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Title:

AN EVALUATION OF POVERTY ALLEVIATION STRATEGIES IMPLIMENTED BY

NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS (NGOs) IN ZIMBABWE: A CASE OF

BINGA RURAL DISTRICT

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ABSTRACT

The problem this research seeks to address is about the ineffectiveness of NGOs' strategies implemented in the rural areas of Binga District in Zimbabwe. The research has been basically influenced by personal concerns which I believe have influenced the selection of the research problem. My main concern is the deepening of poverty in Binga District. Lack of infrastructure like roads, shortage of schools leading to high illiteracy levels, shortage of clinics and hospitals, lack of clean water, high unemployment levels are the indicators of poverty in Binga. Country wide, the district is regarded as one of the poorest districts. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of the poverty alleviation strategies implemented by NGOs in the rural areas of Zimbabwe specifically in Binga. Today there are more than fifteen NGOs that operate in Binga and they specialise in different areas ranging from food distribution, education, agriculture, conservation and advocacy. What matters most is that despite the number of NGOs operating in Binga, poverty is still intensifying and widening. Through the research, it was found that most NGOs' strategies in Binga focus on relief than developmental aid. Also when addressing poverty, NGOs use the trickle down approach than the bottom up approach. Moreover, the strategies implemented in Binga do not address the needs of the poor. The political instability in Zimbabwe is also believed to be a serious stumbling block to the operation of NGOs in Binga and the rest of the country. Finally, the research recommends NGOs to use the participatory approach as well as the sustainable livelihoods approach in dealing with poverty. Again, NGOs need to monitor and evaluate their projects because most of their projects are

not monitored and evaluated properly. Above all the NGOs' strategies for alleviating poverty need to be reviewed.

DECLARATION

I, Daina Nyathi, do hereby declare that the work contained in this dissertation is entirely a product of my own original work with the exception of such quotations or references which have been attributed to their sources. I further declare that this dissertation has not been previously submitted and will not be presented at any other university for a similar or any other degree award.

Signature: …………………….   **Date:** ...../......../..........

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DEDICATION

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ACRONYMS

ADRA	Adventist Drought and Relief Aid
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CADEC	Catholic Development Commission
CAMPFIRE	Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources
DFID	Development Fund for International Development
ESAP	Economic Structural Adjustment Programme
ETP	Employment and Training Programme
FTLRP	Fast Track Land Reform Programme
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross Net Product
GMB	Grain Market Board
GOZ	Government of Zimbabwe
GRO	Grass Roots Organisation
HIV	Human Immune Virus
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IGPs	Income Generating Programme
MDC	Movement for Democratic Change
MERP	Millennium Economic Recovery Programme
IMF	International Monetary Fund
KMTC	Kulima Mbobumi Training Centre
LEAD	Linkage for the Economic Advancement of the Disadvantaged
NANGO	National Association of Non-Governmental Organisations
NCA	National Constitutional Assembly
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

ORAP	Organisation of Rural Progress
OXFAM	Oxford Committee for Famine Relief
PAAP	Poverty Alleviation Action Plan
PVO	Private Voluntary Organisation
SAPs	Structural Adjustment Programmes
SDF	Social Development Fund
SLA	Sustainable Livelihood Approach
STERP	Short Term Economic Recovery Programme
SPSS	Statistical Packages for Social Science
UNESCO	United Nations Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
WAG	Women Action's Group
WILSA	Women and Law in Southern Africa
ZANU-PF	Zimbabwe African National Union -Patriotic Front
ZERO	Zimbabwe Environmental Research Organisations
ZIMPREST	Zimbabwe Programme for Economic and Social Transformation
ZWRCN	Zimbabwe Women's Resource and Network

CHAPTER 1:

OVERVIEW AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1. INTRODUCTION

Poverty alleviation, and its eventual elimination, is a central objective of development. In pursuit of solutions to developmental problems besetting the African continent, the donor community is increasingly regarding Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) as an important agency for empowering people thereby leading more effective and sustainable local development services than those promoted by the government (Bassey,2008). This stems from the fact that the state has failed to cater for the welfare of its people (Matenga, 2001). But there remains considerable doubt about how these objectives can be achieved in practice (Riddel. *et.al,* 1995). Development as one of the objectives of development agents has gained more attention from both developing and developed worlds. Billions of dollars are donated every year to fight against poverty so that development can be achieved, but little is achieved.

Therefore this chapter will cover the background of the study thereby giving an overview of African countries and lower to Zimbabwe to suit this study. The same chapter wills also give the problem statement of this study; later on give the objectives of the study followed by the significance and organisation of the study and a conclusion at last.

Many developing countries have embraced the intervention of NGOs as alternatives for poverty alleviation (Bassey, 2008). However, the strategies used are seemingly facing sustainability challenges hence the need to focus on what needs to be done to achieve sustainability. The Government of Zimbabwe, since 1980 adopted a number of policies to fight poverty. The emergence of NGOs in Zimbabwe in the field of development was to augment the role of the government's poverty alleviation strategies.

Therefore, this research seeks to evaluate the poverty alleviation strategies implemented by NGOs in the rural areas. In this study, Binga Rural District will be used as a case study. Binga Rural District is located in Matabeleland North in the Zambezi Valley basin in the extreme north-western part of Zimbabwe (Manyena, 2003). It is mainly dominated by the Tonga people who were displaced by the construction of Kariba Dam in the 1950s.The district is regarded as one of the disadvantaged places in Zimbabwe because of its high levels of illiteracy and poverty incidences (Manyena, 2003). Binga District is also well known for its inhospitable climatic conditions making it a drought prone area (Marten, 2010). Though the place is regarded as one of the poorest places within the country, it is endowed with natural resources which include the Zambezi River waters, timber, hot springs and a generous host of wild animals.

1.2. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Sub-Saharan Africa is the only region in the world where the proportion of people below the poverty line has been on the rise (SESRTCIC, 2007). Despite significant progress

since 2000, there is a general consensus that poverty remains a major policy challenge especially in the sub-Saharan Africa (Poverty Institute, 2010). Beside the grinding poverty on the continent, Africa is one of the richest continents in the area of natural and human resources as well as culture diversity. Although the continent is rich in resources, up to 70 percent of the population of sub-Saharan Africa lives on less than US$1 a day (Bassey, 2008). Furthermore, of an estimated one billion people in the world who are trapped in a cycle of grinding poverty and despair, a disproportionate number live in sub-Saharan Africa (Mbeki, 2009). The subject of poverty in Africa has found mention in nearly all summit meetings of the group of fifteen countries but nothing has materialised (Bassey, 2008).

Poverty in Africa was perpetuated by the exploitation of African people during colonialism by compelling them to produce cash crops (Duigman and Gann, 1975). In the whole process of colonialism, colonisers hoped to develop their territories and their mother countries and to provide revenue for running the colonies (Duigman and Gann, 1975). As a result of this asymmetrical relationship, African countries managed to harbor poverty and underdevelopment, which is one of the reasons they are lagging behind in terms of development today. Mbeki (2009:6) clearly explains about the effects of colonialism in Africa as;

> The colonial system was not designed to develop the productive capacities of the colonies. The driving motive of colonialism was to extract the continent's mineral and agricultural raw material to be shipped to the mother countries for processing

into manufactured goods. With this as their only aim, all the colonisers required from the colonies was a steady supply of unskilled labour'.

The slave trade as a result of industrial revolution in Britain had a great impact on the economies of African countries (Duigman and Gann, 1975). Therefore, one may argue that, to a larger extent poverty in Africa is linked to its history.

In the 1980s the Bretton Woods institutions; the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) formulated economic policies that were to assist developing countries to recover their economies from the devastation caused by wars by introducing structural adjustments. To support this assertion, Stromquist (2002) maintains that, the Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPS) were policies designed to address the economic problems of developing countries. Zimbabwe adopted the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) of the IMF from 1991 to1995 to augment its economy. Liberalisation of markets, devaluation of local currencies, deregulation and removal of subsidies from the public sector by government were part of the unpleasant conditions of SAPS (Stromquist, 2002). The government could no longer subsidise the public services like health, education and agriculture after implementing the structural adjustments (UNESCO, 2001). Reduced remuneration on the other hand was significant to increased poverty in Zimbabwe (Alwang.*et. al,* 2002). A number of people got retrenched and were left in a vicious cycle of poverty that was very difficult to escape, hence they needed aid. IMF loans proved to be inappropriate intervention for developing countries' economies because instead of addressing the

economic system of African countries as well as addressing the issue of underdevelopment, they perpetuated poverty (IFAD, 2001). The issue of poverty in Zimbabwe is being closely tied to the poor performance of the economy and economy restructuring that characterised the 1990s (Alwang.*et.al*, 2002).

The deepening of poverty in Zimbabwe after the adoption of ESAP in 1991 greatly invited NGOs to supplement the role of the state in poverty alleviation. SAPs did not only affect urban areas, but they did affect the rural areas to a greater extent. As explained by Rauch.*et.al*, (2001) that, the situation of the rural poor in Zimbabwe has hardly improved during the last decades, and their number has not decreased. Furthermore, the macro-economic reforms of the 1990s have resulted in contradicting trends in most rural regions; they offered new, but limited, market opportunities by deregulation and privatisation (Rauch.*et.al,* 2001). As a result, most NGOs as gap fillers assisted in the sectors that were no longer subsidised by the government, that is; health, education and agriculture. During the 1980s, NGOs' efforts were directed towards war devastated areas particularly the rural areas (Muir, 1992). Later on, other NGOs got involved in relief work by focusing more attention on the wider problems of rural areas (Miur, 1992). Areas neglected by the colonial government were also targeted by the NGOs as indicated by Muir (1992). Miur (1992) asserts that, as gap-fillers NGOs were involved in service delivery, assistance for cooperatives and promotion of income generating projects (IGPs). The post-independence era and period of ESAP in this context is seen as the driver to the formation and manifestation of many NGOs with

different aims and different approaches to poverty alleviation in the post-independence era in Zimbabwe.

Today poverty alleviation is one of the latest buzz words in the vocabulary of Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and the funding communities, almost every organisation has an aspiration about it and many NGO workers are committed to making a practical contribution to building a better world by targeting poverty alleviation in different poor places (Cannon, 1999). Despite the increasing number of the NGO sector, the impact of their activities on poverty alleviation is only limited to relief aid rather than sustainable development.

The war against poverty is endless and it seems to be yielding results that are below the standard in the poverty alleviation context. The Zimbabwean government adopted a variety of poverty alleviation strategies in an attempt to address poverty. Some of the strategies adopted by the government included the Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) of 1987; the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) of 1991 to 1995; the Social Development Fund (SDF) of 1992-1993, the Poverty Alleviation Action Plan (PAAP) of 1994 and the ongoing "fast track" land reform programme of 2000. These strategies are explained more below. The reasons associated with the failure of these poverty alleviation strategies range from

corruption, mismanagement of gains, lack of funding, over-politicisation and lack of planning (UNESCO, 2001).

1.3. RURAL POVERTY IN ZIMBABWE

Poverty in Zimbabwe increased unambiguously during the first half of the 1990s because of the failure of the economic policies of the World Bank and the IMF (World Bank, 2002). The research by the Poverty Assessment Study Survey (PASS) in Zimbabwe found that poverty in Zimbabwe was prevalent in the rural areas, communal areas and among female headed households. At district level, Binga had the highest percentage of households in absolute poverty with 92 percent (Human Development Report, 1998).

In Zimbabwe rural poverty rates differ from place to place and also depending on the climate patterns, ownership by the rural population and the remoteness of the place. Within the rural population, there is a particularly severe concentration of poverty in communal farming areas (Kinsey, 2010).These contain half of Zimbabwe's total population but three-quarters of the poor and over 80 per cent of the very poor (GOZ, 1998) cited in Kinsey (2010). Moreover, there is also a serious degree of poverty in the resettlement areas, the former commercial farming areas that were purchased for the relocation of peasant farmers from the communal areas Kinsey (2010). Zimbabwe is one of the poorest countries in the world and rank 151 of 177 countries in the human

development index according to the UNDP (2008) as cited by Basilwizi (2010). In 2006, the life expectancy stood at 35, 5 with half of the population surviving on less than $US 1 a day (UNDP, 2006) as cited by Basilwizi (2010).

Poverty rates in Zimbabwe also vary among provinces. Matabeleland North province has the highest poverty rate in Zimbabwe with 70 percent of its people is classified as extremely poor (Marten, 2010). It is also concentrated in the South Eastern provinces of Manicaland and Masvingo with among the driest and less productive areas in the country (IFAD, 2001). Ownership also has an influence on poverty rate as further explained by DFID (2009) as cited in Marten (2010) that, people with small plots to cultivate crops or without irrigation in dry areas, or without access to draught power are most vulnerable. Marten (2010), describes Binga District as a place that was and is one of the most unfriendly, arid, remote and underdeveloped rural districts in Zimbabwe. Again, though Binga is characterised by arid conditions some of its parts receives better rainfall and have got nutritious soils. Marten (2010), continues that, better soil types and higher rainfall in the Northern and Southern parts of the district enable farmers there to produce surplus maize, while an increasing number have, in the past 10 to 15 years been growing cotton. Remoteness and inaccessibility of some basic facilities is also a contributing factor to rural poverty in some countries. In support of this statement, the research by Velasquez (2007) on the rural areas of Bolivia found that most of the people who are chronically poor are agricultural peasants or subsistence farmers,

lacking access to basic infrastructures. Chronic and persistent poverty is concentrated among the people in the remote rural areas.

According to (IFAD, 2001), the largest segment of the world's poor today are the 800 million poor women, children and who live in the rural areas and these are the subsistence farmers and herders, the fishers and migrant labour, the artisans and indigenous people who daily struggles and seldom capture the world attention. Moreover, the perception is growing around the globe that poverty is becoming increasingly feminised, that is, an increasing proportion of the world's poor are female. A 1992 UN report, according to Moghadam (2005) found that, the number of rural women living in poverty in the developing countries has increased by almost 50 percent over the past 20 years to an awesome 565 million, 374 million of them in Asia, and 129 million in sub-Saharan Africa. While poverty among rural men has increased over the last 20 years by 30 percent, among women it has increased by 48 percent (Power, 1993: 5) as cited in Moghadam (2005).

According to the Rural Poverty Research Centre (2004), place matters in order to understand the issue of poverty. Rural places have different characteristics than urban areas; they have different access to resources, different economic structures, different institutions, different social norms, and different demographics, which in turn distinguish the causes and consequences of rural poverty from urban poverty. A research by IFAD

(2005) in the 18 countries in Africa about rural poverty shows that, not more than four or five countries were on track for achieving Millennium Development Goal 1 which is about eradicating extreme poverty, of which poverty is extreme in the rural areas.

Development in Africa remains a challenge as it is contended by Manji (2002), that development, it seems, has failed. In many post-colonial countries real GDP has fallen and welfare gains achieved since independence in areas like food consumption, health and education. Nearly one quarter of the world's population, about nearly 42 percent of the population of sub-Saharan Africa live on less than a $1 a day (Manji, 2002). Killick.*et.al,* (2001), expound about rural poverty that, the population share is large in many countries. But the contribution to poverty for rural areas exceeds this population share, rural people are disproportionately poor. They have lower incomes and lack access to facilities. The IFAD (2005:16) gives a linkage between rural poverty and growing urban poverty. This is because of rural areas population migrating to urban areas for better opportunities. This is explained below;

> So while urban poverty is growing fast and matters enormously, fighting poverty today means first transformation of rural lives and livelihoods. Fighting rural poverty has a direct positive impact on urban poverty thereby reducing forced out migration, which are often direct consequences of lack of rural opportunities.

Additionally, the World Bank (1994) as cited in the World Bank (2002) also gives a comparison between rural poverty and urban poverty by maintaining that, although

urban poverty is growing rapidly, the poor in Africa are still overwhelmingly found in the rural areas.

The United Nations Development Programme (2000) as cited in (IFAD, 2005) identifies three indicators of human development indices, which measures development and these are: GDP, GNP, life expectancy and literacy level. In Zimbabwe, poverty significantly increased during the 1990s. This increase occurred in all sectors of the economy but rural poverty was more serious to urban poverty (Alwang.et.al, 2002). According to the United Nations Food Agency (2011) over one million Zimbabweans face starvation today. Moyo.*et.al,* (2000) explains how NGOs are viewed in Zimbabwe; NGOs are viewed by the Zimbabwean society, government and donors as crucial elements of and mechanisms for promoting development. In support of this Shivji (2007:1), write about how NGOs and their aid are viewed;

> Aid, in which NGOs plays a significant role, is frequently portrayed as a form of altruism, a charitable act that enables wealth to flow from rich to poor, poverty to be reduced and the poor empowered.

With the deepening of poverty in Zimbabwe the government and the civil society sector has therefore responded with some strategies to deal with it. The following are some of the strategies that were implemented by the Zimbabwean government to address poverty as well as some NGOs strategies they use to alleviate poverty in the rural areas

1.3.1. GOVERNMENT OF ZIMBABWE'S POVERTY ALLEVIATION STRATEGIES

The story of rural poverty is not a new one. To deal with the rural poverty the governments in many developing countries including Zimbabwe have implemented some strategies to deal with poverty. Explained below are some of the poverty alleviation strategies that were implemented by the Government of Zimbabwe to alleviate poverty.

1.3.2. Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) of 1991 to 1995

ESAP was a market based strategy and it further marginalised the poor and disadvantaged sections of the population due to the adverse effects of spiraling living costs, falling social services, expenditures, unemployment and reduced income levels (Government of Zimbabwe,1994). Its main fallacy was in its failure to address the planning process (Ballies, 1993).

1.3.3. Social Development Fund (SDF)

The social development fund was implemented in 1991 to1993 to respond to the social ills that were a result of ESAP. The SDF was established in 1991 with the aim of cushioning the vulnerable and poor communities against negative effects of the reform programmes through specifically targeted interventions (Human Development Report, 1998). It encompassed two programmes namely; Employment and Training Programme

(ETP) for those retrenched and the Social Welfare Programme that targeted the food subsidies to the urban poor (Chinake, 1997). In the rural areas of Zimbabwe free education at primary level was part of the social welfare programme. The SDF failed in all its programmes because the system of means of testing for eligibility was designed primarily to keep as many applicants as possible from applying for assistance (Chinake, 1997). Its focus was also too narrow to deal with poverty and coupled with bureaucratic delays and limited resources. All this led to the development of the PAAP which had a broader approach to poverty alleviation (Chinake, 1997).

1.3.4. Poverty Alleviation Action Plan (PAAP) of 1994

The PAAP was a more commendable strategy by the government to deal with poverty from a broader conceptual level through targeted social reforms and reorganisation of priorities (Chinake, 1997). The PAAP summarises the Zimbabwe's strategy to reduce poverty through targeted social reforms and reorganisation (World Bank, 1997). Its core components included its introduction to the civil society through a social and political mobilisation process (Government of Zimbabwe, 1994). Community based PAAP programmes was another component of the PAAP. For example, the development of targeted social programmes, informal sector and enhancement of social policy development and monitoring were key issues to be addressed by PAAP. The PAAP also incorporated activities such as labour based public works programmes, and facilitation of youth and women' self-help projects. These efforts were directed towards

employment creation (Chinake, 1997). Failure of the PAAP was mainly attributed to lack funding as well as over-politicisation.

1.3.5. The Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP) of 2000

The land reform initiative included the revision of the 1983 Land Acquisition Act of 1992 (Chinake, 1997). The commissioning of the land tenure commission, which published the FTLRP was launched in 2000 by the government of Zimbabwe as part of its ongoing land and resettlement program Government of Zimbabwe (2000) as cited in (Chinake, 1997). It sought to address the racially skewed land distribution pattern inherited at independence in 1980. The main objective of the FTLRP was to address imbalances in land access while alleviating population pressure in the communal areas, extend and improve the base for productive agriculture in the smallholder farming sector, and to bring idle or underutilised land into full production (Chinake 1997). This means that when the Zimbabwean citizens obtain land, they will be in a better position to produce their own food and generate income, hence alleviate poverty.

In Zimbabwe, the land reform and resettlement took two broad phases. The first phase was done from 1980 to 1998 and was based on the willing-seller willing buyer approach. The second phase was initiated in 1999 and was officially launched in July 2000 and was called the fast track land reform program. This phase was characterised by a process of radical land reform premised and extensive compulsory land acquisition and

redistribution (Chinake, 1997). The main objectives of this phase were to speed up the identification of not less than five million hectares of land for compulsory acquisition for resettlement, to accelerate the planning and demarcation of acquired land and settler replacement on this land, and to provide limited basic infrastructure and farmer support service (Government of Zimbabwe, 2000 as cited in Chinake (1997) and Moyo, 2006). The process targeted white farmers, private companies and absentee landlords.

Two models that were used in the FTLRP were the Model A1 and the Model A2. The model A1 intended to decongest communal areas and it targeted at land constrained farmers in communal areas. On the other hand Model A2 targeted any Zimbabwean citizen who could prove farming experience and or resource availability and was based on the full cost from beneficiary Government of Zimbabwe (2000) cited in (Chinake, 1997). The FTLRP is still ongoing.

1.3.6. Other Strategies Implemented by the Government

In 1996 to 2003 The Zimbabwean government replaced ESAP with a home grown reform package, by implementing the Zimbabwe Programme for Economic and Social Transformation (ZIMPREST) in April 1998. Lack of resources undermined its effective implementation. The Millennium Economic Recovery Programme (MERP) was launched in August 2001 as a short term 18 months economic vibrancy and it aimed at restoring economic vibrancy and to address the underlying macroeconomic

fundamentals. MERP failed due to the withdrawal of the international donor community (Government of Zimbabwe, 2004). Another strategy attempted by the Zimbabwean Government to reduce poverty was the Rural Electrification in 2002 to 2003.The programme was over politicised and lack of funding led to its failure. The National Economic Revival Programme (NERP) was launched in February 2003. The NERP received more optimism by donors, private sector and other stakeholders. The NERP failed to generate foreign currency that was needed to support economic recovery.

In 2009 after the formation of the Unity Government in February, the new government implemented the Short Term Economic Recovery Programme (STERP).The strategy is facing threats due to lack of cooperation among parties that formed the Unity Government. However the STERP has not yet achieved much since it is still young (Government of Zimbabwe, 2009).

1.4. PROBLEM STATEMENT

The problem that the study seeks to address is about the ineffectiveness of poverty alleviation strategies used by NGOs which are missing the needs of the poor in Binga. Poverty alleviation as one of NGOs' main goal remains unattained by many NGOs. The intensification of poverty in the rural areas currently served by NGOs makes their poverty alleviation strategies to be questionable. Dependency syndrome by the poor and superficial change in the rural areas shows that NGOs' strategies are inadequate in the alleviation of poverty in Binga hence there is a need to evaluate them.

Moreover, concentration on relief aid by NGOs makes their poverty alleviation strategies lack sustainability. NGOs themselves claim that working directly with the poor is the most effective way to alleviate poverty and that their projects contribute to development by adhering to the principles of sustainability and participation (Bassey, 2008). Currently, in most developing countries, NGOs work closely with the poor to deal with poverty but the results have not been good enough. What worries most is that, the same NGOs have been operating in the same rural areas for quite a number of years but have not brought many considerable changes as far as poverty alleviation is concerned. Poverty seems to be getting deeper and wider in the same areas that are serviced by NGOs.

Today, Binga and Nyaminyami Districts in Zimbabwe have more than fifteen NGOs that service them but they are hit hard by poverty. For instance, Binga District is ranked number three in terms of poverty country wide with Nyaminyami District being the first (Save the Children Report UK, 2003). What is of great concern is that, there are few or no families who are better- off in some serviced villages. It seems those who are better-off are joining the poorest of the rural poor. Therefore, is it the NGOs that are failing to deliver the services to the poor? Is it the recipients of aid who are resistant to positive change? Is it the environment they operate in that makes them (NGOs) not to be effective? Or, the problem lays with their poverty alleviation strategies.

This study then seeks to answer such questions by evaluating their poverty alleviation strategies. In this research the hypothesis is that, the ineffectiveness of NGOs' poverty alleviation strategies implemented in the rural areas is the main reason for the deepening poverty in Binga.

1.5. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The major objective of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of NGOs' strategies in poverty alleviation in the rural areas of Binga. To achieve this evaluation, Binga rural areas in Zimbabwe were explored through a research to get more information about the operation of NGOs in Binga. Besides, the study seeks to evaluate the extent to which the objectives of NGOs are achieved in rural areas. In addition, the study tries to come up with some recommendations that can be used to formulate new polices that can suit rural areas. Again the research seeks out to identify priority issues for future research. Through the research the researcher tries to find out how poverty is being conceptualised by both NGOs and the people of Binga. Another objective of the research is to find out how the strategies implemented in Binga are selected.

1.6. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The recognition of this study by the officials in the district will bring poverty alleviation strategies that are suitable, not only in Binga District, but in other rural areas of Zimbabwe where NGOs are operating. The study hopes to serve as a tool kit for NGOs and other stakeholders in Binga to re-orient their poverty alleviation strategies to

sustainable development rather than relief. Moreover, the research findings will benefit the people of Binga through strategy re-orientation by NGOs. It is hoped that the changes in strategies towards sustainability will provide a lasting solution to the problem of poverty in Binga. Besides that, the redirecting of NGOs towards improving and identifying the possibilities for sustainable livelihoods in Binga is going to assist NGOs to achieve sustainable development. On the part of the government, the outcome of this evaluation will, to some extent, inform policy makers on suitable sustainable poverty alleviation strategies that can be replicated to address the problem of poverty in the rural areas of Zimbabwe.

1.7. ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

This study is divided into six chapters. Chapter 1 gave the background of the study where some strategies used by the government to alleviate poverty in Binga District were mentioned and how these strategies left challenges for the rural poor. Chapter 2 deals with the literature review where important concepts are clarified. The theoretical framework under which the study's argument rests is considered in the same chapter. The same chapter will give a more detailed overview of NGOs work, their strategies and their selection, poverty in Africa and other parts of the world as well as their criticism. The next chapter, Chapter 3, looks at the background and origin of NGOs, their categories, politics in Zimbabwe and NGOs and their relationship with the state. The methodology used to gather data for this study is explained in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 deals with data presentation and analysis of the findings. Finally, Chapter 6 gives the

conclusions and recommendations regarding the problem under investigation. The same chapter outlines some areas that need further study.

1.8. CONCLUSION

The history of African states has shaped their presents. Poverty within the entire continent is strongly tied to its history that was characterised by unequal relationships between Africa and other continents. Efforts by the post colonial governments in Africa mainly directed towards addressing colonialism legacy injustices got eroded by the SAPs of IMF and the World Bank. NGOs in the post SAPs era manifested to supplement the role of African state in order to address poverty within the rural areas and other marginalised areas, but the battle is not yielding much. With the swelling up of poverty in the rural areas of Africa, their future becomes blurred and this makes NGOs' poverty alleviation strategies to be questionable. The following chapters try to give an in-depth meaning of the key words of the research, explain the theoretical framework of the study as well as giving a broader view about the NGOs strategies, their criticism and rural poverty.

CHAPTER 2:

NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS; A CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

2. INTRODUCTION

Questions about the poverty alleviation strategies implemented by NGOs have risen as far as development is concerned. The increase in the vulnerability of rural people resulting from the deepening of poverty has put the strategies of NGOs under serious scrutiny. Moreover, the challenges brought by poverty in the rural areas have forced the rural population to develop some coping mechanisms in order to survive. Though poverty is deep in the rural areas, rural people have diversified livelihoods which some are untapped due to lack of knowledge on how to use them. Rural people in Binga for an illustration, depend on wild fruits, fishing from the Zambezi River, hunting, subsistence farming, basket weaving, and pottery depending on the available resources in the ward. This part of the research is mainly concerned about giving definition of the key terms, giving a broad overview of the sustainable livelihood approach (which is the theoretical framework of this study) and giving a further detailed discussion about the work of NGOs in dealing with rural poverty. At the end the same sections gives a criticism of NGOs' work in poverty alleviation.

2.1 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This section of the chapter defines the key concepts used in the study.   These include: Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), poverty, poverty alleviation, strategy, evaluation, effectiveness and sustainable development.

2.1.1. Non-Governmental Organisations

The World Bank (1995) defines Non-Governmental Organisations as private organisations that pursue activities to relieve suffering, promote the interests of the poor, protect the environment, provide basic social services, or undertake community development. In another dimension, Liebenberg (2000) refers NGOs to autonomous, privately set up, non-profit-making institutions that support, manage or facilitate development action by providing socio-economic activities to the needy. NGOs can be either local on international. Local NGOs are the one that operate in one country while international NGOs operate in two or more countries. For the purpose of this study, NGOs will be taken to refer to registered, private, independent, non-profit organisations that facilitate development to needy communities. The research is also looking at both international and local NGOs that operate in Binga. This definition excludes unregistered or informal associations and groups which are usually referred to as grassroots organisations.

2.1.2. Effectiveness

This study is concerned with evaluating the effectiveness of strategies implemented by NGOs to alleviate poverty in Binga. The concept effectiveness according to (Elton, 2009) means producing a decided or desired effect after implementing something. Effectiveness again by (Elton, 2009**)** is measured against set goals of NGOs that include empowerment of the poor, advocating for the poor, response to disaster and bringing societal change. Svobodo (2003:2) in another dimension defines effectiveness as;

> The extent to which the development intervention's objectives were achieved, or are expected to be achieved, taking into account their relative importance. Also used as an aggregate measure of (or judgment about) the merit or worth of an activity, that is the extent to which an intervention has attained, or is expected to attain, its major relevant objectives efficiently in a sustainable fashion and with a positive institutional development impact.

Effectiveness therefore, according to Svobodo (2003) measures the extent to which goals are or were achieved. Common measurements of effectiveness according to Svobodo (2003) are: (a) the extent to which the major goals stated in the mission are achieved, (b) the extent to which key stakeholders (donors and other groups with major stake) are satisfied with results, (c) the extent to which the organisation is able to attract resources to continue its activities. An effective NGO brings meaningful changes in people's lives (Elton, 2009).

2.1.3. Evaluation

Evaluation is judging, appraising, or determining the worth, value or quality of proposed, on-going, or completed research, generally in terms of its relevance, effectiveness, efficiency and impact (Horton.*et.al*, 1993) as cited in Riddell.*et.al*,(1995). In other words, evaluation is the term most commonly used to describe the process of assessing performance against objectives (Riddel.*et.al,* 1995). At best, evaluation techniques should be able to assess performance results against objectives and benefits against costs, and in so doing identifying strengths and weaknesses in a way which can have a positive impact on the effectiveness of projects and programmes (Riddel.*et.al,* 1995). Evaluation can also be used to highlight weaknesses in current monitoring practices as well as to provide a wider perspective on different clusters of projects or programmes in the case of NGOs in relation to their particular countries or different types of intervention (Kumar, 1993) as cited in Svobodo (2003). Evaluation in addition measures the level or degree of intended or unintended changes an intervention causes in the target population (Elton, 2009**)**.

2.1.4. Strategy

A strategy according to (Elton, 2009) is a plan of action designed to achieve a particular goal. In other words, a strategy is a pattern of purposes, policies, programmes, actions, decisions and or resource allocations that define what an organisation is, what it does and how it does it. Therefore, different strategies are implemented by NGOs to address poverty in the rural areas in Binga. These strategies include, food security programmes, cash transfers, livestock production, boreholes drilling, construction of pit latrines,

paying school fees for disadvantaged children, giving farm implements and information distribution. Above all, NGOs in Binga claim that they use the participatory approach to development. This means that before implementing any programme in the communities, NGOs first do need assessment by consulting community members. Though NGOs have quite a number of programmes implemented in Binga, what is of great concern is the deepening of poverty in the district.

2.1.5. Poverty

Poverty is a complex, multifaceted and multidimensional concept. Poverty as explained by Rajasekhar (2004) is not a static phenomenon, and it changes over time, it changes across the regions, changes within individual economic groups and at various economic levels within a country, including at household level where there would be considerable difference in the perceptions of women and men. Therefore, the definition of poverty is highly contested in academic discourse and this leaves it without a generic one. According to Saifuddin (2006:1);

> Poverty is said to be hunger. Poverty is lack of shelter. Poverty is being sick and not being able to see a doctor. Poverty is not having access to school and do not know how to read. Poverty is not having a job, is fear of the future, live one day and at a time. Poverty is losing a child to illness brought by unclean water. Poverty is powerlessness, lack of representation and freedom. Poverty has many faces, changing from place to place and across time, and has been described in many ways.

The above definition therefore dwells much more on the inaccessibility of basic services like health, education, clean water and unemployment. The same

definition also views rural poverty as lack of representation in the formulation of policies. In other words being poor often means being voiceless, powerless and generally having less livelihoods of breaking through the culture of poverty unless one is empowered to do so through effective intervention strategies (Cannon, 1999). Poverty is a great enemy of human happiness, it destroy liberty, and makes someone virtues impracticable and others extremely difficult (Suharko, 2007).

In addition, poor people lack ownership, access and are not secured, they lack empowerment, have short life expectancy, lack resources and are excluded from trade and are poorly governed as described by (Kates and Dasgupta, 2007:25);

> In the world of the poor, people don't enjoy food security, don't own many assets, are stunted , don't live long , can't read or write, don't have access to easy credit, are unable to save much, aren't empowered, can't ensure themselves well against crop failure or household calamities, don't have control over their own lives, don't trade with the rest of the world, live in unhealthy surroundings, suffer from ''incapabilities'', are poorly governed......and suffer from a deteriorating natural resource base and have a high birth rate.

Kates and Dasgupta's definition focus more on food security and agriculture, ownership of asserts, low literacy levels, poor access to easy credit and trade , depletion of natural resources, low life expectancy, high mortality and birth rate and poor livelihoods.

Greenberg (2005:14) gives a definition that defines poverty as a lack of material as well as lack of representativeness in politics. This definition again is unique in the sense that it further mentions the relationship between poverty and lack of access to technology and information. Greenberg (2005) therefore explain about the causes of poverty that;

> Poverty has multiple and complex causes. The poor are not just deprived of basic resources. They lack access to information that is vital to their lives and livelihoods: information about market prices for the goods they produce, about health, about the structure and services of public institutions, and about their rights. They lack political visibility and voice in the institutions and power relations that shape their lives. They lack access to knowledge, education and skills development that could improve their livelihoods. They often lack access to markets and institutions, both governmental and societal that could provide them with needed resources and services. They lack access to, and information about, income earning opportunities.

Dercon (2003) in another dimension explain that, some people around the world always remain poor because of the serious market failures, combined with asset inequalities are important causes of this poverty persistence. All these social, economic, political ills and lack of access to information and technology when they prevail for a long time they lead to chronic poverty. Chronic poverty is said to be occurring when an individual experiences significant capability deprivations for a period of five years or more; its distinguishing feature is its extended duration Hulme and Shepherd (2003) as cited in (Velasquez 2007:41). Expressed differently, chronic poverty is ever-present or persistent. Apart from that, many chronically poor people depend on work which is insecure, low paid, unhealthy and unsafe and they may have little scope to improve

their situation (Addison.*et.al,* 2009). For example, the Tonga people (also called *BaTonga*) claim that since their displacement from prolific land by the Kariba Dam construction project in the 1950s they have suffered from food shortages, poverty and marginalisation (Manyena, 2003). Basilwizi (2010) argues that, the project has left a legacy of increased vulnerability, impoverishment amongst the displaced communities due to entitlements losses. Today 90 percent of the population in the Zambezi Valley are chronically poor and require humanitarian aid every year (Basilwizi, 2010).

Before the construction of the Kariba Dam, the Tonga speaking people were staying along the Zambezi Valley and were able to cultivate variable crops on the alluvial soils of the Zambezi River. They could also do fishing from the river and do barter trade. They lived a vivacious life along the Zambezi Valley. They left the valley because of the floods caused by the dam. Binga today is too remote, inaccessible and poorly serviced. In support of this Velasquez (2007:41) explains about the displacement of the poor;

> In developing countries some of the poorest people are being driven from densely populated areas, better serviced with communications are being forced, in order to survive, to colonise less accessible areas, especially the savannahs and forest. Hard to reach from urban centres, they remain largely unseen.

At the core of this research is absolute and chronic poverty that manifests itself in the district of Binga in Zimbabwe. Binga has long been considered as a chronic poverty area with the majority of the population requiring humanitarian aid every year (Manyena.*et.al*, 2008). In this research poverty means being voiceless, lack of freedom,

being uneducated, lack of food, lack of clean water, inability to access health services, unable to access information and technology. The majority of the people in Binga live in absolute poverty; they are small farm holders, lack access to basic services like health facilities and schools with most of the villages situated in inaccessible areas.

Besides being chronic, poverty can either be relative or absolute. Relative poverty refers to lacking a usual or socially acceptable level of resources or income as compared with others within the society or country. Absolute poverty is when people lack the basic necessities such as food, clothing, or shelter to survive. Therefore, absolute poverty refers to lack of basic needs (Narasaiah, 2005) by being unable to afford basic human needs which commonly include fresh water, nutrition, health care, education, and clothing, shelter one is said to be living in absolute poverty. Absolute poverty also measures the number of people living below a certain income thresh-hold or the number of households unable to afford certain basic goods and services.

Due to absolute poverty, some households in Binga can hardly access health services, cannot send their children to school, do no not have draught power and they starve or depend on begging throughout the year. Most of the people who are working get income below the poverty threshold. Income threshold also referred to as poverty datum line is defined as a minimum level of income necessary to achieve an adequate

standard of living in a given country. Zimbabwe's poverty threshold in January 2011 was US467 (Bulawayo 24 News, 31 January 2011).

Riddel.e*t. al,* (1995), classified the poor in three sub groups; the chronically poor, the borderline poor, and the new poor. The **chronically poor** are those whose income levels continually remain below a given poverty line, defined by minimum consumption standards, they suffer from acute deprivation. The **borderline poor** move in and out of poverty, often on a seasonal basis, according to the availability and work. The **new poor** are a third group who were previously above the poverty line but have since joined the ranks of the poor as a result economic recession or structural adjustment programmes.

2.1.5.1. Rural Poverty

Before writing about the evidence on what literature says regarding the NGOs' strategies for poverty alleviation, it is very imperative for one to define rural poverty, to know its features and to find out who are the rural poor in generally. Rural poverty therefore, in simpler terms, is defined as poverty in the rural areas. A rural area in this research is viewed as a place which is lagging behind in terms of infrastructural development or which is not urban. An urban area according to Anriquez and Stamoulis (2007) is defined by law as all of the state, region, and district capitals (centres), and by exclusion all the rest is defined as rural. Anriquez and Stamoulis (2007) contend that, it

is not an exaggeration to say that the battle to achieve the global society's stated objectives on hunger and poverty reduction will be lost in the rural areas of the developing countries. Besides that, globally, extreme poverty continues to be a rural phenomenon despite increasing urbanisation (Anriquez and Stamoulis, 2007). In addition, of the world's 1.2 billion extremely poor people, 75 percent live in rural areas and for the most part they depend on agriculture, forestry, fisheries and related activities for survival (Anriquez and Stamoulis, 2007). Even though rural poverty differs from place to place, among different groups of people, there are few common features of poverty which make the rural poor to be the same. These features are explained below.

2.1.5.2. COMMON FEATURES OF RURAL POVERTY

Limited Opportunities

Most rural people have limited opportunities. For an illustration, they have limited access to small credits, limited access to education and health facilities. Another example is that, because of their poverty condition, it is hard for poor people to get small loans from the banks because they might not be having collateral security. Moreover, limited opportunities may include limited opportunities to get employment, opportunity to go to school. Opportunities to secure a decent livelihood through employment or self-employment and market production are either nonexistent, or they are insufficient and unstable (Rauch.*et.al,* 2001). Today poor people remain in vicious circle of poverty because they are unemployable and they do not possess skills that are needed in the

job market, furthermore, they are illiterate because they did not get the opportunity to go to school (Rauch.*et.al,* 2001).

Inappropriate Assets and Capabilities

Despite a diversified range of knowledge and coping strategies among rural population, the capacities to take advantages of limited new opportunities remain under-utilised (IFAD, 2005). For instance, in Binga, the whole district have got hot springs and perennial rivers and people may practice irrigation, but because they do not have more knowledge about running irrigation schemes, the water from the hot springs and rivers is not used for productive purposes. Many people tend to become losers in the new rural dynamics. Sometimes rural people have got many livelihoods and others remain unexploited in order to earn a living, this might be so because of lack of knowledge (Rauch.*et.al,* 2001).

Institutional Deficiencies

For most people in the rural areas, access to services, information and markets has become a fundamental requirement for securing a decent livelihood. It applies to access like health services, information about markets, and information about agriculture. Due to deficiencies in private and public service systems, such services are not accessible to the majority of the rural people. This affects their capabilities to make effective use of their resources, to manage their natural resources in a sustainable manner and to cope

successfully with various changes (Rauch.*et.al,* 2001). For example, many rural areas in Zimbabwe are not covered by the media and this is another way of having the poor being detached from the whole world. As explained differently by the IFAD (2005), chronic poverty is also more prevalent in rural than in urban areas, and especially so in remote areas not connected to markets, ports or urban centres.

Unbalanced Power Structures

The majority of the rural poor have neither the purchasing power nor the political power to articulate their needs, to gain access to the private and public service system or to succeed in struggle for limited resources and opportunities. In many cases according to the IFAD (2005), the people who are poor are so because policies, laws and regulations (or absence of them) define their opportunities. What is needed is policy change. They often find it very difficult to bear the organisation costs associated with empowerment (Rauch.*et.al,* 2001). Because of unbalanced power structures sometimes rural poor lack representatives, hence they miss a lot of opportunities. Apart from that for an illustration, some formulated policies may not be considerate to the situation of the rural poor; hence they need to be changed.

2.1.5.3. CAUSES AND EFFECTS OF POVERTY

Now that the researcher has given some features of poverty one need to have knowledge concerning the causes of poverty in the rural areas. In Zimbabwe poverty is

said to be caused by a weak economic growth, high and rising levels of unemployment and a high skewed pattern of income and wealth distribution largely resulting from the limited access until the 1980s (Human Development, 1998). Below are some of the causes of poverty.

Drought and Desertification

Poverty in the sub-Saharan Africa is attributed to drought and the encroachment of desert conditions into arable lands. This is mostly caused by climatic change, deforestation and poor agricultural methods. As a result of serious drought conditions, the sub-Saharan Africa is expanding each year and its forcing large rural sections to abandon their homes in search of other suitable areas (Salvatore, 1989). In rural areas of Zimbabwe, the two droughts that the country suffered between 1990 and 1995 had major long-term impacts on poverty, and ownership of some physical assets lost has not yet been recovered to pre-1991 levels (World Bank, 2002). Some rural people depend on agriculture for a living, but as a result of drought they now fail to produce enough food for themselves. Some people even lose their draught power because of drought. For instance, the 1992 drought in Zimbabwe moved many rural people into a poverty trap and many were left without livestock. The 1992 drought as explained by Bird and Shepherd (2003) was the worst drought experienced in Zimbabwe during the twentieth century, and struck just as structural adjustment was beginning to bite. Most areas produced no crops and livestock populations were wiped out. Besides that, there is evidence that the frequency of droughts worsened in the post-independence period

and the substantial economic consequences of the erratic and declining rainfall reflect the still dominant role of agriculture, particularly the vulnerability of the so-called communal farming areas, where most of the rural population lives (Kinsey, 2010).

Misguided Development Policies and Practice

Public policies at national level and resource mobilisation at both national and international levels have not always recognised the multiple potential of the rural economy (Anriquez and Stamoulis, 2007). For example, agricultural policies that stress mechanisation instead of labour intensive orientations have accelerated deforestation, which in turn, has given rise to competition among pastoralists for making shrinking usable land and has led to high rates of ethno-regional feuds and violent crimes (Salvatore, 1989). More other policies perpetuating poverty include the encouragement of private land ownership at the expense of the African potential for community-related activities like cooperatives based on extended families. Even in countries that have substantial land allocations programmes for population like Sudan, agricultural policies did not pay adequate attention to the needs of rural poor (Salvatore, 1989). In general, the emphasis of the African governments has been an increasing rate of aggregated and national development, and this exacerbated the ongoing pattern of uneven regional development (Salvatore, 1989). In Zimbabwe for example, the economical structural adjustments have left the majority of the rural people in poverty because of their conditions which were not friendly on the economy of the country. High inflation also discouraged productive investments by increasing uncertainties, as well as by reducing

levels of living of those groups unable to protect themselves from the effects of rising prices (Kinsey, 2010). Although there were large fluctuations around the trend in Zimbabwe, average incomes fell in the period 1990 to 1996 at more than a one per cent a year and, despite several years of good rainfall following 1995, there was no reversal of this trend (Kinsey, 2010).

Rural Urban Migration

The flow of migrants into cities has been at least as high as the natural increase in the urban population. Migration from rural areas to the cities is creating insurmountable problems in both the origin and destination areas (Salvatore, 1989). They migrate in search of jobs mostly and for other reasons. But large and growing unemployment in the cities also means a squalid existence in urban areas (Salvatore, 1989). Rural urban migration has undoubtedly affected the rural areas as well as urban areas localities. The majority of seasonal workers would normally return to their homelands, but some migrants remain in urban areas or drift to the large cities to swell the numbers of unemployed as surplus unskilled labourers at times of critical need for their labour in the villages (Salvatore, 1989).

International Migration

At a general level of analysis, such migration could play an intermediary role to bridge the growing gap between regions with uneven development. While some benefits result

from, migration, not all migrants gain (Mahmoud, 1983) cited in Salvatore (1989). It has been observed that poor migrants, who are characterised by poor skills and low educational attainment, earn low wages and are deprived of social security benefits. Rural poverty in Zimbabwe is also linked to international migration. During the economic meltdown in Zimbabwe from 2000 to 2009 a lot of young and economically active people fled the country to other neighbouring countries like Botswana, South Africa in search of employment (Makumbe, 2009). As a result only the inactive population like old and young people was left behind.

Low Economic Growth

Economic development in Zimbabwe has taken three stages according to the (UNDP Zimbabwe, 2009). The first era was the growth with equity era from 1980 to 1990 characterised by government's effort to address the injustices inherited from the colonial government. The second era was the economic reform era of 1991 to 1999 and this was characterised by the implementation of the Economic Structural Adjustment Programmes thereby worsening the vulnerability of people. The last phase was the new millennium period 2000 to 2007 (UNDP Zimbabwe, 2009). This period has seen Zimbabwe plunged into a complex socio-economic crisis which now underpins the household and individual poverty and vulnerability (UNDP Zimbabwe, 2009). Some of the factors that are responsible for this worsening state of affairs include, severe macroecomic instability resulting in continuous economic decline characterised by hyperinflation, chronic shortages of basic commodities (UNDP Zimbabwe, 2009). During

this era growth rates in the real sectors of agriculture, mining, manufacturing and tourism have declined to -5, 1, 4 and -20 percent respectively in 2006 (UNDP Zimbabwe, 2009). Throughout this period 2000 to 2007, the country's relationship with some key development partners and multilateral development banks has remained strained (UNDP Zimbabwe, 2009). Taking together the growth of total food-grain production and that of population, Zimbabwe has slowly but steadily changed from a net exporter to a net importer of food grain (Clemens and Moss, 2005). The results also call into questioning the efficacy of the Economic Structural Adjustment Programmes as it was implemented during the early 1990s. As of 1995, the Zimbabwean economy was not creating the types and quantities of jobs needed to reward continued investments in human capital (World Bank, 2002).

2.1.6. Poverty Alleviation

Poverty alleviation according to Greenberg (2005) is any process which seeks to ease the level of poverty in a community, or amongst a group of people or countries. Riddel and Robinson (1992:12), defines poverty alleviation as;

> An intervention aimed at a sustained improvement in the economic status of the poor, by raising incomes and creating new opportunities for employment, which in turn bring about increased consumption, savings and investment.

According to this definition, any strategy aimed at alleviating poverty must be sustainable and creating more employment opportunities for the poor, which will improve their economic status.

Poverty alleviation is usually used interchangeably or confused with poverty reduction (Greenberg, 2005). The difference between poverty alleviation and poverty reduction is that, poverty alleviation concentrate on those assets and resources that have bearing on the livelihoods of the poor. Poverty reduction on the other hand focuses on knowledge and rights (Greenberg, 2005). For example, agriculture growth and better access to markets alleviate poverty while the involvement of the poor in development efforts becomes crucial for poverty reduction (Rajasekhar, 2004). Poverty reduction is also understood as a process of enabling people to gain access to basic goods and opportunities (Mullen, 1995). The difference between poverty alleviation and poverty reduction according to Greenberg (2005) is that, the former seek to provide immediate palliative in the short term and the later refers to systematic approaches which eventually lead to eradication poverty. Furthermore, poverty reduction conceptualises poverty as a multiple deprivation involving lack of income, assets, legal rights, resources or contacts to secure political advantage, access to education, health care, emergency services and housing. Poverty alleviation programs may be aimed at economic or non-economic programmes. In other words as explained by Rajasekhar (2004), poverty alleviation is a short term improvement of the poor's capital endowment. Poverty reduction on the other side is long term elimination of the poor's dependency on social relations, and of vulnerability with respect to changes in the environment (Pedersen and Webster, 1998) as cited in Rajasekhar (2004). For example, while agricultural growth and better access to the markets can alleviate poverty, the involvement of the poor in development efforts becomes crucial for poverty reduction (Rajasekhar, 2004). Economic programmes implemented by NGOs in Binga include livestock production

and cash transfers. Livestock production involves passing on project. For example a group of people is given goats, when these goats multiply; the young goats have to be passed on to other people until everyone in the community get goats. Cash transfer is a strategy that is used by CADEC. The beneficiaries under this programme are given money every month so that they can develop themselves. The non-economic programmes include food distribution (food security programmes), information giving, drilling boreholes and giving people farm implements like ploughs. All these strategies lack sustainability hence there are more of relief strategies. The removal of social and legal barriers to income growth among the poor may also be another objective of poverty alleviation efforts (IFAD, 2001).To achieve sustainable development, NGOs need to alleviate poverty first then followed by eradicating it completely.

While NGOs are doing a creditable job in Binga, their programmes meant to alleviate poverty need to be reviewed. The NGOs' initiated poverty alleviation strategies are centralised and conventionally administered failing to address the problems and needs of the rural communities in Binga. The deepening of poverty in Binga and other rural areas of Zimbabwe shows that NGOs' strategies are inappropriate and inadequate, hence, needs to be revisited (Manyena.*et.al*, 2008).

2.1.7. Sustainable Development

The NGOs in the long-run desire to bring sustainable development in any area they operate in. According to Sen as cited in Wong (2006), development is defined as a process of expanding the range of sustainable freedom enjoyed by the people of any nation. A narrow view of development as put by Wong (2006) identifies it with growth of gross national product, or the rise in personal incomes, or with industrialisation, or with technological advance, or with social modernisation. In 1987, the Brutland Report on sustainable development released by the United Nations (1987:7), which included what, is now one of the most widely recognised definitions;

> Sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. It contains within its two key concept.

The concept of 'needs', in particular the essential needs of the world's poor, to which overriding priority should be given; and the idea of limitations imposed by the state of technology and social organisation on the environment's ability to meet present and future needs (Kates.*et.al*, 2005). Sustainability should takes in consideration the preservation of nature, environment, earth, ecology, livelihoods, culture, and communities (Kates.*et.al,* 2005). With development, there is need to develop the people by focusing on human development like developing the values and goals, increased life expectancy, improved education, equity and opportunity. The development of the economy must involve developing productive structures leading to the creation of employment, desired consumption and wealth. The development of communities by emphasising values of security and well-being of nation states, regions, institutions as

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well as the social capital of relationships and community ties (Kates.*et.al*, 2005). Sustainable development therefore in other words means linking what is to be sustained and developed (Kate.*et.al*, 2005). According to the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development today there are three pillars of sustainable development and these are; economic, social and environmental sustainable development (United Nations, 1987). The Johannesburg Declaration created a collective responsibility to advance and strengthen the interdependent and mutually reinforcing pillars of sustainable development that is; economic development, social development and environmental protection at local, national, regional and global levels (Kates.*et.al,* 2005). Another way of defining sustainable development is by its goal or simply what it desires to achieve and according to the indicators that is on how it is measured (Kates.*et.al*, 2005).

2.2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical framework section gives a detailed background and origin of the Sustainable Livelihood Approach which is the theory underpinning the study. The same part gives the principles, strengths and weaknesses of the Sustainable Livelihood Approach.

2.2.3. Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA)

This research is underpinned by the sustainable livelihoods approach to rural development. The term sustainable livelihoods relate to a wide set of issues which encompass much of the broader debate about the relationship between poverty and

environment (Scoones, 1998). The concept of sustainable livelihoods approach (SLA) is an attempt to go beyond the conventional definitions and approaches to poverty alleviation (Krantz, 2001). The livelihood thinking dates back to the work of Robert Chambers in the mid-1980s. Chambers developed the idea of "Sustainable Livelihoods" with the intention to enhance the efficiency of development cooperation (Kollmar and Gamper, 2002). His concepts constitute the basics for the sustainable livelihoods approach and were further developed by the British Development for International Development (DFID). Since 1997, the DFID integrated the approach in its programme for development cooperation (Kollmar and Gamper, 2002). The concept was later adopted by the Brutland Commission on Environment and Development. The 1992 UN Conference on Environment and Development expanded the notion, advocating for the attainment of sustainable livelihoods as a broad goal for poverty alleviation (Balgis.*et. al,* 2005). The term "sustainable livelihood" came to prominence as a development concept in the early 1990s, drawing advances in understanding of famine and food insecurity during the 1980s (Haida, 2009) .

"Livelihoods" means activities, entitlements and assets by which people make a living. In other words a "livelihood" is a source of revenue or income or a source of living. A "livelihood" constitutes assets, activities and capabilities (Krantz, 2001). Assets therefore, are defined as not merely natural or biological (land, water, common property resources, flora, fauna), but also social (networks, participation, empowerment) and human (knowledge, creation by skills and physical roads, markets, clinics, schools,

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bridges) (Haida, 2009). The International Institute of Sustainable Development defines Sustainable Livelihoods (SL) as being concerned with people's capacities to generate and maintain their means of living, enhance their wellbeing, and that of future generations (Balgis.*et.al*, 2005).

In recent years, the sustainable livelihoods approach has gained increased recognition among development practitioners and policy makers alike as the framework for understanding the multiple and dynamic dimensions of livelihoods (Balgis.*et.al*, 2005). Sustainable livelihoods approach does not discard the principle of responsive and community participation hence it emphasises that the poor must be active in identifying and addressing livelihood priorities (Krantz, 2001). It is community–centred and places much greater emphasis on local priorities, interpretations, and abilities with the aim of building on the existing capacities of the rural poor (Sporton and Thomas, 2002).

Furthermore, Sporton and Thomas (2002) identify five elements of this framework. The first link is based on the rural productivity. Livelihoods become sustainable if they can generate employment either through subsistence production or waged labour in activities that enhance self-worthy of rural populations. The second link is based on poverty reduction. For the livelihoods to be sustainable, they must address the causes of poverty (both qualitative and quantitative) thereby promoting greater equity access of capital assets. The third element constitutes of enhanced capabilities and wellbeing,

abilities to access and mobilise assets with more subjective experiences of wellbeing (feeling of self-esteem, security and happiness). The fourth element is based on the resilience of the livelihoods to short term stresses and the ability to recover from long term shocks. The fifth element is the sustainability of natural resource base which is the long term resilience of the natural environment to stresses and shocks. The depletion of natural resources beyond the capacity of a system to maintain the productivity may result in the long term depletion of stocks to the detriment of livelihoods (Sporton and Thomas, 2002).

In this research sustainable livelihood approach has been used to find out what projects are implemented by NGOs in the rural areas and to find out if they are improving the livelihoods in Binga. Implementation of strategies within the ambit of sustainable livelihoods framework could be beneficial in poverty alleviation. Problems like dependency syndrome, unsustainable projects can be mitigated if NGOs can use the sustainable livelihoods approach, because they will only focus on using the available resources to alleviate poverty. According to the principles of the sustainable livelihood approach, any poverty alleviation strategy must be people centred, participatory, and multilevel, conducted in partnership, sustainable, dynamic and must be underpinned by a commitment to poverty alleviation (Sporton and Thomas, 2002). The sustainable livelihood approach was developed to address the failure of previous approaches to community development. Its principles are; holistic, people centred, dynamic and sustainable development, working with people's strengths and establishing macro-micro

links and these principles are further explained in the following part (Salvestrin, 2006). Macro-micro link is the relationship between income inequality and mortality. Central to this approach is treating communities as subjects and objects of change and has strength and much knowledge on their situation. Now recognised that the poor themselves often know their situation and needs best and must therefore be involved in the designing of projects intended for their betterment. Therefore, the poor need to participate when dealing with their situation since they understand it better.

Generally, sustainable livelihoods approach provides a framework for addressing poverty and vulnerability in both development and humanitarian contexts. The Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA) has emerged from the growing realisation of the need to put the poor and all aspects of their lives and means of living at the centre of development and humanitarian work, while maintaining the sustainability of natural resources for present and future generations (Sporton and Thomas, 2002). The approach has been used to identify the livelihoods that people of Binga use in order to survive or earn a living. Furthermore, approach will make people to realise and develop their coping strategies and effectively use them especially during drought (food shortages), outbreak of diseases to mention a few.

In this study the SLA is being adopted for its superiority in combining the above notions in rural development as well as being sensitive to the multiple realities of rural poverty (Chambers, 1983, cited in Ellis and Biggs, 2001). The SLA is also being used as a

framework for the study for it takes into consideration of assets and activities that people depend on to produce a viable livelihood strategy for the rural family. If efforts of rural development policy to reduce rural poverty are to be effective, then, the cross-sectorial and multi-occupational diversity of rural livelihoods should be central to any livelihoods study (Ellis and Biggs, 2001). The following part covers the principles, the strength and the weaknesses of the SLA.

2.2.4. Principles of the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA)

Like any other poverty-focused development approaches, the sustainable livelihoods approach is guided by some principles. Below are the principles of the sustainable livelihoods approach.

People Centred

Communities are different and so are people (Goldman, 2001). The approach recognises that communities are not homogeneous. The external support should differentiate between various groups of people (Goldman, 2001). On the other hand, Krantz (2001) explains about the same principle that sustainable poverty elimination will be achieved only if external support focuses on what matters to people, understands the difference between groups of people, and works with them in a way that is congruent with their current livelihood strategies, social environment, and ability to adapt.

Responsive and Participatory

Poor people should not be treated like passive objects when dealing with their poverty (Goldman, 2001). For any strategy to alleviate poverty, the poor need to be active and need to participate fully. They need to be involved at all levels in managing their all development because they understand their situation better than outsiders. Poor people themselves must be key actors in identifying and addressing livelihood priorities. Outsiders need processes that enable them to listen and respond to the poor (Krantz, 2001). For example, through proper needs assessment and involving their clients in planning at all levels, NGOs can know well the programmes that are needed by residents in Binga.

Build on People' Strengths

Every person or society has strengths. As a result, poverty-focused development should recognise and build on people's strengths (Goldman, 2001).This can start by finding out what resources are present at a particular place. When trying to find out people' strengths one needs to focus on the positive aspects than negative. Support should result in increased voice, opportunities and well-being for people, including the poor (Krantz, 2001).

Holistic

For initiatives to be successful there has to be a synergy between the works of different departments (Goldman, 2001). People also need to weigh up the implications for

different strategies. Krantz (2001) argues that we need to understand people's livelihoods and how these can be enhanced in a holistic way, which recognises the interrelationships between the different aspects of their lives, although actions arising from that understanding may be focused. For instance, for better-off people, income can purchase some other assets, for poor people, the set of assets is critical (Krantz, 2001).

Micro-Macro Link

While people may act locally, their access to resources and services is affected by policies and institutions at local, regional and central levels (Goldman, 2001). The approach links the micro level with the macro level emphasises that policy and institutional analysis should take place at all levels (Kranzt, 2001). Local services should be accessible and effective and responsive. Regional levels must provide coordination, supervision and support. The centre must provide holistic and strategic direction. Poverty elimination is an enormous challenge that will only be overcome by working at multiple levels, ensuring that micro-level activity informs the development of policy and an effective enabling environment, and that macro-level structures and processes support people to build upon their own strengths (Sporton and Thomas ,2002).

Conducted in Partnership

The government or the public sector needs to work together with the private sector (Krantz, 2001). If a proposed strategy is dependent on a range of elements working

together, then a plan drawing on the expertise of all relevant sectors has to be put in place (Goldman, 2001). Implementation of development requires using the strengths of different organisations, public and private, in the most effective way. Partnerships should include people and their organisations, including those for poor people. Partnerships should be transparent agreements based upon shared objectives. For example, NGOs in Binga can work in partnership with government departments to deal with poverty.

Sustainable

There are four dimensions to sustainability and these are; economic, institutional, social and environment sustainability (Krantz, 2001). All the changes achieved by development agents need to be sustainable. In other words development agents need to move away on bringing ephemeral change in the lives of the poor.

As explained differently by Krantz (2001), the approach realises that while economic growth may be essential for poverty alleviation, there is no automatic relationship between the two because it all depends on the capabilities of the poor to take advantage of expanding economic opportunities. There is a realisation that poverty as understood by the poor themselves is not just a question of low income, but also encompasses other dimensions such as bad health, illiteracy, lack of social services, as well as a state of vulnerability and feelings of powerlessness in general. It is now

recognised that the poor themselves often know their situation and needs best and must therefore be involved in the design of policies and projects intended to better their lot (Krantz, 2001).

The study looks at how people in Binga organise and engage in activities which enable them to survive since it is a district with high incidences of poverty. Persistent drought, malaria, unemployment, high illiteracy levels and the current political instability are among the shocks which affect the livelihoods of people in Binga. By delineating effective livelihoods strategies framework which can allow communities to resilience over similar stresses and shocks can be established when using the SLA. This can provide the guidance for the NGOs's poverty alleviation strategies especially in the rural areas.

The livelihoods approach to rural development not only take into consideration issues of entitlements and capabilities but also provide a valuable insight tool for understanding rural households' poverty and their subsequent processes and actions in pursuit of development (Chambers and Conway 1992; Ellis 1998, 1999, 2000; Ellis and Biggs 2001; Carney 2002; Rakodi and Loyd-Jones 2002; Scoones 1998; Bryceson 1996, 1999, 2000, 2001). The livelihoods approach has also become a model of development policy for international development agencies such as DFID, Overseas Development Institute, the United Nations, CARE International and many others.

Ellis and Biggs (2001) state that a livelihood approach takes an open ended view of the combinations of assets and activities that produce a feasible strategy to the rural areas. Rakodi and Loyd-Jones (2002:66) maintain that;

> Such an approach is critical to the examination of what the poor themselves do to survive in various environments, provide a conceptual guide to think about objectives, scope and priorities of rural development, a framework for designing policies and practical interventions and their subsequent evaluation in poverty alleviation.

According to Benedikt (2002) a livelihood framework is a way of looking and analysing the system of a household's internal and external factors that affect its socio-economic survival. It takes into consideration livelihood strategies of people in a given vulnerable milieu. The people have access to six forms of capital assets as shown in figure 2:1 (natural, physical, human, social, political, and financial).These are the resources, which people can utilize and bring together in order to perform livelihood strategies and bring about positive outcomes.

Conceptualisation of livelihoods in Binga and other rural areas of Zimbabwe by NGOs is imperative to understand how poor people live in the era of hyperinflation leading to the rise of food prices, droughts and political instability which threaten their survival. Apart from that, understanding the livelihoods of people living in Binga makes it easier to learn how people cope considering that the district is prone to drought, with high unemployment rate and high illiterate levels. Ellis (1998) views a livelihood as one encompassing income both cash and in kind as well as social institutions, gender relations and property rights, all vital to support and sustain a given standard of living.

Social and kinship networks as well as access to and benefits derived from social and public services provided by the state make up and determine livelihoods (Ellis, 1998). Comprehending how people from Binga are constructing their livelihoods in the absence of most state and NGOs' services and in the middle of the country's economic meltdown continue to be a great concern. At the core of this study is to evaluate the NGOs' poverty alleviation strategies looking at their applicability in the rural areas.

The following diagram figure 2:1. shows that the livelihood of a person, household or community is comprised of assets, transformed by activities or strategies into outcomes. This "internal" relationship between assets, activities and outcomes is seen to be circular. All of this is taking place in the context of and influenced by the external environment (vulnerability context and policies, institutions and processes). According to the World Development (2000 to 2001) as cited by Ludi and Slater (2008);

> Vulnerability measures the resilience against a shock or stresses; vulnerability is primarily a function of a household's assets and insurance mechanisms and of the characteristics (severity, frequency) of shock.

The diagram also shows that the actions of people, households and communities themselves have an influence on these external forces.

Figure 2:1 Sustainable Livelihood Approach Framework
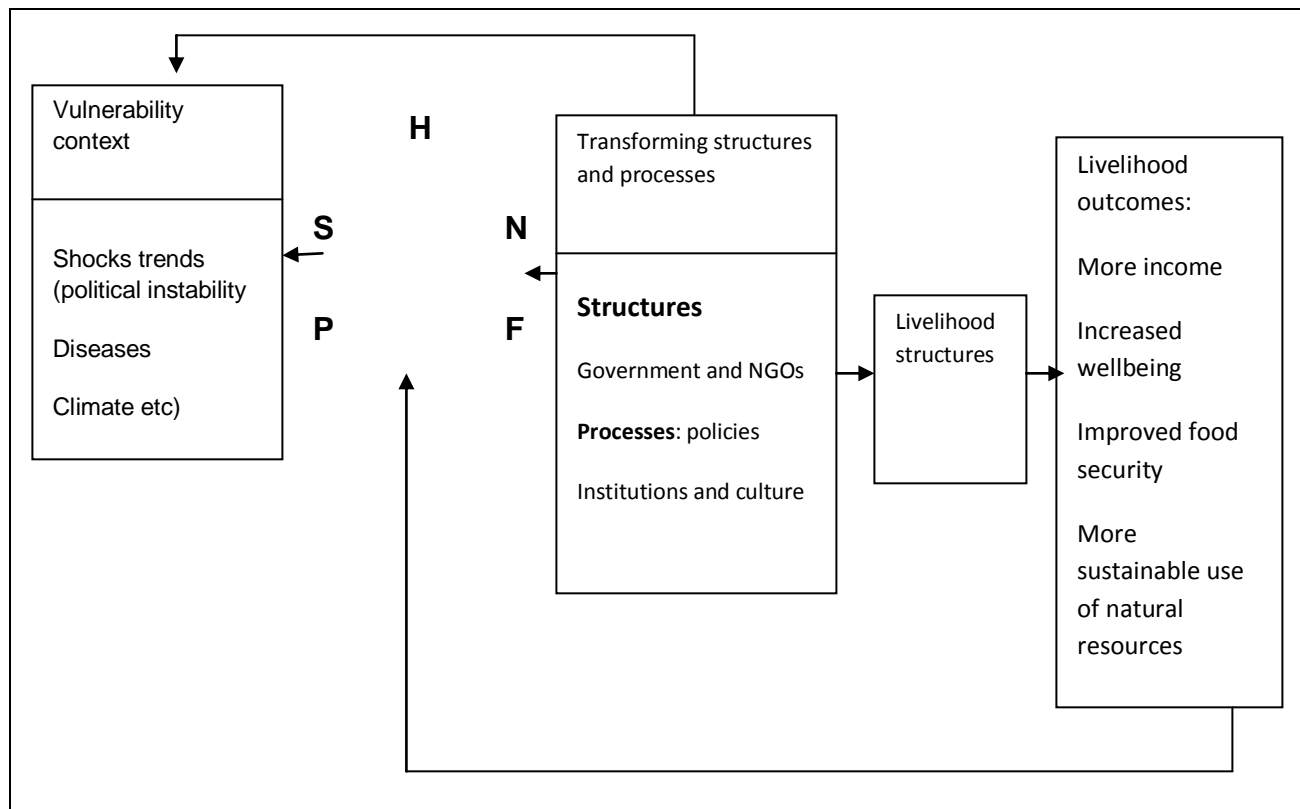
Source: *Adapted from DFID (2001b:24) and Carney. et.al (1999:15)*

KEY: *P*   *-Physical*

        P   *-Political*

        H   *-Human*

        F   *-Financial*

        N   *-Natural*

        S   *- Social*

From Figure 1, assets and economy are the backbone of all livelihoods as they influence the type of livelihood strategy a household may engage as well as level of returns derived (Carney.*et.al*, 1999). Assets can be viewed as human, financial, social natural and physical and all are important in the pursuant of various strategies (Ellis, 1998; Scoones, 1998). Each kind of asset produces benefits and has key indicators

which are used to accomplish livelihoods objectives (Thennakoon, 2004). The potential of assets to produce benefits or yields depends not only on the type and other assets but the external factors within or outside the household's entitlements and capabilities (Ellis, 1999).

To achieve their goal of poverty alleviation, NGOs need to understand which assets are most important than others in negotiating livelihood outcomes in a defined policy environment and economic conditions like in Binga. Bebbington (1999) posits that any understanding of rural livelihoods should be in terms of the people's access to the five capitals and the ways they can combine and change those assets in the construction of livelihoods that meet their material and experimental needs as well as ways these assets can be expanded and organised for survival. The choice of the SLA in this research is based on the notion that every society has some livelihoods that can be manipulated in order for people to earn a living. Failure to realise the livelihoods by any development agencies, may lead to development which is not sustainable.

Livelihood strategies are what people do to obtain a living. In other words livelihoods strategies can be viewed as coping mechanisms. They include activities preformed by households and individuals to earn them income in cash or kind. Livelihood strategies can be viewed as coping or adapting strategies (Scoones, 1998; Benedikt, 2002).

Coping strategies are activities that redress short term rise in stresses and shocks while adapting strategies being long term and tend to be more resilient (Benedikt, 2002).

Scoones (1998) defines livelihood strategies as comprising of agriculture intensification, livelihood diversification and migration. These strategies are interceded by various socio-economic conditions and institutional processes in terms of how to perform such strategies to achieve or not achieve the required results. Scoones (1998) maintains that, for comprehension of livelihoods of people, one has to look at all livelihood facets in a holistic approach together with context, assets, institutional processes, organisational structures, strategies and outcomes. It is essential to understand what combination of assets is crucial for practising of a chosen strategy in a given area or setting (Scoones 1998; Carney, 2002; Thennakoon, 2004). In uncontrollable stresses and shocks there is necessity to question how exactly poor people can combine the various strategies to earn a living.

Thennakoon (2004) maintains that most livelihood strategies are concentrated within central activities such as farming, labouring, selling of timber and firewood, mining trading, livestock, and building work. In Binga, most of the livelihoods mainly involve fishing, hunting, gathering of wild fruits and basket weaving. Such endeavor of classifying strategies is laden with a number of issues particularly on how the ranking of such activities has been realised in spite of inattention of the poor's priorities. Though

Thennakoon (2000) further classifies the strategies as core dependant, partially dependent and minor dependent livelihood strategies, such classification can only assist researchers with the background information when embarking on the significance of livelihoods strategies. There is need to give rural households themselves an opportunity to define and rank these various activities.

Scoones (1998) provides a fundamental checklist for livelihood strategy analysis in contextualizing how the rural households value or allocate time and other resources to different activities. Matters on how household arrange their activities to obtain greatest benefits or returns are critical if a tangible profile for community strategies is to be achieved. Clustering, substitution, access, tradeoffs and trends are some of the issues which determine livelihood strategy effectiveness. These facets are also important for livelihoods research specific to an area.

Despite the fact that most households in sub-Saharan Africa have shown trends of livelihood diversification and depeasantisation as argued by Bryceson (1999, 2000, and 2001), rural households in Zimbabwe have limited options to pursue livelihood strategies. Zergaw (1997) explained a number of trends and issues which has worked against women livelihood strategies in Ethiopia such as population growth which has increased pressure on land sizes and landlessness and exclusion to rights over resources relegating women to petty income generating activities. Such factors are also

present in Binga but their scale of influence has not been addressed. Below are the strength and weaknesses of the sustainable livelihoods approach.

2.2.4. STRENGTHS OF THE SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOOD APPROACH

Sustainable livelihood approach draws attention to the multiplicity of assets that people make use of, when constructing their livelihoods. The approach produces a holistic view on what resources or combination of resources are important to the poor, including not only physical and natural resources, but also their social and human capital (Solesbury, 2003).

Furthermore, the approach facilitates a comprehension of the underlying causes of poverty by focusing on the variety of different sectors at different levels that directly or indirectly determine or constrain poor people's access to resources or assets of different kinds and thus their livelihoods (Solesbury, 2003).

The approach also provides a more realistic framework for assessing the direct and indirect effects on people's living conditions than for example one dimensional productivity or income criteria. By using the SLA, NGOs can be able to find out ways to sustain available livelihoods in a given place.

2.2.5. WEAKNESSES OF THE SLA

The approach does not show the issue of how to identify the poor that one is trying to assist. People are invisible in the SLA framework and the framework pays more attention on assets, vulnerability, activities and capabilities (Morse.*et.al,* 2009).The way resources and other livelihood opportunities are distributed locally are often influenced by informal structures of social dominance and power within the community (Ludi and Slater, 2008).

The basic idea of the SLA is to start with broad and open ended analysis, but this requires a highly flexible planning situation which rarely exists. The best hope is to ensure that already identified or decided sector development initiatives fit with people's livelihood strategies and make them to respond to the constraints and opportunities affecting the poor. The SLA or elements usefully be employed to that end (Solesbury, 2003).

If applied, the SLA might be beyond the practical realities of many local development administrations, with the risk that this approach remains an initiative of donors and their consultants (Morse.*et.al,* 2009). One measure to counteract this would be to ensure that counterpart staffs are involved from the beginning when discussing how and if such strategy should be applied, and or start a simplified version of the approach. The

following part looks at the empirical review about the NGOs and their strategies and rural poverty.

2.3. FURTHER DISCUSSION ABOUT NGOs' STRATEGIES AND THEIR CRICISM

Despite the fact that NGOs have been viewed as the solution for rural poverty, a lot has been written about their unsatisfactory work. It is worth noting that they bring development and help the poor move out of the poverty trap. The positive change in the lives of their clients has made them to be viewed as true agents of development; on the other hand, the deepening of poverty in the rural areas they serve has resulted in their programmes lose credibility hence a need for them to be reviewed. The origin of NGOs dates back as from the 19th and the 20th century (Shivji, 2005). In 1807 for example, some NGO movements led to the abolition of the slave trade in Britain. All these are the success stories of NGOs (NGO Consultancy, 2005). Although NGOs are viewed as true and really agents of development, there remain some questions about their strategies as a result of deepening and widening poverty in the rural areas they service. The hypothesis of this research is that, the ineffectiveness of NGOs' poverty alleviation strategies is the cause of the deepening and widening of poverty in the rural areas. Therefore, this discussion is about what other researchers have found concerning the strategies of NGOs and rural poverty as well as literature about the problem this research seeks to address. Explained, below is further discussion with reference to the operation of NGOs as well as some examples regarding their success and failures in alleviating poverty.

2.4. NGOs' PERCEPTION OF POVERTY

Now that the strategies implemented by the Zimbabwean government to address the issue of rural poverty have failed because of various reasons, NGOs came to complement the government in order to alleviate poverty in the most disadvantaged areas of Zimbabwe. For that reason one need to understand how NGOs perceive rural poverty and later explain about their main poverty alleviation strategies. In Bangladesh according to Hossani (1999) historical scholarship tells that understanding of poverty have often affected the degree of priority that elites have been willing to accord to poverty alleviation and the nature of anti-poverty policies they are willing to support. A qualitative research that was conducted by the Poverty Impact Monitoring Unity (2001) in Sri Lanka found that; the poor people did not want to be referred as the poor because of shame attached to the term poor. Again the respondents though they could differentiate between being poor and rich most of them categorised themselves as average. Furthermore, concerning the dimensions of poverty, poverty was seen as lack of something like lack of employment, food and having your crops being eaten by wild animals. The dynamics of poverty, those who categorised themselves as the average attributed poverty to laziness and lack of unity. Then it was also found that in alleviating poverty, poor people were resourceful and relied on a number of self-help strategies to cope with their poverty. Concerning the needs of the poor, the findings indicated that they wanted to better their lives but did not know how or to expect that anything would change them.

2.5. ROLE OF NGOs

Though places served by NGOs are the poorest today in Zimbabwe, we cannot completely dismiss their role in poverty alleviation. Therefore, Suharko (2007) contends that NGOs compared to the government have a comparative advantage in service provision. Riddel and Robison (1995:36) as cited in Suharko (2007:3), argue that;

> Their ability to deliver emergency relief or development services at low cost, to many people, in remote areas; their rapid, innovative and flexible responses to emerging financial and technical assistance needs at the grassroots level; their long-standing familiarity with social sector development and poverty alleviation; their experience with small-scale development projects as well as with those requiring a high degree of involvement by, and familiarity with, the concerned target groups.

Furthermore, NGOs seek to improve the people's access to services provided by the state (Suharko, 2007). In countries where government lacks public services, NGOs play a significant role in the direct provision of social and economic services. As a result, NGOs emerge and play a role of providing services. Therefore NGOs help the poor to move out of poverty as pointed out by Suharko (2007).

NGOs are also creditable for their long endurance and engagement with the rural poor. From the beginning, NGOs were formed to respond to the ill being of the poor. The long engagement with the poor makes them to gain more experience and knowledge in dealing with complex and structural problems of poverty. Such experience and knowledge gained lead to the formulation and implementation of genuine and innovative strategies and approaches to poverty reduction (Smillie, 2003). With the appreciation of

the complicated nature of poverty and by large unsuccessful results of aid, multinational and bilateral agencies have lately given renewed promises to NGOs whose existence is legitimised by the presence of poverty (Guler, 2008). Therefore, Michael (2002) argues that there is no discussion in poverty, equality or development is complete without considering the role of NGOs today.

Even though NGOs play this vital role within the rural areas they operate in, the increase in the number of people living in poverty remain a challenge to their role and goal of alleviating poverty. As long as poverty levels swell up especially in the rural areas, the NGOs' strategies become questionable. Therefore, as far as rural development is concerned, NGOs' roles cannot be exaggerated because their activities for rural development are more inclined to provision of relief in the rural areas hence the need to carry out this study.

2.6. NGOs' POVERTY ALLEVIATION STRATEGIES

The questions about the NGOs' strategies are, who determine what strategies are needed by the poor, and if whether these strategies really address the needs of the poor. These questions will be answered under the part which discusses about the criticism of NGOs as well as under Chapter 5 where the findings of the research are presented. In Zimbabwe NGOs' interventions has gone through two distinctive but interrelated phases from welfare and relief activities to development oriented, long term interventions by the end of the 1980s (Wellard and Copstake,1993).This appears to be

an influence of local NGOs by their donors or sister NGOs in the North. At the onset of independence NGOs' activities were mostly restricted to relief and emergencies services, while government activities were involved in developmental activities. From the period 1985 to 1987 NGOs and government started working together (Wellard and Copstake, 1993)

Rajasekhar (2004) groups the NGOs' poverty alleviation strategies into two categories and these are explained in this paragraph. The first group of strategies is through which the poor can achieve a change in their conditions of poverty. These strategies are carried out by the poor in an attempt to change their poverty in terms of their resources and assets. Usually this group of strategies is based upon individual or local groups or the poor seeking ways to offset the economic disadvantage they face by exploiting opportunities to use the resources and assets they possess or they can access (Rajasekhar, 2004).The second group of poverty alleviation strategies is through which the poor can or those who represent them, seek to secure their interest by effecting change in the actions and policies of other, and particularly bringing about change in the public policy and in its implementation. It is characterised by the need to change the policies and practices of others in order to bring about change. It is therefore directed towards achieving a redistribution of resources in order to change the poverty condition (Rajasekhar, 2004).The following are some of the NGOs' poverty alleviation strategies that are implemented in Zimbabwe by NGOs' strategies.

2.6.1. Income Generating Projects (IGPs) and Cooperatives

NGOs have been involved in assisting cooperatives (mostly collective cooperatives) and promoting of income generating projects (IGPs) (Muir and Riddel, 1992). Their involvement in the IGPs has been concentrated in the communal areas. Projects promoted generally involved small scale projects like poultry, vegetable plots, piggery, knitting, carpentry, and a range of general crafts such as weaving, jewellery making and pottery (Muir and Riddel, 1992). These projects targeted particularly women. The role of NGOs was of gap-filling, to the extent that the same projects initiated tended to be duplication (Muir and Riddel, 1992). Income generating projects in Binga includes the passing over of livestock implemented by Save the Children, CADEC and KMTC as well as giving money to the disadvantaged people done by CADEC. These income generating projects has less impacts since some community members politicise them.

2.6.2. Agriculture Sector

NGOs' intervention in the agricultural sector in the communal areas of Zimbabwe focused more on one of the series of activities aimed at raising income levels (Muir and Riddel, 1992). The efforts include the provision of credit, help with savings initiatives, technical advice on inputs and diversifying the range of crops produced, assistance with ploughing, the supply of inputs, and assistance with marketing (Muir and Riddel,1992).The efforts of NGOs in this field complemented the government's efforts though they had a different approach (Muir and Riddel,1992). Today in Binga, NGOs like KMTC, LEAD, and CADEC are involved in agriculture. The IFAD (2005) put it in plain words that, good agricultural methods can lead to successful poverty alleviation.

Further, countries that focus more on agriculture are much more developed than the countries that are not putting more effort on improving agriculture. An improvement in the agriculture by countries means a better chance of attaining Millennium Development Goal 1 which focuses more on eradicating extreme poverty (IFAD, 2005).

2.6.3. Conservation and Environmental Management

This is one of the NGOs' strategies to poverty alleviation in natural resources conservation and management (Moyo.*et.al*, 2000). CAMPFIRE was implemented by the Zim Trust and was adopted by seventeen districts. In this area, NGOs have successfully drawn attention to plants and animal group threatened by extinction. Some have assisted the environmental cause by disseminating valuable information on environmental issues through high profiles media channels, but have rarely affected positively (Moyo.*et.a*l, 2000). Many wards in Binga today face food shortages because the crops are damaged by animals like elephants, wild pigs and baboons. Apart from that, many lives have perished in Binga because of crocodiles and hippo in the Zambezi River. Community dwellers in Binga therefore have found organisation like CAMPFIFRE to be of no importance to them.

2.6.4. Relief and Welfare

The first generation NGOs' strategies involve the direct delivery of services to meet an immediate deficiency or shortage by beneficiary population, such as needs for food, health care or shelter (Ellwood, 1995). Again during an emergency time like flood, an

earthquake or a war this may be characterised as humanitarian assistance (Ellwood, 1995). Furthermore, the assisting NGO relates directly to the individual or family and the benefit delivered depend entirely on the funds, staff and administrative capability of the NGO. NGOs work with poor women, children and other vulnerable groups to environmental and other development activities. Relief resurfaces occasionally through drought relief (Moyo.*et. al,* 2000). In Binga NGOs are involved in food distribution during drought in all wards. NGOS like Adventist Development Relief Aid (ADRA), Save the Children (UK), and CADEC are greatly involved in relief aid.

2.6.5. Advocacy

Advocacy as it is practiced by NGOs, is a systematic, democratic, and organised effort by NGOs to change, influence or initiate policies, laws, practices and behaviour so that disadvantaged citizens in particular or all citizens general be benefited (Holloway, 2009). Moreover Coates and David (2002:530), Jordan and Tuijl (2000:2065) explain about advocacy that;

> NGOs seek to improve the access of the disadvantaged people to services provided by the state. Ideally, NGO advocacy give the poor and disadvantaged groups the tools to influence public policies and their implementation practices to challenge the status quo by addressing social injustice issues and structural causes of inequity, to defend human rights and to promote democracy.

They do this by engaging in policy and advocacy to influence public policies concerning the poor people. NGOs have developed various strategies to influence the process of public policy making and to control the implementation of development programmes or

projects (Suharko, 2007). According to Ibrahim and Hulme (2010) they argues that, civil society organisations can promote poverty reduction by pushing for macro-level structural changes through advocacy, lobbying the government for policy change at national level and directly providing effective services to the poor at grassroots level. In this case civil society is defined by Anheier (2004:3) as cited by Ibrahim and Hulme (2010) as a sphere of institutions, organisations and individuals located between family, the state and the market in which people associate voluntarily to advance common interests. NGOs are therefore included in the civil society context (Ibrahim and Hulme, 2010).

2.6.6. Research and Technology

This is an increasing role of NGOs as a development approach with many providing services to other NGOs and CBOs (Moyo.*et.al,* 2000). Literature on women in development, environmental issues, training in management skills and networking are promoted by NGOs like Zimbabwe Women's Resource Centre and Network (ZWRCN), Women's Action Group (WAG), Zimbabwe Environment Research Organisation (ZERO), Women and Law in Southern Africa (WLSA), Silveira House and Organisation of Rural Associations in Progress (ORAP) (Moyo.*et. al*, 2000).

2.6.7. Micro Finance

Micro-credit is defined as the short term, small scale loans to the poor and needy to establish small enterprises to grow out of poverty (Chatterjee, 2001, Nanavaty, 2000,

and Leon 1998) as cited in Kalim and Salahuddin (2010). The idea of using micro-credit as a tool to eradicate poverty has received different reactions from researchers. Micro finance is recognised as an effective tool to fight poverty by providing financial services to those who do not have access to or are neglected by the commercial banks and financial institutions (Kalim and Salahuddin, 2010). Many NGOs target the rural poor, whose ability to access remunerative markets is a critical determinant of incomes and well-being (Kindness and Gordon, 2008). Farmers groups and NGOs often recognise a lack of credit as a critical constraint to the development of new initiatives and many seek to remedy through credit interventions. According to Kindness and Gordon (2008:28);

> Rural finance comprises informal and formal sectors. Examples of formal sources of credit include: banks, projects, and contract farmer schemes. Reference is often made to micro-credit. Micro underlines the small loan size normally associated with the borrowing requirements of poor rural populations, and micro-credit schemes use specially developed pro-poor lending methodologies. Rural populations, however, are much more dependent on informal sources of finance (including loans from family or friends, moneylenders, and rotating or accumulating savings and credit associations). Rural populations, however, are much more dependent on informal sources of finance (including loans from family or friends, moneylenders, and rotating or accumulating savings and credit associations).

Thus, micro-credit schemes according to Kindness and Gordon (2008) are often associated with: group-lending (where peer pressure effectively substitutes for collateral, and other group members may take action to prevent one member to defaulting – by providing labour to assure timely harvest, for instance); extension inputs arranged by the micro-finance institute (MFI); and mobile banking arrangements. Cash-

flow analysis may concentrate on overall ability to repay the loan, rather than a particular investment project (Kindness and Gordon, 2008).

Failure by NGOs to combat poverty in the rural areas using the mentioned strategies shows that their poverty alleviation strategies are insufficient and are not addressing the needs of the poor hence they need to be re-examined. Lack of sustainability by NGOs' projects in the rural areas perpetuates poverty in Binga. Focus on relief is also making NGOs to lose the battle against poverty as more efforts are directed towards relief than sustainable development. Therefore, this research seeks to evaluate the NGOs' strategies in poverty alleviation. The following is a detailed criticism of NGOs work.

2.7. CRITICISM OF NGOs

Despite the mounting claims about the contribution of NGOs in the field of poverty alleviation, there is little evidence about their effectiveness to prove this. The judgements of NGOs tend to be polarised. On the other hand, some people argue that NGOs are of great importance and that their poverty alleviation strategies have impacted the lives of the people positively, on the other side, other people do not see any positive change that have been brought by NGOs. Considering the hypothesis of the research, that is, the ineffectiveness of the NGOs' poverty alleviation strategies is the cause of deepening rural poverty; therefore this part about the criticism is trying to weigh up the effectiveness of NGOs.

2.7.1. Lack of Appropriate Evaluation Programmes

Johnson-Lans (2005) clearly put it that, NGOs are criticised for lacking appropriate evaluation strategies of their programmes, particularly when it is performed by donor agencies that might not be sensitive to the needs of the locals. Monitoring is very important in the sense that it makes an organisation to see if they are still in line with their objectives, whilst evaluation can help an organisation to see how they can correct their mistakes in the future. Lack of monitoring and evaluation of project by many NGOs means that there are high chances of not noticing their mistakes and hence they remain uncorrected.

2.7.2. Little Evidence about the Effectiveness of their Programmes

Questions about the effectiveness of NGOs in providing services in general, development assistance in particular, mean that they are no longer seen as magic bullets for international development (Bendell, 2006). The emergence of NGOs as important development actors in India and any other parts of the world implies that one can hope for more attention to the needs and concerns of the poor in policy formulation and implementation (Rajasekhar, 2004). Despite the fact that NGOs are perceived to be the drivers of development it is hard to prove this (Fruttero and Guari, 2005). Sometimes it is hard to prove the effectiveness of the NGOs' strategies used to alleviate poverty why because poverty persists in the same areas served by NGOs. Werker *.et.al,* (2007) contend that, not all randomised evaluations of NGOs' programmes, however, find positive outcomes, some evaluations find no difference. As a result, critical literature has emerged questioning the effectiveness of NGOs in improving the lives of

their intended beneficiaries (Werker.*et.al,* 2007). The OECD survey of (1997) about effectiveness of NGOs as cited in Werker.*et.al,* (2007) found that there is still lack of firm and reliable evidence on the impact of NGO development projects and programmes. Moreover, most publicly available programme evaluators by NGOs - like case studies on website are descriptive, rarely contain rigorous statistical analysis, and most never report strong negative outcomes (Werker.*et.al*, 2007).

2.7.3. They are Trojan Horses

According to Hulme, 1995, Hulme and Edwards, 1997 as cited in Bebbington (2004) they mention about the skepticism of NGOs regarding their performance, accountability and transparency as well as the politics that underlie their operations. In Zimbabwe NGOs are always at loggerheads with the state because of their source of funding and lack of transparency and their involvement in politics. Fruttero and Guari (2005) says that, at different points, NGOs can appear to be both original and foreign directed, selfless, self-promoting, haphazard and efficient, giving credence to various charges of hypocrisy or "selling out". NGOs as instruments, often times unwitting and unknowing, of outside interests and regard both economic development and democracy as masks for an otherwise hidden agenda: to impose the policy and institutional framework of the new world order against resistance, argues Veltmeyer (2005).

2.7.4. Selection of their Projects

It is argued that NGOs are controlled by charismatic individuals who necessarily limits participation and decision making (Wood: 1997) as cited in Fruttero and Guari (2005). NGOs programmes sometimes tend not to be realistic because mostly they are planned by the people who do not come into contact with NGOs' clients (Fruttero and Gauri, 2005). In the research about the NGOs' poverty reduction strategies in Bangladesh Saifuddin (2006) found that NGOs' programmes meant to reduce poverty do not match with the reality, the programmes selection is based on external and internal factors like the donor and resources in the country respectively, selection of programme does not consider what really poverty is in a given area and the NGOs meaning of poverty is not locally based.

2.7.5. Sustainability of their Projects

NGOs' projects are not sustainable, this means that they do not last for a long time. As a result one may argue that NGOs bring superficial change in the communities they work in. Lack of sustainability depends on a number of factors, like lack of proper monitoring and evaluation, lack of funding and sometimes NGOs cease to operate in that particular area. In a research by Riddel and Robinson (1992) about the impact of NGOs' poverty alleviation projects in Zimbabwe, Uganda and India, the findings shows that, on the issue of sustainability few of the projects demonstrated the potential to continue once the NGO ceased operating in the area. The sustainability of large scale services provision by NGOs has been questioned (Edwards and Hulme, 1998). At a deeper level there are worries about the long term impact of NGOs' services for all

(LaFond, 1995) as cited in Edwards and Hulme (1998). Robinson(1993:8) in Edwards and Hulme (1998) points out that large, influential and well-funded NGOs may concentrate resources in regions and sectors that might not be most important for national development, "with a patchwork quilt" of services of encouraging of carrying quality emerging against a background of weak central oversight. By concentrating on projects which are of less importance to their clients means that most of the clients' problem remain unsolved.

It is also argued that NGOs' service provision acts as palliative, a barrier to the more fundamental structural changes in the ownership of land and capital assets which are essential if significant economic and political changes are to occur (Riddel and Robinson, 1992). Furthermore, the evidence does not show that scaling up of the provision of services using donor funds inevitably leads to a decline in equality, nor to the wider problems highlighted above (Riddel and Robinson, 1992). But does indicate that very careful management of expansion is necessary to stop a face-off in quality and that most contemporary NGOs' service- provision is not sustainable in its present forms (Edwards and Hulme, 1998).

2.7.6. Addressing the Needs of the Poor and Reaching Them

Do NGOs address the needs of the rural poor; again do NGOs reach the poorest of the poor? The truth is that, some NGOs' poverty alleviation programmes do not address the needs of the poor. It is argued that sometimes NGOs do not do proper needs

assessment by engaging their recipients (Chofi, 2010). Most of the NGOs' programmes or projects are determined by the funders who rarely engage with the service users. In a research by Saifuddin (2006) in Bangladesh the findings indicated that NGOs programmes do match with the needs of the people. Again in Bangladesh, after assisting the floods victims and cyclone victims in 1988 and 1991 respectively, when the NGOs' service need receded, the NGOs resumed conducting their day- to-day task of helping to articulate and respond to community demands- prioritising personal relationships, bestowing largesse in the form of access of favours, playing the role of "officer" to rural folk (White, 1993) as cited in Fruttero and Gauri (2005). This means that at the beginning NGOs addresses the needs of poor but at the end they put first their goals than people. Manyena (2003), argues that NGOs in Binga though they do a commendable job they seem to miss the needs of the Tonga people. Farrington and Bebbington (1993) argues that more generally, NGOs that work with technologies that imply significant risk of failing to deliver promised outputs also exclude the poorest who are at least able to countenance running such risk. Concerning NGOs and the donor community in achieving their goals of solving poverty problems Narasaiah (2005) argues that, even the large organisations doubt their own ability to solve problems and find their doubt confirmed by internal evaluations. The research by Riddel and Robinson (1992) revealed that there was little evidence to suggest that many beneficiaries had managed to escape from poverty on permanent basis. In the same research it was found that most NGOs projects failed to reach the poor and even in cases where poverty alleviation occurred, improvement in the economic status was modest.

Concerning the second part of the question, there are question marks about whether NGOs really reach the poorest people in communities. According to Davis (2005), descriptors for the very poorest are manifold: the poorest of the poor (Navajas.*et.al,* 2000), the distressed or 'hardcore' poor (Hashemi, 1997), the ultra poor (Hassan, 1998), the entrepreneurial poor (Bartlett, 1997), the 'absolute' poor (ibid.). Who are they? They include widows, divorced women, women with disabled or chronically ill husbands, the elderly, child-headed households, the landless or functionally landless, day labourers, the disabled, and those who are marginalised from the mainstream because of their ethnicity or caste. Claims that NGOs reach the poorest of the poor are often inaccurate, however, as had been demonstrated in the case of NGO credit schemes (Hulme and Mosley, 1995) as cited in Edwards and Hulme (1998) and other economic interventions (Riddel and Robinson, 1992). Hashemi (1992) in Edwards and Hulme (1998) found that large NGOs in Bangladesh fail to reach the poorest in their efforts to achieve rapid expansion geographical coverage that is the drive for "breadth" rather than "depth". Further, it is contended that NGOs are concerned with quantity than quality of the services rendered (Fruttero and Guari, 2005). This makes them to be more concerned about their objectives than putting the poor first. The criteria used by some NGOs for selecting clients specifically excludes the poor (Farrington and Bebbington, 2003).

Ahmed (2006) carried out a research about whether NGOs reached the poorest and vulnerable in Bangladesh. The findings were disappointing as it was noted that, in Bangladesh there is a serious consensus that even well respected programmes failed to reach the hard core. A nationally representative survey found that 41 percent of eligible

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household in Bangladesh did not have any contact with the NGOs operating in their localities (Ahmed, 2006). Again, the same study found that Water Aid in Bangladesh's programme experience also indicates that most partner NGOs appreciate the need to target the poor, diversity among the poor make this particularly elusive challenge (Ahmed, 2006). An underlying problem here was that Water Aid Bangladesh and partners tended to view communities as homogenous settlements and applied broad-brush approaches to project implementation rather than tailoring inputs to meet specific needs and capacities (Ahmed, 2006). Findings by Fruttero and Guari (2005) about whether NGOs in Bangladesh and Uganda reach the poor, it was found that NGOs in both Bangladesh and Uganda appear not to locate in the needy communities hence they are not accessed by the poor. Intervention strategies by NGOs for rural areas are to work with and through groups (Muir, 1992). It is not common practice for NGOs to form groups with whom they work in the areas; rather they tend to work with groups which are already in existence. The evidence available would be to suggest that the poorest families and households tend to be excluded from groups which are in existence in the communal areas (Muir, 1992).

2.7.7. Democratisation

According to Kim (2005), NGOs encourage social change and can protect individual rights by monitoring, by criticising government and market power, and by influencing social or market policies, by doing this they promote democracy. From literature it is possible to identify a growing involvement by grass roots organisations (GROs) in

representation, lobbying and formal party politics; and by NGOs in mediation, advocacy, training and "civic education" (Fowler, 1991) as cited in Edwards and Hulme (1998). Despite the successes in democratisation in some parts of the world by NGOs, some commentators remain skeptical about the prospects for GROs and NGOs involvement in the formal process of democratisation (Edwards and Hulme, 1998). Edwards and Hulme (1998) debate that NGOs are unlikely to have a significant impact on political reform, partly because African governments have become adept at containing such possibility through regulation and fragmentation of the NGO "movement," and partly because NGOs themselves have failed to develop effective strategies to promote democratisation, especially for what Folwer (1993:28) as cited in Edwards and Hulme (1998) calls " citizenship.... the organic link between the state and citizens that is missing in much of Africa." Some NGOs leaders are politically motivated and active thus creating conflicts between them and the state. These disappointments reflect the paradox of organisation promoting democratisation which themselves only weakly democratic (Chofi, 2010).

2.7.8. Accountability and Transparency

For many NGOs there remains problem with the basic building blocks of organisational accountability- transparency of information, and an organisation's governance structure (Bendell, 2006). The term accountability refers to the means by which individuals and organisations report to a recognised authority (or authorities) and are held responsible for their actions (Ebrahim, 2010). It is a crucial component of claims of legitimacy

(Edwards and Hulme, 1998). In other words, accountability means to be answerable to an authority or authorities. Effective accountability according to Overseas Development Administration (1993) as cited in Edwards and Hulme (1998), requires a statement of goals (whether in adherence to certain rules for achievement of identified performance levels), transparency of decision making and relationships, honest reporting of what resources have been used and what has been achieved, an appraisal process for the overseeing of authorities to judge whether results are satisfactory, and concrete mechanism for holding to account (rewarding or penalising) those responsible for performance.

Accountability can be formal or informal (Edwards and Hulme, 1998).The former can involve for example, an evaluation of whether agreed objective in a programme have been met and the later on the other hand can involve ongoing discussion between the partners (Edwards and Hulme, 1998). Avina (1993) in Edwards and Hulme (1998) distinguishes between short term functional accountability (accounting for resources, resource use and immediate impacts) and strategic accountability (accounting for the impacts that an NGO action have on the actions of other organisations and the wider environment).

NGOs are accountable to the funders, state which they operate in and the recipients of donor. Edwards and Hulme (1998) explains that, NGOs and GROs have a multiple

accountabilities that is "downwards": to their partners, beneficiaries, staff and supporters; and "upwards" to their trustees, donors and host governments. Of great importance, NGOs accountability is skewed to the most powerful constituency, which under the New Policy Agenda may mean the official donor agencies (Bendell, 2006). That is why clarifying and improving the accountability is the way to ensure a line remains drawn between transparent compromise and blind cooption (Eade, 1993:161) as cited in Edwards and Hulme, (1998). The findings from Otto (2008) about the NGOs and humanitarian reforms in Zimbabwe found that, accountability to beneficiaries is still seen as a challenge. Good practice examples exist but in emergency programmes a pragmatic approach often prevails.

Bendell (2006) talks about controversy of accountability of NGOs to other local organisations they work with. This kind of controversy is organised around Western NGOs working in the South in environmental conservation. The Conservation International of the United States works in the field of conserving fauna and flaura (Choudry, 2003). Its work however has generated stingy criticism from the environment and human rights group. For example the Conservation International has been criticised in Mexico, Panama and Surinam by Choudry (2003: 230) that;

> The way it helped the biotechnology companies to access traditional knowledge about application of various species so that they can patent to active compound. The accountability of the process to those whose intellectual property is accessed is challenged, with some describing the process as bioimperialism

Given the above illustration, accountability therefore only favours those with more power. Though NGOs are supposed to be accountable to their clients, this hardly happens as they only value their funders (Fruttero and Guari, 2005).

Transparency is collecting information and making it available and accessible for public scrutiny (Ebrahim, 2010). NGOs are criticised for lacking transparency in their work. As indicated in Chapter 4, the researcher was not allowed to interview anyone from Save the Children (UK); this shows that as an organisation, Save the Children (UK) lacks transparency. For years it has been claimed that NGOs projects have significant changes on poor households in the developing countries (Johnson-Lans: 2005). However recent empirical studies have questioned about the effectiveness NGOs' intervention in local communities (Johnson-Lans: 2005).

2.7.9. Incompetence
Claims of incompetence have also been leveled at NGOs (Bendell, 2006). For example, a commissioned report by UNICEF claimed that health services provided by NGOs in Mozambique were ten times the cost of those provided by the government (Clark, 2003) as cited in Bendell (2006). Incompetence is also attributed to corruption of NGOs officials. For instance, in Rwanda in 1994 where occasions were made that during the mass killings, refugee camps were used as recruiting and refuelling stations by militias (Goetz and Jenkins, 2002:49) in (Bendell,2006).

2.7.10. Abuse of Beneficiaries and Funds and NGOs Hidden Agendas

As noted by (Goetz and Jenkins, 2002: 49) as cited in Bendell (2006) that some NGOs official abuse their beneficiaries sexually for example in Orissa and providing services in turn for cash payment. On the other hand a key criticism leveled at Western funded and headquartered NGOs working in the South that they impose their own interest and agendas on people (Bendell, 2006). A research by Chofi in central Africa has revealed that NGOs do not do needs assessment as a result they implement project that do not benefit the poor and is seen as a waste of resources. Chofi (2010:15) writes;

> NGOs have been accused of imposing their projects on local communities in central Africa without preliminary need assessment to identify and determine real development priority needs. As a result, funds are uselessly invested in projects that do not benefit local communities which the project was intended to uplift.

As Bolton (2004:84) as cited by Chofi (2010), criticise the way the development agents impose their will on the poor;

> The aid industry has long been full of well-meaning foreigners who think they know just what the poor community needs and set about providing it, only to find their efforts ignored, or their nice piece of equipment unrepaired and unused.

NGO Monitor research has demonstrated that, in many examples, funding designated to enhance "human rights", "humanitarian aid", and other worthy causes has instead been abused for coarse political campaigning. Instead of promoting peace in the Israel conflict for instance, many NGOs closely associated with the Palestinian cause used this funding to advance a narrative that supports continued conflict and incitement (Steinberg, 2008). Furthermore, Chofi (2010) in the research about the NGOs strategies

in Central Africa, the findings revealed that NGO directors and other stakeholders involved just draft projects and programmes so that they can get funding and later misuse these funds for their own benefit.

2.8. CONCLUSION

It is therefore important that while considerable information is available about activities of particular NGOs, there remain large gaps about NGOs movement as a whole. Literature reveals that there is little evidence about the effectiveness of NGOs in poverty alleviation. As a result this creates skepticism about their roles, their geographical location and whether they really address the needs of the poor. The criticism reveals that NGOs put their agenda first and this is revealed by literature that NGOs lack transparency, are not accountable to their clients, they are not democratic, that they bring superficial change. Though there are some loopholes with the sustainable livelihoods approach, its use as a framework seems to have yielded positive results. Literature reveals that rural areas harbors poverty in most African countries. The relationship between the state and the NGOs seem to be affecting the swelling of poverty especially in the rural areas of the developing countries. While the Government of Zimbabwe tried to implement some poverty alleviation strategies, their impacts were not up to standard, lacked sustainability and others were over politicised which led to their failures, and same applies to NGOs strategies. To bring about sustainable development in Zimbabwe, NGOs need to understand particular livelihoods for different places and people, by focusing on the assets, activities and capabilities of a given place. Therefore, they need not to view people and communities homogeneously.

Strategies to alleviate poverty in the rural areas must try to improve the available livelihoods in order to achieve sustainable development. The following chapter is about the origins of NGOs.

CHAPTER 3:

NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS AND POVERTY ALLEVIATION

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Though there is a multifarious literature about the operation of NGOs contribution in alleviating poverty in generally, there is scanty information about NGOs in Binga. In general, although the data for Zimbabwe are better than for many other African countries, the detailed information on poverty remains pieces of a jigsaw puzzle with many gaps left to be filled (Kinsey, 2010). This chapter will therefore give a detailed history of NGOs, the history of Save the Children, CADEC and KMTC, the NGO Bill in Zimbabwe. The same chapter will give a detailed background of politics and Zimbabwe and NGOs and later will explain about their (NGOs) relationship with the state.

3.2. ORIGIN OF NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS

NGOs came into existence in the 20th Century though only a few existed in the 19th Century (Takure, 2009). According to Moyo (1993) as cited in Takure (2009) the main purpose for which the NGOs were formed at that time was for propagating and spreading of the beliefs, culture and values of the colonial powers in the colonies. These NGOs survived because they got funding from the colonial government on which in turn issued instructions on all courses of action (Shivji, 2005). They were also used as agents for the collecting of necessary information and indulging in espionage activities

(Takure, 2009). The first category of important organisations of Africans formed in the 1910s to 1920s were welfare associations which brought black workers together in urban areas and on the mine compounds Kagoro (2004) as cited in (Takure,2009). The World War 1 era saw the development of organisations like burial societies, mutual aid assistance and was mainly composed of black people who were in the towns and mining compounds (Takure, 2009). In Rhodesia according to Moyo (1993: 105) as cited in Takure (2009:16) maintains that;

> In Rhodesia, which is the colonial name for Zimbabwe, according to Moyo (1993) these organisations were recognised under the Friendly Societies Act of 1891.These were mainly foreign Christian organizations which included the Catholic Commission for Justice and Peace and the Christian Union. The Rhodesian state tolerated them in so far as they provided material and moral support to the colonial government and did not question the treatment of the natives.

The period 1950 and 1970s also marked the entry of church based organisations that were formed to deal with social welfare issues but ended up being involved in the nationalist struggle (NGO Consultancy, 2005). The Christian Council was banned during the Unilateral Declaration of Independence in 1967 by the colonial governments. The Legislation that regulated the operation of the Civil Society Organisations was first passed in 1967 (NGO Consultancy, 2005). The Welfare Organisation Act was enacted two years after the unilateral declaration of independence (Shivji, 2005). The reason for the Act was to control over the Civil Society Organisations perceived to be aligned with the liberation struggle movements fighting the rule in Rhodesia (NGO Consultancy,

2005). The attainment of independence in 1980 brought with it a change in State-NGO relations (Takure, 2009). As argued by Dorman (2001) cited in Takure (2009), a transformation occurred which saw previously welfarist or political organisations turn to development, following the government's lead in reconstruction and de-racialisation. For much of the1980s and early 1990s, most Zimbabwean NGOs emphasised that on a day today basis they interacted regularly and informally with individual ministries within the new government (Takure, 2009). Their role was to rebuild the devastated Zimbabwe and they complemented the new government (NGO Consultancy, 2005).

The 1990s saw many changes as the Cold War ended and globalisation began to drive social and economic change (Ibrahim and Hulme, 2010). NGOs have been operating in Zimbabwe for quite a long time. Matenga (2001:23) elucidate that;

> Although the history of NGOs goes back to 1940s, it is largely since 1980 that they began receiving a high profile as development role players, offering an alternative development approach to poverty alleviation and long term sustainable development to poor communities in developing countries.

NGOs emerged in Binga in 1982 with a variety of poverty alleviation strategies (Save the Children, 2003). Thus the poverty alleviation strategies by these organisations sought to target individuals and groups who were marginalised, excluded, vulnerable and disadvantaged (Matenga, 2001). Some of the poverty alleviation strategies used by the NGOs incorporate the relief approach, the economically oriented development projects, the water and sanitation strategy and the livelihoods strategy (Matenga 2001). Generally, NGOs role in development is related to difficulties encountered by

government development interventions in rural and peri-urban areas in initiation of income generating activities and provision of services such as health, water and sanitation (Matenga, 2001).

3.4. NGOs IN ZIMBABWE

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 (Takure, 2009). 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 (Mpofu, 2011). NGOs in Zimbabwe are grouped into two categories and these are the international and local NGOs. The later ones they operate in more than one country while the later means to those NGOs who operate in Zimbabwe only. In Zimbabwe NGOs are also grouped according to the type of services they offer, they are divided into three categories and these are outlined below.

3.4.1. Welfare NGOs

These NGOs provide free goods and services to the disabled, poor, young and elderly people, for example Jairos Jiri Association, National Council for the Disabled Persons of Zimbabwe, Save the Children (UK), and CADEC (Sibanda, 1994).

3.4.2. Development NGOs

Development NGOs are those that aim to assist in the upliftment of the standards of various sectors of the society. Examples of such NGOs include CADEC, ORAP, Christian Care, KMTC, and Save the Children (UK) (Sibanda, 1994).

3.4.3. Environment NGOs

These NGOs deal with the natural resources conservation, animation, management and attempt to increase them through exploring various alternative cross breeding. Examples of such NGOs are CAMPFIRE, Africa 2000, and ZERO (Sibanda, 1994).

3.5. SAVE THE CHILDREN (UK)

Save the Children (UK) was founded by two sisters , Eglantyne Jebb and Dorothy Buxton at the end of the World War 1 in 1919 (Slim and Sellick, 2002). It began as a European agency that set orphanages and refugee camps for displaced families in 1919 (Slim and Sellick, 2002). In 1922, the Save the Children Fund turned into Russian Famine by saving an estimated 1 million children's lives and took on a global role (Slim and Sellick, 2002). Throughout the 1930s and 1940s continued working with children affected by both World War1 and World War 2 and this led to the International Convention on Refugees, pioneering support for refugees' rights to travel and work (Save the Children, 2002). During the Korean War in the 1950s, Save the Children swathe change and attitude from seeing children as helpless victims to resilient and resourceful individuals (Slim and Sellick, 2002). The 1960s saw a change in the political stance of aid agencies, with more radical and confrontational approach. These agencies

became more crucial forces for changing public opinion. In 1970 as a result, Save the Children saw the shift from largely female, ideological driven directorship towards a more practical and logistical operation stressing almost military organisation in the field (Save the Children, 2002). The 1980s were dominated by natural disasters; the fund became more involved in rescuing children from famine instead of war. Save the Children pioneered the practice of monitoring climatic, market prices and infant mortality data from vulnerable areas. The balance swung back towards a more political interpretation of disaster with organisation's major campaign of the 1990s against child soldiers (Slim and Sellick, 2002).

3.6. CATHOLIC DEVELOPMENT COMMISSION (CADEC)

CADEC known as Caritas Zimbabwe was founded in 1972 by the Rhodesia Archbishop's Conference to aid development and respond to unrest and conflict (Hamadziripi, 2001**).** CADEC was also known as Commission for Social Services and Development (CSSD) (Jerie, 2010). The name CSSD was changed to CADEC in 1985, but the change did not lead a change in principles and core business of the organisation (Hamadziripi, 2001). From the beginning the organisation defined itself as an arm of the Catholic Church. CADEC strives to increase justices, fight poverty, discrimination and violence. The major work of CADEC involves working with orphans, and the two million people infected with HIV/ AIDS and their families (Hamadziripi, 2001). The development aspect in the name points to the Church's mission in the field of all the facets of human development. The rationale behind its inception is captured in the social teachings of

the Catholic Church, which emphasize that the social message of the gospel must not be considered a theory but a basis and motivation for action (Jerie, 2010). Most of the programmes offered by CADEC have its focus on the achievement of the millennium development goals especially in marginalised areas. Hence the focus of CADEC is on long-term food security, improving access to clean water, entrepreneurship through micro-projects, gender equity and equality, and natural disaster preparedness (Hamadziripi, 2001). CADEC meets a number of challenges in its operations that hinder the smooth flow of development processes (Jerie, 2010). All CADEC personnel in Zimbabwe work under the direction and guidance of the Bishop of their diocese (Hamadziripi, 2001).

3.7. KULIMA MBOBUMI TRAINING CENTRE (KMTC)

KMTC is a community based organisation that was formed in 1990. The term *Kulima Mbobumi* is derived from Tonga meaning, agriculture is life. KMC is mainly funded by Zimbabwe Farmers Union. KMTC is mainly concerned with improving the agricultural skills of the people living in Binga by offering them training and information. Apart from that, KMTC distribute farm implements to disadvantaged families like draught power, mould board ploughs, seeds and fertilisers. Furthermore, KMTC gives the residents in Binga the information and about conserving soils and other natural resources. KMTC operates in all wards of Binga. Below is a table showing the classification of NGOs that are part of the research, their programmes and the areas they cover.

Table.3:1 A summary of the strategies implemented by CADEC, Save the Children (UK) and KMTC in Binga.

Organisation	Category	Programmes	Coverage
CADEC	Development and Welfare NGO	- Food distribution - Water and sanitation - Social transfers - Distribution of farm implements like fertiliser - HIV/AIDS	All the 21 wards in Binga
Save the Children (UK)	Development and Welfare	- Orphans and Vulnerable - Schools programmes - Food distribution - HIV/AIDS programme - Information dissemination - Agriculture	21 wards in Binga
KMTC	Development NGO	- Distributing farm implements - Information dissemination	21 wards in Binga

		of information about agriculture • HIV/ AIDS programme	

3.8. NGO BILL IN ZIMBABWE

The NGO Bill outlines the rules and regulations that govern the running of NGOs in Zimbabwe. The NGO Bill is a successor of the Private Voluntary organisation (PVO) Act No 63 of 1966 (International Bar Association, 2004). The PVO Act remained on the statute book even through independence era and the commencement of the Zimbabwean Constitution. The PVO Act was repealed because it limited civil liberties. The difference between the NGO Bill and the PVO Act is that the new Bill tightens the surveillance and control mechanisms of government on NGO over the already substantial government powers of control in the PVO Act. The definition of NGO is made wider than in the PVO Act, the NGO Bill eliminate exemptions from registration in the PVO Act. In the Bill there are new prohibitions against the registration of foreign NGOs and access to foreign funding of local NGOs engaged in "issues of governance". It increases the imbalances in composition of the NGO Council in favour of government versus NGO representatives , augments the Council's and Minister's powers to regulate the internal affairs of associations, and imposes new requirements on NGOs. The Bill improves on the PVO Act in providing an appeal process against at least some

decisions (Human Rights, 2004).The NGO Bill in Zimbabwe is criticised for being too stringent and limiting the freedom of NGOs and thereby negatively affection the rate which NGOs are funded. The following part of the research concentrates much more on the politics in the Zimbabwe linking it to the operation of NGOs.

3.9. POLITICS AND NGOs IN ZIMBABWE

Due in part to a brutal colonial history and a prolonged period of white-minority rule, violence is an established feature of Zimbabwean politics (United States Institute of Peace, 2003). While coercion was used, to brutally repress political opponents, it was merely one element of a variety of legislative and policy tools that comprised a broader nation-building project (Dorman, 2001). The 1896 Chimurenga (war of liberation), the first attempt to throw off colonial rule, gave rise to a mythology and language of war. In the second Chimurenga; the war for Zimbabwe's independence from colonial rule (late 1960s and 1970s); combatants used typical guerrilla warfare tactics (Dorman, 2001). The white-minority Rhodesian government brutally retaliated and the war took an immense toll on the population. Since Zimbabwe's independence in 1980, the ruling Zimbabwe African National Union–Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF) government has used its anti-colonial legacy and its role in the war of liberation to build a nationalist platform with a stated commitment to rectify colonial injustices, a theme that garners support from many leaders in developing countries and Zimbabwe's rural populace (United State Institute of Peace, 2003). The ongoing Chimurenga three that started in 1999, which is

characterised by farm invasions and land redistribution of land is also characterised by force and violence (United State Institute of Peace, 2003).

With the beginning of the new millennium 2000 politics in Zimbabwe changed dramatically, culminating in the constitutional referendum in February 2000 and the election in June 2000. As clearly explained by (Dorman, 2001) after 1997 NGOs and other social groups formed an alternative coalition which fundamentally challenged the ruling party's authority in the referendum of February 2000. There are several civil society organisations (CSOs) or non-governmental organisations (NGOs) operating in the democracy and governance arena in Zimbabwe. As further argued by Makumbe (2009), several civil society organisations and NGOs about 40 of them came together in 1997 and formed the National Constitutional Assembly (NCA). The NCA was instrumental in pressurising the ruling party to agree to institute the abortive constitutional reform process that resulted in the draft constitution so resoundingly rejected by the people in February 2000. The NCA itself declined to participate in the government-appointed constitutional reform process (Makumbe, 2009).The ruling party ZANU-PF experienced its first strong opposition in years as clearly explained by Makumbe (2009:11) that the Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) was formed in 1999 as an opposition party to the Zimbabwe African National Union - Patriotic Front (Zanu-PF). According to Idasa (2011), the MDC was made up of many civic groups who campaigned for the "No" vote in the 2000 constitutional referendum, which would limit a president's service to two terms, before the introduction of a Prime Minister, as well as giving legal immunities to the State.

In the 2000 parliamentary elections, the MDC won 57 of the 120 seats up for election. This marked the first time that an opposition party had achieved more than a handful of seats since the merger of ZANU and ZAPU in 1988 (United States Institute of Peace, 2003). This changed the whole set-up in Zimbabwe. NGOs began to see the need to be critical of the government whilst the government started questioning the existence of the NGOs (Makumbe, 2009). Raftopoulos (2001) as cited in Chakawakarika (2011) noted that some NGOs developed a more openly critical political stance against the state, particularly on the issue of constitutional reform. The development did not mean that such NGOs had completely discarded their more cautious political strategy towards the state.

The ruling party attitudes to NGOs, church and unions were affected by their involvement in the constitutional debate and the parliamentary election in June 2000 and also by the prospect of the presidential election in 2002 (Chakawakarika, 2011). Notwithstanding these comments, Zimbabwean civil society is dynamic and vibrant in the political arena. Policy advocacy is one of the various ways in which public participation in matters of national governance is undertaken by civil society organisations. Government usually strenuously resists efforts by civic groups to change some policies, which often results in confrontation by way of street demonstrations, rallies and job boycotts. Numerous civic leaders have had running battles with the state coercive apparatus, but the state has not always had its own way (Makumbe, 2009). Most civic groups receive generous funding from donors or 'partners' from Western democracies such as Europe and North America. Because they focus mainly on

democracy issues, governance and human rights, these organisations are generally viewed by the ruling party as serving the interests of so-called Western imperialism (NANGO, 2009). Naturally, civic groups deny these accusations and claim to represent the people's interests against a regime that has long since stopped governing and has embarked on ruling with an iron fist while negating, if not reversing, the democratic development of Zimbabwe (Makumbe, 2009:12). On the other hand, according to NANGO (2009), the operating environment for civil society in Zimbabwe has for a long time not favoured the growth of this sector neither did it promote a conducive environment for effective and efficient service delivery. In spite of the fact that civil society in Zimbabwe has rescued the country from its economic doldrums; civil society continues to suffer from unfair treatment from politicians and government officials (NANGO, 2009). Thus, instead of acknowledging and appreciating the role that civil society has been playing over the years both in the pre and post independent Zimbabwe, civil society has suffered a lot in the hands of politicians (NANGO, 2009). Today in Zimbabwe the government has been so sceptical about the operation of NGOs and the civil society sector at large as a result of their involvement in politics. As explained below, the relationship between NGOs and the state in Africa is full of mistrust and this affect the way they deliver their (NGOs) services.

3.10. NGOs AND THE STATE IN AFRICA

NGOs first came to complement the role of the state and were regarded as marginal actors (Matenga, 2001). NGOs were seen as gap fillers, by complementing the role of the state especially after the state was independent. As a result NGOs worked hand in

hand with the state. Their role gradually changed with time moving from simple gap fillers in service delivery to important agents of development. Therefore, a change in their role meant a change in the way they collaborated with the state (Fonjong, 2007). Both the state and the NGOs are involved in development projects. Development is a dynamic process and that NGOs do not operate in isolation from other development agents, especially not from the state which alone determines and sets out policy objectives of a nation. Tandon (1997:4) argues that;

> For a person to understand the role of the NGOs, voluntary institutions, citizen's initiatives, neighborhood groups, development organisations in the contemporary society we need to approach the questions of these institutions from a different perspective. We need to understand the relationship between the state and the civil society in order to situate the role of NGOs and voluntary development in that context.

In other words understanding the relationship between the states is of great importance in the field of development. In most cases the civil society sector is viewed by the state as an obstacle to progress or enemies of the state and is slowly replaced by various agencies and developments of the state intending to perform similar functions (Tandon, 1997). Again the state does not trust NGOs and this has made it difficult for the state and the NGOs to work together effectively. NGOs are viewed by the state as a form of imperialism aiming at weakening the state power. Ulimwengu (2007:11) clearly explains this mistrust and suspicion clearly;

> African states generally mistrust NGOs and other non-state actors for a variety of reasons. These include the suspicion that NGOs are invading traditionally government territory, arrogating to themselves roles that are the preserve of the state, thus, undermining their authority and discrediting them. Their dependency on foreign funding has led to the suspicion as to their real motivation, the suspicion that they are really

"Trojan Horses" doing bidding for their funders, who may have interests inimical to those of their states.

The President of Zimbabwe Robert Mugabe in 2008 highlighted about the mistrust Zimbabwe as state is having about NGOs. The NGOs are viewed as a form of a government in the background a formal state. This is indicated in Chakawarika (2011:1) NGOs that;

We have now a phenomenon of NGOs, or shall I call them phenomena, for they really are a type of government in the background of a formal government. I don't know whether this creature is for the better or for the worse, but in our country we have seen a situation where they have exceeded their terms of reference, and perhaps we might have to reconsider the advisability of having NGOs.

Apart from that as Baccaro (2001) argues, there are always question marks about the source of funding of NGOs. Furthermore, NGOs are economically and ideologically controlled by the Western donors whose funds have some conditionals on the NGOs not seriously challenging the status quo, thereby creating a new petite bourgeoisie of NGOs bureaucrats benefiting from rich salaries and opportunities for international travelling while genuinely grassroots, radical movements are deprived of potential leaders (Baccaro,2001).

The shift from their roles, lack of trust and their sources of funding has made them to be at loggerheads with the African states. The poor relationship between the state and civil

society has led to the dramatic increase in poverty (Baccaro, 2001). The DFID (1990:1) as cited in DFID (2001) argues that, the dramatic increase in the magnitude of rural poverty worldwide during the 1980s is an indictment of government and international development institutions in terms of counter-productive policies poorly executed development programmes and lack of transparent integrity and public accountability.

3.11. CONCLUSION

The NGOs operation and formation is influenced by different theories. The origin of NGOs can be traced from the 19th and 20th Centuries. Their role mostly was to assist in the welfare and in fighting against the colonial governments. After independence NGOs in the new Zimbabwe worked together with the new government to rebuild the country. They mostly concentrated on marginalised areas development and welfare. In the 1990s in Zimbabwe following the failure of the Economic Structural Adjustment programmes saw the manifestation of many NGOs that specialised in many fields like the advocacy, welfare, information dissemination, agriculture, health and education. The change in their roles meant the change in the way they related with the government. In Zimbabwe the change in politics as well as the involvement in politics eroded the good relationship between NGOs and the government. Today many NGOs found themselves without having any relationship with the state they operate in because of their involvement in politics. NGOs are guided by the NGOs Bill which seems to be too stringent on their operation.

CHAPTER 4:
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The major objective of this study is to evaluate the effectiveness of NGOs' strategies in poverty alleviation in the rural areas of Binga. Of great importance, the research seeks to find out the strategies used by NGOs in Binga and to find out how far the NGOs have achieved their goal of development in Binga. Another objective of the study is to come up with some recommendations that can help alleviate poverty in Binga when implemented. The research also tries to find out how poverty is being contextualised by both NGOs and the users of NGOs services. This chapter presents a summary of Binga District and later will give an overview of Manjolo and Kabuba wards. The same chapter focuses on the description of the study areas, research methodology, the population, the sampling methods, research design, data collection description, data analysis and the limitations of the study. The research will give a conclusion on the information that was observed from both the wards as well as the respondents especially about the applicability of the NGOs strategies. The ethical consideration of the research will form part of this chapter.

4.2. BINGA DISTRICT

As indicated in Chapter 1, Binga District is dominated by the Tonga speaking people and have a population of 118824 (CADEC, 2005). There are 21 wards in Binga District[1]. For the purpose of this research only two wards are chosen and they are described in detail below. Binga have inhospitable conditions ranging from high temperatures, poor rainfall, tsetse flies, tick borne diseases and poor soils which are not suitable for producing crops. As a result the district falls under region 5 of the farming regions in Zimbabwe (Basilwizi, 2010). The whole district is prone to drought hence people in Binga only plant drought resistant crops like sorghum, millet and rapoko. Poverty, the main cause of vulnerability to food insecurity, is one of the defining features of the Zambezi Valley (Basilwizi, 2010).

4.2.1. An Overview of Manjolo and Kabuba Wards

Manjolo Ward is found at the southern part of Binga, while Kabuba ward in found at the northern-east part of Binga District. Manjolo is ward number seven. There are 11 NGOs working in Manjolo[2]. The choice of these two wards was based on quite a number of factors. These factors included the accessibility, rainfall patterns, the nature of poverty and the strategies implemented to alleviate poverty by NGOs in these two wards. The wards though found in one district have different geographical locations. Manjolo ward is situated 20 kilometres away from Binga Growth Point or administrative centre and 25

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[1] The 21 wards in Binga District :Manjolo, Lubimbi, Sikalenge,Kabuba,Dobola, Sinampande, Siachilaba, Simatelele, Sianzundu, Pashu, Sinamagonde,Sinansengwe, Sinakoma, Saba-Lubanda,Tinde,Pashu, Sinansegwe, Nabusenga, Sinampande, Tinde and Kariangwe

[2] NGOs operating in Manjolo and Kabuba Wards: Save the Children (Uk), European Micro-Finance Project, CADEC, Binga Trees, KMTC, Ntengwe, Christian Care, Heifer International, UNICEF, Binga AIDS Council, MS Zimbabwe

kilometres from the Zambezi River. Because of its proximity to the mighty Zambezi River most people in Manjolo are fishermen either informal or formal. It is one of the poorest wards in Binga District. Manjolo Ward has one primary school and one secondary school. The whole ward has neither a clinic nor a hospital. Community members therefore use Binga District Hospital which is 20 kilometres away. Manjolo Ward is under Chief Sikalenge and is situated along the tarred road that branches from the Bulawayo-Victoria road (Save the Children UK, 2003), see Appendix.E.Photograph C.

People in Manjolo ward are subsistence farmers, meaning that they only produce food enough to feed their families as indicated in Appendix E. Photograph B. Some families in Manjolo have livestock though of a limited numbers. They cultivate crops during the rainy season on small plots. The ward is arid and has got poor soils that are not good for crop production; hence, people produce food that is adequate to feed them from May to August every year. The ward receives little rainfall. Manjolo ward mostly depends on other wards for food supply especially Lubu, Sinamagonde, Lubimbi and Kabuba (Save the Children UK, 2003). Therefore, poor people rarely manage to buy grains from other wards and they starve. During food shortages, some people practice barter trade mostly they exchange their livestock for maize or millet, and sorghum. Moreover, people depend on wild fruits like baobab fruits. Organisations like Save the Children and CADEC distribute food in the same ward throughout the year. As a result of this, Manjolo tends to be a centre of attraction and a testing ground for NGOs.

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Kabuba Ward on the other hand is one of the wards with three quarters (¾) of uneducated people because of shortages and inaccessibility of schools. It is ward number 17 and is the biggest ward in Binga (CADEC, 2005). It is made up of Lusulu, Chuuzya, Gwangwaliba and Nakaluba. The same NGOs that operate in Manjolo are the ones that operate in Kabuba. People in Kabuba are also farmers and produce food for their families and for selling to other wards as well as to the Grain Marketing Board (GMB) and other parts of the country. People in Kabuba also cultivate cotton which they sell to the Cotton Marketing Board of Zimbabwe (CMBZ). The ward has got good soils and receives good rainfall throughout the rainy season (Marten, 2010).

Kabuba Ward is located 100 kilometres from Binga Growth Point. The ward is isolated and linked to Binga main road with a poor dust road. The ward is infested with wild animals because of its nearness to the Chizarira National Park. The whole ward has got one clinic found in Lusulu and it is located about 15 kilometres from other homesteads. People from Kabuba Ward also suffer from shortages of water especially during winter and summer seasons. Appendix E.1. Photograph A, shows a borehole in Kabuba that service 50 homes. Villagers walk 14 kilometres to and from a borehole. There are no dams and perennial rivers in the ward for livestock water the available ones are silted, as a result they no longer hold water for a long time. During summer, livestock drink water thrice a week and people have timetables for bathing or washing their utensils. The whole ward has 4 primary schools and these are Kabuba, Chuuzya, Gwangwaliba and Nakaluba and these schools are not easily accessed by other areas. In Kabuba

most children start their primary level at the age of 7 or 8 years because these primary schools are located about 10 kilometres away from other homes. Other children attend secondary school at Lusulu Secondary School which is 11 kilometres away and was only built in 2001 (CADEC, 2005). Lusulu is a semi developed service centre and does not have banks (Save the Children UK, 2003).

4.3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The main aim of the study is to evaluate the poverty alleviation strategies implemented by NGOs and to find out how poverty is being conceptualised Binga by both NGOs and the community members. After finding the alleviation strategies implemented by NGOs, the research seeks to answer the questions like why is poverty deepening in Binga despite the number of NGOs operating in the district. Therefore, the study used a qualitative approach since it seeks descriptive data. A qualitative research is an umbrella term covering an array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate, and otherwise come to terms with the meaning of naturally occurring phenomena in the social world (Welman.*et. al,* 2005). Qualitative research was chosen because it seeks to understand human experiences and their behaviours. The other reason for using the qualitative research is to give a definition of poverty as perceived by both the NGOs and the users of the services, which are the community members. Again, qualitative research has been adopted because this research is exploratory and inductive in nature hence its findings are beyond anticipation of the researcher. Moreover, the discourse of poverty used in this research may help reveal the socially

constructed concept of poverty in Binga. The aims of qualitative research are to establish the socially constructed nature of reality, to stress the relationship between the researcher and the object of the study, as well as to emphasise the value laden nature of the inquiry (Wellman.*et. al*, 2005).

4.4. POPULATION

This study's population involves all the fourteen (14) NGOs[3] that operate in all the twenty one wards of Binga and all the people in Binga. A research population refers to the total set from which the individuals or units of the study are chosen (de Vos.*et. al,* 2005). Again, the research population sets boundaries on the study units and it refers to individuals who possess specific characteristics under study. Population can also be defined as the theoretically specified aggregation of study elements (Babbie, 2007). Welman.e*t. al*, (2005) defines a population as a group of potential participants to whom you want to generalise the results of the study. Wellman.*et. al,*(2005) further view the population as the study object that consists of individuals, groups, organisations, human products and events, or the conditions to which they are exposed. It is a full set of cases from which a sample is taken (Welman.*et. al,* 2005).

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[3] The fourteen NGOs operating in Binga are: Save the Children (UK), Catholic Development Commission (CADEC), Kulima Mbobumi Training Centre (KMTC), Ntengwe for Community Development, United Nations for Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), Tonga Online, Basilwizi Trust, Campaign for Female Education (CAMFED), Adventist Drought Relief Aid (ADRA), Binga Trees Trust, Heifer International, Binga Craft Centre and Communal Areas Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE), LEAD, Heifer International.

Nevertheless, the study was unable to study the total population with respect to this attribute as it is too large, or simply unavailable for study. The study consequently used a sample (a relatively small section) from within the population of Binga, based on the sampling procedure outlined below.

4.5. SAMPLING METHODS

In each ward two villages were selected randomly and ten respondents (five youths and five elderly) from each village were selected randomly also to avoid bias. The youth ranged from the age of 20 to 39 and the adults ranged from the age of 40 to 60. Youths and adults were chosen because NGOs have projects which target both the youth and the elderly. There were four focus groups discussions from each ward with five respondents each. Focus group discussions were conducted for easy management and engagement with the respondents. A small sample was chosen because including all the people in the research was going to be time consuming.

Four key informants were interviewed on a one-on-one basis. These included the chiefs in Manjolo, a headman in Kabuba, a representative from the Ministry of Gender and Youth Employment Creation, a representative from the Ministry of Social Welfare, a representative from Catholic Development Commission (CADEC) and Kulima Mbobumi Training Centre (KMTC). No information was gathered from Save the Children (UK).

An interview schedule was used to obtain information and to guide the in-depth interviews that were conducted with key informants and focus group discussions with community members. Secondary data was obtained from textbooks, NGOs reports, internet and journals concerning Binga to find out how NGOs view poverty in Binga and their intervention strategies.

Before gathering data from the respondents, sampling frames were obtained from the kraal heads in Manjolo and Kabuba. These were registers used by NGOs in the wards in order to select the beneficiaries and they are usually compiled by kraal heads or headmen. Obtaining sample frames from the kraal heads made it easier to choose the sample, than gathering people first in order do the sampling which was going to be time consuming and strenuous . In each ward a meeting was conducted at a central point. The researcher invited people by making announcements at the local churches. The main purpose of the meetings was to inform people about the research and to choose a central venue where they were going to meet. The researcher and two assistants prepared some cards with either a ''yes'' or ''no'' before conducting the meeting. Unlike using a computer to do the random sampling, cards were used. During the meetings in both wards, the research assistants put the cards in a hat everyone who attended the meeting provided they were in the books for kraal heads were asked to pick only one (1) card from the hat. The cards were 100, 40 were the ''yes'' and 60 were the ''nos''. Those who picked the cards written ''no'' did not participate in the research. The cards enabled the researcher to randomly select the respondents. Those who picked ''yes''

cards participated in the research. The participants were to meet at the community hall the following day for data collection.

A sample is a small representation or a subset of the entire population. In this research the sample was made up of forty (40) people who are the users of NGOs services. It also included the six (6) stakeholders that were interviewed on one on one. The most basic consideration when selecting a sample are its size and its representativeness. The selection of a sample is a very crucial stage. Results found from a sample can be generalised to the entire population. This means that the results that were obtained from this sample can be generalised to the whole of Binga. Welman.*et.al*, (2005:55) contends that, the issue of generalisability of the results from a research is very important in the sense that;

> It is only when the results can be generalised from a sample to a population that the results of the research have meaning beyond the limited setting in which they were originally obtained. This means that when results from a sample can only be applicable to people who participated in the original research and not to others. To have generalisable results a representative sample must be selected.

In a qualitative research there are no rules for sample. Sample size depends on what the researcher want to know, the purpose of the inquiry, what the stake is, what will be useful, what will have credibility, and what can be done with the remaining time and resources (Patton, 2002). Sarantakos (2000) as cited in de Vos 2005 describes sampling in qualitative research as being relatively limited, based on saturation, not

representative, the size not statistically determined, and involving low cost and less time.

Simple random sampling and judgemental sampling methods were used in the study. Simple random sampling is a sampling method in which each member of the population has the same chance of being included in the sample and each sample of a particular size has the same probability of being chosen (Welman.*et. al,* 2005). The former method is chosen because it reduces bias when selecting a sample. Welman.*et.al,* (2005) says that simple random sampling is representative of the population in the sense that it does not favour one unit of analysis over another. The sampling frame was obtained from the selected NGOs and assigned numbers and later a sample was chosen randomly.

Judgemental sampling on the other hand was used to select NGOs and wards that were to be part of the sample. The researcher had access to online reports of NGOs as a result was able to read them so that to have knowledge on the programmes of NGOs, though there was little information about the operation of NGOs in Binga specifically. Online resources were also used because there is less books on NGOs in Binga in libraries. NGOs that form parts of the sample were chosen according to the wards in which they operate as well as their programmes implemented in different wards. Only NGOs that are in the long term development phase (having more than five years) were

chosen. The chosen NGOs were informed about the research before going in the field by the District Administrator. The key informants were chosen purposively on the grounds of their roles in the villages or wards and were also sent letters to inform them about the research. Babbie (2007:93) states that sometimes it is appropriate to select a sample on the basis of knowledge of a population, in its elements, and the purpose of the study.

Three NGOs were chosen purposively, namely; Save the Children (UK), Catholic Development Commission (CADEC) and Kulima Mbobumi Training Centre (KMTC). Two wards (Manjolo and Kabuba) out of twenty one were selected purposively. These NGOs were purposively chosen because they have been operating in Binga for more than five years hence they fall under the long term development category. The Ministry of Social Welfare and the Ministry of Gender and Youth Employment were selected because of their close relationship with NGOs in Binga. Manjolo Ward is selected because of accessibility making it easy to attract more NGOs. Kabuba Ward on the other hand receives good rains and is classified under region three of the Zimbabwean farming regions but it continues to get food aid. Apart from that Kabuba Ward is the furthest ward and has very poor dust road that links it with other wards. The main purpose for choosing Kabuba Ward was to prove whether NGOs mostly favour accessible areas or not.

4.6. RESEARCH DESIGN

This study adopted the explanatory research design. Since this study seeks to dig deeper into people's attitudes, feelings and views about the implemented poverty alleviation strategies. The explanatory research design was the most appropriate since the research seeks to explain and answer questions like why poverty is deepening in Binga. Consequently, this evaluation focused on only two wards as case studies. Some of the reasons for focusing on two wards include the need for outcome comparison and getting a deeper view of what poverty means to NGOs and the people of Binga. Another reason for selecting two wards was to come out with accurate results since effort and financial resources were concentrated on a small area. At the same time, studying all the twenty-one wards was an expensive undertaking considering time and financial constraints**.**

Huysamen (1994) defines a research design as a plan or blueprint according to which data is collected to investigate the research hypothesis or question in the most economical manner. Welman.*et.al*, (2005) defines a research design as a plan according to which research participants are obtained and how information is collected from them. In the research design, the researcher describes what she or he is going to do with participants in order to be able to reach a conclusion about the research problem (Welman.*et. al,* 2005). A research design in other words illustrates a plan on how one intends to conduct the research from the formulation of the research problem to the writing of the final narrative. The chief purpose of the research design is to allow

the investigation to anticipate what appropriate research decisions should be made so as to increase the validity and reliability of the results.

4.7. DATA COLLECTION

The researcher before going in the field arranged with the District Administrator to have a meeting. The main purpose of the meeting was to request for permission to do a research in Binga and requesting the DA to link the researcher with CADEC, KMTC and Save the Children (UK). The researcher also requested a venue for Manjolo respondents from Ntengwe for Community Development. The data was collected using an interview schedule. An interview schedule was written in English and translated to Tonga. The interview schedule was translated to Tonga because Tonga is the main language used in Binga also most people are not educated hence they are not familiar with English. Holstein and Gubrium (1995) as cited in de Vos.*et.al,* (2005) explain that an interview schedule is a questionnaire written to guide interviews. Its main purpose is to provide pre-determined questions that might be used as an appropriate instrument to engage participants and designate the terrain. The interview schedule helps the researcher to think clearly about what he or she hopes the interview might cover. Also the interview schedules forces the researcher to think about difficulties that might be encountered, for example in terms of question wording or sensitive areas (de Vos.*et.al*, 2005 and Welman.*et.al*, 2005).

Both open and closed ended questions were written in the interview schedule. This type was preferred to closed questions in order not to limit the respondents in expressing their feeling about NGOs' operation within their communities. Questions in an interview schedule are arranged in a logical manner like having a proper way in which to address different areas and knowing sensitive areas. The researcher can think of appropriate questions related to each area in order to address the issue he or she is interested in (Smith.*et.al,*1995) as cited in (Wellman.*et.al,* 2005). Questions can be arranged from simple to complex and from broad to more specific schedule (Bailey, 1982). During the research the question in the interview schedule where divided into three themes ranging from simple to complicated ones.

In the interview schedule questions must be neutral and not leading. Open ended questions are encouraged for participants to express themselves freely. Also jargon and ambiguous words must be avoided as they may confuse respondents and prejudice. In this study the interview schedule was made clear by avoiding leading questions and ambiguous questions. The questions should also not be non judgemental and unbiased. Focused questions are also encouraged so that the interview can give specific information required for the purpose of the study (de Vos.*et.al,* 2005**).** The consent form and the interview guide that was used in the field are shown in the appendices**.**

Interviews in the form of focus groups and in-depth interviews with key informants were guided by the interview schedule. A focus group had five participants for easy interaction of participants. Kingry.*et. al*, (1990) defines a focus group as a carefully planned discussion designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive, non-threatening environment. Patton (2002) defines a focus group as an interview with a small group of people on a specific topic. Focus groups has also been defined by Fern (1982), Morgan and Spanish (1998) as small discussions addressing a specific topic, which usually involve 6 to 12 participants, either matched or varied on specific characteristics of interest to the researcher.

Furthermore Morgan (1997) as cited in Krueger (1998) describes focus groups as a research technique that collects information through group interaction on a topic designed by a researcher. Focus groups are suitable when multiple viewpoints or responses are needed on a specific topic (de Vos *.et. al,* 2005). Krueger (1998) says that, the purpose of interview focus group is to produce qualitative data and to provide insights into the attitudes, perceptions and opinions of participants.

Focus groups were selected to be used in the research because of their advantages that outweigh their disadvantages. The focus group is suitable for people with low literacy level. Most of old people in Binga do not read or write but they can be engaged in a discussion. The focus group also provides rich data through direct interaction

between the researcher and the respondents. Also spontaneous, participants not required to answer every question, able to build on one another's response. Apart from that, open recording allows participants to confirm their contribution. The focus groups are relatively easy to assemble, inexpensive and flexible in terms of format, types of questions and desired outcomes (Welman.*et.al,* 2005 and de Vos.*et. al,* (2007).

The limitations of the interview focus group require good facilitation skills that include ability to handle various characters respondents may display. ''expert'', ''quiet'', ''outside'', "friend", ''hostile'' (Welman.*et.al*, 2005). This means that within a group some people might be shy and quiet, some might start gossiping others or form some subgroups, others might not be willing to participate and other become dominant than the others. Two grannies in Manjolo Ward concentrated on gossiping others and this disrupted the functioning of their group. Possible non conformance, censoring, conflict avoidance for other unintended outcomes of the group process need to be addressed as part of the data analysis (Carey, 1995). Focus groups can also make some respondents not to express their feeling freely because they might be intimidated by the presence of other respondents in the group (Welman. *et .al*, 2005).

The researcher used in-depth interviews to obtain data from key informants. The in-depth interview refers to one on one interview or a "conversation with a purpose" merely extends and formalises conversation. This type of an interview has been chosen in this

research in order to enable the researcher to understand the experiences of people of Binga about poverty in Binga and the meaning they make out of that experience. Again the researcher did not want to disturb these key informants by calling a meeting. As a result going to their offices was suitable. The in-depth interview can be used to determine people's perceptions, facts, opinions, and their reactions to the initial findings and potential solutions (de Vos.*et.al,* 2005).The in-depth interviews has a disadvantage of lacking objective data.

The researcher used a camera to photograph members in the sample and the photographs are used as evidence about the poverty stricken population of Binga. Photographs will be used as evidence on the intensity and negative impacts of poverty on the people of Binga and they are attached as appendices. These three data collection techniques were a central means to assess the effectiveness of NGOs strategies in poverty alleviation in the rural areas of Binga.

4.8. DATA ANALYSIS

The researcher read repeatedly the notes taken during focus group discussions and interviews for editing. After reading the transcripts, the research came up with themes and patterns of categorising the information according to the questions on the interview schedule. Findings were categorised in three main themes: Questions to the respondents about NGOs and poverty in Binga, questions to key informants about NGOs and their poverty alleviation strategies and poverty in Binga, the questions to field

officers about NGOs, their strategies and poverty in Binga. The information was coded by use of abbreviations of key words. Coding involved the use of dummy variables that are punched into the computer for interpretation by the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software.

Data analysis is a process of gathering, modeling, and transforming data with the goal of highlighting useful information, suggesting conclusions, and supporting decision making (Wellman.*et.al,* 2005). Collected data was organised in a logical manner and backup copies of data were made.

4.9. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was limited by its focus on only two wards; the results obtained may not be applicable to other wards or other districts of Zimbabwe. Again the researcher could not manage to conduct an interview with the field worker from Save the Children (UK) for some reasons that were not mentioned.

The main challenges to the researcher included suspicion by respondents as they always live in fear because of the prevailing political situation in the country; as a result they may have withheld some relevant information. Furthermore, respondents thought that maybe the researcher was going to betray them to NGOs which would make NGOs to stop working in their areas as a result they withheld some information. Due to distance and poor modes of communication in Zimbabwe specifically in Binga, the

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researcher could not manage to get hold of the Chief in Kabuba in order to arrange a meeting with him. As a result the headman from the ward was interviewed on behalf of the chief. The ward is not accessible; the researcher had to walk 20 kilometres to Kabuba. Most of the rural people were illiterate and some respondents could not read the questions on the interview guide hence the research assistants read the questions and this was time consuming.

To deal with some of the spelt out problems, the researcher explained her presence in these communities. Two male trained research assistants who could speak Tonga were hired to avoid the problem of being undermined in a patriarchal society and to read for the illiterate respondents. The assistants were trained for three days and also assisted in the pilot study. The questions on the interview schedule were standardised into Tonga, the local language. Photographs taken during data collection were given to participants later as rewards. The photographs are attached as appendix to show the impact of poverty on the population of Binga. The researcher also gave the participants petroleum jelly as a token.

4.10. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical aspects of research were considered by informing the people about the research before data collection began by conducting meetings with village members. The researcher also used the headmen of the villages to inform people about the research. Use of pseudo names to avoid violation of privacy, anonymity and confidentiality will be

maintained at the highest level possible throughout the study. The researcher communicated with the District Administrator (DA), requesting permission to do a research in Binga and this indicated in appendix B. The D.A later communicated with the three NGOs explaining about the research to the responsible people. Letters of introduction from the university and the District Administrator were collected to seek permission to carry out the research in the villages and this is attached as appendix A. Participants were requested to sign consent forms prepared by the researcher. The copy of the consent form is attached as appendix C.

4.11. CONCLUSION

In summary this chapter was mainly concerned with methods that were used to collect data in the field. The research was covering two wards, Manjolo and Kabuba wards. Only twenty respondents were selected randomly from each ward to avoid bias. Three NGOs were chosen purposively depending on the areas they served in Binga. Limitations of the study are also written in the same chapter. The researcher faced transport in Kabuba challenges. Data collecting techniques were employed in the study because of their advantages they have. The researcher only managed to gather information from two organisations, from CADEC and KMTC. The next chapter deals with data presentation and data analysis.

Based on the researcher's observation the only difference between the two wards is their geographical location. In terms of the rate of development they are still very poor. Again in these two wards NGOs are misinterpreting the needs of the people. What

seem to be the core problems are not being addressed. The projects that are implemented in the district as a whole are not sustainable since they are not needed by the recipients. Kabuba Ward because of inaccessibility few NGOs are operating and it can be concluded that NGO do not favour unreachable places. As a result they fail to rich the poorest of the communities.

CHAPTER 5:

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter five of the research deals with the presentation and analysis of data that was collected from the field. Data was collected from Manjolo and Kabuba wards, Department of Social Welfare, Ministry of Gender, Youth Employment Creation, KMT and CADEC. The researcher spent two days in each ward. The data collected was analysed using the SPSS statistical analysis package for Windows. Due to the size of the sample which is small, the analysis was limited to frequency distribution tables and.

5.2. PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

5.2.1`.Descriptive Statistics

5.2.2. Demographics

Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	20-30	23	57.5	57.5	57.5
	40-60	17	42.5	42.5	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Research, March 2010*

The respondents interviewed consisted of the youth and adults. 20 youth falling between the ages of 20 to 39 were interviewed. There were 20 elderly people ranging from the age of 40 to 60. The reason for selecting this group of respondents was that NGOs have both programmes that target youth and the elderly of the society.

5.2.3. Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	15	37.5	37.5	37.5
	Female	25	62.5	62.5	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Research, March 2010*

There were 25 females and 15 males that were interviewed. Mostly NGOs in Binga work with both female and male clients.

5.2.4. Level of Education of the Respondents

The low level of literacy was attributed to factors like lack of money to go to secondary school. Women also mentioned that most parents favour to send male children to school and they view sending a girl child to school as a waste of money because girls

become pregnant or get married and this means that they do not plough back in their families. (*Field Research, March 2010).*

5.2.5. Employment Status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	attending school	5	12.5	12.5	12.5
	Unemployed	35	87.5	87.5	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Research, March 2010*

The majority of the respondents (87%) are not employed due to lack of skills, and others are old. On the other hand, the minority of the respondents (12.5 %) were attending secondary level schooling and with others having their fees being paid by NGOs. The reason for the high unemployment rate among the respondents is that they do not possess any skills which can make them employable. Most of the respondents mentioned that because they do not possess any skills, they find it better to stay at home looking after their families and livestock.

5.2.6. Sources of Income

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Fishing	5	12.5	12.5	12.5
	Farming	33	82.5	82.5	95.0
	IGPs	2	5.0	5.0	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Research, March 2010*

A smaller percentage of respondents (12.5%) indicated that they depend on fishing from the Zambezi River for a livelihood. The majority of the respondents (95%) indicated that they depend on agriculture for a living. The respondents that do farming mainly practice it at subsistence level and they mentioned that they need to be empowered with agricultural skills, where as those who are fishing do not have licences to do so they also mentioned that they need to be assisted to get the licences. One respondent in Manjolo reported that, "*kulikabotu kujata baswi kulakukkala luzutu. Kuti ndajata baswi bingi inga nduzya ndajana mali yabana baccikolo*". This means that, "It is better to do fishing than being seated doing nothing. When I catch more fish I sell them and get school fees for my children". In places like Manjolo and Kabuba the majority of people (95%) are subsistence farmers. A smaller number of respondents (5.0%) rely on selling sculptures and basket weaving. The respondents who depend on selling sculptures and baskets indicated that they need help with marketing their products.

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5.2.7. Knowledge about NGOs

All the respondents (100%) knew well Save the Children (UK), CADEC and KMTC. The respondents agreed that these organisations came to them to introduce themselves. Again all the respondents (100%) indicated that Save the Children, CADEC and KMTC were operating in Binga for more than 5 years. Furthermore, all the respondents (100%) had more information about the projects for Save the Children, CADEC and KMTC. The respondents indicated that organisations like Save the Children (UK) and CADEC distributed food in the whole of Binga. They also indicated that KMTC distributed agricultural implements (*Field Research, March 2010*).

5.2.8. Satisfaction by NGO Strategies

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Satisfied	11	27.5	27.5	27.5
	not satisfied	29	72.5	72.5	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Research, March 2010*

The majority of the respondents (72.5%) pointed out that they were not satisfied by the strategies implemented by NGOs whilst 27.5% of the responds expressed their satisfaction about the strategies implemented by NGOs.The main reason that were given by those who were not satisfied by NGOs strategies was that NGOs' strategies do

not address their needs. They mentioned that they need developmental strategies than relief ones. The respondents both in Manjolo and Kabuba mentioned that they do not understand clearly the criteria used by NGOs to select their beneficiaries. They added on that NGOs only select few people as their beneficiaries leaving the rest of the community members not helped. Moreover, the respondents mentioned that as a result of this, serious conflicts arise amongst community members especially between those who get the aid and those who are not beneficiaries. This was well explained by a respondent in Manjolo that;

> "I am poor I have nothing. When NGOs officers came to our village they wrote other people's names they said am rich because my son is at South Africa I nearly died of hunger every time I was told that my child is working, my name even to date does not appear in their books. Every time I ask myself, what these organisations are doing in Binga because they are not helping the majority?"

Apart from that the majority of the respondents indicated that they are not happy by NGOs strategies in Binga because they are not sustainable. They mentioned that sometimes NGOs' programmes are of great value to the community but they do not last for a long time. The respondents in Kabuba indicated about the farm implements distribution programme of KMTC, which it is a very good programme but the fact that it did not last for a long time in their ward it only benefited a few people.

5.2.9. How do You Conceptualise Poverty in Binga

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	poverty of lack of food and clothes	17	42.5	42.5	42.5
	poverty as lack of infrastructure e.g. school	12	30.0	30.0	72.5
	3	8	20.0	20.0	92.5
	4	3	7.5	7.5	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Research, March 2010*

A small percentage (7.5%) percent agreed that poverty in Binga is lack of food and clothes. The largest number of respondents (92%) perceived poverty as lack of infrastructure and inaccessibility of social amenities. The respondents who disagreed that poverty is only lack of food mentioned that social amenities were more important than food distribution. Another respondent explained how she lost her child to malaria because she could not manage to send him to clinic. She said,

> "Mwana wakandiciisilwa mansiku mubili wakalikupya kalikumvwa mutwe.Kukumutola kukkilinika ku Lusulu kwakali kule alimwi nsikwe ciikkociikala. Musule akayindi kanini mwana wakamana mumaboko angu."

This means that,

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> "My child got sick at night, his temperature became was very high and he had a severe headache. To go to Lusulu clinic was very far and I do not have a scorch cart. Within a small time, my child died in my hands."

In Kabuba they mentioned their serious threat is lack of clean water. As shown in appendix E1. Photograph A, 50 homesteads depend on one borehole. The community members also face a shortage of water; the whole ward has only two boreholes which are also 14 km to and from other homesteads. During dry season, cows and goats only drink water thrice a week, same-applies to people, they also make timetables for bathing and sometimes do not clean their utensils after using them, which poses a serious health hazards. In Manjolo they mentioned that though they do have adequate water, it is not clean because they get it from uncovered wells. The respondents stressed that development in Binga is only going to be achieved by NGOs if they start assisting in building schools, hospitals, more boreholes and clinics. The respondents also said that poverty is being uneducated and lack of livestock especially cows to plough the fields. One granny in Manjolo when asked to explain poverty in her own views, she said,

> "If you don't have clothes, draught power and a mould board plough like me you are poor. Secondly if you are not educated and you are not employed such that you don't have money to send your children to school, you are *poor.* In Manjolo there are few people who send their children to schools and who have got draught power.

5.2.10. Poverty Indicators in Binga

The respondents (100%) agreed that shortage of hospital is a sign that there is poverty in Binga. The respondents mentioned that the whole district have got one hospital and

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is located far away from other wards which makes it to be inaccessible. Furthermore, they mentioned that lack of skills amongst community members which make them to be unemployable was also a poverty indicator. Again, they added on that, inability to send children to school and lack of farm implements as well as lack of draught power is indicators of poverty in the Binga. Respondents in Kabuba reported that their children normally start going to primary school at the age of 7 because Kabuba or other primary schools are very far (*Field Work Research, March 2010*)

5.2.11. Poverty Levels in Binga over the Past Five Years?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	7	17.5	17.5	17.5
	No	33	82.5	82.5	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Research, March 2010*

The majority of the respondents (82.5%) indicated that poverty in Binga is deepening because even the people who were better-offs of the community have joined the poorest of the community. On the other hand a smaller percentage (17.5%) indicated that poverty has decreased in Binga for the past 5 years because NGOs like Save the Children are distributing more food, so people are no longer starving anymore. A respondent in Manjolo mentioned that;

"nothing has improved so far. What I have noticed for the past five years is that, the people who were better off, having joined the very poorest of the society, and I do not understand why"

The deepening and widening of poverty in Binga was attributed to the strategies that are implemented in Binga by NGOs. The respondents indicated that NGOs have been using the same strategies to deal with poverty in Binga and the same strategies are not impacting the lives of people positively.

5.2.12. NGOs and Addressing Poverty in Binga

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	13	32.5	32.5	32.5
	No	27	67.5	67.5	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Research, March 2010*

A smaller percentage (32.5%) of the respondents mentioned that NGOs are addressing poverty especially by distributing food in Binga during times of drought. On the other hand, the majority of the respondents (67.5%) disagreed that NGOs are addressing poverty. They argued that if poverty was being addressed by NGOs in Binga, people were going to be independent and empowered now. The respondents gave an example about the fertiliser distribution programme that it is not addressing their needs. They mentioned that CADEC has a programme of fertilizer distribution. Fertilizer is being

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distributed in Siachilaba Ward every year, the most arid ward in the district. The community members find the fertilizer to be of less important to them as a result most people sell the fertilizer in Zambia. Respondents also mentioned about some cases whereby people immediately after getting food from CADEC or Save the Children or any other organisations involved in food distribution, they exchange it for alcohol or for money.

5.2.13. The Selection of Projects Implemented in Manjolo and Kabuba

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Consultation	11	27.5	27.5	27.5
	no consultation	6	15.0	15.0	42.5
	3	23	57.5	57.5	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Research, March 2010*

The majority of the respondents (57.5%) indicated that NGOs just implement some of their projects without consulting them and that is the reason they are not addressing the needs of the poor. On the other hand a smaller percentage (27.5%) indicated that NGOs do consult them before implementing their projects. The respondents mentioned that NGOs rarely consult them before implementing a programme. They argued that, if NGOs were really consulting them before implementing their projects, they were going

to be able to know the really needs of the community members, who are their clients. The respondents indicated that they were not quite sure about the criteria used by NGOs to select their strategies.

5.2.14. Benefit Accrued from NGO Strategies

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not benefited a lot	38	95.0	95.0	95.0
	Average	2	5.0	5.0	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Research, March 2010*

The majority of the respondents (95%) mentioned that they are not benefiting from NGOs' programmes because the same programmes are not addressing their needs. In Kabuba they indicated that programme like food distribution are not benefiting them a lot since they produce more food on their own. The minor percentage (5%) of the respondents agreed that they are benefiting from the NGOs' programmes, and these were respondents in Manjolo. Most of them were elderly people who are no longer able to work on their own. Even the respondents in Manjolo highlighted that even if they need relief aid almost every year, they also need empowerment. The respondents pointed out that there was a linkage between the NGOs' strategies and dependency

syndrome in the district. They mentioned that continuous food distributions make them to be reluctant and wait for hand outs from NGOs everytime.

5.3. Questions for Key informants

5.3.1. Need for Improvement of NGOs' Strategies

There was an overwhelming agreement by the respondents (100%) that NGOs' programmes need to be changed because the current ones are not fully addressing the needs of the people in Binga. They mentioned that most NGOs in Binga are duplicating the projects as a result their programmes lack diversity. They gave an example that, CADEC, Save the Children, and KMTC they all have a programme of distributing seeds, CADEC and Save the Children also distributed food and KMTC and CADEC on the other hand had the same project of fertilizer distribution. They stated that even though the NGOs keep on duplicating their project, little has improved as far as poverty alleviation is concerned. Considering the rate poverty is deepening in Binga all the respondents (100%) indicated that NGOs are not addressing the issue of poverty in Binga. They all mentioned that though NGOs are striving to deal with poverty in Binga, their strategies are not addressing the needs of the poor in Binga. Apart from that the key informants indicated that NGOs in Binga are dealing with the symptoms of poverty and not its root causes. They added on that NGOs need to understand the history and root cause of poverty in Binga (*Field Work Research, March 2010*).

5.3.2. Do You Think NGOs Reach the Poorest of the Poor in Binga?

All the key informants (100%) indicated that NGOs do not manage to reach the poorest of the poor in Binga because of various reasons. They indicated that the poorest people mostly are left out of the NGOs' programmes because of the inaccessibility of the villages they stay in. They indicated that especially during rainy season, it is hard to reach some places because they are not linked with proper roads and the others do not have bridges, therefore when the rivers are flooded no vehicles can reach such places. Again, it was indicated that in Binga the roads are poor with the majority being dust roads full of bad potholes; as a result it is also difficult for NGOs' vehicles to travel on such areas. As indicated in Appendix. Photograph. C, this shows the only tarred road in Binga full of potholes making it difficult for vehicles to travel especially during rainy season. As a result NGOs choose a central place for the meeting which might not be central to other homesteads. Apart from that, the poorest of the poor were sometimes left out from the NGOs programmes because of the selection criteria of NGOs. They mentioned that because NGOs solely depend on kraal heads who might sometimes not manage to write down the names of all the needy people. It was raised that mostly NGOs do not give themselves time to do home visits to some of their clients who need special attention such clients remain very poor. These include people living with disabilities, very old people, child headed households and sometimes female headed households. Failure to discover such people was mainly attributed to NGOs offices being located very far from their service users. They indicated that NGOs need to decentralise their offices in Binga. It was argued that, NGOs in Binga only have contact with their clients during food distributions time only. They also indicated that only the

wards which are next to Binga Growth Point maintain regular contacts with NGOs and these included wards like Manjolo, Siachilaba and Sianzundu (*Field Work Research, March 20101).*

5.3.2. The Extent to which NGOs has Achieved their Goals

All the respondents (100%) indicated that though NGOs are trying to intervene in Binga with their strategies; they are not achieving their goal of alleviating poverty. They added on that poverty in Binga remains a serious challenge to NGOs' strategies (*Field Work Research, March 2010*).

5.3.3. Should NGOs pay more attention on food distribution than social amenities in Binga

All the respondents (100%) indicated that NGOs need to focus on social amenities like building hospitals, roads construction and schools. The reason being that most clinics in Binga are in accessible, that the roads in Binga are very poor making it difficult for other places to be accessible, again the available schools does not have classrooms, books, electricity and laboratories. They all mentioned that shortage of hospitals and ambulances in the district pose a serious threat to the people especially during out breaks of deadly diseases. They added on that many people die especially during the outbreak of deadly diseases like malaria, cholera and dysentery because of inaccessibility of clinics and shortages of ambulances. In addition, they indicated that shortage of hospitals and ambulances is also a threat to pregnant women as sometimes their pregnancies will be having complications. They added on that the available clinics

in the district are facing acute shortage of professional nurses and doctors. Some clinics are situated about 10 kilometres from other homes. All the respondents (100%) mentioned that they are not satisfied by the strategies that are implemented in Binga because they are more of relief aid than developmental aid. Both the respondents and the key informants mentioned that poverty is not lack of food or clothes only. They added on that, though there are such cases where by the family lacks food and clothes and in most instances such households do not have assets like cattle, farming implements and are unemployed, hence they solely depend on hand-outs. They explained that poverty is the lack of farm implements, hospitals, schools, lack of clean water and poor roads. All the field officers and the key informants mentioned that NGOs' strategies implemented in Binga need to be changed since they are not addressing poverty. They mentioned that NGOs need to understand the livelihoods of people in Binga. Again they argued that, NGOs should not have a monolithic view of different people in Binga because their understanding of poverty differs from one family to another. Their goal of poverty alleviation can only be achieved when NGOs understand the different livelihoods of people in Binga *(Field Work Research, March 2010)*.

5.4. Information from the Organisation Representatives

The project officers mentioned that NGOs in Binga focus on relief aid. They added on that while NGOs are providing relief they need to focus on developmental aid. They agreed that it is a fact that people in Binga need relief aid every year because of drought, but NGOs also need to take into consideration that Binga is one of the poorest district in the country, this means that Binga is also lagging behind in terms of

development. They added on that NGOs need to venture into more developmental projects *(Field Work Research, March 2010)*.

5.4.2. Sustainability of NGOs' Strategies

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	10	25.0	25.0	25.0
	No	15	37.5	37.5	62.5
	3	15	37.5	37.5	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Research March 2010*

All the field officers and the respondents (100%) mentioned that most of the NGOs' projects are not suitable in Binga. They indicated that though some projects of NGOs are applicable in some parts of Binga, it is true that some of them are not applicable to other parts of Binga. The reasons being that NGOs do not do through needs assessment and that they do not monitor and evaluate their projects. Again they mentioned that it seems NGOs have different expectations from their projects and same applies to the community members. They indicated that NGOs view the issue of poverty as uniform across Zimbabwe because the same projects which are implemented by

NGOs in Binga are the same with those implemented in Gwanda, Gweru, Masvingo, and Beitbridge.

5.4.3. NGOs' Strategies and their Problems

NGOs' strategies were blamed for the deepening of poverty in Binga by respondents, the key informants and the field officers. The field officers mentioned that sometimes these programmes are determined by the funders. They highlighted that whenever NGOs get funding the donor specifies what the NGO need to do with the funding. Mostly the donors do not interact with the service users hence they do not understand what exactly are the needs of the poor. They added on that the funders have a different understanding of poverty; they believe that poverty is the same across Zimbabwe. The field officers also indicated that the problem of not interacting with the clients in most cases before implementing a programme as a contributor to the issue of poverty in Binga (*Field Work Research, March 2010*).

5.4.4. Do you think there is dependency syndrome in Binga?

The respondents agreed that there is dependency syndrome in Binga because people are no longer able to work for themselves knowing that NGOs like Save the Children will distribute food to them every year. They explained that NGOs do not develop the strengths of their service users in Binga and this makes their clients to develop dependency syndrome. People in Binga might be poor but it does not mean that they are not able to take participation in their own development; they do have some strengths which need to be developed. They added on that, in Binga especially in

places like Manjolo, Siachilaba, Sianzundu people are suffering from dependency syndrome because they are not empowered and that their strengths are not developed. They added on that though Binga is arid, but with the little rainfall the district receives some people manage to cultivate crops enough for feeding their children while others on the other hand because of dependency syndrome they do not trouble themselves to cultivate their fields. Such wards were people managed to cultivate food enough for their families included, Lubimbi, Kariangwe, Dobola, Kabuba and Pashu. Again Binga is rich in natural resources like hot springs and perennial rivers but the fact that the people are not taught how to manipulate these resources to be independent makes them remain dependent on NGOs (*Field Work Research, March 2010*).

5.4.5. To what extent is your organization affected by the prevailing political situation

All the field officers agreed that the prevailing political situation in Zimbabwe has affected NGOs in Binga negatively. They mentioned that political instability affects the funding of their organisations and makes it difficult to meet the community members. They said normally when the political situation become tense they are forced to shut down temporary until the conditions stabilizes (*Field Work Research, March 2010*).

5.5. ANALYSIS OF THE FINDINGS

The findings of the research were grouped in three categories of analysis and these are; conceptualisation of poverty in Binga by NGOs and their clients, NGOs' strategies and poverty in Binga and NGOs and reaching the poorest of the poor in Binga.

5.5.1. Conceptualisation of Poverty by NGOs and their Clients in Binga

Based on the findings, NGOs have a different understanding of poverty from that of their clients. Though both agree that poverty is lack of material ownership, the NGOs clients still argued that their needs are not met by NGOs' programmes. NGOs in Binga have a monolithic view of poverty. As a result, they define poverty as lack of food since Binga is a drought prone area and it is viewed as a lack of clothes. This type of picture about poverty by NGOs influences the selection of their programmes to be implemented in Binga. Based on the findings, NGOs implement same programmes throughout Binga forgetting that poverty is not the same from one ward to another.

On the other hand, NGOs clients according to the findings do need relief programmes to a lesser extent. As a result, poverty according to the users of NGOs' services goes beyond lack of food and clothes. In Binga, poverty understood as lack of agricultural inputs implements, high illiteracy levels, and shortage of hospitals, schools and walking long distances to get water. Ahmed (2006) carried out a research in Bangladesh about the operation of NGOs; the findings showed that NGOs viewed communities as uniform leading to the generalisability of the problem of poverty.

5.5.2. NGOs' Strategies and Poverty in Binga

NGOs in Binga are involved in a various strategies and these include agriculture, water and sanitation, information dissemination, advocacy, information and technology, food distribution and sending disadvantaged children to school. Based on the findings, though NGOs strive to end poverty in Binga, their strategies are missing the needs of the people and that is the reason poverty is deepening in the district. It was argued that, NGOs' strategies are insufficient for addressing poverty issue in Binga. As argued by the respondents that everyone in Binga is poor but NGOs only direct their strategies towards a particular group of the society.

The other weakness about NGOs' strategies that was raised is about their selection. According to the research findings, NGOs claim that they thoroughly engage with their clients before they select their programmes. This can also be confirmed by a research that was carried by Saifuddin (2006) in Bangladesh to find out what influences the selection of NGOs programmes, it was found that most of them are not selected by the poor themselves, instead they are selected by the donors. On the other hand the clients argued that, NGOs just bring programmes without consulting them. A research by Chofi (2010) in Central Africa found that NGOs impose their will on their clients. In other words failure by NGOs to engage their clients in the selection of projects makes them either to underrate or overrate the issue of poverty in Binga, and in the long run they implement programmes that are of no or less importance to the clients.

According to the findings, NGOs in Binga only concentrate on relief aid ranging from food distribution which is not sustainable. Even literature about the sustainability of NGOs programmes by Riddel and Robinson (1992) in Zimbabwe, Uganda and India reveals that NGOs strategies lacked sustainability and a few of them continued when the organisation ceased to operate. It was also indicated that NGOs in Binga duplicate programmes even if they are of less importance to their clients. Table 3:1 in Chapter. 3 prove that NGOs always duplicate their programmes. Moreover, NGOs' strategies implemented in Binga do not leave people empowered and that NGOs in Binga do not take advantage of the strengths and the livelihoods of their clients. As a result, their clients' strengths remain undiscovered and that the livelihoods of the people remain untapped. Furthermore, NGOs' strategies in Binga are not sustainable because they are not monitored and evaluated. The finding about NGOs' strategies shows that there is a great need for NGOs to review their strategies.

5.5.3. NGOs and Reaching the Poorest of the Poor in Binga

Based on the findings, NGOs mostly do not reach the poorest of the poor in the wards they service. According to Davis (2005) the poorest of the poor include the widows, the child headed households, people living with disabilities. The fact that NGOs offices in Binga are only situated in Binga Growth Point is a problem. This means that, NGOs mostly maintain regular contact with accessible wards. The findings also reveal that mostly the accessible wards are benefiting more from NGOs than those that are far away from Binga Growth Point. Again, there is a problem of depending on kraal heads who might not manage to write the names of all the needy people. As indicated by

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Farrington and Bebbington (1993) most NGOs' programmes exclude the poorest of the poor. Manyena (2003) in a research about the operation of NGOs in Binga concluded that NGOs' strategies are missing the needs of the Tonga.

5.6. CONCLUSION

Based on the above findings, one may note that there is still a lot that needs to be done about the poverty alleviation strategies implemented by NGOs. Poverty in Binga is not mere lack of food as conceptualised by NGOs but also involves lack of infrastructural development and social services development as perceived by the people in Binga. High illiteracy level in the district, lack of skills by the majority of the people in Binga and the NGOs' strategies which seem not to be addressing the needs of the people in Binga, are some of the contributing factors to the deepening of poverty. Again, though NGOs are to be blamed for deepening poverty in Binga, their strategies are mostly determined by their funders. The stringent NGO Bill in Zimbabwe as well as the political imbroglio in the country is also influencing the operation of NGOs in the district and some parts of the country. Furthermore, the current political situation in Zimbabwe tends to be a hindrance to NGOs' operation. It was also found that NGOs' strategies in Binga are more of relief than developmental aid. Though the current political situation is affecting NGOs negatively, what is worth noting is that even before this political instability in Zimbabwe, NGOs' strategies were not addressing poverty.

CHAPTER 6:

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of the NGOs' strategies implemented in Binga Rural District. The information was collected from three NGOs that operate in Binga and these are Save the Children (UK), CADEC and KMTC. The respondents were randomly selected from Manjolo and Kabuba Wards. The research findings were presented in form of frequency distribution tables. The researcher managed to get the information about NGOs in Binga from the respondents; however there is a need to carry out more researches about poverty and NGOs in Binga. Based on the research findings, the researcher has come up with some recommendations which might be of great importance when addressing poverty by both NGOs and government departments in Binga.

6.2. SUMMARY

The main objective of the study was to evaluate the effectiveness of NGOs' poverty alleviation strategies implemented in the rural areas of Zimbabwe and Binga District was the case study. The critical questions that the research sought to answer included what makes NGOs' strategies to be ineffective, is it the environment they operate in, is it their clients who are resistant to change or the problem lies with their strategies. The research findings clearly answer these questions. The battle against poverty seems to

be endless. The findings indicate that to a larger extent the problem lays with the NGOs' strategies. Of great importance, the findings mostly indicate that NGOs view poverty as homogeneous across Binga, as a result, they rarely engage with their clients when it comes to selection of their programmes. Also literature review shows that there are some loopholes with NGOs' operation in general hence they end up not addressing the needs of the poor. The prevailing political situation as was also said to be a hindrance to the operation of NGOs in Binga and the rest of the country. Of greater importance, one need to note that, the NGOs whose programmes were evaluated, have been operating in Binga for more than ten years, which is even before the political imbroglio in Zimbabwe started and even by that time their (NGOs) programmes were not fully addressing the needs of the poor. Based on the findings from the field, the researcher believes that the objectives of the study were met. This was made possible by the respondents who showed more interest on the research topic as well as the problem. The deepening of poverty in the rural areas of many African countries seems to be posing a greatest challenge to NGOs' strategies. NGOs are not only failing to address poverty, but they are losing credibility as development partners. Literature reveals that, there is a lot that needs to be done to build a good relationship between the NGOs and the state in Africa. Furthermore, literature shows that, there are many ambiguities within the NGOs' strategies that need to be addressed in order to achieve sustainable poverty alleviation in the rural areas. Moreover, the NGOs' strategies need to be guided by the needs of the clients.

6.3. CONCLUSION

Based on the findings about NGOs' strategies in Binga, it is clear that the war against poverty in the rural areas seem to be yielding the results that are substandard. The findings indicate that the NGOs' strategies implemented are not suitable for addressing the poverty situation in Binga; hence, they need to be revisited. Moreover, implementation of wrong poverty alleviation strategies in Binga means that the needs of the poor are missed. Poverty in Africa is linked to its history which is haunting it. Many African states including Zimbabwe tried to implement some poverty alleviation strategies during the post-independence era, but most of them failed because of various reasons ranging from corruption, over-politicisation, and lack of resources. The role of NGOs in Africa was to complement the state and to work as gap fillers in the areas that the governments were not focusing on. Most NGOs worked in rural areas and other areas that were neglected by the colonial governments. The issue of poverty in Africa has found mention in every summit of the G8 countries. Poverty in the rural areas has posed greatest challenges to NGOs' strategies. The deepening of poverty in the rural areas especially those that are currently serviced by NGOs makes their (NGOs) work to be under serious scrutiny. NGOs' strategies are not addressing poverty in the rural areas because of various reasons, some of the reasons include; failure to do proper needs assessment, lack of monitoring of their projects, generalising the issue of poverty, the strategies lack sustainability because by nature most of NGOs' strategies are more of relief. With the explained findings in the former chapter, the following are some of the recommendations that are given by the researcher which may be useful in

tackling poverty in Binga and some other parts of Zimbabwe. The following recommendations therefore are based on the research findings.

6.4. RECOMMENDATIONS

- NGOs should be involved in social services delivery which is more developmental than relief. Most wards in Binga District cannot access clean water, schools and clinics as well as hospitals despite of a large number of NGOs operating in them. For instance, in Kabuba Ward children walk 18 kilometres to and from Kabuba Primary School. Children are also allowed to go to primary school at the age of six (6) or more for security reasons. Apart from that the ward has no secondary school and children go to Lusulu High School which is 18km to and from Kabuba.

- It is also highly recommended that NGOs be practically involved in participatory development. Most NGOs in Binga only practice the top-bottom approach to development. NGOs therefore, should engage themselves with the communities in order to know their needs and not deciding for them. Failure to engage with the community members makes them to bring services that are not needed by the communities. Of great importance, NGOs need to do need assessment properly as it is going to help them identify the core problems of the communities. Wards like Kabuba with good soils and receiving good rains a year need assistance with farming skills and agricultural equipment.

- Though relief is needed in Binga District especially during drought and to some areas with poor soils and rainfall, this does not mean that NGOs should cripple people by creating a donor syndrome. While distributing food, NGOs can also venture into some projects that will assist community members to learn to help themselves. Therefore, it is highly recommended that NGOs should not do for the community members but should work with the community members. Also proper application of the sustainable livelihoods approach can help NGOs to assist the poor realise their potential and strengths. For example, having a perennial river like Zambezi as well as the hot springs people can be taught how to practice irrigation.

- Again concerning the high unemployment rate in Binga, especially among the youth, NGOs are recommended to help the youth realise their talents and engage them in projects that will help them to be self-employed. NGOs like Ntengwe have got IGPs projects which they implement in Siachilaba, Manjolo and Sianzundu. The same programme lacks sustainability because of lack of proper monitoring. Drama projects, forming of football and netball clubs, getting involved in athletics all these can help one realise their potential. Also this will keep the youth busy there by curbing the problem of early marriages.

- Practising the bottom-up approach is going to assist NGOs not to generalise the issue of poverty in the entire District of Binga. NGOs always generalise the problem of poverty in Binga. Nearly all the NGOs in Binga are involved in food distribution. This means that poverty in Binga is only viewed as shortage of food. For instance, Save the Children distributes food parcels in the entire district. Kabuba Ward does not have any problem of food shortages. The same ward supply maize to the whole district and other places which are outside Binga.

- NGOs are also recommended to avoid being too selective. The problem of NGOs of being selective was mentioned in both wards. Most NGOs only focus on the vulnerable and ultra-poor of the society leaving the better offs not helped. Therefore, NGOs need to develop Binga by implementing programmes that will benefit all community members as it was argued by the respondents. This means that, NGOs should also help the better offs according to their needs. When NGOs concentrate on one part of the community this raises conflict among community members.

- Again it is recommended that NGOs in Binga should be involved in sustainable development. NGOs in Binga have got projects which are too ephemeral. Projects implemented by NGOs in Binga do not last for more than two years which have a negative impact on the development of the district. For instance,

livestock pass on project that was implemented by KMTC in Kabuba Ward failed because only two groups of people successfully managed to pass on goats to others. The project lacked monitoring hence it failed. Some people only passed goats to other people according to their political affiliation or only to their relatives.

- It is also strongly recommended that NGOs in Binga must decentralise their offices to some of the furthest wards. This is going to improve the accessibility of their services to their clients in very far wards. Moreover, this is going to make NGOs to maintain regular contacts with their clients. For instance, NGOs' clients have got various needs ranging from emotional needs or psychosocial support; these groups of clients always need regular contact with NGOs officials like counselors.

- Another problem with the programmes implemented by NGOs is duplication of projects. For example, food distribution is nearly done by every NGO in Binga. Meetings with other departments, community stake holders to identify the projects that have been already implemented are greatly recommended.

- After implementing their projects, NGOs need to make sure that they thoroughly monitor and evaluate these projects. Most projects fail because they are not

monitored. Again the same projects lack sustainability because they are not evaluated. Most NGOs need Monitoring and Evaluation Officers who can do the monitoring of their projects. Carrying out proper monitoring and evaluation will make them to realise what need to be added or changed on their strategies.

5.5. AREAS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Considering that there is scanty information about the operation of NGOs in Binga more research is needed in the following areas:

- What influences the selection of NGOs' Programmes?

- Understanding the history of poverty in Binga

- The livelihoods of rural households in Binga

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APPENDICES

Appendix. A

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

DEPARTMENT OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

      SCHOOL OF PUBLIC MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT

Private Bag X1314, Alice, 5700

Tel. 27 40 602 2100/2202, Fax 27 40 653 1007/1394, Cell 082 444 5982

Email ***pmonyai@ufh.ac.za***

15 December 2009

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO DO RESEARCH

This is to certify that Ms Diana Nyathi is a registered student in the Department of

Development Studies doing her Masters studies. She is doing field work as part of the
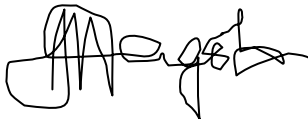
requirements of the qualification and her area of interest is on non-governmental organisations' attempts to address the problem of poverty in Zimbabwe, with specific reference to Binga.

As part of the method for data collection Ms Diana Nyathi needs to have discussions with relevant people in your area that can assist with information regarding the issues of her research. She also would need access to your libraries and archives, if any, for documentation pertaining to the history and activities around the NGOs' strategies for poverty alleviation and sustainable development in the Binga area.

The research is purely for academic purposes and when the study has been completed a copy of the thesis can be made available to the organisation on request. Should you need any further clarification please do not hesitate to contact me on the details given above.

We are looking forward to your kind assistance.

RESPECTFULY

S.MAGO (Lecturer and Supervisor)
Development Studies Department.

Appendix. B

The District Administrator

P.O.Box

Binga

Dear Sir/Madam

REF: **REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT A RESEARCH IN BINGA DISTRICT**

My name is Daina Nyathi I am a Masters student at the University of Fort Hare in South Africa. My research topic is: An evaluation of poverty alleviation strategies implemented by Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) in the rural areas of Zimbabwe. The case of Binga District. My wards of study are Manjolo and Kabuba. In Each ward only two villages will be part of the research. Ten respondents from each village will be selected. The organisations included are Save the Children, CADEC and KMTC. I therefore request for permission to carry out my research from the 22nd of March   to the 26th of March 2010.Two days shall be spent in each ward. Only two villages shall be part of the sample. The research is for academic purpose and there are tokens for participants.

I expect to hear from you

Yours sincerely

Daina Nyathi

diananyathi@yahoo.com

Appendix. C

CONSENT FORM
Terms and Conditions of the Study

1. There shall be no financial or benefits to be gained from participating

    in this study.

2. Anonymity and confidentiality shall be ensured with utmost good faith.

3. Participants are free to withdraw from the study.

4. Photographs shall be taken, and the information given will be written

    as notes.

5. Photographs taken will be given to respondents after the study.

I ....Gender........................agree that I have read and understood the terms and conditions accompanying this research. I therefore, participate freely in this study.

Signature...

Date..

Appendix. D

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE
Instructions

- Complete all questions

- Tick one answer per question

- Feel free to ask in case you do not understand the   demands of the question

4.2.1. Demographics

4.2.1 Age of the respondents

The respondents interviewed consisted of the youth and adults.13 youth falling between the ages of 19-39 were interviewed. There were 18 adults ranging from the age between 41-61

4.2.2 Gender of the respondents

There were 25 females and 15 males that were interviewed.

4.2.3. Level of education of the respondents

Grade seven and below: 29

Form four and below: 11

Advanced level: 0

4.2.4. Employment status of the respondents

Attending school: 5

Employed: 0

Unemployed: 35

4.3. What are your sources of income?

Fishing:

Farming:

IGPs:

4.4. Do you know the following NGOs; Save the Children, CADEC, and KMTC

Yes:

No:

4.5. How long have these organisations been in your area/ Binga?

-5 years:

+5 years:

4.6. Do you have knowledge about the projects implemented by Save the Children, CADEC, KMTC?

Yes: ☐

No: ☐

4.7. Are you satisfied by the NGOs strategies implemented in your area?

Satisfied: ☐

Not satisfied: ☐

4.8. **How do you conceptualise poverty in Binga?**

Poverty as lack of food and clothes: ☐

Poverty as lack of infrastructure e.g. schools: ☐

4.9. What are poverty indicators in Binga?

Shortage of schools: ☐

Shortage of hospitals: ☐

Lack of clean water: ☐

Food shortages: ☐

4.10. Do you think poverty levels have decreased in Binga in the past 5 years?

Yes: ☐

No: ☐

4.11. Do you think NGOs are addressing poverty in Binga?

Yes: ☐

No: ☐

4.12. How were the NGOs implemented in your area selected?

Consultation: ☐

No consultation: ☐

4.13. Are there any benefits your community has accrued from NGOs strategies?

Benefited a lot: ☐

Average: ☐

Did not benefit: ☐

4.14. Do you think there is a need for NGOs to improve their strategies?

Yes: ☐

No: ☐

4.4. Questions for key informants

4.4.1. Do you think NGOs are addressing the issue of poverty in Binga?

Yes: ☐

No: ☐

4.4.2 In your own views, to what extent has the NGOs achieved their goals of alleviating poverty.

To a larger extent: ☐

To a lesser extent: ☐

4.4.3 In your own views, do you think NGOs should pay more attention on food distribution than social amenities in Binga?

Agree: ☐

Disagree: ☐

4.4.4 Are you satisfied by the NGOs strategies implemented in Binga?

Satisfied: ☐

Not at all: ☐

4.4.5 Poverty is lack of food and clothes, do you agree?

Yes: ☐

No: ☐

4.4.6. Is there any need for NGOs in Binga to change or revise their strategies?

Yes: ☐

No: ☐

Questions for field officers

Which type of aid does your projects are directed towards?

Relief aid: ☐

Developmental aid: ☐

Considering the rate at which poverty is deepening in Binga, do you think the projects implemented by your organisation the suitable ones?

Yes: ☐

No: ☐

Considering the rate at which poverty is deepening in Binga despite the number of NGOs operates in Binga, where do you think the problem lies?

NGOs strategies implemented in Binga: ☐

Community members: ☐

The environment NGOs operate in: ☐

Do you think there is dependency syndrome in Binga?

Yes: ☐

No: ☐

To what extent is your organisation affected by the prevailing political situation?

To a lesser extent: ☐

To a greater extent: ☐

Appendix. E. 1

Photograph.A: A borehole in the middle of the bush in Kabuba ward servicing 50 homes.

Photograph .B: A Small Piece of Land Cultivated in Manjolo

Photograph.C: The Only Tarred Road in Binga that Stretches for 100km from Cross Dete to Binga Centre