that monetary rewards preferred by skilled personnel feature prominently. This must be viewed
in light that government demands that supplementary feeding programmes be manned by
qualified nutritionists as a way of maintaining quality and effectiveness of these programmes.

Staff misconduct is an inevitable phenomenon in any organization as in the course of
employment the interests of employees and the organization diverge. However, it becomes a
problem if it affects the core functions of an organization. Theft of food meant for the
supplementary feeding programme by field officers experienced by CARE and PLAN Zimbabwe
expose its disruptive effects. This brings a number of issues into perspective. The reason for the
theft could be that the remuneration of the field officers is too low such that their actions are
done to compensate for the meager salaries. Another hypothetical reason could be that the thefts
are done out of greed as the commodities at the centre of the thefts, cooking oil, had a lucrative
market. This demands NGOs to put in place strong mechanisms to prevent such staff misconduct
as thefts.

The selection of beneficiaries is a key challenge that NGOs have to grapple with in carrying out
supplementary feeding programmes. Contests in the selection of target beneficiaries despite the
fact that NGOs have their own set selection criterion present a major challenge. The fact that undeserving cases were benefiting from the supplementary feeding programmes is clear testimony of how problematic the selection process is. There is need for NGOs and all the stakeholders to put their heads together with a view of generating selection mechanisms that ensure that deserving cases benefit from the supplementary feeding programmes.

Another major challenge that the study noted was the difficulties that NGOs faced at a local level in the management of distribution points. The perception by those who provided facilities that served as distribution points, that NGOs have money and therefore should be charged exorbitant rentals is not only flawed but retrogressive as the supplementary feeding programmes were for the benefit of the community. NGOs should engage the target communities and conscientize them on the need to provide secure distribution points given that supplementary feeding programmes are for the benefit of the entire community in the sense that the beneficiaries are the vulnerable – the poor, school children and pregnant women. Closely intertwined to the problem of managing the distribution points is their inaccessibility during the rainy season. This delayed access by the target beneficiaries of the food assistance as well as increasing the storage costs. The community through their local government structures needs to ensure that the roads that link the distribution points are passable all year round such that food flows without undue delay to the target beneficiaries. This is only feasible if there is oneness of purpose amongst the community leadership and the local authorities which may be problematic if they are divergent interests. Lack of adequate and reliable information is a major challenge that impeded NGOs from carrying out supplementary feeding schemes. The value of adequate and reliable information is priceless and it is critical in the planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the
supplementary feeding programmes. It seems CARE and PLAN Zimbabwe though acknowledging the importance of reliable information had weak information gathering systems. Their sources of information leave a lot to be desired as they provided unreliable data which made planning difficult in terms of determining how many people were benefiting from the supplementary feeding programmes and their impact on the target beneficiaries. The researcher strongly feels that the two organizations need to generate reliable data bases on their supplementary feeding programmes as way of improving programme efficiency through engaging specialist research institutions such as universities who can gather and validate data on their behalf.

The issue of political and governmental interference was a major problem that NGOs such as CARE and PLAN Zimbabwe faced in the country. Because of the polarized political environment prevailing in Zimbabwe food distributions by NGOs under the supplementary feeding programmes became highly politicized. NGOs are seen as siding with the opposition parties in pushing the regime change agenda as evidenced by their banning in 2008. Though the inclusive government has eased the tensions, suspicion is still deeply entrenched between the government and the NGOs.

Food acquisition has been made difficult by a combination of recurring droughts in the country and a fall in funding by the traditional international donors as a result of the global financial crisis. Droughts mean that food is acquired from faraway places such as Brazil the net effect being increases in import and shipping costs which reduce the quantities of food procured. The fall in international funding has affected the budgets of supplementary feeding programmes
resulting in reduced food quantities which in most cases are not adequate for the target beneficiaries.

Differentials in operational philosophies, country of origin and target areas has hindered NGOs from networking in beneficiary way. The differing political, security and economic interests of the countries from which the NGOs originate made it difficult for them to network as their national priorities took precedence over all other concerns. There was also competition for visibility. Individual, NGOs wanted to be seen as playing a unique role in their spheres of influence. Visibility was threatened if there was cooperation with rival NGOs. This explains the reason why individual NGOs preferred to carry out their own supplementary feeding programmes in the same target communities without cooperating. In fact NGOs should go beyond such selfish thinking and pool resources and reap the benefits of synergies.
CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This section of the study seeks to summarize the main objectives of the study, draw conclusions from and proffer recommendations that can facilitate the unhindered participation of NGOs in poverty alleviation through supplementary feeding programmes in rural Zimbabwe.

5.2 SUMMARY

This study set out to critically investigate the main challenges faced by NGOs in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes in Zimbabwe’s rural areas. The principal research question was formulated as follows: What are the challenges impeding NGOs in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes? Pursuance of the research problem was done by determining the extent to which NGOs influence the supplementary feeding programmes and assessing the contribution of NGOs to poverty alleviation through the supplementary feeding programmes. CARE International and PLAN International in Zimbabwe were the two case studies. The preference for CARE International and PLAN International in Zimbabwe as case studies was informed by the fact that these two NGOs’ supplementary feeding programmes cover almost the whole of Zimbabwe and that they have been involved in these programmes for years. This therefore means that these two NGOs have experience in the area of supplementary feeding programmes as part of the broad strategy to alleviate rural poverty. Thus the challenges they have faced over the years in carrying out their supplementary feeding programmes can provide insight into some of the main problems that most NGOs operating these programmes in rural Zimbabwe face. Since the study was principally qualitative the data collection tools used were the Focus Group Discussions, in-depth interviews with key informants and document study.
A total of four FGDs were held with the field and programme officers at CARE and PLAN International. The in-depth interviews were held with the key informants who included country directors, human resources officers, programme directors, communication managers and the public relations officer. Documents such as the annual and progress evaluation reports of the supplementary feeding programmes run by CARE and PLAN International were reviewed in order to pick out some of the challenges that they faced.

5.3 CONCLUSION

The founding research question of this study was: what challenges are impeding NGOs in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes? This question was informed by the fact that though NGOs are active participants in the developmental agenda, they were not so effective in carrying out developmental programmes such as supplementary feeding programmes. It was noted by this study that NGOs face multiple challenges which are indeed militating against their effectiveness in carrying out developmental work. After the analysis of this study’s findings, drawn from CARE International and PLAN International’s operations in Zimbabwe, it can be soundly concluded that there are both internal and external factors that collude to impede NGOs from carrying out supplementary feeding programmes. However, the results that emerged from this study may not present a true picture of the challenges that NGOs are facing in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes since two NGOs were used as case studies. Thus generalisations may be difficult to apply to all the NGOs that carry out supplementary feeding programmes in Zimbabwe. Nevertheless CARE and PLAN International’s supplementary feeding programmes remain model examples whose challenges are likely to be faced by similar organisations operating in Zimbabwe.
It can also be difficult to make solid recommendations as some of the solutions are way beyond the control of the NGOs. This is especially where the government is involved, however through lobbying and all stakeholder consultation NGOs can influence policy makers to generate policies that facilitate the effective operation of programmes such as supplementary feeding schemes. In fact constant engagement of the government by NGOs in Zimbabwe has seen the two parties cordially working together after their banning in 2008. The government has lifted its ban on NGOs and this has seen the resumption of supplementary feeding programmes carried out by CARE and PLAN International in the rural areas including in Lower Gweru the prime target of this study.

The study concludes that NGOs in Zimbabwe face a number of challenges that threaten to derail the supplementary feeding programmes. These challenges can be classified into two broad analytical categories. However, it is important to note that these challenges are inextricably intertwined. A possible link between the two categories of inhibitions is the vast number of people living in poverty in Zimbabwe, due to the socio-political-economic challenges the country has encountered in the last decade. The deep and wide level of poverty in the country is an external factor but it can influence the internal challenges in a significant way.

Intra-organizational challenges which include factors such as shortage of trained nutritionists, high staff turnover and staff misconduct, difficulties in accessing and managing distributional points, recipient over-dependency, lack of adequate and reliable information on the target beneficiaries as well as difficulties encountered in selecting the appropriate beneficiaries.
External challenges encountered by the NGOs in effectively carrying out the supplementary feeding programmes in rural Zimbabwe encompassed excessive government and political interference, restricted donor funding, lack of coordination and synergy amongst the NGOs operating in rural Zimbabwe.

The study also concludes that the issue of funding is problematic one for the NGOs operating in Zimbabwe especially for CARE and PLAN International. This is particularly so in the face of dwindling donor funding, where the NGOs are forced to strike a delicate budgetary balance between the wage bill and the actual amount set aside for the supplementary feeding programmes. High staff turnover has to be controlled in a way and this entails upsetting the whole budgetary framework. Thus NGOs have to make hard choices when it comes to manipulating their budgets so that they cater for the demands of their skilled personnel at the same time not compromising allocations to the supplementary feeding programmes.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

This study after an analysis of the findings proposes a number of recommendations that may facilitate the unhindered participation of NGOs in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes in particular and in the rural development process in general.

1. NGOs need to devise wholesome strategies to retain and attract critical personnel such as nutritionists, programme and field officers. This can be done by adjusting their budgetary stipulations in a way that monetary rewards preferred by skilled personnel occupy a place of
centrality in the remuneration packages they offer employees. Such a measure may alleviate the twin problems of high staff turnover and shortage of skilled personnel as nutritionists. It can be true that donors may be reluctant to provide additional funding to cater for the remuneration packages of personnel but failure to adequately remunerate the latter may also entail failure of the supplementary feeding programmes. Thus a balance must be struck by NGOs between staff retention and sustaining the supplementary feeding programmes as a tool for alleviating rural poverty. NGOs should therefore strive to offer remuneration packages that will retain key personnel such as programme officers and nutritionists at the same time not compromising the supplementary feeding programme intervention of poverty alleviation.

2. Thefts of food meant for the supplementary feeding programme by employees of NGOs can be curbed by putting in place stringent security measures. Such security measures may include regular pre and post distribution audits to ensure that all the food items are accounted for. This can be done by the existing security personnel who have to be constantly rotated as a way of limiting incidences of collusion between the security and the Programme Directors.

3. NGOs need to be proactive in the creation and maintenance of an adequate and reliable data base on the supplementary feeding programmes in terms of its beneficiaries and nutritional impact. A data base can be created by contracting out the service to specialized institutions such as universities who have the expertise, time and resources to collect adequate and reliable data on behalf of the NGOs. Masters students can be engaged to carry out research which entail gathering of relevant statistics and related data on the supplementary feeding programmes. The universities in collaboration with the NGOs can validate that data and use it for assessing the impact of the supplementary feeding programmes. This will reduce costs to the NGOs.
4. The management of distribution points can be enhanced by convincing the local community leaders that it is their responsibility to offer such facilities as part of their broad community leadership duties. This can be achieved through educative dialogues which bring together the key stakeholders, the NGOs, target beneficiaries and the community leaders where they enlighten each other on the need to manage in a way that will benefit the target beneficiaries at least cost. Such interaction tends to breed ownership of the supplementary feeding programmes as the key stakeholders are consulted and their input considered as part of the solution to managing the distribution points. Unless if their interests and objectives diverge. The District Development Fund and the local community should be engaged to keep the roads accessible throughout the year. This can be done by the introduction of such projects as the food for work projects wherein the local community members receive food hand outs if they participate in road maintenance activities. For years the Rural District Councils have used this scheme for road maintenance, it can be reactivated to make the roads passable all year round.

5. NGOs need to circumvent their differences so that they network as a way of creating synergies that mitigate the burden associated with the supplementary feeding programmes in terms of costs in food acquisition and information gathering. The umbrella body of the NGOs, NANGO should create a neutral environment that facilitates information sharing, pooling of resources and operational cooperation in the supplementary feeding schemes if it is done in the same localities. Cooperating rather than rivalry strengthens the supplementary feeding programmes as it has the possibility of increasing the food quantities to the beneficiaries and can reduce the attendant import and transport costs resulting from the economies of scale that arise when organizations
pool their resources together. Even if there is competition for dwindling financial support NGOs should be able to create networks amongst and between themselves as organisations such as the World Food Programme (WFP) prefers to assist NGOs that cooperate in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes in rural areas.

6. International donors can thus be encouraged to strengthen their funding criteria in terms of NGOs that cooperate in projects that are similar such as the supplementary feeding programmes. This may strengthen synergy and cooperation among the NGOs.

7. The only feasible way that recipient over-dependency can be dealt with by the NGOs is through capacitating local communities with the skills to seek alternative means of acquiring. Since NGOs complement government in poverty alleviation they need to engage the latter to provide seed capital for projects such as goat keeping and poultry production.

8. The tension filled relationship between the state and the NGOs can be eased through constant constructive engagement with the government. NGOs should make it explicit and guarantee the state that their supplementary feeding programmes are purely for humanitarian purposes, non-political and have nothing to do with the politics of the countries they operate in. For example after the signing of the Global Political agreement in September 2008 NANGO successfully engaged the government resulting in NGOs such as CARE and PLAN International being mandated with the duty if administering aid money that flowed into the country. Thus this study submits that NGOs should always seek dialogue with the government as a way of building
goodwill between the two parties for the supplementary feeding programmes to be relevant as a tool for poverty alleviation.

9. The NGOs can overcome the problem of funding by working with the World Food Programme an organization that ensures food security globally. The WFP is prepared to work with NGOs that carry out supplementary feeding programmes as they are the vehicles through which food insecurity can be reduced in the rural areas. The government of the day should be encouraged to provide national infrastructure such as irrigation schemes so that the rural people can diversify their income generation capacity to cushion them from food insecurity.
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

An investigation into the challenges impeding Non Governmental Organizations in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes: A case of CARE International and PLAN International

INDIVIDUAL STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS FOR NGO PERSONNEL INVOLVED IN CARRYING OUT SUPPLEMENTARY FEEDING PROGRAMMES IN RURAL

Self introduction

My name is SIBUSISIWE MPOFU (student number 209080484) studying for a Masters degree in Development Studies in the Faculty of Business and Economic Sciences at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University. In partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Masters degree in Development Studies I am conducting a research study into the challenges impeding Non Governmental Organizations in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes in rural Zimbabwe. I would very much appreciate your participation in this study. I hope you will openly give your views since they are important. Shall we proceed with the discussion?

DETAILS OF THE INTERVIEWEE

1.

Position in the organization...........................................................................................................

Place...........................................................................................................................................
2. Could you briefly describe your organization’s involvement in supplementary feeding programmes in rural Zimbabwe?

3. Comment on the supplementary feeding programs with regards to
   (a) The food situation prevailing when your organization started the program

   (b) the main reason that compelled your organization to start the supplementary feeding program

   (c) Which other organizations were involved in the supplementary feeding programs prior to your involvement
4. What are the main difficulties in carrying out the programme in terms of financial levels, technical, human resources, fieldwork? Does your organization have the financial and technical capacity to carry out supplementary feeding programs?

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5. What is your relationship with the government in carrying out your supplementary feeding programme?

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6. What other problems are you facing as an organization in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes?

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7. How is your organization addressing the challenges faced in carrying out your supplementary feeding programmes in rural Zimbabwe?

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APPENDIX 2

An investigation into the challenges impeding Non Governmental Organizations in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes: A case of CARE International and PLAN International in ZIMBABWE

JOINT FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR NGO PERSONNEL INVOLVED IN SUPPLEMENTARY FEEDING PROGRAMMES IN RURAL ZIMBABWE

Self introduction

My name is SIBUSISIWE MPOFU (student number 209080484) studying for a Masters degree in Development Studies in the Faculty of Business and Economic Sciences at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University. In partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Masters degree in Development Studies I am conducting a research study into the challenges impeding Non Governmental Organizations in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes in rural Zimbabwe. I would very much appreciate your participation in this study. I hope you will openly give your views since they are important.

1. What is the nature of the relationship between your organizations and the beneficiaries of your supplementary feeding?

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2. Is there a relationship between your organization and other NGOs? If there is what is the nature of the relationship?

........................................................................................................................................

3. Are there local food distribution mechanisms in the rural areas where you carry out the supplementary feeding schemes? (a) If so which and run by whom? (b) What is your relationship with them?

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4. Where do you get your financial support as NGOs involved in supplementary feeding programmes in rural Zimbabwe?

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5. Are there any conditions imposed by your financiers which affect your operations as organizations in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes in Zimbabwe?

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6. Is there a networking system among NGOs involved in supplementary feeding programmes in rural Zimbabwe? ………………………………………………………………………………………………………

7. Do you experience problems as international NGOs with the Zimbabwe government?

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8. Is there political interference with your supplementary feeding programmes in rural Zimbabwe?

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9. What kind of support do you think would nurture and develop you as NGOs to be more effective in carrying supplementary feeding programmes in rural Zimbabwe?

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10. How can NGOs improve their working relationship with government when carrying out supplementary feeding programmes?

........................................................................................................................................
APPENDIX 3

ETHICS PROFORMA FOR TREATISE

Please type or complete in black ink

FACULTY: Business and Economic Sciences

SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT: Development Studies

I, (surname and initials of supervisor) Dr JM Cherry, the supervisor for Sibusisiwe Mpofu (student number) (209080484), a candidate for the degree of MA Development Studies with a treatise entitled (full title of treatise): An investigation into the challenges impeding Non Governmental Organizations in carrying out supplementary feeding programmes: A case of CARE International and PLAN International in Zimbabwe.

Considering the following ethics criteria (please tick the appropriate block):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is there any risk of harm, embarrassment of offence, however slight or temporary, to the participant, third parties or to the communities at large?</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are particular characteristics of the target groups required (e.g. age, cultural derivation, background, physical characteristics, disease status etc.)?</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Does the data that will be collected require consent of an institutional authority for this study? √

Will the participant’s privacy, anonymity and confidentiality be disclosed? √

Will feedback be given to participants? √

Please note that if any of the questions above have been answered in the affirmative the student will need to complete the full ethics clearance form and submit to the Faculty Ethics Coordinator.

hereby certify that the student has given his/her research ethical consideration and full ethics approval is not required.

SUPERVISOR / PROMOTER

HEAD OF DEPARTMENT

Please ensure that the research methodology section from the proposal is attached to this form.
Reference: SW/21/3

4 June 2008

TO: ALL PRIVATE VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS (PVOs)/NON GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS (NGOs)

It has come to my attention that a number of NGOs involved in humanitarian operations are breaching the terms and conditions of their registration as enshrined in the Private Voluntary Organisation Act [Chapter 17:05], as well the provisions of the Code of Procedures for the Registration and operations of Non Governmental Organisations in Zimbabwe (General Notice 99 of 2007).

As the Regulatory Authority, before proceeding with the provision of Section (10), Subsection (c), of the Private Voluntary Act [Chapter 17:05], I hereby instruct all PVOs/NGOs to suspend all field operation until further notice.

Hon. N T Goche (MP)
MINISTER OF PUBLIC SERVICE, LABOUR AND SOCIAL WELFARE