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Title: Implementation of the Zimbabwe National Orphan Care Policy: Implications of Partnership between Government and Civil Society.

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DECLARATION

The undersigned hereby declares that this research project is my own original work, which has not been submitted, and will not be presented at any other university for a similar or any other degree award. All the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

CHIMANGE M **200706023** **……..**

Date ……

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DEDICATIONS

This piece of work is dedicated to my family: thank you for being a gift and blessing from God. I love you all.

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ABSTRACT

The study focused on the exploration of the implication of partnership between the government and civil society organizations in the implementation of the Zimbabwe National Orphan Care Policy (ZNOCP). The study was carried out in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe to explore on the feasibility of inter-organizational interaction in policy implementation and how it affects the service delivery system. The study incorporated government departments, civil society organizations and ward councillors who stood as the custodians of the people. The study was intended on unveiling the different contextual aspects that exist between government departments and civil-society organizations (CSOs) as individual and separate entities and how the compromising of their values would affect the partnership. Looking at the hierarchical and bureaucratic features of government institutions, the study also intended to understand how this could be concealed and compromised with CSOs' open agendas in public policy implementation to ensure effective service delivery to the people.

The 5C protocol, critical variables in policy implementation which are policy content, context, capacity, commitment of those entrusted with the implementation process and also clients and coalitions were used as the yardsticks. These variables acted as a yardstick on which to analyze the partnership between the Zimbabwean government and the civil society in the implementation of the Z.N.O.C.P, their different attitudes, bureaucratic settings, organizational culture, values, norms, and how their readjustments or failure affect the service delivery system.

It also became imperative to look at the government legislations that govern the CSO space of operation and financial aspects to understand the implications of partnership

between government and civil society. An understanding of these aspects leads to an increased understanding of the feasibility of state-CSO partnerships and its implications on policy implementation.

ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS	Acquired Immune-Deficiency Syndrome
CWF	Child Welfare Forum
HIV	Human Immune-Deficiency Virus
CLO	Civil Liberties Organization
MPSLSW	Ministry of Public Services Labour and Social Welfare
GOZ	Government of Zimbabwe
SOP	Standard Operation Procedures
ACRWC	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of Children
UNCRC	United Nations Charter on the Rights of Children
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
PVO	Private Voluntary Organization
CBO	Community Based Organization
FBO	Faith Based Organization
ZNOCP	Zimbabwe National Orphan Care Policy
SADC	Southern African Development Community
NEPAD	New Partnership for African Development
CSO	Civil Society Organization

CHAPTER 1

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE ZIMBABWE NATIONAL ORPHAN CARE POLICY: THE IMPLICATIONS OF PARTNERSHIP BETWEEN GOVERNMENT AND CIVIL SOCIETY.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Integration and partnership in policy implementation are a complex area which in many instances has led to policies failing to achieve their intended goals and objectives. Due to this lack of coordination, service delivery becomes distorted and social problems continue to present themselves in their original ways, as if they have never been identified and addressed. The recipients of the policy package, which in this case are orphans, would continue to suffer as before.

The whole concept of partnership has different historical precedents in different countries. For instance, Ademolekun *et. al.*, 1997, indicates that India had a successful experience with the role of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in implementing education, national planning and rural development programmes. Successful partnerships have also been built with the private sector in Britain, Australia and New Zealand through privatizing work previously exclusive to the public domain (Ademolekun *et. al.*, 1997:23). In Africa, Uganda has resorted to drafting and enacting restrictive legislation against vibrant and politically relevant civil society organizations (Uganda National NGO Forum, 2009: 2). Therefore, partnership lies on the conflicting principle of governments realizing that the task of public problem-solving has become a team sport where participation of other parties needs to be coaxed and coached and not commandeered and controlled against a feeling of being challenged, reinvented,

downsized, devolved, decentralized, deregulated, subjected to performance tests and contracted out (Kumar, 2005: 2).

In this research, civil society would refer to Non-Governmental Organizations with international or national profile, associations, faith based organizations (FBOs), Community Based Organizations (CBOs) and Trusts whose purpose is centered on social security, especially those that direct attention on child protection matters.

Previous impact studies on the Zimbabwe National Orphan Care Policy for instance, Muronda, (2009) and Munyati *et. al.,* (2006) yielded negative results in almost all areas of policy objectives in five Zimbabwean districts of Masvingo, Bulilima, Mangwe, Plumtree and Chimanimani. Many reasons have been suggested for the failure of this policy to deliver services to the people. These reasons include the retrogressive effects of Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP), the HIV/AIDS pandemic, the economic slump, and also the fact that the policy is not orphan specific; hence it falls short of addressing and deliberately targeting this category of children. In much of these studies, the interface of government-civil society partnerships has been ignored or just noted in passing as a point of reference in a whole range of other problems, but has never received a critical inquiry and analysis.

Value laden to know is the fact that most NGOs are internationally affiliated and some are donor-funded, hence their operations are not solely dependent on the growth of the national economy. Muronda also noted that Africa South of the Sahara has got most of the world's renowned NGOs in operation, (2009: 127). It is thus assumed that their involvement in the implementation of the Zimbabwe National Orphan Care Policy should

have contributed some positive developments against the nation's economic slump. Also they should have at least complimented the government's efforts. It would, therefore, be interesting to find out the nature of the partnership that exists between the government of Zimbabwe and its civil society, and how it regulates innovation, allows autonomous operations, and ensures integrated social development. This research, therefore, seeks to explore and unveil the nature of the partnership between the Zimbabwean government and civil society and its implications in determining the course of social security policy implementation, and ultimately service delivery.

In doing so, this research is going to correlate and discuss five variables normally referred to as the 5C protocol, that characterize the nature, conduct and extent to which [integrated] policy implementation ensures effective service value to the recipients. The 5C protocol includes the content of the policy, the nature of institutional capacity, the commitment of those entrusted with carrying out the implementation, the administrative capacity of implementers and the support of clients and coalitions whose interests are being enhanced (Brynard and De Coning, 2006:190).

Brynard and De Coning postulate that, "Policy formation and policy implementation are inevitably the result of interactions among a plurality of separate actors with separate interests, goals and strategies." (2006: 195). Therefore, these variables will act as the yardstick on which to analyze the partnership between the Zimbabwean government and civil society in the implementation of the Zimbabwe National Orphan Care Policy: their different attitudes, bureaucratic settings, organizational culture, values and norms and how the readjustments or failure affect the service delivery system.

This study will also give a critical analysis of the legislative framework of governance that underpins this partnership. The implications of government-civil society partnership will be discussed in the context of the inter-organizational interaction approach. A qualitative research methodology will be utilized to allow for a deep inquiry into the diverse aspects of this subject matter. To substantiate on the findings, secondary sources will also be consulted. Ultimately, the coding and categorizing will be used in data analysis due to their relevance in the studies of human services professions.

1.2 CHALLENGES FACING THE NATIONAL ORPHAN CARE POLICY

Broadly, policies are instituted to seek some positive benefits on the welfare of its intended recipients. Their area of focus is the problem identified in the agenda setting of the policy. After the implementation of the ZNOCP there are still very high percentages of orphans found to be lacking basic needs such as food, clothing and decent shelter. For instance Munyati *et. al.*, (2006) holds that between 49 percent and 80 percent of households with orphans and other vulnerable children in Bulilima and Mangwe reported having one meal a day with almost half of these households indicating that some days they go without any food. 71.6 percent in Chimanimani, 71 percent and 46 percent in Plumtree have inadequate clothing (Munyati *et. al.,* 2006: 18). These studies show that orphans in Zimbabwe continue to suffer as if their plight has never been noticed and addressed. One of the main reasons why so many policies fail to address the problems they intend to deal with is the nature of partnerships between the government and civil society in the implementation of that particular policy.

The problems of orphans have continued to broaden and be of much concern to different African countries despite respective governments, civil societies and NGOs'

efforts to combat them through a series of social security policies. HIV/AIDS, economic hardships, wars, diseases such as cholera and natural disasters, combine to hike the number of orphans, and also brings to the fore untold sufferings to these orphaned children. Recent researches have yielded negative results in terms of the orphans' living conditions in almost all aspects of their lives (Muronda 2009: 138)

Policy implementation is defined by Brynard and De Coning as the conversion of mainly physical and financial resources into concrete service delivery outputs in the form of facilities and services, or into other concrete outputs aimed at achieving policy objectives (2006:183). Hill and Irving postulate that policy implementation often depends on co-operation between separate organizations where responsibility at local level is delegated to several organizations with separate territories and dependent on coordinated action between two or more local organizations (2009: 165).

Brynard and De Coning also supported the idea stating that policy implementation is attempted at various levels of government and pursued in conjunction with the private sector and civil society. In this partnership, strategy generation and planning are vital elements in the policy implementation interface and various implementation instruments emerge such as planning, strategy generation, programme management, project management, operations management, contracting and privatization as well as various types of public-private partnerships (P.P.Ps) (2006: 185).

To ensure public satisfaction, policy implementation should ensure effective service delivery which Doern defined as increased public service in the sense of higher volume or quality of substantive benefits, or delivering current or even reduced volumes of

services of substantive benefits in a more timely, reliable and considerate manner (1994: 56). There is still scarcity of information in theoretical frameworks that underpin the study of policy implementation, but the two debatable theories of bottom-up and top bottom policy, systems approach and inter-organizational interaction approach in policy implementation will be put into perspective in this study.

1.3 THE TOP-DOWN AND BOTTOM-UPAPPROACHES

Typically, the top down perspective starts from the authoritative policy decision at the center or top level of government and seeks to understand the extent to which the actions of implementing officials and target groups are consistent with the objectives and procedures outlined in that policy decision. It also seeks to understand the extent to which objectives were attained over time, the principal factors affecting policy outputs and impacts and also how the policy was reformulated over time on the basis of experience (Brynard and De Coning2006: 185). Implementation is viewed from three different perspectives, that is, the initial policy-maker or the center, the field-level implementing officials or the periphery and the actors at whom the programme is directed or the target group. Three principals of tractability of the problem, the ability of policy decisions to structure implementation and also non-statutory variables affecting implementation, which is implementation, has got its own inherent dynamisms.

Hill and Irving (2009), postulate that the relationship between governments and civil societies involves both partnership and conflict. Central government seeks to impose its will not merely through legislation, but also through the communication of large amounts of guidance. This may be embodied in circulars regularly sent from central departments to local authorities, and through less formal communications from ministers,

administrators and professional advisors. Central intervention will be justified in terms of national political commitments to ensure that central policies have an impact on all localities; hence there is an inherent conflict between the demands for local autonomy and the principle of territorial justice (Hill and Irving, 2009: 170).

Wanna (2007), postulate that better implementation must consciously be driven from the top-down, but he also acknowledges that policy prepared without the experience of those who deliver it is almost certainly a policy that will be poorly designed and difficult to implement (Wanna, 2007: 78). Hence, reconciling these competing imperatives would seem to be the key challenge facing governments in building capacity for policy implementation.

An equally convincing assertion is also propounded by the bottom-up approach that in many cases the latitude of those charged with carrying out policy is substantial, that policy is effectively made by the people who implement it (Brynard and De Coning, 2006: 188). The frontline workers or the street level bureaucrats or public service workers who interact directly with the citizens in the course of their jobs have substantial discretion in the execution of their work. It is these street level bureaucrats who are seen as central to the study of implementation with others in the policy arena providing the context in which they make their discretionary judgments.

Central to policy implementation is a remarkable convergence on the critical explanatory variables identified by scholars of policy implementation, which is the 5C protocol. It entails the content of the policy, the nature of institutional context, the commitment of

those entrusted with carrying out the implementation, the administrative capacity of implementers and the support of clients and coalitions whose interests are enhanced.

Content entails that policy content is important, not only in the means it employs to achieve its ends, but also in determining the ends themselves and how it chooses the specific means to reach the ends (Brynard and De Coning, 2006: 197). The context refers to the larger institutional context through which policy passes through during implementation such as economic, social, political and legal realities. Commitment means the commitment of those entrusted with the implementation process. Capacity means the availability and access of resources which encompass human, financial, material, technological and logistical aspects. Lastly, clients and coalitions focus on how power shifts among the different outside interest groups may produce a corresponding shift in the implementation process (Brynard and De Coning, 2006: 197).

However, this study will not use these models because both of them seem to reflect different visions of how the state operates, and each model is based, in part, on a normative and prescriptive argument about where power should lie. The top-down model envisions a centrally controlled, hierarchical system of government where the government should maintain a degree of control over state and local government action, whether it is through law or the use of money to coerce state and local government action. On the other hand, the bottom-up model is based on a decentralized model in which government control is decentralized intentionally or unintentionally to state or local governments as a result of bargaining, conflict and compromises. This leaves very little space for a meaningful participation of non-state actors in the policy implementation process thereby rendering the need for working partnerships obsolete.

1.4 INTER-ORGANIZATIONAL INTERACTION APPROACH

The theme of inter-organizational relations was developed in 1976 by Evan in a study of inter-organizational relations. The importance of the inter-organizational relations for public administration has been demonstrated by the works of Kicket and Koppenjan (1997), Rhodes (1997) and Scharpf (1993). These studies document the complicated realities facing administrators, developers and others in several countries. The studies establish that inter-organizational relations can be crucial for policy implementation. The approach holds that policy implementation involves a multiplicity of organizations whose relations are based on either power dependency or organizational exchange (Sapru, 1994: 208). The approach sees implementation in modern societies as taking place in a highly complex setting and it understands decision-making as a process of joint decision-making between organizations and actors sharing a common organizational pool (Sapru, 2010: 165).

Organizations involved includes government departments and ministries, sub-national agencies, non-profit and profit units and organizations of target groups engaged in co-producing the implementation process. To understand the way in which inter-organizational relations operate, there is a need to consider the network of interests within the policy sector which Sapru (2010) referred to as a cluster of organizations related to each other by resource dependencies and distinguished from other clusters or complexes by breaks in the structure of resource dependencies (Sapru, 2010: 165). Therefore, implementation should be analyzed in the context of clusters of actors and organizations. Since most organizations in the public sector are large systems of interacting organizations and parts of organizations, the implementation process has to

take account of interacting organizations and parts of relationships between and among organizations.

The strength of this approach lies in the combination of efforts among various players to create and use common interests, power dependency and effecting cooperation through exchanges. The essential rationale is that these interactions generate synergistic effect; that is; more and/or better outcomes are attained than if the partners acted independently (Brinkerhoff, 1998: 3)

The inter-organizational interaction approach is, therefore, a hybrid theory which combines the strengths of the top-down and bottom-up approaches in a way that harnesses the resources and strengths of the parties involved in the policy implementation process, that is, state, civil society organizations and the policy recipients. It also seeks to reconceptualize power and authority among public and non-state organizations in the policy environment. The approach seems to be consistent with the notion of partnership between the government and civil society since it calls for multi-actor and multi-sector approach to policy implementation.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research is going to make use of qualitative method. This research chose a qualitative method because it is concentrated in understanding the many dimensions of the government-civil society partnership and to give a rich exploration on a complex phenomenon. It also gives valid information. It also generates information that is detailed. It is a philosophy of the research process which includes assumptions and

values that serve as basis of research and standards that the researcher uses in interpreting data and reaching conclusion (Welman, Kruger and Mitchel, 2005: 22).

1.6 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

The population for this study encompasses all civic society organizations and government departments involved the implementation of the ZNOCP as well as the policy recipients in Masvingo district.

Strydom define sampling as taking any portion of the population or universe as a representative of the whole. This research will use non probability sampling which is a type of sampling in which the probability of sampling for each unit of the population is not known (2003: 57).

This research will use target sampling because only those organizations, governments departments and individuals who meet the requirements will be used in the research. Those which do not fit the requirements are eliminated. The results are expected to be more accurate. It is less time consuming. It is also less expensive as it involves less research costs. Target sampling is mainly a strategy for obtaining information when random sampling is impossible and when accidental sampling cannot be strictly implemented due to the hidden nature of the research problem (Strydom, 2003: 57).

The sample size will be eight organizations; three government departments and five non-governmental organizations as well as six ward councillors (three from the urban area and three from rural wards). The reason for choosing this sample size is because the research will conduct in-depth individual interviews which are time consuming and it

is also manageable. This sample will also give a comprehensive understanding of partnership from the different parties involved.

In-depth interviews and interview schedules will be utilized in this study. This kind of data collection method will be utilized because it allows the interviewer to probe for more answers. Secondary studies will also be used in this study. According to Olsen, an interview is a conversation between two or more people, where questions are asked by the interviewer to obtain information from the interviewee (2004: 6).

1.7 DATA ANALYSIS

The study will utilize constant comparison analysis method of data analysis where the data is organized into smaller meaningful parts and labelled with descriptive titles. This will allow the researcher to see patterns, identify themes, discover relationships, develop explanations, make interpretations and mount critiques. The method will organize data to generate categories, themes and patterns. The data will be coded testing for emergent understandings and searching for alternative explanations. This type of data analysis is largely selected for its relevance in the human services professions.

The research will utilize coding to summarize, synthesize and sort many observations made of the data. The codes pull together and categorize a series of otherwise discrete events, statements and observations identified in the data. It helps to reconstruct the data in a meaningful and comprehensible fashion. It is a process of breaking down, examining, comparing, and conceptualizing and categorizing data. This method allows for data analysis in a way that retains its inherent contextual nature. The study will also

utilize secondary data analysis; that is utilizing other studies and documentaries relevant to this study. They are important in verifying the accuracy of primary data.

1.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to Phiri and Webb, ethical issues arise out of our interaction with other people, other beings (such as animals), and the environment, especially where there is potential for or there is a conflict of interest (2002: 13). In this research, the word ethical means conforming to the standards of conduct of a given individual or group.

The research will adhere to the University of Fort Hare's ethical standards in carrying out research and, as such, it will obtain ethical clearance from the university to be able to collect data. Researcher will also get authority from Masvingo District Council and other local authorities to be able to collect data in their areas of jurisdiction without encountering hindrances. Subjects will also be told that this research is for academic purposes only.

All information on the goal of the investigation and procedures which will be followed during the investigation will be fully given to the subject(s) so that they can make a voluntary, thoroughly reasoned decision about their possible participation (Strydom, 2003: 61).

This research will use individual interviews and pseudonyms in place of real names to ensure confidentiality. It means handling information about subjects in a confidential manner. It places strong obligation on the researcher to guard against information that is confided to the respondents (Strydom, 2003: 61).

The research will run its course in an ethically correct manner with no obligation against subjects. The researcher will use professional stylus and create a rapport to ensure that the respondents gain trust in the researcher

CHAPTER 2

GOVERNMENT-CIVIL SOCIETY PARTNERSHIPS AND ORPHAN CARE IN ZIMBABWE: A CRITICAL OVERVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The efficacy of government-civil society partnerships has been held responsible for the development process in those countries where it was successfully implemented and watched in mutual appreciation of each other's role. In other countries where the relationship is bitter, where the civil society is weak or plays an oppositional rather than an operational role, the governments are highly skeptical of them and development becomes blurred. This chapter will describe the characteristics of this partnership; explore issues which affect the effectiveness of the civil society, the attainment of the government's poverty reduction and other social development objectives and the collaboration between NGOs and the public sector.

The study will be designed and planned to understand the abovementioned issues in the implementation of the Zimbabwe National Orphan Care Policy (Z.N.O.C.P). Boundaries of civil society are blurred by the rolling back of the state almost all over the world due to privatization as contained in the new governance paradigms (Kumar, 2005: 5). In discharging its duties in the changing circumstances, the state is increasingly adopting newer tools, means or instruments to involve third party actors, both for profit and non-profit organizations to manage the public policy goals. Under this new governance paradigm, governments seem to feel challenged, reinvented, downsized, privatized, devolved, decentralized, deregulated, subjected to performance tests and contracted out (Kumar, 2005: 9).

This study of policy implementation highlights one of the forces that determine policy impacts on those activities that affect the rendering of public service. An analysis of policy implementation requires more than the measurement of programme performance: the principal goal is to derive explanations from the events of factors that intervene between the articulation of national policy and the results that occur within the states and localities. The research involves, firstly, establishing that the measured programme performance is indeed related to the introduction of the legislation and also to attempt to explain the patterns of effects.

2.2 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

Governance refers to a wide variety of self-sustaining networks through which the state engages in sharing power and administrative responsibilities with non-state policy actors in a cost efficient and effective way to ensure service delivery.

Civil society organizations refer to a set of institutions and organizations that inter-phase between the state, business world and the family. Broadly speaking, they include non-government organizations (NGOs), private voluntary organizations (PVOs), people's organizations, community based organizations (CBOs), civic clubs, trade unions, gender groups, cultural and religious groups, charities, social and sports clubs, cooperatives, environmental groups, professional associations, academia, policy institutions, consumer organizations and the media (Essia and Yearoo, 2009: 19). In this research however, the term civil society and civil society groups shall be used synonymously and narrowly to refer to non-governmental welfare organizations.

State-civil society partnerships refer to the cross sectoral interactions whose purpose is to achieve convergent objectives through the combined efforts of both sets of actors, but where the respective roles and responsibilities of actors involved remain distinct. The essential rationale is that these interactions generate a synergistic effect; that is more and/or better outcomes are attained than if the partners acted independently (Brinkerhoff, 1998: 165).

Public policy is defined as a desired course of action that is aimed at the realization of public goals and objectives which are made public by means of legislation. It is adopted by government role players while non-government actors such as interest groups, can also influence the formulation and development of policy. It is purposive or goal oriented, therefore action directed rather than randomly selected. It consists of joint decisions by politicians or officials rather than individuals. In short, it is what governments do to improve the general welfare of the community for instance social welfare policies, education policies and health policies, Doyle, (2000; 108).

Policy implementation is the performance of all the groups of activities that constitute public administration, generic administrative processes, auxiliary and instrumental activities and the functional activities in order to reach the intended objective. It is the final stage of policy-making where the intentions, objectives and course of action selected by the policy-maker are put into effect (Doyle, 2000; 90).

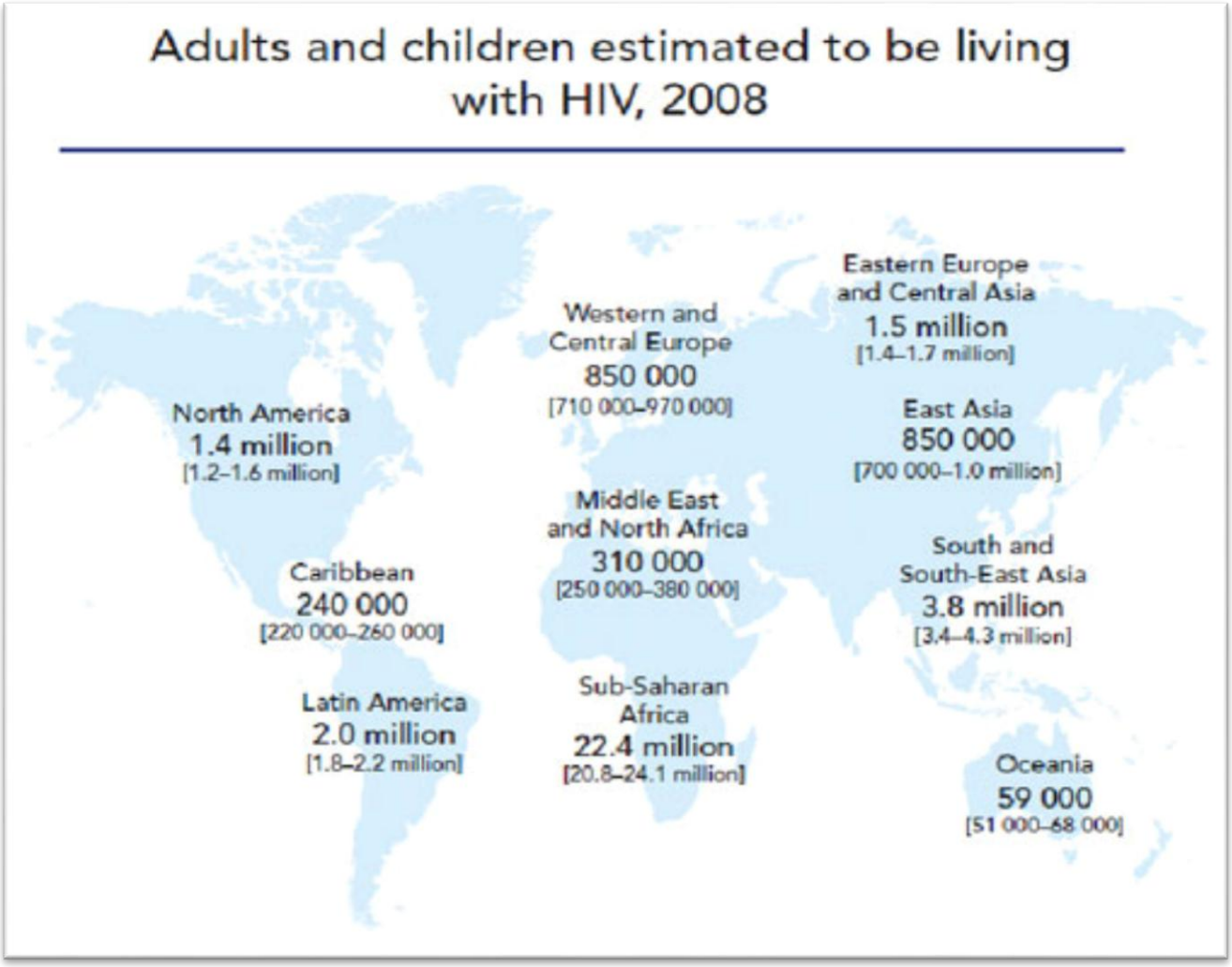
2.3 THE MAGNITUDE OF ORPHAN CONDITIONS IN ZIMBABWE

Before the HIV/AIDS pandemic, the number of orphans in most developing countries was decreasing due to improvements in life expectancy rates. Orphans were likely to be

older than five years and would have lost one parent. It was uncommon for a child to have lost both parents. These scenarios no longer prevail as the AIDS pandemic worsens. According to the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS2004: 7), Sub-Saharan Africa is the most affected region with 25.4 million people living with HIV at the end of 2004 which is just under two thirds (64 percent) of all people living with AIDS. More than three quarters (76 percent) of all women living with HIV are in the same Sub-Saharan region (UNAIDS, 2004: 7).

The figure below presents estimates of regional distributions of adults and children living with HIV in 2008. It shows that of all the sub-regions of the world, Sub-Saharan Africa is the most affected region with an average of 22.4 million people. This also shows a rising new challenge facing the region; a challenge of orphans who are a direct consequence of the HIV/AIDS epidemic. Apart from the epidemic, it is also worth noting that natural causes have also added to the number of orphans in the region due to decreasing life spans, falling standards of living and other dreaded diseases.

Figure 1. Adults and children estimated to be living with HIV in 2008

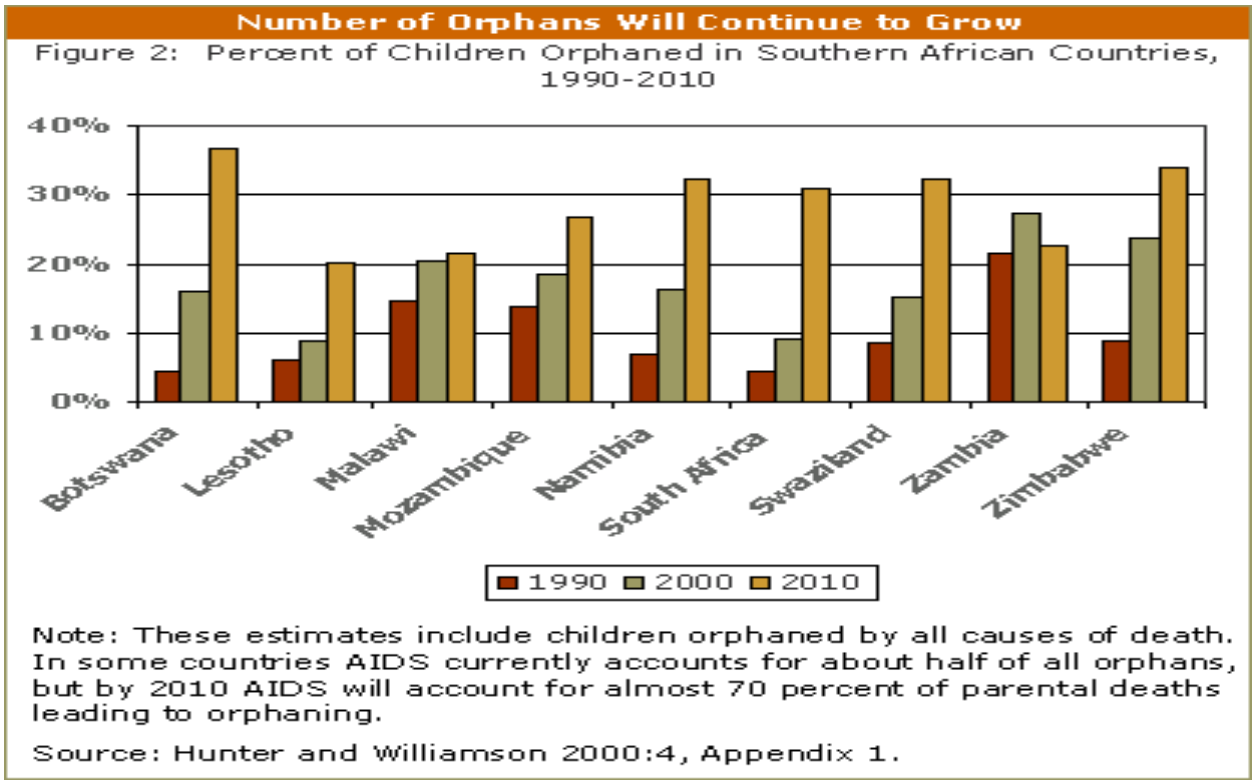


Source: UNAIDS, 2004: 12, Appendix 2.

Countries in the Southern African Region including Zimbabwe are facing an unprecedented crisis of children including orphans, who are made vulnerable due to poverty and HIV and AIDS. As the spread of HIV continues in most of these countries, it also claims the lives of many people who are in their prime productive years. The crisis has thus overwhelmed the existing modern and traditional support systems in these communities especially those that deal with children.

The figure below presents a graphic illustration of the estimated growth percentages of children orphaned in Southern African countries between the periods of 1990 to 2010, but in actual fact, in some countries the percentages currently far exceeds the estimates.

Figure 2. Percent of children Orphaned in Southern African Countries, 1990-2010



In Zimbabwe, since the first case was identified in 1985, prevalence has increased continuously reaching 36 percent between 1995 and 1997. According to UNAIDS (2003), an estimated 2 million people including children are living with HIV/AIDS. The latest HIV surveillance data suggests that prevalence has declined to 13.6 percent in 2010, (USAID Global Health, 2010). The epidemic has reduced life expectancy, deepened pervasive poverty among vulnerable households and communities, skewed

the size of populations, undermined national systems and weakened institutional structures.

With such statistics, it is obvious that Zimbabwe, like other countries in the sub-region, is facing a crisis of children who are vulnerable due to the HIV/AIDS pandemic compounded by poverty. Children in Zimbabwe are affected by the pandemic by contracting the disease from their mother and by losing a parent or both to the disease. At the end of 2009, approximately 1 million children under the age of 18 years had been orphaned by AIDS, (USAID Global Health, 2010). One in every four children under eighteen years has lost one or both parents to HIV/AIDS. An estimated 152 000 children under the age of 15 years are HIV positive and HIV/AIDS is the underlying cause of more than one third of all deaths among children under 5 years of age(USAID Global Health, 2010: 29). According to Save the Children Norway-Zimbabwe, 75 percent of all orphans are attributable to AIDS. AIDS related deaths have left many children under 15 years without one parent or even both since the epidemic began in the SADC region. 34 percent of children below 15 years are orphaned by AIDS (USAID Global Health, 2010: 30).

It is clear from these statistics that some of the socio-economic gains that made Zimbabwe the showpiece of Africa in the 1980s have been reversed by HIV/AIDS over the last two decades through increased mortality, increased health care costs at the macro level and reduction in household income and savings at a micro-level. According to the Zimbabwe Human Development Report (ZHD, 2003: 14), Zimbabwe is now in the low human development category, with the rural areas and women being disproportionately affected.

With such significant populations of orphaned children and others made vulnerable by HIV/AIDS the governments are faced by a range of issues including surging street children populations, a rise in child labour, child prostitution and other forms of exploitative work, vulnerability to crime, militias and terrorist organizations, a growing population of uneducated and unskilled labourers and a long-term foreign aid dependence. According to Munyati *et. al.,* (2006: 18) between 49 percent and 80 percent of households with orphans and other vulnerable children in Bulilima and Mangwe reported having one meal a day with almost half of these households indicating that some days they go without any food. 71.6 percent in Chimanimani, 71 percent and 46 percent in Plumtree have inadequate clothing.

The magnitude of orphans and other vulnerable children in Zimbabwe after the implementation of the ZNOCP can be summed up in a statement by one of the orphan respondents in Munyati *et. al.,*'s research, "*Zvese zvinongotinetsa kuwana kunze kwemvura yekunwa."* (We struggle to get most of the things except drinking water (2006: 38). Many orphans and vulnerable children do not have the basics for life such as clothing, food and basic education and water. Some orphans and other vulnerable children were often mistreated by relatives looking after them, openly or subtly accusing them of worsening their economic problems.

According to research by Munyati *et. al.*, (2006; 18) a total number of 86 692 orphans were found in the three districts of Bulilima, Mangwe and Plumtree. Approximately one quarter of all children in each district was orphans, (28 percent, 23 percent and 25 percent for Bulilima, Mangwe and Plumtree respectively). Between 49 and 80 percent of the households across the three sites reported that they had only one meal a day and

54.9 percent in Mangwe, 47.2 percent in Bulilima and 43.2 in Plumtree were not in a position to pay for medical fees if they fall sick (Munyati *et. al.*, 2006: 24). Proportion of children heading households in Bulilima accounts for 7.2 percent, Mangwe 2.5 percent and Plumtree 6.0 percent. Over 40 percent of these child-headed households across the three districts did not have caretakers and most of them had no one with whom to discuss their problems (Munyati *et. al.*, 2006: 24). A similar study was done by Muronda in 2010 in Masvingo districts. It yielded almost identical results on all aspects of orphans' livelihood. One can therefore give a generalized conclusion that orphans throughout the country face similar hardships despite the effort put by the government to rivet them.

The extended family and other support systems are overwhelmed by this situation. The majority of these children have no extended family networks to rely on following the death of their parents. The elderly have also been affected by the epidemic related deaths of their grown children who had previously supported them and according to UNICEF, 40 to 60 percent of orphans in Zimbabwe are now cared for by their grandmothers. The percentage of orphans and vulnerable children reached by support services has been declining due to the impact of hyperinflation, further burdening those caring for children orphaned by HIV/AIDS (USAID Global Health, 2010: 33).

Zimbabwe has a legislative and policy framework to support children, including those who are living under difficult conditions. These include the Children Protection and Adoption Act, Guardianship of Minors Act, Maintenance Act, Education Act, Sexual Offenses Act, Public Health Act, Legal Age of Majority Act, Labour Relations Act, Birth and Registration Act and National Security Act. Each of these pieces of legislations has

built-in mechanisms to ensure that the rights of children in general and other vulnerable children (OVC) in particular are protected.

There also national policies that have been put in place. The 1999 Zimbabwe National Orphan Care Policy (ZNOCP) provides basic care, protection and guiding principles on orphans and includes a commitment to national and community support. The policy includes a commitment to allocation of resources for enhanced access to education and health services. This is done through the Department of Social Welfare through a programme known as BEAM (Basic Education Assistance Module). The policy encourages a multi-sectoral approach and outlines guidelines and strategies related to children affected by HIV/AIDS. It also includes components on care and support programmes for OVC, specifically addressing child abuse, stigma and counselling. The ZNOCP led to the drafting of the National Plan of Action for Orphans and other Vulnerable Children (NPA for OVC) which is based on the Save the Children Norway's (SCN-Z's 2004) HIV/AIDS mitigation project approach and endorsed by cabinet in 2004 (Munyati *et. al.*, 2006: 36).

The government has also put in place programmes to assist OVC. The Public Assistance to Vulnerable Families Programme assists with basic living costs and health cover. Other programmes include the Public Works Programme (for support regarding drought and food shortages) and the AIDS Trust Fund. There are many other programmes implemented in partnership with NGOs, CBOs and FBOs. On the legal front, the government of Zimbabwe has established the victim friendly courts for protection of sexually abused children. In addition, Zimbabwe is signatory to international charters, conventions and declarations which protect the rights of children.

Notable ones include the United Nations Charter on the Rights of Children (UNCRC), African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of Children (ACRWC), the 1990 World Summit for Children and subsequently the 1992 and the 2002 World Summit for Children (Munyati *et. al.*, 2006: 36).

However, amidst these developments, it is noted that food shortages, worsened by the HIV/AIDS epidemic and drought, negatively affect household and government efforts to reduce child poverty in Zimbabwe, thus making it difficult for the country to achieve the Millennium Development Goals as they relate to children. The situation is resulting in the shift of priorities from social service delivery to reviving the economy and restoring the investor confidence, among other challenges. The increasing numbers of OVC are posing a major challenge to the limited resources and services required to significantly improve the children's livelihood (Munyati *et. al.*, 2006: 41).

2.4 AN OVERVIEW OF THE ZIMBABWE NATIONAL ORPHAN CARE POLICY

The Zimbabwe National Orphan Care Policy is a policy put in place by the government of Zimbabwe to regulate issues pertaining to children. It works hand in hand with other legislations which have exclusive focus on children like the Children's Protection and Adoption Act (Chapter 5: 06) the Guardianship of Minors Act and the Maintenance Act (MPSLSW, 1999).

The objectives of the policy are to re-orient the activities of the government and all other development partners including the Child Welfare Forum (CWF) to address the particular needs of orphans, to support existing family and community-based coping mechanisms in the area of orphan care. It also strives to mobilize, motivate and

sensitize all communities in Zimbabwe to develop orphan support strategies and interventions, and also to promote the ability of orphans to access public and private resources. It also strives to promote continuous research into issues pertaining to children and ensure that appropriate training on orphan friendly strategies are provided to service providers, to promote the inclusion of orphans in all activities by children or for children particularly in the areas of health care and education as well as to promote legal assistance and support whenever appropriate. It also strives to provide awareness on children's rights to all sectors of the Zimbabwean society and to promote the protection of orphans from abuse, neglect and all forms of exploitation including sexual and economic (MPSLSW, 1999).

Its basic principles are guided by the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Children (UNCRC) and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of Children (ACRWC) which advances the best interests of the child (Article 3 UNCRC and Article iv ACRWC), survival and development (Article 6 UNCRC and Article v ACRWC), name nationality and identity (Article 5 UNCRC and Article vi and xviii ACRWC), participation (Articles 12, 13, 14, 15, 17 UNCRC and Article viii ACRWC) and protection of a child without family (Article 20 UNCRC).

The policy's strategy and intervention method is firstly to establish a six-tier safety net system of orphan care which is established in the following manner:

2.4.1 Biological nuclear family

Every child has a right to remain in his biological nuclear family for protection and care. When this mode is disrupted by way of the death of parents, a best mode of care will be preferred.

2.4.2 The Extended family

Where possible and appropriate when both parents die, the extended family will be encouraged to take up the care and protection of the orphaned children through foster care or simply absorbing the orphaned children into their own families.

2.4.3 Community Care

When both the nuclear and extended families are not available to care for their children, the community within which the children live will be called upon to provide care and protection. The community will put in place an adult(s) to take up role of guardian(s) for the children. The children will remain in their community.

The village and chief's CWF will monitor their situation and accord them appropriate care and protection with support from government and the child welfare forum in the form of capacity and monitoring.

2.4.4 Formal Foster Care

Where the first three fail, children may be placed in formal foster care with government taking a more active role to ensure their proper care and protection.

2.4.5 Adoption

Children may also be placed on adoption where appropriate

2.4.6 Institutional Care

Orphans may be placed in institutional care as a last resort. Even then family type institutions should be preferred to the dormitory type.

Government, together with the child welfare forum, engage in awareness workshops at all levels of society to promote the care and protection of children, especially orphans in this safety net system. Government officials at local level are encouraged to assist the child welfare forum at their levels.

Secondly, the government of Zimbabwe has entered into partnership with the Child Welfare Forum which is a body formed by all or some child related organizations PVOs and government ministries under the guidance and leadership of the Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare (MPSLSW)). The CWF which is established at national, provincial, district, chief and village level plays an advisory role to the ministry. At village and chief's level, it is made up of locally elected persons under the leadership of the village head or chief and assisted by locally based government departments or PVO worker. The motives behind the partnership are to ensure medical care for all needy orphans, facilitate the provision of education to orphans, provide free legal representation and counselling, to spearhead and undertake the defence of all the rights of orphans using community based initiatives. It also ensures that problems from the Social Safety Nets, such as drought relief and public assistance, are put in place to cushion the poor. The partnership also aims at putting in place a basket fund which will be administered by the Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare (MPSLSW, 1999).

The overall responsibility for the orphan care policy and its implementation rests with the government of Zimbabwe through the Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare. This responsibility is based on the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Children and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of Children to which the government is signatory, the Children's Protection and Adoption Act (Chapter 5: 06) and the Private and Voluntary Organizations Act 1995. The responsibility is to be exercised at national, provincial, district and community level. In its conclusion, the policy emphasizes the establishment of partnership between the government ministries, private voluntary organizations, the community, churches, traditional organizations and non-governmental organizations (both at national and international level). The partners meet to monitor the situation of children, network, advocate on children's behalf and respect and respond to the needs of orphans under the consortium of the CWF. (MPSLSW, 1999).

The focus of this research is therefore to explore the nature of this partnership between the government and the civil society and the significance of this partnership in the implementation of the ZNOCP.

2.5 BACKGROUND OF THE GOVERNMENT-CIVIL SOCIETY PARTNERSHIP

Throughout the 20th century, the public service tradition was slowly eroded in many of the developed nations as it became mired in crises related to the growing costs of public services due to the increasing scale of provision and alleged inefficiencies. Governments were perceived as lacking accountability which led to increasing community dissatisfaction and demands for privatization and greater public choice. As a response to this growing crisis, governments ushered in the privatization and free

market solutions which Sapru (1994: 112) referred to as the ‘private sector solutions’ to ‘public sector problems.’

The demand for partnership between governments and civil society has emerged during a wave of de-bureaucratization from the late 1970s onwards. Against the background of the global economic crisis, neo-liberal critics diagnosed a crisis of the state and of the administration rather than of the market. They encouraged the public bureaucracy to hand over the tasks to private actors; that is, to privatize them or carry them out in partnership with private bureaucracy since this was alleged to be the only efficient-approach to public administration (Dunn-Cavelty and Sutar, 2009).

According to Du Toit, Van Der Waldt, Bayat and Cheminais, (1998: 266), the fact that the state and the market have not succeeded in reducing poverty does not mean that NGOs will do any better, but an assessment of NGOs’ distinctive competence and role in the development process shows that because NGOs work closely with the poor, they may enhance the access of the poor to public services and augment their political power through organization. NGOs also tend to be active catalysts for change and are responsive to the needs and problems of beneficiaries, thus providing a stimulus for government reform. An institutional development perspective regards NGOs as a sector promoting values associated with self-reliance, social justice, countervailing power and other values that needs to be protected and extended (Sapru, 1994). The government and individual NGOs cannot by themselves champion such values. At best, the state can provide a favourable political, social and economic environment in which development takes place through a mixture of private and public endeavours. According to Du Toit *et. al*, where freedom of association, participation and

empowerment are valued, it is civil society that creates the necessary normative framework for development (1998: 266).

NGOs are in a position to be more responsive than governments to local needs and problems. Given their greater local knowledge and commitment, they are more likely than governments to have interests and skills to adapt development programmes and projects to local conditions. Their small size and proximity to beneficiaries can make them more accountable for results. According to Du Toit *et. al*, another view of the rationale for NGOs is provided by the public goods theory which states that NGOs exist to satisfy the residual unsatisfied demand for public goods in society. It argues that the state tends to provide public goods only to the level that satisfies the median cotter. Where demand exceeds this level or where heterogeneous demands exist, NGOs step in to fill the gap (1998: 266).

Non-governmental organizations can also be created by the government to serve government interests, but other NGOs at the pro-government end may position themselves largely as non-profit contractors to government. Others may oppose any collaboration with government and some of the most conservative religious organizations see their role as non-political and avoid contact with the government on these grounds. Others see government as corrupt and ineffective and want nothing to do with it. Some NGOs have an anarchist orientation, viewing the state as inherently opposed to the interests of the civil society or even as the active enemy of the people. Many NGOs fall somewhere between the two extremes: skeptical if not suspicious of the state power, yet accepting government's necessary functions. They are prepared to work with the government when opportunities arise which are consistent with their social

commitments (Warwick, 2006). They may work with the government while bringing alternative perspectives to bear and challenging authorities when they stray from stated objectives. They may be one of the more important sources of alternative policy ideas especially when political parties represent factional politics rather than competing political ideologies (Du Toit *et. al.*, 1998: 267).

In this regard, the relationship between the government, the private sector and NGOs works both ways. Governments provide the necessary legislative environment for the operation of NGOs and the private sector. NGOs rely on the private sector for funding development projects and as such, the private sector enjoys benefits like tax holidays from government and vast public problems are solved. Hence, greater cooperation between the public, private and voluntary sector is being sought. Most governments are beginning to cooperate with the non-governmental sector primarily through economic policies, taxation practices, privatization and encouragement of donations by the corporate sector (Warwick, 2006: 77). In South Africa, cooperation has also included initiatives such as the establishment of the Independent Development Trust (IDT) and the channelling of some of the funds for poverty reduction through NGOs.

In the transitional economies of the former Soviet Union and Eastern Europe, as well as in the developing world, the need to reduce the scope of government intervention has been preached by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank (WB) economists as part of the gospel of structural adjustment (Brinkerhoff and Crosby, 2002: 5). These structural adjustment programmes had debilitating effects, especially to African states. Demands for deregulation, privatization, devaluation of national currencies and trade liberalization expanded the scope of poverty on already crumbled

economies. They have led to a decline of per capita income, drastic rises in unemployment, rising urban poverty, reduced government expenditure on social services and food subsidies, rising malnutrition, stagnant or falling levels of real income, increased poverty, deteriorating social conditions, reduced growth potentials and often with no significant improvements in their external accounts (Buthelezi, 1999: 24). This state of poverty and humanitarian crisis in Africa opened doors for donor agencies and partnering with them is all that was left to different African governments.

However, on the other hand, Tandon, (1999: 130) has described many African countries as displaying near fascist powers. This has been displayed in many African states such as Nigeria, Zimbabwe, Uganda and Libya and civil society has emerged to confront the human rights abuses in such different countries. For instance in response to the upsurge of military dictatorship in Nigeria under the presidency of General Babangida, a group of lawyers and journalists led by Clement Nwankwo and Olisa Ogbakaba founded the Civil Liberties Organization (CLO) to challenge the regime's human rights abuse. Through such a brave confrontation, the regime was forced to step down and that led to the plummeting of other groups which includes Constitutional Rights Project, Committee for the Defence of Human Rights and Campaign for Democracy, Human Rights Africa and Human Rights Monitor among others.

For many developing economies, the last century was also a time of deepening administrative crises, centered on the state's ineffectiveness in addressing issues around poverty and social and economic development. Towards the end of the last century, throughout the 1970s and 1980s, interventions by international funding and donor agencies to address such issues were frustrated by weak governance institutions,

entrenched corruption and post-colonial legacy of underdeveloped human capital (Tandon, 1999: 130).The same reforms applied in the developed world were transferred without question to developing countries that differed in economic, cultural, political and social terms. Compounding these administrative crises the last few decades have seen governments across the globe increasingly engaging with a multitude of organized civil society interest groups and recently emerging policy networks each seeking to influence national policy agenda (Tandon, 1999: 130).

The demand for inter-sectoral policy integration stretches across a vast array of disciplines such as environmental arenas, agriculture, social welfare, economic and other policy spheres. Whereas historically policy issues have been located within relatively autonomous policy sectors supported by separate government bureaus, the emphasis today is for developing inter-sectoral policies that link policy networks, policy purposes and effect desired changes in policy outcomes. Meeting the challenge of these new relationships to integration is difficult and time consuming and it requires relationships to be built among very different policy networks, academic disciplines and administrative agencies (Shannon, 2003: 14).

However, partnership becomes difficult when actors, agencies, NGOs and political resources that have traditionally ignored one another are suddenly forced, usually by legal changes to work together. Shannon (2003: 14) holds that there is often a lot animosity and territorial behaviour at the outset. If these differences are not ironed out, the whole idea of partnerships can be lost in the pursuit of different organizational trends that are not accommodative to the whole team involved in the policy development scheme. The kind of problems that face different countries today demands

collaboration because no one policy sector, agency or political actor can effectively address them alone. There are new issues across boundaries: ecologically, socially, politically, administratively and legally and frequently several regions, states, countries are involved and their separate regimes must find a way to work together.

2.6 THE STATE AND CIVIL SOCIETY IN CONTEMPORARY AFRICA

At the center of Africa's history of liberation rests an unprecedented role of the civil society, either providing help to the victims of oppression or rendering support to the liberation struggle. This is true about Zimbabwe which subsequently led to the enactment of the Welfare Organization Act 93 of 1967 to suppress all efforts by civil society to help the black majority in the liberation struggle against the Smith Regime (Bhebhe and Burombo, 1989: 65). In South Africa, the same trend can also be seen, for instance the enactment of the Fundraising Act (Act 107 of 1978) which gave the Minister of Social Welfare and Pensions the power to prohibit the collection of funds by CSO if he or she deemed that this was in the public interest, thus introducing stringent political control over the process of obtaining a fundraising number. The process of procuring a fundraising number was very complicated such that many organizations with relatively lower levels of expertise or resources were unable to comply with all the requirements (Kabane, 2010: 17).

In the case of South Africa, the nature of CSO-donor relationship was largely shaped by the apartheid government's hostility towards liberation organizations. Many donors who were sympathetic to the struggle channelled funding to CSOs that claimed to support marginalized groups and promote democracy. Even though post-apartheid South Africa has managed to alter these pieces of legislation in a positive way, it is not the same

trend followed by all other governments in Africa. For example, Zimbabwe simply renamed the legislation from Welfare Organizations Act to Private Voluntary Organizations Act without repealing the repressive sections, but rather retained them and as well added new sections that gave the government greater control over NGOs (Bhebhe and Burombo, 1989: 65).

Even in countries where the legislation is favourable, there are still issues affecting the government-CSO relations. For instance, in the recent past, drastic reduction in funding has had a negative effect on both the government and civil society. Governments however, have no big problem weathering the storm, but heavy reliance on foreign funds means that NGOs are more vulnerable than the governments to shifts in donor funding patterns. To start with, these shifts have a threefold negative implication to the civil society. Firstly, it places the civil society in a vulnerable position to the state. Secondly, the civil society is forced to gullibly take donor policies and agendas regardless of how the state in which the organization operates would react and in most cases leads to opposition and suppression by the state. Thirdly, the financial insecurity within the civil society could affect the organization's ability to influence public policy processes and even lead to a drift away from the core mission of NGOs as they struggle to survive (Kabane, 2010: 18).

In many developing countries, the determination of appropriate roles and responsibilities is still a contested terrain. There are remarkably significant differences in points of views among governments, NGOs and international donors. African governments are often uneasy about the political implications of service delivery partnerships with relatively

autonomous NGOs whose grassroots activities can lead to challenges to the state authority and its legitimacy.

A remarkable incongruence in government politics and civil society autonomy can be identified in Uganda under the presidency of Museveni. In 2003, Ball and Ramachandran appreciated that some of the best NGO-government relations in African could be found in Uganda where NGOs are invited to participate in many government commissions and help plan the work of various ministries. The problems NGOs face in Uganda are nevertheless emblematic of the kinds of restrictions NGOs face even under the best of circumstances (2003: 64). This turned around when Uganda in the NGO Act, 2006 resorted to an excessive red tape in the process of registering NGOs and inherently constraining provisions at registration. The regulations almost criminalize NGO contact with the rural population, compelling NGOs to cooperate with the government in their work even when this may be practically impossible in some instances. The regulations also confer unfettered administrative powers to the NGO board to dissolve and/or deregister an NGO (Uganda National NGO Forum, 2009: 9).

Additionally, in Latin America, many governments view NGOs with suspicion given past linkages to liberation theology and insurgency movements. In central Asia, governments are also wary about the private sector and civil society, distrusting their objectives and concerned about their political motives (Hill and Irving, 2009: 117).

Donor organizations, by favouring programmes with NGOs when the commitment and capacity of government to pursue reform are in doubt, can also exacerbate state-civil society tensions when governments perceive themselves to be in competition with

NGOs for scarce resources. On the other side, NGOs sometimes view collaboration with government with suspicion, concerned about loss of autonomy or interference. Private sector groups also tend to be suspicious as they see governments as anti-business, overly controlling and inept (Brinkerhoff and Crosby, 2002: 160).

According to Brinkerhoff and Crosby (2002: 161), to tap the full potential for policy implementation of state and civil society means addressing capacity issues on both the state and civil society. For a partnership to function effectively, the state needs both willingness and capacity to respond effectively and appropriately to input from the civil society. Partnerships should not be seen as a substitute for conscious efforts directed towards the strengthening of public sector capacity. For the partnership to achieve its full potential, private actors require effective public partners (Brinkerhoff and Crosby, 2002: 161).

In ensuring effective partnership, however, building management capacity in the state alone is an incomplete strategy in promoting partnerships for policy implementation. On the civil society side, non-state actors must possess the capability to participate in the policy formulation and implementation process. Enhancing the effectiveness of partnerships is directly linked to fostering the ability of civil society groups to address both supply and demand issues (Brinkerhoff and Crosby 2002: 161). The supply side deals with the capacity to handle the managerial and technical tasks involved in implementation partnerships including issues such as service delivery efficiency and effectiveness or expanding local efforts to regional or national level, a process called scaling up. The demand making capacity relates largely to advocacy and public dialogue functions as well as policy monitoring and ability to interact with policy makers

and public sector implementers to promote responsiveness, accountability and transparency (Brinkerhoff and Crosby, 2002: 162).

2.7 LEGISLATION AND CIVIC SOCIETY IN ZIMBABWE

In 2004, in Zimbabwe, NGOs closed and or relocated as a result of the direct consequence of the Non-Governmental Organizations Bill. The first legislation in Zimbabwe governing NGOs, the Welfare Organizations Act, 93 of 1967 was enacted two years after the Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) by the Smith regime. It was enacted primarily to give government control over the NGOs which were perceived to be aligned to the liberation struggle fighting colonial rule in the then Rhodesia. At that time, Rhodesia was regarded as a pariah state that did not pay attention to internationally recognized human rights; hence the passage of repressive laws including the Welfare Organizations Act since the government was fighting to remain in power (Bhebe and Burombo, 1989: 65). When the Act was amended and renamed the Private Voluntary Organizations Act in 1995, the government did not repeal the repressive sections, but rather retained them, as well added new sections that gave the government greater control over NGOs (Randolph, 1995: 38). For the past years, accusations have been traded between the government of Zimbabwe and non-governmental organizations. The government alleges that NGOs are engaged in political activities rather than the work they are registered to do. On the other hand, the civil society sector has been vocal in the condemnation of the government for alleged gross violations of human rights, (Human Rights Watch, n.d: 6). In response to this controversy, the government instituted the NGO Bill which was passed by the

government on 09 December 2004. The bill was meant to replace the Private Voluntary Organizations Act.

The NGO Law, Section 17 provides that no local non-governmental organizations shall receive any foreign funding or donation to carry out activities involving or including issues of governance (2004). The law prohibits foreign funding which means its aim is to prevent any and all foreign assistance from entering the country. Even though this restriction is directed to activities including issues of governance, all NGOs are brought together by the wide definition provided in the bill. NGOs includes any and all welfare, human rights, humanitarian aid and or development organizations which are not established by the Zimbabwean government or which are not otherwise organs of the state, to the extent that their objectives or activities can be linked to any of the categories in the definition (International Bar Association, 2004: 13). Noteworthy is the point that the minister's letter on 4 June 2008 to suspend all field activities of NGO operations never gave an exception for any kind of NGOs which means in Zimbabwe, all NGOs are susceptible to state attack despite their respective areas of concern and operation.

A comparison of this law with the South African Non-Profit Organizations Act, No: 71 of 1997 reveal the full extent to which the Zimbabwean law seeks to establish a stranglehold over non-government organizations. The South African NPO Act provides for a voluntary system of registration with certain incentives for registering. It is designed to facilitate and enhance NGO activity and Section 3 expressly outlines the state's responsibility to non-profit organizations in the context of an enabling environment; that is, every organ of the state must determine and coordinate the

implementation of its policies and measures in a manner designed to promote, support and enhance the capacity of non-profit organizations to perform their functions. In many respects, the Zimbabwean NGO law is an antithesis of this as it is self-evidently restrictive and prohibitive rather than enabling, (Human Rights Watch, n.d: 8). The law is restrictive to the freedom of association and goes against international and regional legislations that the country is a member for instance the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Article 20), International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (Article 22), African Charter on Human and People Rights (Article 10) and the NEPAD Declaration on Democracy, Political, Economic and Corporate Governance. Unlike legislations in South Africa, Malawi, Tanzania, Namibia and Mozambique, the Zimbabwean NGO law has been referred to by the Human Rights Watch as out of sync with SADC standards and a threat to civil society group, (n.d: 1).

State-civil society relations in Zimbabwe have been characterized by mistrust and intolerance and the state has always sought to severely curtail NGO operations through enacting legislations that limits rather than extent the rights of the NGOs, (International Bar Association, 2004: 3). Over the years, it has become increasingly clear that there was a problem with the civil society legislation currently in place and in 1996; NGOs started a campaign to have the act repealed. For instance, an NGO called Zimbabwe Rights organized a conference on NGO activism at Adelaide Acres, June 17-19, 1996. However, nothing came out of these campaigns and meetings and tensions continued to simmer and culminated in the NGO law being drafted without consultation with the NGO sector and its subsequent passing into law by parliament (Human Rights Watch, n.d: 4).

An analysis of the Zimbabwean legislation by Human Rights Watch shows a propensity to pass laws that limit in any way possible constitutionally guaranteed freedoms and also concluded that additional legislations to a constitutional provision usually leads to the right being limited rather than enhanced (n.d: 6). It should be noted that it is within this friction between the government and the civil society that the Zimbabwe National Orphan Care Policy was implemented requesting multi-sectoral and multi-actor collaboration.

2.8 THEORETICAL CONCEPTUALIZATIONS

To create a better understanding of the theoretical conceptualization that underpins the process of policy implementation, it is imperative to bring to fore the four generations of studies in policy implementation. A short synopsis of these generations of researchers into the field of policy implementation would enlighten the perspective from which the framework chosen in this study has been crafted.

2.8.1 First Generation: Top-Down Theories

The first generation researchers based their assumption on the premise that implementation begins with a top level decision and it should be implemented just as formulated and it neglects any kind of influence by implementers. The authors whose works are included within this perspective include Pressman and Wildavski, Van Meter and Van Horn, Bardach and Sebatier and Mazmania (Hill and Hupe, 2002: 98). They view implementation as a cog in the rationalized administrative machine. The framework is based on three concepts of organizational hierarchy, the separation of politics and efficiency (Brynard and De Coning, 2006: 167).

Key to understanding the top-down theories of the fathers of implementation studies, it is necessary to examine their idea of implementation deficit. The idea holds that in policy implementation, there must first be a policy and then from there a plan on how to implement that policy through a chain of agencies. They argue that agencies must have a near perfect relationship with each other; otherwise a number of small deficits become a great gap between the intended policy and the output of that policy. Thus their ideas focus on implementation deficit meaning how things went wrong in the end (Hill and Hupe, 2002: 98).

The top-down approach took as its point of departure the first generation of implementation research. Its essential feature is that it starts with a policy decision by the central government officials and then questions the extent to which the policy objectives were achieved over time and also question the extent to which the actions and competencies of implementing officials and target groups were consistent with the objectives and procedures outlined. It also looks at the principal factors affecting policy outputs and impacts, both these relevant to the official policy as well as other politically significant ones and, lastly, looks at how the policy was reformed on the basis of experience.

The framework has identified six sufficient and generally necessary conditions for the effective implementation of legal objectives. These conditions include clear and consistent objectives, adequate causal theory, implementation process that is legally structured to enhance compliance by implementing officials and target groups, committed skilful implementing officials, support of interest groups and sovereigns and lastly changes in socio-economic conditions which do not substantially undermine

political support or causal theory. The first three conditions can be dealt with by the initial policy decision (for example, statute) whereas the latter three are largely a product of subsequent political and economic pressure during the implementation process (Sabatier, 1986: 27).

However, the emphasis placed on clear and consistent policy objectives was a mistake. Experience has confirmed the critics' charge that very few programmes meet this criterion, either initially or after a decade through the process of policy formulation, implementation and reformulation (Sebatier, 1986: 28). Instead, the vast majority incorporate a multitude of partially conflicting objectives. Even though this does not precludes the possibility of assessing programme effectiveness, but it means that effectiveness needs to be reconceptualized into acceptability space demarcated by the intersection of the ranges of acceptable values on each of the multiple evaluative dimensions involved.

The fundamental flaw in the top-down model, according to the bottom-up theorists, for instance, Hjern and Hull, (1982), Hanf, (1982), Benett and Fudge (1981), Elmore (1979) is that it starts from the perspective of central decision-makers and thus tend to neglect other actors involved in the policy implementation interface. Their methodology assumes that the framers of the policy decision are the key actors and that others are basically impediments. This in turn leads them to neglect strategic initiatives coming from the private sector, street level bureaucrats or local implementing officials and from other policy subsystems.

Secondly, the top-down framework is difficult to use in situations where there is no dominant policy (statute) of agency, but rather a multitude of governmental directives and actors, none of them pre-eminent. This is often the case, particularly in social service delivery.

Thirdly, the top-downers are likely to ignore or at least to underestimate the strategies used by street level bureaucrats and target groups to get around central policy and or to divert it to their own purposes. Such models are likely to neglect many of the counterproductive effects of policies chosen for analysis (Sebatier, 1986: 29).

Lastly, there is also an argument that the distinction between policy formulation and policy implementation is misleading and useless. The distinction ignores the fact that some organizations are involved in both stages or that local implementing officials and target groups often simply ignore central legislators and administrators and deal directly with each other. Since it is difficult to isolate policy decisions, it is preferable to talk about action and reaction and because policies change as they get implemented, it is better to talk about policy evolution.

In as much as these criticisms are persuasive, there are also certain flaws within them. For instance, according to Sebatier, (1986: 29), obliterating the distinction between formulation and implementation will have two very significant costs. Firstly, it makes it very difficult to distinguish the relative influence of elected officials and civil servants, thus precluding an analysis of democratic accountability and bureaucratic discretion, hardly trivial topics. Secondly, the view of policy process as a seamless web of flows without decision points precludes policy evaluation simply because there is no policy to

evaluate and also precludes the analysis of policy change as there is never a defined policy at point A which changes into another defined policy at point B.

2.8.2 Second generation: Bottom-up theories

This generation emerged in the 1970s and early 1980s. It was formulated as a clear critique of the top-down theories. They argue that policy should focus on the relationship between street level workers and recipients and the networks that could be established between them. Also, they argue that policy impacts and goals differ widely depending on different local circumstances. Authors for this generation include Benny Hjern, David Porter, Ken Hanf and Chris Hull (Hill and Hupe, 2002). It is an intersubjectively reliable alternative to top-down approach and it began with an acute awareness of the methodological weaknesses of the top-down approach.

It starts by identifying the network of actors involved in service delivery in one or more local areas and ask them about the goals, activities, strategies and contacts. It then uses the contacts as a vehicle for developing a network technique to identify the local, regional and national actors involved in the planning, financing and execution of the relevant government and non-governmental programmes. This provides a mechanism of moving from street level bureaucrats (the bottom) up to the top policy makers in both the public and private sectors. Central in this approach is the belief that programme success is far more dependent upon the skills of specific individuals in the local implementation structures than upon the efforts of central government officials.

The fundamental strengths of this approach lies on the development of an explicit and replicable methodology for identifying a policy network or implementation structure. It

also lies in the fact that the approach does not begin with governmental programme, but rather with actors' perceived problems and the strategies developed for dealing with them. It is able to assess the relative importance of a variety of governmental programmes *visa-vis* private organizations and market forces in solving those problems.

The approach does not start with a focus on the attainment of formal policy objectives. According to Sabatier, it is therefore free to see all sorts of unintended consequences of governmental and private programmes. It is also able to deal with a policy or problem area involving a multitude of public and private programmes, none of them preeminent. In contrast, such cases present substantial difficulties for top-down approaches (1986: 33).

Due to its focus on the strategies pursued by a wide range of actors, bottom-uppers are better able to deal with strategic interactions over time than top-downers who tend to focus on the strategies of the programme proponents while neglecting those of actors.

However, just like the top-down approach, the bottom-up approach also has its flaws. Firstly, just as the top-down is in danger of overemphasizing the importance of the center *visa-vis* the periphery, bottom-uppers are also likely to overemphasize the ability of the periphery to frustrate the center (Sabatier, 1986: 36). More specifically, the focus on the actors' goals and strategies–the vast majority of which are at the periphery may underestimate the center's indirect influence over those goals and strategies through its ability to affect the institutional structure in which the individual operates.

The approach fails to start from an explicit theory of the factors affecting its subject of interest. For the reason that it relies heavily on perceptions and the activities of

participants, it is its prisoner and, therefore, is unlikely to analyze the factors indirectly affecting their behaviour or even the factors directly affecting such behaviour which the participants do not recognize. The networking methodology is a useful starting point for identifying many actors involved in a policy area, but it needs to be related via an explicit theory to social, economic and legal factors which structure the perceptions, resources and participation of those actors (Sabatier, 1986: 36).

It is worth noting that top-downers and bottom-uppers have been motivated by somewhat different concerns and thus have developed different approaches. Top-downers have been preoccupied with the effectiveness of a specific governmental programme and the ability of elected officials to guide and constrain the behaviour of civil servants and target groups. Bottom-uppers on the other hand are much more concerned with a policy problem. They are not primarily concerned with the implementation (carrying out) of a policy *per se*, but rather with understanding actor interaction in a specific policy sector. According to Sabatier (1986: 36), top-down approaches seems to have a comparative advantage in situations in which the research funds are very limited and one is primarily interested in mean responses and the situation is structured at least moderately well. Conversely, bottom up approaches seem more appropriate in situations where there is no dominant piece of legislation, but rather large numbers of actors without power dependency or where one is primarily interested in the dynamics of different local situations (Sabatier, 1986: 36). Therefore, an alternative to these either-or situations is either the comparative advantage of the two approaches or to synthesize the best features of the two approaches.

2.8.3 Third and fourth generation: Synthesizers

Hill and Hupe (2002) suggest that synthesizers' studies tend to combine elements of both top-down and bottom-up. Third generation fathers, Goggin, Bowman, and O'Toole, have developed a theory which focuses on middle range actors, their roles and the communication flow between layers. Hill and Hupe (2002: 99) also propose that Scharpf's work can also be included within the generation since he assumes that implementation involves several actors from multiple levels and multiple organizations, thus creating a need for interaction, collaboration and coordination relations.

Rosendal (2006: 13) argues that the studies that break organizational boundaries and pay attention to macro-settings and surrounding context variables should be considered as being fourth generation. Authors who might be included are O'Toole and his debate on multi-actor and multi-factor consideration, and, also, Rothman who defends that institutional context, namely, legitimization and trust relations between citizens and government are worthy of analysis (Hill and Hupe 2006: 102).

Hill and Hupe (2004: 102) referred to the third and fourth generations as hybrid theories which represent a combination between the first two perspectives, the top-down and bottom-up approaches. From the analysis of the top-down and bottom-up approaches, it has become inadequate to talk about elitist versus pluralism in their pure sense, as policy has become a mixture between central and local actors. Therefore, the concept of networks has gained a particular position on the policy debate.

The third and fourth is a blend of the top-down and bottom-up's best features and new additives. For instance, consistent with the bottom-up approach, one has to start from a

policy problem or subsystem rather than a law or other policy decision and then examine the strategies employed by relevant actors in both the public and private sectors at various levels of government as they try to deal with the issue consistent with their objectives. The networking technique developed by the bottom-uppers can be one of the methods for determining the actors in a subsystem although it needs to be combined with other approaches indicating the actors who are indirectly or potentially involved. Likewise, concerns of top-down theorists with the manner in which legal and social economic factors structure options needs to be incorporated into the synthesis as well as their concerns with the validity of the causal assumption behind specific programmes and strategies (Sabatier, 1986: 39).

This leads to a focus on the effects of socio-economic and other changes external to the policy network subsystem on actor's resources and strategies. It also leads to a focus on the attempts by various actors to manipulate the legal attributes of governmental programmes in order to achieve their objectives over time. Focus is also put on actor's efforts to improve their understanding of the magnitude and factors affecting the problem as well as the impacts of various policy instruments as they learn from experience. In short, the synthesis adopts the bottom-upper's unit of analysis; a whole variety of public and private actors involved with policy problem as well as their concerns with understanding the perspectives and strategies of all major categories of actors, not simply programme proponents.

It then combines this starting point with top-downers' concern with the manner in which socio-economic conditions and legal instruments constrain behaviour. Finally, the synthesizers adopts the intellectual style (or methodological perspective) of many top

downers in its willingness to utilize fairly abstract theoretical constructs and to operate from an admittedly simplified portrait of reality (Sabatier, 1986: 39). The framework starts from the premise that the most useful aggregate unit of analysis is not any specific governmental organization but rather the policy subsystem; that is, those actors from a variety of public and private organizations who are actively concerned with a policy problem or issue.

This has, therefore, resulted in a new approach to policy implementation, namely the network/inter-organizational interaction/multi-sectoral approach whose interest is on policy networks, formal or informal among government actors and other actors around shared or bargained ideas and interests which have influence over policy formulation and implementation process (Hill and Hupe, 2002: 102).

In the 1980s, the process of policy implementation was influenced by structural changes in public administration towards decentralization, devolution of responsibilities, partnerships and the restructuring of accountability relationships in service delivery. As a result of such transformations, public policies are increasingly being implemented in concert with non-state actors in cooperative or collaborative partnership arrangements. Expanding on the point, Conteh (2011: 49) stresses that these new inter-organizational partnerships are not merely a passing phase, but are likely to be permanent features on the landscape of policy implementation.

The central concern shared by theoretical perspectives on policy implementation, organization and governance, which is also central to this research, is to understand how government organizations interact with their external environment in the delivery of

services (Conteh, 2011: 49). As a result of a transition towards complex and multi-actor policy process, the focus of research on implementation shifted from trying to build meta-theory towards explaining concerted action across institutional boundaries. Thus the research into policy implementation broadens into a multi-focus perspective that looks at a multiplicity of actors, loci and levels (Hill and Hupe, 2002: 103).

This research integrates insights from theory on policy implementation, organization and governance. Such integration is concerned with the understanding of the nature of interaction and exchange among organized policy stakeholders in the public sector, as well as those between public agencies and non-governmental organizations and the private sector. The goal is to combine the analytical strengths of these three distinct, but parallel analytical perspectives in order to understand better the policy implementation process in complex, diverse and dynamic societies. To understand this integration, this study will utilize the inter-organizational approach.

2.8.4 Inter-organizational Interaction Approach

The theme of inter-organizational relations was developed in 1976 by Evan in a study of inter-organizational relations. The importance of the inter-organizational relations for public administration has been demonstrated by the works of Kicket, Klijnand Koppenjan (1997), Rhodes, (1997) and Scharpf (1993). These studies document the complicated realities facing administrators, developers and others in the several countries. The studies establish that inter-organizational relations can be crucial for policy implementation. The approach holds that policy implementation involves a multiplicity of organizations whose relations are either based on power dependency or organizational exchange (Sapru, 1994: 212). The approach sees implementation in

modern societies as taking place in a highly complex setting and it understands decision-making as a process of joint decision-making between organizations and actors sharing a common organizational pool (Sapru, 2010: 79).

According to Wanna, Butcher and Freyens (2010: 137) between organizations, collaboration confers a sense of ownership concerning the aim and means of the service being provided and perhaps even shared objectives and interests. They tend to take the form of relational agreements setting out broad and shared understandings about expectations, respective roles and responsibilities, code of conduct, intentions and strategies for resolving conflicts. Service provision now takes place through a myriad of actors and arrangements regarded as delivery networks. These systems are also termed differentiated polities involving mutually dependent, semi-autonomous and self-organizing players from different sectors who participate to some degree in producing outcomes. But reflecting on their old style mind-sets, governments then usually seek to manage these networks or marshal their activities towards the end desired by the government itself; seeking to control network providers (Wanna *et.al.*, 2010: 138).

Organizations involved includes government departments and ministries, sub-national agencies, non-profit and profit units and organizations of target groups engaged in co-producing the implementation process. To understand the way in which inter-organizational relations operate, there is need to consider the network of interests within a policy sector which Sapru (2010) related to as a cluster of organizations related to each other by resource dependencies and distinguished from other clusters by breaks in the structure of resource dependencies. Therefore, Sapru (2010) contends that

implementation should be analyzed in the context of clusters of actors and organizations. Since most organizations in the public sector are large systems of interacting organizations and parts of organizations, the implementation process has to take account of interacting organizations and parts of relationships between and among organizations.

The central idea in the inter-organizational interaction approach is to understand how government organizations or departments interact with their external environment in the delivery of policies. A concern central to this approach is the need to reconceptualize power and authority among public and non-state organizations in the policy environment.

The approach suggests that the success of policy implementation is a function not merely of the government's intra-organizational integrity, expertise and coherence but also of its adaptation to the imperatives of its external environment (Conteh, 2011: 51). This perspective also calls attention to the willingness or ability of organizations to reorganize their culture, operations and even their structural features in ways that may involve sharing authority and power as well as developing a learning culture (Dunn-Cavelty and Suter, 2009: 16). A crucial consideration in understanding policy implementation is how public agencies seek to adjust their mission to reflect the changing values and interests of the local environment.

The approach also calls attention to the emergent phenomenon of third-sector engagement in co-production. The institutional and ideal forces underlying the shift in policy implementation can be understood as causing a transition from simply delivering

and directing to one of facilitation, coordination and empowerment. It also posits one of the greatest challenges to the policy implementation process as Kumar (2005) highlights that the partnership lies on the conflicting principle of governments realizing that the task of public problem solving has become a team sport where participation of other parties needs to be coaxed and coached not commandeered and controlled against a feeling of being challenged, reinvented, downsized, devolved, decentralized, deregulated, subjected to performance tests and contracted out (Kumar, 2005: 5).

The expectations and demands of organized actors outside the public sector imply that the external environment is not just a set of variables to be manipulated by public agencies. Under this perspective, building legitimacy for effective policy intervention requires public agencies to identify the main actors within the field and their specific demands and then to seek ways to coordinate the various bases of power. Thus the structure of support and established feedback loops that public agencies maintain with local organized actors are, therefore, crucial factors of implementation success in this regard (Conteh, 2011: 52).

Under this perspective, the government can no longer simply issue instructions and monitor their implementation, but must shape the framework conditions in such a way that cooperation operates smoothly even without constant oversight. Policy implementation thus becomes a team sport where persuasions, negotiations and mutual trust are more important than control and regulation. In order to facilitate such new forms of cooperation, small and relatively homogenous networks are required that involve all actors who will and can contribute to the fulfilment of a public service in their own interest (Dunn-Cavelty and Suter, 2009: 17). Such actors most of whom come from

both the public and the private sector then organize themselves quasi autonomously. They fix rules for common action and determine the responsibilities and commitments of the individual partners. These various networks monitor themselves, because it is only within the network that sufficient expertise can be found to check whether all parties are meeting their obligations.

Thus public services are provided by a plethora of independent, self-regulating and self-organizing networks. Governments are typically also represented by the responsible agencies. It's important that these agencies, though representing the government, should not have a special status within the network. Although they represent the government, they are *primi inter pares* without authority since the network can only function effectively if decisions are made in negotiations where all parties are on equal footing (Dunn-Cavelty and Suter, 2009: 17). The independence of these networks from the government is the crucial element of this approach.

However, the governments are not entirely erased from the policy implementation interface, but they assume a new role. Instead of distributing tasks and monitoring their fulfillment as they are traditionally used to, they should coordinate and stimulate networks. They must ensure that public tasks are met by self-regulating networks or give incentives to these networks such that they can achieve these tasks (Conteh, 2011: 52). To ensure the achievement of public tasks, one possible instrument governments can use is the traditional direct partnership between public and private actors, where the authorities would engage in the network in order to contribute to the fulfillment of the public services.

The other possible instruments are social and economic regulations, the definition of liabilities, contracts between public and private partners, subsidies, loans, deficit guarantees, the issuing of licenses and concessions, state insurance, tax relief or fines which Salamon has referred to as the tools for the new governance paradigm (Dunn-Cavelty and Suter, 2009: 18). Although it may be necessary to motivate networks from outside, to fulfil a certain task, the self-regulating mechanism of the network should not be undermined as the control function would otherwise revert the government's responsibility.

Three interrelated propositions can be drawn from this framework. Firstly, that the political legitimacy and coordinating capacity of public agencies are indispensable elements of policy implementation. Secondly, that policy implementation can be seen as a complex mix of hierarchy and collaboration. Thirdly, inter-organizational interactions are both cooperative and conflicting as public agencies navigate through various levels of constitutional and policy jurisdictions while at the same time striving to gain legitimacy and positive feedback from non-state policy stakeholders (Sapru, 2010: 81). Structured hierarchies are confronted with the need to adjust their processes to environmental imperatives of horizontal management in order to maintain system stability, manage change and deepen the impact of their policy intervention (Conteh, 2011: 49).

However, deriving from the point above; Sapru (2010) highlights that in typical circumstances involving multiple organizations and a set of decisions, implementation success is a near impossibility even if the likelihood of agreement at any point is exceedingly high. Bringing all parties together can also enhance the odds of success. The implementation challenge faced by public administrators and developers then

consists of assessing the structural setting itself to determine its strengths and weaknesses in encouraging cooperative effort. They also need to tap common interests and exchange as appropriate and practical to increase prospects for implementation action (Sapru, 2010: 81). Another important aspect of complex implementation contexts is the structuring among the organizations themselves. Some policy tasks require that organizations or public agencies work together closely with the outputs of each serving as inputs for the other. In large complicated inter-organizational networks, carrying out public programmes, there may be instances of each of these types of interdependency within the same overall programme array (Sapru, 2010: 82). In programmes seeking to pool the action of multiple organizations, adding units can either increase prospects of some implementation action.

The question of how to bring agencies with diverging interests together is one of the greatest critiques posed against the inter-organizational interaction approach. However, O'Toole and Montjoy have introduced different types of interdependencies that may develop between and among the different agencies involved in the implementation of a policy. These interdependencies, therefore, determine the level of co-ordination required. These interdependences can be pooled, sequential or reciprocal.

In pooled operating interdependencies, agencies will share pooled interdependence because they operate upon the same object in the course of implementation. According to O'Toole and Montjoy, even if the total impact of the efforts would be enhanced by coordination, however, no organization requires anything from another to do its part of the job. The lack of coordination under pooled interdependence has some positive aspects. Implementation does not have to wait upon agreement; each organization can

simply do its own thing, so implementation is reduced to a group of intra-organizational problems, (Sabatier, 1986: 43). The resulting impact upon the common target may be something less than the ideal that would result from perfectly coordinated efforts. However, the likelihood of some impact is probably greater under pooled interdependence than under alternatives, other things being equal.

Sequential operating interdependence involves sequentially interdependent agencies like numerous grant-in-aid programmes and the distinguishing characteristics of this type of relationship is that delay or breakdown at one point will affect the pattern of operations of subsequent units. The concern in this study is not on the pattern of operating interdependencies, but with the response of agencies to a new mandate requiring such a relationship. According to Sabatier (1986), relationships get established through spontaneous coordination, sequential interdependence or reciprocal interdependence (Sabatier, 1986: 44).

A spontaneous interdependency occurs when unit A has an incentive to produce an output for use by unit B; but has little reason to be concerned about B's actions. In a simple sequential formative process, unit A would propose a programme including the new routines and or constraints for B. Unit B may then accept or reject. This process would continue down the chain until all agencies had agreed or one necessary unit had refused (Sabatier, 1986: 44). In reciprocal interdependence, under the contingency just mentioned, or in any circumstance, where A cannot accept a simple rejection from B, B may be able to use this fact to bargain with A over the terms of the proposed operating programme, thus generating reciprocal interdependencies at the early stages.

In reciprocal operating interdependence, agencies must adjust mutually to coordinate with each other bringing to the fore all difficulties of coordination enumerated earlier. Reciprocal operating interdependencies forces agencies to take these problems plus the added burden of continuous bargaining; whether about the nature of interdependence or the substance of implementation. However, it causes great difficulties for the agencies involved (Sabatier, 1986: 45). In this study, a pooled operating interdependence is, therefore, adopted.

Dunn-Cavelty and Suter (2009) added that co-operations are difficult due to diverging interests. The problem of diverging interests arises when partners are forced to cooperate under duress. Networks can only be successful if they are based on a sufficiently large common denominator. In cases where target tasks are different from the organizations' scope, direct partnerships can be really difficult. Such networks can only be of use if the government can make meaningful contributions to the functioning of a network. They can be successful if the actors involved focus on the common interests and have established a mutual trust.

The reduction of the state's role to that of coordinating and stimulating networks means that it has no way of monitoring whether private organizations are fulfilling their function in the area of policy implementation. The loss of the government's monitoring role is a core argument in applying the network approach in policy implementation. While organizations might find it easy to gloss over their weakness and vulnerability towards the government, it may be more difficult to embellish their performance in communicating with other experts and this makes monitoring of self-regulated networks difficult.

Expanding on the point above, Dunn-Cavelty and Suter (2009) further point out that there might develop dissonances between the logic of the policy being implemented and the logic of government-civil society partnership. The core function of the state cannot be outsourced. The outsourcing of essential functions in the field of policy implementation to self-regulating networks which are not subject to government oversight is quite problematic. Compared to the concept of public-private-partnerships (PPPs) where the state also confers authority on private actors but continues to monitor the fulfillment of tasks, the problem of responsibility is further accentuated in network governance since the state limits itself to the coordination of networks.

Inducing implementation success via inter-organizational relations typically requires some combination of efforts such as creating and using common interest, power dependency and effecting cooperation through exchanges. In creating and using common interests, managers in policy implementation can make all participants understand that everyone shares the commitment. They can also highlight the key points of common interests that could get lost from participants' attention amid a welter of detail and uncertainty (Sapru, 2010: 83). Crafting, reporting system, monitoring actions across multiple units and using persuasion by finding ways to increase the perceived value associated with cooperative activities can also enhance common interest.

In power dependency, interaction of organizations is a product of power relationships and organizations which depend on other more resourceful organizations have to work in such a way as to secure and protect their interests and maintain their autonomy (Sapru, 1994: 215). On the other hand, effecting cooperation through exchanges is

based on the precept that exchanges between organizations involved in implementation can create sufficient inducements to congeal cooperation. These exchanges in policy implementation can expand considerably beyond formal agreements to trading in money for effort or result (Sapru, 2010: 85). For instance, central government agencies such as the central social welfare board can offer funding, discretion and information to sub-national units which can in turn regulate or deliver services better than could central authorities within the territory. The success of sub-national effort also benefits the national agency whose interest is served by smooth flows of funds and delivery of services (Sapru, 2010: 85).

Conversely, sometimes inter-organizational arrangements for implementation are structured to allow just one of the units involved to exercise potential veto power. Sapru (2010) contends that this sort of arrangement in an inter-organizational approach is sometimes purposely chosen to make sure an implementation success. However, in the spotlight of this study it has failed to work out for Zimbabwe in the implementation of the National Orphan Care Policy where the Department of Social Welfare exercised veto power (Muronda, 2010: 87).

Conclusively, the multi-actor implementation framework views policy as diverse expressions of inter-organizational cooperation among public agencies on the one hand and between state agencies and organized societal interests on the other. These inter-organizational co-operations are seen as networks of complex relationships involving inter-governmental cooperation among agencies with similar mandates from different levels of government and state-civil society partnership incorporating community development organizations and business groups.

2.9 CRITICAL VARIABLES IN POLICY IMPLEMENTATION

Scholars across the policy implementation discourse have identified a set of critical variables that are generally accepted as important to ensure the success of any policy. Brynard (2005) states that there is a need to understand implementation as a complex political process, rather than a mechanical-administrative one. The study of implementation, therefore, becomes an attempt to unravel the complexity of policy as it travels through the complex, dynamic maze of implementation, to understand how it changes its surroundings and how it is changed itself in the process and most importantly, to see how it can be influenced to better accomplish the goals it has set out to achieve (Brynard, 2005: 111). While the maze through which policy travels in the course of its implementation is unique to each situation, synthesis of the accumulated scholarship on the subject suggests that critical variables that shape the direction that implementation might take are identifiable.

Five such variables are important causal factors for a multitude of scholars adhering to otherwise divergent perspectives of top-down or bottom-up working on differing issues such as environment, education, welfare, and security in different political systems such as federal, and unitary and in countries at different levels of development such as developed, developing or transitional (Brynard, 2005: 112). These five variables are policy content, institutional context, commitment, capacity and clients and coalitions. These variables are linked to and influenced by others, though to a varying extent depending on the specific implementation situation. Brynard (2005) and Brynard and De Coning (2006) have made a significant influence in unveiling and exposing the salience of these variables in policy implementation, especially in a local context of development.

Brynard has made a significant contribution in the development of the field and the following passages are heavily borrowed from his work.

2.9.1 Policy Content

The concept was developed by Lowi (1963) who characterized policy as distributive, regulative or redistributive. Distributive policies create public goods for the general welfare and are non-zero sum in character. Regulatory policies specify rules of conduct with sanction for failure to comply. Redistributive policies attempt to change allocations of wealth or power of some groups at the expense of others. Fundamental to this variable is the assumption that policies determine politics and that the most significant political fact is that governments coerce. The content of policy then is a function of the level and type of coercion by the government. This arsenal of influence is identified through remunerative, normative or coercive power which corresponds to the distributive, regulative and redistributive policies.

There are a number of implementation scholars such as Lowi, Smith, Van Meter and Van Horn, Rein and Robinowitz, Barrett and Fudge, Mazmanian and Sabatier, Elmore and Petrus. They all share a widespread realization that the content of policy is important, not only in the means it employs to achieve its ends, but also in determining the ends themselves and how it chooses the specific means to reach the ends (Brynard and De Coning, 2006: 197). Three main elements in policy content are the objectives, the real problems to be addressed by the policy and solutions including all the activities, strategies and solutions needed to put the policy into practice (Brynard and De Coning, 2006: 198).

2.9.2 Context

Exclusive focus here is on the institutional context through which policy passes through during the implementation process. It is also shaped by the larger context of social, economic, political and legal realities of the system. It shows up how the larger context impacts on the implementation process, primarily via the institutional corridor through which implementation must pass. Effective working relations can be established by transactions among agencies with no formal connections as described in the inter-organizational interaction approach. In short, bureaucratic contexts favourable to implementation more often grow out of human interactions than hierarchical regulations (Brynard and De Coning, 2006: 198). Context is important for any policy for three tactical reasons which are:

- A policy that is appropriate in one locale may lead to disastrous results in another. Therefore context is important for determining substance
- The context influences process that can be used to formulate policy and implement it. Without contextual sensitivity, effective policies may never be developed
- Contextual maps are needed to execute policy. Contexts stand in the way of the transformation of pronouncement into performance and contexts also changes over time.

2.9.3 Commitment

Governments may have most logical policy which may pass the cost benefit analysis and have a bureaucratic structure that do honour to Max Weber, but if those entrusted with carrying it out are unwilling or unable to do so, very little or nothing will happen

(Brynard, 2005: 9). This sentiment is associated with the top-down or bottom up scholars under the title of disposition. Many implementation scholars consider it a critical variable to effective implementation. The bottom-up view implementer commitment as fashioned primarily by the content of the policy and its capacity or resource provisions both of which can be controlled from the top. The bottom uppers while accepting the influence of context and capacity tend to see commitment as being influenced much more by the institutional context and clients and coalitions. Commitment therefore is not just important to the street levels, but all levels through which policy passes and in cases of international commitment, this includes the regime level, state level, the street level and all levels in between. It influences and is influenced by the four remaining variables.

2.9.4 Capacity

Capacity of the public sector is seen in terms of general systems thinking as structural functional and cultural ability to implement the policy objectives of the government for instance the ability to deliver those public services aimed at raising the quality of life of citizens, which the government has set out to deliver effectively as planned over time and in a durable way (Brynard and De Coning, 2006: 199). Capacity refers to the availability of and access to concrete or tangible resources which encompass human, financial, material, technological and logistical. It also includes the intangible requirements such as leadership, motivation, commitment, willingness, courage, endurance to transform rhetoric into action. The political, administrative, economic, technological, cultural and social environments within which action is taken must also be sympathetic and conducive to successful implementation.

Providing the necessary resources is not a simple matter and merely knowing what the necessary requirements are can be a significant problem. More importantly, it is a political rather than a logistic problem (Brynard and De Coning, 2006: 199). Like implementation itself, resource provision deals with question of who gets what, when, how, where and from whom. The critical question of understanding how capacity may influence implementation effectiveness is not simply one of what capacity is required and where, but also of how this capacity can be created and operationalized (Brynard and De Coning, 2006: 200). Many alternative service delivery mechanisms exist to customize and maximize the success of delivery in a given context. Therefore, the role of the state in many instances should not be that of a producer of services, but rather that of a facilitator, regulator, observer or even just a participant depending on the capacity of the state and peculiar circumstances surrounding the specific case. The government should decide where necessary not to produce services itself, but to adopt the role of facilitating, enabling and coordinating the delivery of services, for instance another department or public agency or in the voluntary or private sectors.

2.9.4 Clients and coalitions

Brynard and De Coning (2006: 200) bring an important point that power shifts among the different outside interest groups, produces a corresponding shift in the implementation process. Policy implementation is therefore affected in some critical sense by the formation of local coalitions of individuals affected by the policy. Hence the first task is to determine and catalogue the potentially influential clients and coalitions from the larger cast of characters in the implementation arena. Brynard and De Coning (2006) add that the assemblage of actors who are directly or indirectly affected by any

implementation process is likely to be far larger than the set of key constituencies whose interests are impacted enough for them to have the desire or the ability to influence the implementation process in return. The representatives or clients coalitions are intended to secure a substantial benefit for the members of these particular interest groups and where the interest groups have to vote, they are a power to be reckoned with due to the pressure they can bear on the legislature or the implementation process (Warwick, 2006: 37).

Three dimensions can be deduced from these variables. Rosendal (2000) states that context and capacity may be subsumed under state capacity while commitment seems closely related to both state capacity and state-society relationship. Clients and coalitions clearly equal non-governmental proponents and opponents. These factors are all important to policy formulation and enforcement while the impact of content is mainly related to the outcome phase. Three dimensions, namely, state capacity, state-society relationships and non-governmental proponents can be construed.

The state capacity refers to the political and administrative capacity of a government to formulate and enforce policies depending on institutional resources, financial resources and human resources. Institutional resources can be identified as the general efficiency of the bureaucracy or the presence or absence of standard operating procedures (SOP) which indicate whether the country has traditionally performed activities in the issue or not. These SOP influence how new obligations are received in the domestic sphere (Rosendal, 2000: 23). Developing countries are assumed to have less stringent SOPs making implementation less predictable and less efficient, but on the other hand according to the inter-organizational interaction approach and the concept of self-

governing networks, lack of rigorous SOPs may enable greater flexibility in the implementation output through disposition (Rosendal, 2000: 23). Human resources can be expressed in terms of the welfare expertise and commitment. Expertise indicates the cognitive capacity to deal with the problems and commitment concerns the willingness to pursue such policies.

State-society relationships are therefore implications of the balance between an effective central bureaucracy and local participation in policy formulation, enforcement and responsiveness. In order to have a positive effect on the compliance, state-society relationships must be in some kind of equilibrium. Some degree of central control is needed for coordination and efficiency in central policy making while too strict central bureaucracy may reduce the legitimacy of policy initiatives with the regional administration, non-government actors and the local people (Rosendal, 2000: 24).

2.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, available literature has been reviewed indicating the developmental channels through which the policy implementation literature has travelled through the years. It also indicates and explains the ventures on the literature explaining in-depth the new paradigm in policy implementation literature; the inter-organizational approach. This approach has been adopted in this research due to its focus which breaks organizational boundaries and pays attention to the macro-settings and surrounding context variables, a creation of networks and a focus on the policy subsystem; that is, a multiplicity of actors, loci and levels from a variety of public and private organizations who are actively concerned with the policy problem or issue. The essential justification behind the selection of this approach is the assertion that the interactions generate a

synergistic effect; that is more and or better outcome can be achieved than if partners acted independently. Critical variables in policy implementation have also been looked at as well as the magnitude of orphan conditions in Zimbabwe and the roots of government-civil society partnerships. The next chapter will outline the research design and method of the study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter looked at the theoretical framework which forms the basis for this research. It also tried to identify the gaps in the researches available to this field of study and the general conclusion drawn from different scholars.

This section focuses on the research design and methodology that directs the investigation. The section's purpose is to explain the rationale behind the methodology that will be used, and also to indicate how the research is going to be conducted. It further outlines the steps that are taken to ensure data gathering, analysis, case selection, validity and reliability and ethical considerations of the study.

3.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

It is a philosophy of the research process, which includes assumptions, and values that serve as bases of research and standards that the researcher uses in interpreting data and reaching conclusion (Welman, Kruger and Mitchel, 2005: 64). This research is going to use qualitative methods.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design is a plan that will be applied during the investigation in order to answer the research questions and it aims at trying to ensure that answers to questions are accurate ones. So, the selection of participants started with the researcher approaching the Department of Social Services which was also the secretariat of the network of the Z.N.O.C.P implementation. The researcher presented the nature of the

research which he indicated was entirely academic through presenting the ethics clearance letter. The department of Social Welfare helped the researcher to identify other organizations which took part in integrated implementation of the orphan care policy and are still existing and active in Masvingo district. The Department of Social Services also helped to indicate organizations whose services had been suspended by the governor of the city of Masvingo.

In this regard seven other organizations which essentially took part in the implementation of the Z.N.O.C.P and still active in the network implementing the National Action Plan for Orphans and other vulnerable children (N.A.P for O.V.C) were identified and incorporated in the study. Other organizations never resumed after political shut-downs and intense economic recessions. Organizations which were incorporated in this study include the Department of Social Services, Department of Education, Hope Tariro Trust, FACT, CARE international, National Aids Council, Scripture Union and National Association of Non-governmental Organizations (N.A.N.G.O). Even though there are many organizations in existence in Masvingo District today, quite a few shares the memory and experience of implementing the Z.N.O.C.P. This drastically affected the sample size of this research.

Ward councillors were selected randomly from the list provided by the Department of Social Welfare. The process of data gathering started when the researcher made contacts with the respondents in their offices, making appointments. The researcher explained the purpose and aim of the research and also provided the ethics clearance letter. After the respondents fully understood their roles in the research and gave their

informed consent verbally, they were requested to sign the consent letter (see Annexure B).

The data gathering process began by soliciting biographical details of the respondents, and then moved into themes already developed in the interview schedule. Under each theme was a set of questions (see Annexure A). In this regard, data was collected based on already developed themes, rather than deducing themes from collected data. This helped to arrange data in primary themes during data gathering and make it easier to see other, emerging sub-themes during analysis. The government departments were the first to be interviewed, followed by NGOs and subsequently councillors. This chronology reduced the arrangement of data that is required prior to comparative analysis.

3.4 DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH SITE

The research site is the area in which the researcher intends to conduct the study depending on the requirements of the research topic. This research was conducted in Masvingo district. This district lies in Masvingo province, south east of the country of Zimbabwe. The district spans over 654 000 hectares with a population density of 43 persons per square kilometre which is considered high for a communal area. The district includes three agro-ecological zones or natural regions; natural region N.R (iii) accounting for 7 percent, NR (iv) accounting for 82 percent and NR (v) which accounts for 11 percent of the total district area. Large scale commercial farms occupy a third of the district in NR iii and iv. Communal areas constitute about 18 percent of the total district area and are in region iii, iv and v. Resettlement areas and small scale commercial areas share the remaining proportion. The altitude of this district ranges

from 450m (Nyajena communal area) to 1240 m above sea level.

http://www.fao.org/docrep/field/003/AB967E/AB967E10.htm.

The district is divided into 45 wards of which 15 belong to the urban and semi-urban areas and the remainder is in the remote areas of the district. This research site was chosen largely because some preliminary policy impact assessment researches of the ZNOCP by other researchers, for example, Muronda (2009) were done here. These studies have provided background information which triggered this research's quest to inquire into the implementation analysis of the same policy. It is also chosen because it is the resident district of the researcher hence it will save research costs in terms of travelling.

3.5 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

This research chose a qualitative method because it is concentrated in understanding the many dimensions of the subject of investigation and they give a rich exploration on complex phenomena (Straus and Corbin, 1990: 132). Qualitative research is any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification. Henning state that "…qualitative research is a research that utilizes open-ended, in-depth; semi-structured or close structured interviews, observations and group discussions to explore and understand the attitudes, opinions, feelings and behaviour of individuals or group of individuals." (2003: 41).

The researcher used interviews firstly with government and NGOs; the interviews utilized were open ended and closed ended questions as well as semi structured questions because of the variant nature of the information available to this research

topic. However group interviews could not be conducted because it was not easy to bring together all the service providers, for example, different appointments were given from one service provider to another. Observations were used especially when the researcher was interviewing the respondents and this allowed a collection of data beyond an individual verbal utterance.

According to Chisaka and Vakalisa (2000), qualitative research can take many forms such as ethnographic studies, field studies, case studies and phenomenological studies. During data collection the researcher used in-depth individual interviews with both NGOs and Government departments involved in the implementation of the ZNOCP as well as wards councillors. Qualitative research helped the researcher to discover underlying motivations, feelings, values, attitudes and perceptions about the phenomena under study (Strydom, 2003: 272). Qualitative research is a “way of knowing” and learning about different experiences from the perspective of the individual. This research followed a naturalistic paradigm based on the notion that reality is not predetermined, but constructed by research participants (Pilot, 2001: 217). This is the reason why field interviews were done with different organizations and individuals that have had different experiences in the implementation of the ZNOCP. This research used the naturalistic method which is aimed at exploring the phenomenon in question by focusing on the individual organizations which have had an experience in the implementation of the policy, with the assumption that understanding is maximized by minimizing the interpersonal distance between the researcher and the participant.

3.6 RESEARCH POPULATION

The research population refers to the entire group of individuals or objects to which the researchers are interested in generalizing the conclusions (Strydom, 2003: 193).The research population that was used was composed of civic society organizations, governmental departments and ward councillors in Masvingo district. The research involved both males and females. The reason why this wide selection of participants was done is that the research phenomena demand a broad explanation that cannot be concluded based on an explanation from just one side for example, government departments alone or NGOs alone. The research seeks to explore on the mutual interactions of organizations and policy recipients in the policy implementation phase, hence feelings and responses from either side is important. It is supposed that there are 45 non-government organizations in Masvingo province of which many are based in Masvingo district (urban), but unfortunately for this study, 29 organizations had been suspended by the governor. So, they were not available for study.

3.7 SAMPLING

The population included government departments, NGOs and wards councillors as the custodians of the people or individual beneficiaries of the ZNOCP. This was done to bring out the different experiences that these individuals and organizations have experienced during or after the implementation of the policy as a direct consequence of their partnership in the implementation. To obtain the sample for service providers, the researcher first identified the service providers available in Masvingo District. The first service provider identified was Department of Social Welfare because it offers services to orphans as a government department and it works in collaboration with other

organizations that help the orphans. The researcher was referred to CARE International, Hope Tariro Trust, National AIDS Council, FACT, and Scripture Union, the Department of Education and National Association of Non-Governmental Organization (NANGO) and to the councillors in Masvingo district wards, both urban and rural community and this became the sample that was interviewed.

The selection of participants was not an easy task because a total of 29 organizations' services had been suspended by the governor of the city of Masvingo, Titus Maluleke on 22 February 2012. This left only a few organizations open for this study. When this field study was conducted in May 2012, the order of suspension had not been lifted. Out of the 45 organizations purported to be operational in Masvingo province, only 16 organizations were left. Some of these organizations left were not operational in Masvingo district where this study was confined. Out of the remaining organizations in Masvingo district, not all were welfare organizations and lastly not all of them shared the experience of implementing the Z.N.O.C.P. As a result, six non-governmental organizations and two government departments met the selection criteria for this study.

While this had a negative implication on the sample size, in some ways, it saved an important task of unveiling the nature of partnership between the Zimbabwean government and the civil society. This is in line with the objective of this study.

3.8 NON-PROBABILITY SAMPLING

This research used non probability sampling because it sought to understand the impacts of partnership between specific organizations in the implementation of the ZNOCP. Not all governmental or non-governmental organizations partook in the

implementation, hence this specific selection. Government departments chosen were the Department of Social Welfare and the Department of Education. NGOs include, National AIDS Council, CARE International, Hope Tariro Trust, FACT, Scripture Union and NANGO.

The Department of Social Welfare also provided a list of 45 ward councillors in the district. From the list, the researcher did a random sampling and came up with six names and addresses of ward councillors, three from the rural and three from urban areas. Ward councillors as the people who stand between the communities and programmes from organizations, (governmental or non-governmental or both) are able to assess how the partnership between these organizations has had an impact on the policy output in their communities. Also as representatives of people, they are also able to tell how their response to the policy programme has affected the policy output.

3.9 PURPOSIVE SAMPLING

This research used purposive sampling because only those individual organizations and people who met the requirements were used in the research. This type of sampling is an accurate or near to accurate representation of the population. In the research purposive sampling gave the accurate representation of organization that participated in the implementation of the ZNOCP. The results are more accurate since the researcher only focused on specific organizations which have had hands on experience in the implementation process and still aware of the nature of partnership that existed between them and government in the implementation process and how that has affected the policy outputs.

3.10 SAMPLE SIZE

It is the number of units or individuals used in a study. In this research, the sample size was eight organizations, two governmental departments and six non-government organizations as well as six ward councillors, three from rural areas and three from urban areas. Organizations contacted include the Department of Social Welfare, Department of Education (government departments), National AIDS Council, CARE International, FACT, Scripture Union, Hope Tariro Trust and NANGO (non-governmental organizations).

The reason for choosing this sample size was because the research conducted in-depth individual interviews which were time consuming and that it was also easy to manage. It is particularly useful for exploring attitudes and feelings and to draw out precise issues (Robinson, 1999: 144).

The researcher also settled on this sample size because other organizations had been suspended by the governor of the city of Masvingo, hence they were not available for study. www.amnesty.ie.node/2462. A small sample is also advantageous in that the researcher can probe for clarification and solicit greater detail and responses have high face validity due to the clarity of the context and detail of the discussion. In this research it was useful in identifying the feelings and opinions and also in getting in-depth information on the type of partnership that existed between organizations in the implementation of the ZNOCP, both horizontally and vertically.

3.11 RESEARCH PROCEDURE

The researcher used an interview schedule as its research instrument (see Annexure A), which comprised of themes and main questions that can answer the research question as well the objectives. Appointments were made with different organizations and explanation on the purpose of the study as well as presenting the ethics clearance letter was done. After respondents gave informed consent to partake in the study, they were requested to sign the consent form (see Annexure B).

During data collection in-depth interviews were utilized. Firstly, respondents were asked a series of questions regarding their biographical details. Secondly, the remaining sections of the interview schedule were divided into themes and data was collected based on already developed themes rather than developing themes from the collected data. Data gathering began by making contact with the respondents and the process of data analysis began with taking field notes. The researcher could already identify patterns in data that is gathered. This is in line with Strydom, (2003: 197) who indicates that in qualitative research, data collection and data analysis are sometimes synonymous processes.

3.12 IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS

Gathering data was a discovery process; whereby participants were interviewed about the significance of inter-organization interaction in policy implementation and its effects on policy outputs. These interviews were conducted with a fairly open framework that allowed a focused conversation with two way communication. In-depth interviews were used for obtaining information. The role of the researcher in in-depth interview was to facilitate and guide rather than to dictate exactly what was supposed to happen during

the encounter. An interview schedule was used to indicate the general area of interest and to obtain information from participants. The research used semi-structured interviews and an interview schedule as a research tool. The research utilized this kind of data collection method because it allowed the interviewer to establish strong and more relevant answers.

It also allowed the interviewer to redirect the interview back into focus where interviewees might have got caught in a different or irrelevant line of conversation. It allowed the interviewer to explain further and clarify the question. The sampling frame was selected from filed information from the Department of Social Welfare. The researcher started by asking biographical information then went on to ask questions specific to the research objectives as indicated in Annexure A. According to Chisaka and Vakalisa (2000) interviews are regarded as a flexible way of obtaining and exploring information.

3.13 THE PILOT STUDY

The next step in preparation for data gathering for this research was conducting a pilot study or a pre-test of the research tool. According to Bless and Higson-Smith (2005: 206) a pilot study is a small study conducted prior to a larger piece of research to determine whether the methodology, sampling instruments and analysis are adequate and appropriate. It is also important to note that interpretive researchers do not make clear-cut distinction between the different phases of research, but may reformulate their sampling strategies in response to new findings (Terre Blanche and Kelly, 1999: 141).

The purpose of this pre-test was to uncover problems in the research instrument, gaps, shortcomings and inconsistencies as well as establishing the difficulties that the participants would be likely to encounter in responding to the questions posed. The researcher basically sought to establish if the questions were appropriately worded, easy to understand and sufficient for the purpose of this study. In Masvingo, three (3) fieldwork officers from three different organizations and one ward councillor were used for the pilot study. Feedback from this process indicated that the clarity and wording of the questions was satisfactory and there were no major flaws identified in the format and content of the interview schedule. It is due to the small errors identified that the researcher rephrased some rather ambiguously crafted questions in the research tool such that they could be easily understood by the respondents.

3.14 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Reliability refers to the extent to which different researchers will discover the same phenomena and which researchers and participants agree about the descriptions of the phenomena (Merriam, 1998: 42). According to Schumacher and MacMillan (1993: 84) reliability refers to “the consistency of the researcher’s interactive style, data recording, data analysis and interpretation of participants meaning from the data.” In this research reliability was influenced by the relationships and rapport which was established between the researcher and the participants. Schumacher and MacMillan (1993) point out that reliability can be achieved and discussed in terms, in design and data collection. In any qualitative research the role of the researcher in the study should be identified and the researcher should provide clear explanations to the participants.

Validity refers to the extent to which the information collected is true and represents an accurate picture of what is being studied (Schumacher and MacMillan, 1993: 153). Internal validity refers to the degree to which the explanation of phenomena matches the realities of the world. Validity can also refers to the extent to which findings of a given study is accurately described. In this research validity was achieved through the problem which was investigated, the research questions, aim of the study and the theoretical conceptual perspectives of this study relate to how validity is defined. In-depth interviews were utilized to elicit sufficient information towards the research. The researcher was thoroughly prepared to find out nature of partnership that exists between government and civic society in the implementation of the ZNOCP in Masvingo district which is the area of study. In collecting the data, the researcher ensured that participants interpreted reality from multiple perspectives, experiences and opinion for varying purposes hence the in-depth conversation was mainly utilized to ponder upon the study.

3.15 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

One of the limitations of this study is that the sample of participants comprised of organizations and councillors from one district. The outcomes of partnership in Masvingo District may not be representative of state-CSO partnerships in the rest of the country. A larger sample size encompassing more networks in more districts may have allowed for more generalized results in a comparative manner. It should be noted however, that it was due to some aspects beyond the researcher's control, financial limitations, time and transport problems that this relatively small sample was chosen.

There were limits of reliability in this research because unique situations cannot be reconstructed precisely because even the most exact replications of research methods may fail to produce identical results. This research is qualitative and interviews were utilized so that replication could be only approximated but never achieved. The researcher's interaction with the participants did not influence reliability as the researcher clearly identified his role and status. No personal opinions were provided by the researcher as it influenced participants towards a particular position, this would have limited reliability. The researcher was not biased because every participant was allowed to voice his/her own opinion. As setting and social context influences reliability, in this research in-depth interviews were utilized behind the walls so that reliability should not be influenced.

Some of the limitations were the refusal of both participants and the service providers to be recorded during the interview. They refused to be recorded because they said they wanted to keep their information as confidential as possible.

3.16 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN DATA COLLECTION

The principles of conduct are the most important ones as they address the issue of the content of ethical behaviour in a profession. In research, any dilemma stemming from a moral quandary is a basis of ethical conduct, (Rossman and Rallis, 2003: 132).

Informed concern implies that all possible information on the goal of the investigation and procedures which will be followed during the investigation is fully given to the subject(s) so that they can make a voluntary, thoroughly reasoned decision about their possible participation (Strydom, 2003: 221). In this research, all the information on the

goals, objectives and procedures of the investigation were explained to the respondents such that they understood the logic of their possible involvement. In the research, informed consent from both the service providers and individuals was the first step that was utilized.

Confidentiality means handling information about subjects in a confidential manner. It places strong obligation on the researcher to guard against information that is confided to the respondents (Strydom, 2003: 223). The researcher used optimum confidentiality in all interviews conducted. The researcher also made sure that confidentiality is explained to the respondents before the interview. Pseudonyms were used in data collection and in data analysis to ensure confidentiality.

Actions and competences of the researcher were also taken into consideration. The research was conducted in an ethically correct manner with no obligation against subjects and respect of any answers respondents gave. The researcher also used professional stylus to ensure that the respondents developed trust.

For information regarding these ethical considerations, see Annexure B (Consent letter).

3.17 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

As the study was done in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe, the Shona language was utilized. Information gathered in Shona from participants was translated into English before analyzing the data. Analyzing and interpreting qualitative data was done by deeply immersing in the field notes. These materials were organized into silent themes and patterns; bringing meaning in themes which tell a coherent story and then written down. It entailed fully knowing the data (immersion), organizing it into chunks (analysis),

and bringing meanings to those chunks (interpretation) (Rossman and Rallis, 2003: 132).

This research used the constant comparison analysis method of data analysis where data was organized into smaller meaningful parts and labelled with descriptive titles. This allowed the researcher to see patterns, identify themes, discover relationships, develop explanations, make interpretations and mount critiques. This method organized data and generated categories, themes and patterns. Data was then coded to test for emergent understandings and searching for alternative explanations. Coding was also used to summarize and sort many observations made of the data. The codes pulled together and categorized a series of discrete events, observations and statements identified in the data. It helped to reconstruct the data in a meaningful and comprehensible fashion. This method allowed for data analysis in a way that retains its inherent contextual nature. A cross examination of data gathered from ward councillors (policy recipients) and from organizations (policy implementers) helped to establish the vital link between policy implementation and service delivery whilst at the same time creating a platform for explaining the feasibility of inter-organizational policy implementation.

3.18 CONCLUSION

Conclusively in this chapter, qualitative method of investigation was of paramount importance and it was used throughout the research. Data collection strategies such as in-depth interviews as well as observation were used to collect data on the significance of the partnership between government and civil society organizations in the implementation of the Zimbabwe National Orphan Care Policy. Qualitative data analysis

and interpretation were utilized as mentioned in the content. The researcher also considered reliability and validity of the study to ensure that the research is not biased and ineffective. To ensure that the subjects are not at risk by participating in the research the researcher took note of ethical considerations. The findings emanating from the in-depth interview will be discussed in the next chapter.

3.19 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The main aim of this chapter was to describe in detail the research design and methodology of the study. The aims, objectives, sampling procedures, data collection and analysis methods were all given a much precise look. Limitations and ethical obligations fulfilled in the study were also elaborated. The next chapter will present the data collected through the fieldwork and discuss the results emanating from the study.

CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter explained the methodology followed in this research. This chapter contains the findings of the investigations of the implications of partnership between government and civil society in the implementation of the Zimbabwe National Orphan Care Policy in Masvingo District. The research findings are presented in two sections. Firstly, a biographical profile of the participants and secondly a discussion of the themes and subthemes that emerged from the data analysis. The discussion is supported by extracts from the participants' stories. The literature reviewed in chapter 2 and the methodology explained in chapter 3 are greatly linked to the data in this chapter.

The original aim of this study is to give an explorative understanding of the implications of partnership between the government and civil society in the implementation of the ZNOCP in Masvingo district and how that has affected the service delivery system. Similar to this aim is the objective of this study which is to explore the nature of partnership between the Zimbabwean government and civil society as well as the significance of this partnership in the implementation of the ZNOCP.

The data was collected from 14 individual participants of which 8 belonged to 8 different organizations and 6 are ward councillors. 3 ward councillors were from urban areas and three from rural areas.

The following are the themes used for individual interviews:

- biographical details;

- organization's funding dynamics and preservation of operational independence;
- state-society partnerships;
- Implementation capacity; and
- the community response.

4.2 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The findings will discuss the biographical details of participants as they were interviewed individually on a one on one basis.

Table 1 **Profile of individual organizations**

No:	Pseudonym	Gender	Organization	Position
1.	Cornell	M	Department of Social Services	District Project Coordinator
2.	Chindoro	M	Family AIDS Caring Trust (FACT)	Project coordinator.
3.	Nyatoro	F	Hope Tariro Trust	Field officer
4.	Mdumo	M	Department of Education	District BEAM coordinator
5.	Masungiro	M	National AIDS Council (NAC)	Provincial AIDS Coordinator
6.	Gondo	M	CARE International	District Project Coordinator
7.	Mariridza	M	Scripture Union	Area Manager
8	Lisa	F	NANGO	Provincial coordinator

Source: Chimange, 2012.

The table above illustrates the names of individuals interviewed (which in this case are replaced by pseudonyms), gender, the organization where they work as well as their positions in the organization. The seven individuals belong to seven different organizations of which two are government departments namely the Department of Social Services and the Department of Education, Sports, Art and Culture. Five are civic society organizations namely FACT-Masvingo, Hope Tariro Trust, NAC, CARE International and Scripture Union. The last one is an official coordinating body of NGOs in Zimbabwe. All in all, there are six males and two female participants.

Table2 Profiles of ward councillors

No#	Pseudonym	Gender	Occupation	Area of jurisdiction.
1.	Garepa	M	Councillor	Ward 8 (Urban)
2.	Muchuchutira	M	Councillor	Ward 4 (urban)
3.	Chediti	F	Councillor	Ward 6 (Rural)
4.	Chawata	M	Councillor	Ward 1 (Rural)
5.	Dorcas	F	Councillor and deputy mayor	Ward 1 (Urban)
6.	Chinesu	M	Councillor	Ward 32 (Rural)

Source: Chimange, 2012.

These six individuals (their real names are replaced by pseudonyms) on the table are ward councillors of which three belongs to urban areas and three belongs to rural areas. All in all, there are two female and 4 male participants. It should also be noted that

Dorcas is not only a ward councillor, but is also the deputy mayor for the city of Masvingo.

Table 3 History of organization and activities

Organization	History and Activities	Areas of Jurisdiction
Hope Tariro Trust	It's a trust which was registered in 2003 and implemented in 2004. It is currently in the process of registering as a PVO. Its areas of focus include OVC, food aid and school feeding schemes to children in rural areas. It also provides psychosocial support to children in camps, deals with child headed households, palliative care and HBC.	Wards 8, 32, 6, 17, 24, 26, 5 and 33 (Rural)
FACT	The organization was registered in 1990 and it was founded by Axilia Chimusoro who is the first person in Zimbabwe to go public about her HIV status and also one of the most pronounced activists. Its areas of operation include OVC, HIV care, skills enhancement for independent living. It also encompasses adult education in the field of HIV/AIDS and caring for infected and supporting the affected. It also deals with youth in relation to HIV/AIDS.	Wards, 1, 2, 3, 4 7, 13, 14 and 16 (rural)
CARE International	Is an international organization which is also situated in Masvingo province. Areas of operation include food aid to OVC, aged, and handicapped, sustainable livelihoods programmes such as gardening, HBC, establishing safety nets to vulnerable children and also skills enhancements.	Wards, 1, 2, 3, 4 (urban), 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 42 and 44 (rural)
NAC	Is the principal organization in Zimbabwe which deals with issues related to HIV/AIDS in partnership with the government and other civic society organizations. It tackles issues related to HIV/AIDS, prevention, treatment, care for the infected, HBC and supporting the affected. It also lobbies and mobilizes resources and coordinates other service providers. It is also responsible for the monitoring and evaluation of HIV/AIDS related activities.	The whole of Masvingo Province
Scripture Union	It is a faith based internationally affiliated organization. Its main focus is on spiritually uplifting of children through establishing SU societies at schools. Adults are also no exception and it is also mainly involved in family	Urban centered, only goes to rural areas

	reintegration for those children in especially difficult circumstances.	when the activity at hand demands it
Department of Social Services	Was established during the colonial era as a government department and it falls under the Ministry of Labour and Social Services. Despite having explicit focus on white minorities, in 1948 it mainly focused on the problems of the poor blacks which had emanated from such policies as the Land Apportionment Act (1930-2) and public assistance was given to supplement inadequate farm yields from the Tribal Trust Lands (TTLs). It caters for groups in the community which are socially, mentally, physically and economically marginalized. It also deals with OVC, drought relief, educational assistance, counselling services, family therapy, and administration of social grants, assertive devices and registration of PVOs plus social assistance.	The whole of Masvingo Province (Secretariat of the network)
Department of Education	Is a government department that falls under the Ministry of Education, Sports, Arts and Culture. Its main focus is to ensure education for all. The department works with International legislations such as Millennium Development Goals, UNCRC, ACRWC and various other legislations. It also administers BEAM assistance to children who can't afford school fees. It also administers and monitors educational structures throughout the country.	The whole of Masvingo Province
NANGO	Was founded in 1962 and it is a non-party political, non-profit making organization and non-denominational official coordinating body of NGOs in Zimbabwe. It was founded as a welfare organization under the Southern Rhodesia Council of Social Services predominantly for social welfare organizations. It represents the NGO sector and strengthens the voice of NGOs in Zimbabwe. It is a meeting place for the hopes and aspirations of men and women in their capacities as disabled, vulnerable, displaced, oppressed and other marginalized groups. It is a representative of the sector to the government, the private sector and other stakeholders.	Entire NGO sector in Masvingo Province.

Source: Chimange, 2012.

4.3 THEMES AND SUBTHEMES

This study utilized four major themes in data analysis which include organization funding and preservation of operational independence, capacity, state-society partnership and CSO proponents and opponents.

4.3.1 Theme 1: Organization funding and preservation of operational independence

Presentation of theme 1

Table 4

Theme 1: organization funding and preservation of operational independence	
Sub themes	**Categories**
Major funders of the organization	• Financial base
Adequacy of financial support	• Financially equipped to serve clients
Donor influence on recipient organization's operations	• Operational independence
Recruitment and retention	• Human resource problems
Implication of funding dynamics on partnership	• Impacts of funding dynamics
Other financial challenges	• Limitations

Source: Chimange, 2012.

4.3.1.1 Sources and Adequacy of Financial Support

Out of the eight organizations which participated in this research, all of them have indicated that they benefit from the same financial source, which are international donations. The main donors specifically to the policy under investigation are UNICEF and Global Fund under the Programme of Support. Six of the organizations which are NAC, Hope Tariro Trust, FACT, NANGO, CARE International and Scripture Union, which is seventy-five percent, indicated that they also embark on fundraising activities. NAC went on to add that they also benefit from the corporate tax which is got from the industries and the business world.

The two government departments, which constitute twenty-five percent, indicated that they are also funded by the government of Zimbabwe. All of these organizations however indicated that the financial support is not adequately suited to cover the entire programme. It only covers a part of the whole programme; hence they would have to apply for other funding options which also takes a lot of time and therefore affects deadlines and project output, which in other words is the service delivery to the recipients. Additionally, under the implementation of the ZNOCP, not every member of the consortium could receive the funds. In this case it was only received by two organizations which are CARE International and Scripture Union which acted as consortium leaders and redistributed the resources to other sub-grantees.

Even in these grant consortium leaders, the money was therefore controlled by the organization's financial policy and administrative procedures before it was disbanded to other network members, hence the creation of another hierarchical channel that delays progress and where some bits of this money is used to furnish that administrative

channel. Department of Social Services which also played the secretariat role indicated that there have been lots of financial resource leakages which have happened during the policy implementation phase. This is what other participants had to say:

- *The funds are never enough for us to look at the issue at stake; which in this case is OVC holistically. We never receive funding that is adequate to look at all issues affecting the child. We're also seriously affected by donor fatigue.*
- *Our organization also benefits from the corporate tax which is got from industries and it is only three percent (AIDS Levy) of the declared net profits and when the industries are not performing well, then the turnover is small. Most importantly, there is no devised way of collecting the money from the informal sector which is a growing part of the economy. This limits our financial base.*

4.3.1.2 Donor influence on recipient's operations

All the organizations; a hundred percent of the organizations interviewed indicated that the donors always call for proposals depending on the areas which they have funds for. It is left to the organizations to choose if the area which is the donor's focus is in line with its operations and submit a proposal for donations or ignore it if it falls out of its turf. In this regard, it is difficult to say the money comes with attached agendas. In the case of the funding of the ZNOCP implementation process, the proposal for funding was developed at the national level by the national working part of officials or the secretariat and the drafted national proposal was comprehensive enough to touch a lot of thematic areas such that many donors would be able to find at least one area to fund in this broad array.

The Department of Social Services indicated that organizations' areas of focus are shaped by the National Strategic Development Plan (NSDP) initially from registration which has got different thematic areas of the policy and which also creates a benchmarking framework in organizations' operations. Hence even if the donor would subscribe agendas to their finances, an organization would not go out of its registered goals and objectives and also defy the National Strategic Development Plan. The broad thematic focus of the NSDP allows different organizations to pool resources from different donors and rescue the problem even if it is outside the specific policy resources available. It was through this national working party of officials or secretariat that the donations for the implementation of the ZNOCP were applied for, received and ultimately disbanded to grand consortium leaders and sub-grantees. This is what some participants said:

- *The donors calls for proposals for specific areas which they are funding at the time and if our operations as an organization incorporates that issue being funded, then we can apply, but if it's out our turf, then we just ignore it. It's not like they give you funds and tells you what to use it for latter. If your proposal is approved, then you're eligible for the funding.*
- *It's not like they are duping us to advance their foreign agendas. It is like an advertisement. If you qualify for what has been advertised, then you take it and if not, then you leave it-no hard feelings attached.*

4.3.1.3 Recruitment and retention

All the organizations, a hundred percent indicated that they have human resources problems which are a direct consequence of the funding dynamics. The Department of

Social Services indicated that some districts in Masvingo province are understaffed, for instance Zaka, Chiredzi and Mwenezi. They only have one social services officer each who runs all the errands for the whole district. The government has currently frozen posts because of lack of funding and even underpaying the retained. FACT also indicated that the funding dynamics have resulted to staff throughout the civic society being employed on contractual basis because there is no predictable financial stability in a NGO section. This means that there is little job security and it also ultimately affects turnover since when approaching the end of the contracts, individuals develop divided loyalty and split focus trying to secure new jobs or worried as to whether they would be able to extend their contracts.

Termination of funding also leaves it uncertain and unclear if workers would be paid at the end of the month hence diminishing their motive to work. FACT, Hope Tariro Trust, NAC, Department of Social Services and CARE International shared a similar feeling that this human resource shortage also means that work would be overcrowded on the available workers causing burnout and underperformance as well as failure to meet deadlines. Scripture Union reported to have been drastically affected by the termination of funding contracts. It has affected their service delivery system and also on retaining the previously employed staff. Many employees were retrenched while others' services were suspended pending new funding opportunities. This is what some participants had to say:

- *As a result of shortage of staff, we end up prescribing duties to volunteers which is against the volunteer policy.*

- *It therefore stands to reason that the officer cannot respond holistically to the strain and sometimes the partners have to go it alone and in other cases they experience burn out especially in some certain issues where nobody else can take their position for example, the issue of children in need of care and protection is solely the responsibility of the Department of Social Services. Overburdened as they often are, they end up just brushing out the work and the fulfillment of the policy objectives would be delayed or completed unsatisfactorily.*

4.3.1.4 Implications funding dynamics on the implementation process

The Department of Social Services indicated that during the implementation of the Zimbabwe National Orphan Care Policy, where other consortium members namely Scripture Union and CARE International received the money for the entire network, the department of social services as the secretariat was reduced to an incapacitated coordinator hence it had very little control over the network. Due to the shortage of personnel, the individual organizations' businesses narrowed down to focus on critical issues. It also limits information accessibility because if the official responsible is away, then the office is locked and hence out of reach to anyone else.

NAC indicated that where the core priority demands, they would pay attention to the call of the organization first. Depending on the nature of the call, the Department of Social Services should take priority since it is the principal organization and coordinator of the implementation process. Hope Tariro Trust also indicated that late disbursements of funds affected the whole implementation process, the reporting strategy and pace and

this left organizations struggling with deadlines. The Department of Social Services also indicated that these funding dynamics have led to acute shortages of such necessities as cars for mobility and this directly affected the policy implementation process. Twenty five percent also indicated that the funding that was made available could not cover the whole kit needed by the child; hence there remained gaps in the process. Here is what other participants had to say:

- *The funds were however not sufficient to provide the children, especially vulnerable children with a full kit that is needed for their needs to be met holistically. Many aspects of the children were therefore ignored or not given immediate attention like uniforms, stationary and the general home environment was totally ignored because the funds could not permit them to be covered fully. BEAM could only pay for school fees, but without dealing with these other issues, a child would be sent back home for stationary and uniform at the end of the day, thereby nullifying BEAM's significance and contribution.*
- *Funding available couldn't cover the full basket needed by the child, hence there were gaps left in the process not as blunders or overlooked, but because there was no finances to cover that.*

All the six ward councillors who were interviewed indicated that the support given to the children was not comprehensive. Many children were staying at home and could not attend school despite the fact that their school fees have been paid. They do not go to school because they are short of other basic necessities at home such as food, school uniform, stationery and some have to fend for themselves. Two councillors from rural areas also advanced the issue of accessibility of their areas and one indicated that

partyism and nepotism in the BEAM selection strategy disrupts and distorts the whole process. This is what some of them had to say:

- *Even in terms of BEAM which is found across the country, the number of OVC far supersedes the quantity that can be catered for each year and in addition to that the BEAM selection committee is also corrupt. They select their relatives into the programme regardless of their vulnerability status.*
- *I wouldn't like to point fingers at anyone, but they tell us every time that the resources available are limited and cannot service all the needs identified. In fact, CARE is trying beyond reasonable doubt to provide for these needs, but they are just too vast to be covered wholly.*

4.3.1.5 Other Financial Limitations

One out of eight organizations interviewed (which is twelve percent) indicated further downbeat implications caused by the lack of financial stamina which critically disrupts the service delivery system. NAC indicated that they experience ART (anti-retroviral treatment) delivery difficulties because their equipment requires certain levels of temperatures which they are not able to maintain, hence breakdown and volatility.

Limited personnel does not only affect the organization in its capacity to fully participate in the policy implementation network, but it also means that the organization cannot afford to bring critical services to the people and hence increases the gap between the service provider (NAC) and the recipient. At the end of the day, the failure of this service provision would be attributed to the whole network. This is what the participant had to say:

- *Limited personnel also means that we cannot afford to bring the critical services to the people and drug adherents becomes a problem because some people cannot afford to hike to town or other health centers every time they require a service.*
- *People also need constant support in behaviour change but due to the lack of both resources and personnel, it is difficult for us to be with them and support them timely.*

4.3.2 Theme 2: State- CSO Relationship

Table 5, Presentation of theme 2

Theme 2, State-civil society relationship	
Sub-themes	**Category**
Horizontal relationships in the network	• Relationships between CSOs
Vertical Relationships in the network	• Relationships between CSOs and Government
Resource pooling	• Contribution to the policy target
Delegation of duties in the network	• Who does what, where and how?
Challenges of value compromise and conflicting goals.	• Dual duty calls for a single mind

Feelings about working in a partnership Basis of partnerships and continuous policy review.	• Individual feelings about the engagement • Principle governing engagement

Source: Chimange, 2012.

4.3.2.1 Horizontal Network Relationships

All the organizations that were interviewed; a hundred percent indicated that there have been competitions among different organizations for visibility in the community, resources and ground space. There was less coordination therefore there were high records of double dipping or duplication of duties. FACT went on to indicate that the fear was mostly generated from mistrust and fear that another organization would be more visible in the community than the other.

However, sixty-two percent indicated that the issue of competition is becoming less prevalent due to various reasons. The first and most crucial reason is that the international donor community itself has shifted from funding single organization to funding consortiums, hence now, an organization stands better chances of funding when in a consortium or network than alone.

As such, organizations have learnt to realize and respect the individuality of the other and its importance in advancing their chances for funding and problem tackling. However, twenty-five percent indicated that there are also risks of associating with other organizations with a different organizational policy for instance on the subject of political

affiliations, some organization may emphasis on remaining apolitical at all times while others do not and at the end of the phase all organizations would be bracketed under the one dominant culture although it does not depict individual organization's policy. Here is what other respondents had to say:

- *Previously, organizations used to compete with each other for both ground space and recognition, but now they are complementing each other's efforts. They now know that I start here and end there and also appreciate the significance and importance of each organization wherever they operate. Frictions may be there, but they are no longer publicly displayed and affect the progress of the day.*
- *In fact the donor tendency has changed from funding individual organizations to funding networks and consortiums. By virtue of this change in the funding dynamics, they have found themselves in positions to accept the value and worthy of another organization. Adding to that, this economic slump that the country has experienced means that the client quantities have increased per square kilometre and hence the jurisdiction of an organization has to be reduced to render quality services.*
- *Usually organizations treat each other with respect to attain the network goals and it is usually based on individual interpersonal skills which do not have anything to do with the network.*

Even the ward councillors who were interviewed, eighty-three percent indicated that it was difficult for them to tell who is who amongst the personnel which came to implement the programme in their wards unless if they already knew the individuals on

personal levels. They respected each other and behaved in the same manner and their knowledge of the programme was so indistinguishable. This is what some ward councillors had to say:

- *They behaved as family and even if they had disagreements, they never displayed them publicly that we could see and acknowledge their presence.*
- *You could hear them introducing each other and the different organizations which they represent and they will exchange turns in presenting, but you'll never feel any difference. Their knowledge of the programme was so identical.*

4.3.2.2 Vertical Relationships in the Network

Sixty-two percent of the organizations indicated that they play a complementary role to the government rather than a confrontational role. However, twelve percent indicated that the legislation that governs civil society operation in Zimbabwe is not supportive, but tries to give the government a stranglehold over civil society.

The International Bar Association also supports this assertion when it stated that the state-civil society relations in Zimbabwe have been characterized by mistrust and intolerance and the state has always sought to severely curtail NGO operations through enacting legislations that limits rather than extent the rights of the NGOs, (2004: 3).

NANGO went on to explain that even though the NGO Bill was never signed into an act, but the existence of such a tool in the hands of the government indicates its dreadful intentions towards those to whom it was drafted. There were two sections of the PVO Act [Chapter 17: 05] which were repealed by the Supreme Court of Zimbabwe, (Section 20 (a) and Section 21 of the PVO Act [Chapter 17: 05]) but there has never been an

amendment of the act to delete the sections. The decision to repeal these sections was taken by the Zimbabwean Supreme Court on 11 February 1997 when the then government minister of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare decided to suspend 18 women from a NGO called Associations of Women's Clubs (AWC) because it contravened a section of the country's constitution. NANGO also went on to indicate that the only time it was looked at was when the NGO Bill was drafted in 2004, which was even more repressive. It also indicated that there are various areas of human livelihood that calls for NGO attention, but many NGOs fear to indulge themselves in those areas for fear of being ostracized by the government.

Many organizations have therefore resorted to concentrate on common and more general areas of intervention such as HIV/AIDS and OVC eluding areas such as governance, democracy and human rights advocacy. NANGO also indicated that it is difficult to fairly conclude that the legislation in Zimbabwe allows for NGO autonomous operations because there are still these areas where most NGOs wouldn't dare engage in for fear of being repressed. It was also observed by the researcher that many people interviewed were not at liberty to openly talk about matters concerning civil society legislation in Zimbabwe. Many kept quiet and or give short unelaborated answers except for NANGO which is the NGO representative institution in the country. This is what some participants had to say:

- *Sometimes the government isn't fair to the civic society for instance, the banning of all NGOs in June 2008 wasn't a rational and democratic decision explained to us. It was rather based on allegations and insecurities by the government.*

- *As a coalition of NGOs, we were never even called in the drafting of the NGO Bill which meant that our input wasn't needed, even though it had everything to do with us.*
- *In terms of vertical relationships, there were feelings of compliance but based on compromising of our core values. We felt like a flyer in a bigger atmosphere. There are always conflicts between real policy and political motives which makes it difficult for us.*

Brynard also shares the same contentions with the last excerpt when he indicated that policies determine politics and that the most significant political fact is that governments coerce. The content of policy then is a function of the level and type of coercion by the government (2005: 137).

Apart from these above stated legislations, NAC indicated that the government is the one that is responsible for registration and monitoring of NGOs operations through the Department of Social Services. Hence there is no way an organization can feel autonomous because its objectives are from onset shaped and reshaped by the same government that has enacted these repressive laws in the first instance. So, many NGOs' objectives and goals are shaped and reshaped away from the areas out of favour by the government regardless of their importance to the people. Another 12 percent (Department of Education) indicated that CSOs respond to government policies but not wholly, *"…sometimes they are mischievous. Mostly, NGOs are usually attuned to the goals and principles of the core donors other than to the specific goals of the networks."*

4.3.2.3 Resource Pooling

Sixty-two percent of the organizations interviewed indicated that they are not at liberty to pool resources which it has got from other donors to help the problem under the policy focus. Many donors require feedback on the resources that they would have given to an organization hence it is difficult to divert these resources to the problem being addressed by the policy. Additionally, as has been reflected in theme 1, donors call for proposals and only channel funds to specific activity areas. However, twenty-five percent indicated that pooling resources depends on whether the organization is implementing a project in the same area or if the problem to be addressed is in line with the donated activity where they can have a proper reporting strategy to the donor who gave them those resources. It can also be feasible if it is a CBO which is using the resources in the same community where it is situated and operates.

The Department of Social Services indicated that mostly organizational goals and objectives are drafted from the National Strategic Development Plan and the policy was also a by-product of this NSDP, hence it spun over various organizations' goals and objectives. So one way or the other, these donations would usually fall into either one of the thematic areas of the policy and benefits the policy recipients either directly or indirectly.

The Department of Social services also indicated that through the many thematic areas of the policy for example, health care, educational assistance, psycho-social support, and skills enhancements, it becomes easy for organizations to source resources from other donors and help the problem at hand. For instance, Save the Children-UK was not

funded by the implementation resources, but pooled other resources to build complimentary relationships. These are some of the participants' stories:

- *Strategic developmental plans plus different thematic areas of the policy creates a framework where different organizations can pool resources from different donors and rescue a certain area under the policy focus even if outside the specific policy resources available.*
- *Unless if it is a CBO which is using the resources in the same community where it operates then they can't pool out their resources. In case of FBOs, the support is usually in chunks and it is not regular. It is given in form of charity hence it is not static.*

4.3.2.4 Delegation of Duties and Responsibilities in the Network

Seventy-five percent of the organizations indicated that responsibilities and duties in the network are delegated through the strategic development plan of the district, province and the nation at large. It is from these that the CSOs develop their proposals. From the onset, for example, registration; their plans, goals and objectives are shaped around these strategic development plans hence they are oriented to specific areas which need intervention in the community and areas which not so many organizations are already working on. After registration, they sign memorandums of agreement with the city council like Masvingo Rural District Council (MRDC) which links the organization's areas of focus with the needs in the area.

The organization, therefore, works with the Department of Social Services' coordination structures such as the Rural District Development Council (RDDC) and the Provincial

Development Council (PDC) to monitor policy compliance and also to see if the organizations are still operating as per their registration capacity and guidelines.

Another twenty-five percent indicated that geography was used to delegate duties and responsibilities and in a few settings, it was also based on human resource expertise. For instance, CARE International operates in wards 1, 2, 3, 4 in urban area and wards 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 42 and 44, so whenever the implementation team visited any of these wards, CARE had to be present and take the lead in the proceedings. Here is what other respondents had to say:

- *Usually responsibilities of organizations are delegated through stakeholder mapping which establishes area of jurisdiction to them.*
- *The council gives the organization areas of operations and it is based on these demarcations that help to delegate responsibilities. NAC also helps in the delegation especially in issues related to HIV/AIDs. The NPO registration by the Department of Social Services also helps in shaping their objectives in the initial registration to meet the needs of the communities it saves and also to make sure that two organizations do not do one thing while other areas of concern to human welfare are vacant.*

Confirming the above, all the ward councillors who were interviewed also displayed that only one organization operates in their areas and that during the phase of the policy implementation, the organization was also there leading the proceedings. Even in areas where one organization operates, there has been tallying information. For instance, councillors for ward 6 and 32 indicated that they are under the service of Hope Tariro

Trust and the organization's database also confirmed the same as indicated in table 4.3 above. This is what other ward councillors had to say:

- *The only problem that we're facing is the scarcity of resources to take care of the problems identified. There is one organization that is operating in our ward 1 which is CARE International.*
- *During the implementation phase, it was a team of government and civil society organization that came to implement the programme and only one organization is left now to meet the various needs of the whole ward. My ward has got an estimate of three thousand (3000) people and all the needs of these people together with other wards where the organization operate require one organization's attention.*

4.3.2.5 Conflicting Goals and Challenges of Value Compromise

Fifty percent of the organizations interviewed indicated that there are very few chances that the organizations would feel caught up between the pursuit of their own goals and the collective goals of the network. They have however, indicated that in the network setting organizations sometimes feel derailed by some of the network goals. They also indicated that the main challenge is that the project usually takes longer than necessary to be completed and organizations would end up compromising the quality of the services just to be able to finish.

CARE indicated that for as long as their goals are still guided by the National Strategic Development Plan and the policies to be implemented are by-products of the same NSDP, then there is very little chance for conflicting goals and interests between those

of the organization and the network. NAC also indicated that usually there are no conflicting goals, but if core priority demands, then they would pay attention to the call of the organization. This is what some participants had to say:

- *Conflicting goals creates operational strains because of time, resource pooling and technical backstopping, but this is rarely a case in our network.*
- *Usually there are no conflicting goals and where the core priority demands, I will pay attention to the call of the organization first. Depending on the nature of the call, the Department of Social Services should take priority since it is the principal/secretariat, it will go and we only come to support and enhance its activities.*

4.3.2.6 Feelings about working in partnership

All of the organizations interviewed indicated that they like working in partnership with other organizations and the government. They have advanced several reasons that shape their perceptions of their involvements. They have indicated that it is very easy to share solutions, experiences, skills, challenges and successes. They have also realized that the area of public problem solving has grown out of control of a single institution or government's capacity, hence a need for partnership in tackling it. Partnership, as has been indicated under theme 1 also places organization in a spotlight that enhances their funding opportunities.

A typical complimentary relationship was indicated by the Department of Social Services and the Department of Education in helping OVC in BEAM selection. The Department of Education indicated that they enroll and do partial vulnerability status

analysis of the children using the ED 46 form. The Department of Social Services uses the area or village register to know and assess the vulnerability status of the children in a certain area complementing the ED 46 form by the Department of Education. These two tools, the village registers and the ED 46 form help to ascertain the actual number and vulnerability status of children in an area who are in or out of school. In such a manner, the partnership proves to be important and ensures full utilization of resources in a beneficial manner.

Shannon (2003) also shared the same sentiments when he indicated that the kind of problems that face different countries today demands collaboration because no one policy sector, agency or political actor can effectively address them alone. There are new issues across boundaries, ecologically, socially, politically, administratively and legally and frequently several regions, states, countries are involved and their separate regimes must find a way to work together (Shannon, 2003: 18). This is what other participants had to say:

- *Network is the best because we cannot meet all the needs of the people alone but synergistically we share solutions and experiences and skills, challenges and successes.*
- *To a larger extent, we feel insecure when working alone as CSOs because donor tendency has shifted from funding individual organizations to funding consortiums/networks.*
- *Working in a group produces desired results by ninety percent and it also gives space for open sharing of ideas and experiences without appearing as if you're stealing ideas of the others.*

4.3.2.6 Basis of Partnership and Continuous Policy Review

All the six CSOs interviewed indicated that their partnership with the government is based on contracts and memorandums of understanding with the local government. The government is the one responsible for the continuous policy review and also monitoring and evaluation. CSOs are required to submit activity reports, interim reports and quarterly reports to the Department of Social Services and NAC. They are also involved in various taskforce meetings to gather information regarding the successes, failures and shortfalls of the policy in preparation for the next phase.

However, sixty-two percent of the organizations indicated that the reporting strategy available is just a template where organizations have to simply fill in what they have done in the field and cannot go beyond the provided spaces and prompts to give views of their own, observations and recommendations. NAC also indicated that monitoring and evaluation is done by the core team which is comprised of the Department of Education, local government, NAC, Department of Social Services and one NGO, RUDO in this instance. Networking brings transparency, accountability and responsiveness to the organizations. The department of education also indicated that it has never been called to review a policy. These are some of the responses given:

- *Government is responsible for monitoring and evaluation but it also gives space for input from other network members through the use of interim reports, end of projects reports and quarterly reports to help in the implementation and analysis.*
- *Organizations do not assess the policy after implementation and the reporting strategy available is just a template where we simply have to fill in what we*

have done in the field and cannot go beyond it to give views of our own, observations and give recommendations. We're not called to review the policy neither are we given a chance to influence the process through reporting.

- *Networking always helps to bring modification to policy and improves on accountability, transparency and responsiveness. Monitoring has moved from office to beneficiaries informed, which persuades organizations to be more transparent and responsive.*

4.3.3 Theme 3: Implementation Capacity

Theme 3: Implementation Capacity	
Subthemes	**Category**
Problem definition Clarity of policy objectives Capacity SOP and SOP binding Economic, social, political and legal impacts	• Policy focus • Intended Impact • Facilities • Operational guidelines • Contextual issues
Resource provision, operationalization and accessibility	• Logistical Issues
Commitment of those entrusted with the implementation process	• Conformity and persistence

Source: Chimange, 2012.

4.3.3.1 Problem Definition

Fifty percent of the organizations indicated that the problem to be addressed was well articulated, clear and understandable. However, another fifty percent indicated that there were major flaws within the policy itself. For instance, the Department of education indicated that the policy focused specifically on orphans ignoring other vulnerable groups for which another child may be orphaned, but his or her vulnerability status would be much better than someone who has both parents due to various circumstances. The policy also forgot or did not take into cognizance that these children do not live in isolation and whatever aid, especially food aid given to the child would be utilized by the whole family hence it would last less than the anticipated period and the child would quickly return to the same state of lacking and deprivation as before. The policy hence did not treat the child holistically and there was very little child participation.

Additionally, the ZNOCP looked at the child as an individual forgetting the family environment and even worse children, especially vulnerable children moves across the whole extended family and the policy didn't set parameters for intervention within this extended family to such an extent that members of the extended family would quarrel to have the child only with the intent to benefit from that intervention targeting him or her. The policies did not set locally defined parameters on the children's rights that stand beside the UNCRC basic principles. NAC also included that the problem to be tackled was too diverse, for instance psycho-social support is too broad to be reflected as a point of intervention.

CARE International also indicated that the problem to be articulated was well defined and it involved all stakeholders in a highly consultative manner, but the level of funding was not in proportion with the level of needs on the ground. It also indicated that policies for child care and protection do not work in isolation. They work with other legislations and there have been a lot of contestations. For instance, the Children's Act and the Criminal Law Codification and Reform Act are not in agreement about the age of majority and also the ZNOCP advocated for free birth registration of orphaned children, but the Birth Registration Act demands user fees. This is what other participants had to say:

- *The problem area was well articulated and it involved all stakeholders in a highly consultative manner. The level of funding was however not in proportion with the level of needs on the ground. Policies for child care and protection sometimes do not work in isolation. They work in line with other legislations for example, Victim Friendly Court System (VFC) and there are a lot of contestations with other policies for example, Children Act and The Criminal law Codification and Reform Act argue about the age of majority and the Birth Registration Act and other acts especially on user fees.*
- *The problem to be addressed was also clearly articulated but too diverse for example, psycho-social support was too broad to reflect as a point of intervention.*

4.3.3.2 Clarity of Policy Objectives

Sixty-two percent of the participant organizations indicated that the objectives were clear and achievable, but the greatest limitation to their achievement was resources.

Twenty-five percent indicated that they were clear and achievable but sometimes not understood. For instance, the policy emphasized on empowering the children educationally, but these children never received a full kit that could enable them to focus on their studies unwaveringly.

Many organizations have however reported having exceeded their target numbers of orphans helped, but without changing anything in the lives of these children. Hope Tariro Trust also indicated that even though the programme was implemented equally and uniformly across the whole district, but the services delivered to different wards was and is still different, uneven and not a full basket. For instance children in ward 8 where it operates are involved in psycho-social camps to help them cope with their grief and stresses of their lives and stimulate their minds, while children in ward 7 under FACT are involved in skills enhancement for independent living and children in ward 1 under CARE international would be included in livelihood support programmes. No ward would be privileged to receive all these services, but they are all important in ensuring a holistic child development. This is what another participant had to say:

- *Some of the services delivered to the CPC were not a full basket for example, Children in ward 8 could get psycho-social support but children in ward 7 could be included in skills enhancement schemes because the organization in that ward only specializes in that particular field.*
- *There are still some gaps but the network or this inter-organizational interaction helps a lot in ascertaining definite figures and that something is done for those children. BEAM pays school fees and levies, but lack of*

resources leaves other issues not addressed for example, uniforms, stationery and the family environment in general.

- *The objectives were clear but too ambitious for instance to reach fifty percent of OVC population without a corresponding expansion of service providers and resource base. It didn't take into account donor fatigue.*

Looking at the same aspect of education, all the ward councillors indicated that the intervention is incomplete. BEAM mainly focuses on payment of school fees, but there are many aspects of a child's life which can have a direct effect on his or her educational achievement. They indicated that targeting a child alone is useless. Many children go to school without eating, with dirty clothes and without stationery, so their focus on education is equally disrupted as those whose school fees and levies are not paid. This is what some of the respondents had to say:

- *Through BEAM, many of our children get a chance to change their lives. Here in the rural schools, school fees are the most critical issue and school uniform isn't that much important. Children are rarely chased away for not having a uniform. However, that doesn't mean that they don't like to wear uniforms and even envy those who have it, it equally disrupt the learning process and at most instils senses of inferiority and unworthy in the children. Many travel more than 5kms to school without shoes all year round; winter or summer and it affects their levels of concentration at school. So, the aid given by BEAM is important but inadequate to put the beneficiary child in the same line with others*
- *We have a lot of children who have completed school under BEAM and pursued different carriers. Some have become lawyers, teachers and one has become a*

pilot (names withheld). The only problem which we often face in this programme is that some children are usually dropped from BEAM when they transfer to other schools or graduate to secondary schools, but there has been this realization and efforts are underway to keep them in the system for as long as their circumstances qualifies them for the programme.

4.3.3.3 Capacity

All the organizations indicated that the policy implementation network was incapacitated to run the implementation process. A common problem which was indicated by all the organizations was shortage of personnel and financial resources. This shortage of personnel gave additional pressure to already drained staff available and this pressure led to burn out (role overload). This compromised the quality of work in the organization and assimilated problem into the network as a whole. For instance NAC indicated that reporting was done at different levels, from district, province to national and if one organization misses the deadline, the whole reporting channel is affected. Due to lack of finances, mobility of the implementation team was also limited because of shortage of cars. NAC indicated that some capacities were compromised because some CSOs do not hire trained personnel hence they needed a lot of training.

The lack of human resources affected the whole process and coordinating organization had a very slim structure that did not have skilled staff like secretariat and administration. There was a strong need for additional remuneration support to those who were available. The Department of Social Services also elaborated that resources were disbanded through various CSOs such as CARE International and Scripture Union and the Department of Social Services was reduced to an incapacitated coordinator.

Other resources such as skills and expertise were shared freely in the network, but FACT indicated that the staff was good but logistically the programme was based on cost cutting measures such as using vehicles of other organizations in the same consortium. Other organizations requested support in training but the challenge was that the programme had not budgeted for the payment of trainers, so it hindered the skills exchange process. This is what other respondents said:

- *Some capacities were compromised because some civil societies do not hire trained personnel hence they needed a lot of training. Lack of human resources affected the whole process and the implementing organizations had a slim structure that does not have any supportive staff for example, the secretariat and administration.*
- *No single organization had the direct link with donor and the funds were disbursed by UNICEF to the consortium leaders who would disburse to the other members. SU was one of these consortium leaders. Other resources such as expertise were freely shared in the network and it helped to generalize the knowledge throughout the network.*

The ward councillors who were interviewed indicated that lack of resources was the main barrier to the successful accomplishment and fulfillment of the needs on the ground. Sixty-six percent of the ward councillors lamented on the account that despite these resource shortages, the network only left one organization in their areas to service their diverse needs. Two ward councillors indicated that the organizations servicing their areas are very small and newly established. This means that they have very slim and unpredictable resource bases and they are not well established to attract

the attention of renowned donors. One councillor and deputy mayor, Dorcas, indicated that some people in the civil service are not employed based on professional qualifications, but based on nepotism, partisan and political affiliations hence they have very limited knowledge of the programme. These were some of the responses of ward councillors.

- *The problem that I have realized is that the people working in the civil service are not employed because of their qualifications but based on nepotism and partisan and political affiliation.*
- *The greatest problem which affects us all (community and service providers) is resource shortages as they say. There is only one organization operating in this ward and it is not well resourced to cater for all our needs. I wouldn't say they are not doing their job, but their efforts are limited and some of the issues they acknowledge but without capacity to meet them. Maybe if they were two or three organizations per ward then they could have made a significant impact.*

4.3.3.4 Standard operating plans and their binding

All the organizations indicated that they have used a standard operating plan which was called Minimum Standards for OVC programming in Zimbabwe: Implementer's guide. The organizations provided that this working tool generalized the programme outlook throughout the country. All the organizations also went on to indicate that they retained discretionary powers to work around the SOPs, panel beating them sometimes to meet the circumstances on the ground.

Rosendal (2000) predicted that this course of action can lead to two extreme ends of the policy output. He indicated that less developed countries are assumed to have less stringent SOPs making implementation less predictable and less efficient, but on the other hand according to the inter-organizational interaction approach and the concept of self-governing networks, lack of rigorous SOPs may enable greater flexibility in the implementation output through disposition (Rosendal, 2000: 231).

However, FACT indicated that the SOPs did not come from the government, they are guidelines from the UNCRC and ACRWC, *"Written by the government's hand such that they can be locally accepted."* It indicated that as the principal reason why there are no locally defined parameters on the rights of the children that stand beside the UNCRC principles. Here is what other organizations had to say:

- *The use of SOPs which came from UNCRC and ACRWC makes the process somehow rigid. However, we had a privilege of working around the SOPs but the discussions remained in the group/network setting with the government taking the front. Sometimes government didn't have control over the SOPs because they came so far that the government is signatory.*
- *We also used SOPs but they were very flexible and allowed us to work around stringent issues making them implementable.*

4.3.3.5 Resource provision, operationalization and accessibility

The Department of Social Services indicated that the ZNOCP was a national policy hence a national working part of officials has drafted and sent funding proposals at the national level to donors and after receiving the resources, the same working part of

officials distributed it to the consortium leaders who then redistributed it to other sub-grantees who form the network. In the case of the implementation of the ZNOCP in Masvingo District, only CARE International and Scripture Union had direct access to the resources from the national working party of officials. The Department of Social Services lamented that it was reduced to an incapacitated coordinator. In terms of operationalization and accessibility, Hope Tariro Trust and the Department of Social Services indicated that the movement of these resources through the host consortium leader was somewhat affected by that organization's financial policies which in turn affected the whole network progress.

The Department of Social Services also indicated that some of these funds were used to furnish the administrative corridor through which it passed; hence there have been a lot of leakages. All organizations indicated that apart from these direct implementation resources, individual organizations were free to source out other resources from other donors which can be used directly or indirectly to help the problem at hand for as long as they could still retain a proper reporting strategy to the donor. This is what other participants had to say:

- *The network is based on direct benefactors and sub-grantees hence the sub-grantees (third party actors) do not have a direct access to the funds/donors – hence in other words they do as they are told by the organizations which have direct access to the donor funds.*
- *There were centralized funds and Zimbabwe was regarded as a country under additional safeguard measures, but of course you'll have to dance to the tune of*

that particular organization through which funds trickle down to you. If they say the money hasn't matured yet, that's it, you'll have to sit back and wait.

4.3.3.6 Economic, social, political and legal impacts

All the organizations indicated that the policy was influenced by the above stated variables. For instance, NANGO stated that the programme was funded by UNICEF and Global fund and Zimbabwe was regarded as, *"a country under additional safeguard measures"* and that alone speaks of the economic problems. The aid came as a response to a crisis. It would be feasible to say that the programme was responding to a political-economic crisis. The Department of Social Services also noted that the state economy painted the policy as a total failure because more and more children were becoming vulnerable each day. It was escalating to such an extreme degree that by the time a pilot study was conducted to determine the total number of OVC in the country, the statistic was more than just doubled by the time the programme was implemented.

The political structure also contributed to vulnerability because during the political unrest, many people relocated to areas where there are no user friendly facilities for children for example, far away from schools, hospitals and clinics or run away from the country. During this time again, services were delivered to people based on their political affiliations. The extended family system became overwhelmed by the growing masses of vulnerable children whilst at the same time standards of living were dropping drastically due to economic hardships. As a result, many children had to drop out of school, work alongside their families or even outside to eke a living for themselves and their families and their health standards dropped reciprocally.

Socially, FACT also added that some churches such as “Mapositora” champion some discrete cultural practices such as not taking the children to schools, clinics and hospitals when they fall sick or give them in early marriages or betrothals that are against the whole intention of the ZNOCP. Hope Tariro Trust also indicated that the policy itself was formulated in a different stage of the country’s economic downswing and implemented in the worst of the times and that distorted the whole process and rendered many objectives invalid, impractical and overambitious. Politically, Hope Tariro Trust pointed out that in June 2008 CSOs were banned facing allegations of advancing political ideologies of MDC party in their operations. That has disrupted their operations and instilled fear in their operations after resuming. These are some of the responses by the participants:

- *Some organizations were banned due to the political environment hence even after the ban, we have to closely watch our pace and our edges when working with the government. This distorted political environment made everything difficult.*
- *The policy was formulated in a different stage of the country’s economic status and implemented in the worst of the times; that alone distorted the whole process and rendered the many objectives invalid and impractical.*
- *It was a UNICEF funded programme and that alone speaks of the economic problems. As a UN organization, it came as aid responding to a crisis. Weather the crisis was natural or human made is not for this platform to discuss, but it would be feasible to say the programme was responding to a political economic crisis.*

4.3.3.7 Commitment of the implementers.

Sixty-two percent of the respondent organizations indicated that measured in terms of reporting, many organizations in the network have shown compliance through submitting reports in time and communicating their difficulties which could affect the programme progress. However apart from that, NAC indicated that some organizations had some difficulties in submitting reports in time and once reporting is delayed, it created a chain reaction. It led to acquittals, which led to late disbursement of funds and ultimately delayed services. The Department of Social Services indicated that most parties were committed to a true cause to eliminate the problem at hand because some organizations like Save the Children-UK were not funded, but they kept their compliances unconditionally. However, the Department of Education indicated that the commitments of many organizations were driven by a cash motive for they are no longer following up on the policy outcomes. For example, the harmonization of the OVC register is not working as it was supposed to work and no organization is using it. Instead they use their own indicators to identify the same group of children which is stipulated by their donors.

The Department of Social Services went on to indicate that donors were also very committed throughout the implementation phase, but also outlined that the government through the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe once diverted the funds targeting the implementation of the ZNOCP and this course of action affected the donor's consistence and confidence. That also explains why the money was not channelled through the Department of Social Services even though it was the coordinating organization and secretariat. The Department of Social Services went on to indicate that

with the coming of the GNU (government of national unity) there has been less of resource diversion.

- *On the other hand, most parties committed just for the sake of commitment for example, those that were not even funded in the network like Save the Children-UK; some parties saw to it that all members are committed. Donors were also very committed and with the coming of the GNU there has been less of resource diversion for example, the R.B.Z saga. Through liquidation processes, money was disbursed and monitored for accountability. That has even helped to boost the donor confidence.*
- *Some organizations had some difficulties in submitting reports. Once reporting is delayed, it leads to acquittal which ultimately leads to delayed disbursement of funds and subsequently delayed service delivery. Sometimes some organizations would do rushed reports which had a lot of errors, but all the same it became a training platform.*

4.3.4 Theme 4: Community Response

Table 7, Presentation of theme 4

Theme 4, Community Response	
Subthemes	**Category**
Community response	• How the policy was received
Community systems that affect project response	• Structural issues

Source: Chimange, 2012.

4.3.4.1 Community Response

All the organizations indicated that the communities responded in a satisfactory way. They received the policy gladly and they were enthusiastic to put it into action. This was substantiated by the way they went through establishing all necessary establishments such as Ward Child Protection Committees. The Department of Social Services indicated that the policy was received gladly, but only compromised because it took too long to be implemented and many children who had been identified during the pilot study had grown up to be adults and those who remained and received the services only received small chunks. Hope Tariro Trust also indicated that the community support was so overwhelming, but the delays in the promised services frustrated the people. These are some of the organizations' responses:

- *The clients were quite zealous but they expected more in hand-outs and they thought it was going translate into an immediate response. They still expect more because their needs are captured.*
- *Communities gladly received the programme and they anticipated so much. The support was so overwhelming but the delays in the promised services frustrated them.*

Eighty-three percent of the ward councillors who were interviewed indicated that they have received the policy and they have followed through to establish the required programmes. One ward councillor, seventeen percent however indicated that he doesn't know about the policy, but he however went on to indicate that they have established

the Ward Child Protection Committees and compiled Village registers in his ward. These two are principal establishments required by the policy, which in other words shows that the policy was implemented in his ward. However, some ward councillors went on to point out that only the constituting members of the WCPC like representatives of all government institutions in the ward, NGO and the local leaderships were the only ones who were trained on the fundamental requirements of the policy, but the general populace does not have knowledge of the policy requirements.

- *It became our responsibility to impart that knowledge to the general populace. As information moves from one person to the other, it losses some details and become scanty or exaggerated and the last recipient of the message is usually ill-informed about the policy. In my ward I have tried to impart the knowledge as original as I got it through various meetings and gathering and it was left to the retention capacity of an individual to understand and respond to the various needs of the policy.*
- *When the policy was introduced, we thought they would give them what we couldn't offer, but all we were asked to do was to identify them and document their various needs and wait for help which we never received. It was even easy to stay with those needs before someone identified them and promised an intervention because we knew we were incapacitated to meet them. Now it's like we have been waiting for an absolution which never came.*

4.3.4.2 Community systems that affect project responses

The Department of Social Services speaking on behalf of all the network members who were included in the implementation of the ZNOCP indicated that the programme was also affected by the conflicts which were happening between the local leaderships in various areas of the district. The Department of Social Services specifically indicated that the difficulty was experienced in chief Shumba's area, chief Zimuto and also in the area encompassing Renco Mine, Ward 27 where there were two councillors in one ward. These two chief claimed principal authority in their areas and therefore expected the implementation team to report to them first, then he would call his people and the councillors under his chiefdom. The policy implementation guide on the other hand required the team to go via the ward councillor as the district was divided based on wards not chiefdoms. In ward 27, the whole network reported that there were two ward councillors (names withheld). One was elected by the people and he belonged to MDC party, so then the ruling ZANU PF party appointed its own councillor who was not wanted by the people. Both of them claimed principal authority on all the programmes that got into the ward.

- *Communities appreciated the project even though some chiefs questioned entry saying that the network should enter the community through the chief and he would refer them to councillors in his chiefdom.*
- *The communities accepted the programme but they had limited resource provisions. There was also politicization of the programme where chiefs claimed principal authority over ward councillors.*

As a confirmation of the above, two ward councillors for ward 6 and 32 (rural) which are situated in the government's conflicted land redistribution claimed that they are being segregated because the service providers suppose that all people in the new resettlement areas are the conservative ZANU PF supporters and they too see service providers as MDC supporters because they side-line them. The councillor for ward 1(rural), Chawata also lamented on the accessibility of some areas of his ward geographically, but also indicated that apart from being remote, service providers are urban biased and so is development.

- *For instance by profession I am a retired soldier; I am a war veteran and we live in the new much disputable resettlement areas. For that reason alone we're regarded as ZANU PF supporters and the mindless war veterans. Whatever my political affiliation is, it must not stand as a barrier from me receiving support from the government because underneath I am just another human being in Zimbabwe. Our children are just like any other children in the country and if the programme is for children, my children should be protected as well.*
- *Many people, especially the working class regard us with disdain and sometimes with fear. These are the same people who should be delivering these policies and attached services to us and they are not doing it earnestly because of fear and attached dejection. No wonder why sometimes all NGOs are regarded as MDC affiliates. Being located far away from the urban area and also at the end of Masvingo District here in the northern boundary, we are usually the last to receive all kinds of services.*

4.4 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Exploring on the implications of partnership between the government and civil society organization in the implementation of the ZNOCP provided a deeper understanding and appreciation of the many issues that stand between the implementation of a policy and ultimately service delivery to the people. Despite the frictions and problems that were encountered in the network itself, Brinkerhoff and Crosby (2002), noted that the essential rationale of state-CSO partnership is to achieve convergent objectives through the combined efforts of both sets of actors where the interaction generates a synergistic effect; that is more and better outcomes are attained than if the partners acted independently. However, giving a comparative assessment of the data gathered from the ward councillors who in the research stood as the custodians of the general populace (policy recipients) and that which was provided by the network members, there is some remarkable incongruence.

According to Doyle who contains that policy implementation is the final stage of policy making where the intentions, objectives and course of action selected by the policy maker are put into action (2000: 90), the implementation of the ZNOCP was a real success because its intentions, objectives and course of actions selected by the policy maker were surely brought to the people. However, looking at the concept that policy implementation and service delivery are interwoven, according to the concept that the evidence that a policy has been implemented should be told by the services given to the people, then the implementation of the ZNOCP was in fact a failure.

Only one organization is responsible for serving in one ward and the services given to the people of that ward are solely dependent on the resource capacity of that

organization except for a few selected issues like BEAM which is found across the country. This leaves one still questioning himself: what then was the principal reason for partnership if at last one organization is left to service the needs of the different wards which constitute its jurisdiction without the aid of other team members and worse still without the concerted resources from the partnership? Why couldn't an individual organization bring the intentions and objectives of the policy to the people in its area of jurisdiction without being involved in a network or partnership? Did the working party of officials only request for the resources to serve the implementing officials only in their national proposal to the donors? If it requested donations to cover for the services to the policy recipients, why then did they not receive anything except BEAM?

Most of what has been reported in the findings seems to indicate a positive and harmonious partnership between the CSOs and the government departments in the implementation of the Zimbabwe National Orphan Care Policy. All the organizations have reported that working in a group or network setting greatly produces the required results than if organizations stand alone. However, resources and the increasing numbers of vulnerability of children in the communities in the background of a demising national economy largely impacted on the outcomes of the policy and affected the organizations' responsiveness to these pressing and growing needs. On the other hand the political environment instigated fear and uncertainty within the CSOs and despite the call for partnership, the government indicated intentions of suppressing the civil society through drafting the NGO Bill in 2004. It is difficult then to understand if the CSO motive to join the partnership was based on the rational idea of creating synergies and working together to solve public problems or if it was just their way of positioning

themselves in spotlight areas which have become the donors' targets or if it was based on fears of victimization by the government if they do not cooperate.

4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The above qualitative data analysis shows the information that the researcher found in the field concerning the implication of partnership between the government and civil society in the implementation of the ZNOCP. It shows that the problem emanating from the partnership is mainly resource constraints against the background of a fickle economy which escalated the quantity of vulnerable children per square kilometre. The legislative profile of the country also indicated the government's intentions to stranglehold the civic society group. From observational analysis, it could be noted that many CSOs were not free to discuss the issue of NGO legislation in Zimbabwe for fear of being sold out. The recent suspension of civic society operations in Masvingo is also evidence of this fear. It could therefore be brought to conclusion that the partnership between government and civil society in Zimbabwe is based on fear of being ostracized and mistrust on the side of the civil society, while on the other hand the government has realized the importance of civil society in public problem solving but with fear of losing public grip and control. As a result, CSOs have tried by all means not to be confrontational with the government.

The following chapter will focus on drawing conclusions from these findings and also try to draw recommendations from these conclusions.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter dealt with the interpretation and analysis of data from the respondents. The data was linked to the theoretical framework as well as the literature at the researcher's disposal. This chapter will be looking at the summary of findings and conclusions drawn from the analyzed data. The second part of the chapter gives recommendations for intervention and also reflections on the research journey. The four themes and their sub-themes presented in table 7 below are based on the presentations made in the previous chapter. These themes and sub-themes lead and guide conclusions as well as recommendations in this chapter. It also provides a concentrated and summarized view of how the data was analyses in a more specific and skeletal manner.

Table 8, Summary of Main Themes and Sub-themes

Themes	**Sub-themes**
1. Organization funding dynamics and preservation of operational independence	• Source of funding and adequacy of financial support • Donor influence on recipient's operations • Recruitment and retention • Implication of those funding dynamics on the implementation process
2. State-CSO relationship	• Horizontal network relationship

	• Vertical network relationship • Resource pooling • Delegation of duties and responsibilities in the network • Conflicting goals and challenges of value compromise • Feelings about working in a partnership • Basis of partnership and continuous policy review
3. Implementation capacity	• Problem definition • Clarity of policy objectives • Capacity • Use of SOPs and their binding • Resource provision, operationalization and accessibility • Economic, social, political and legal impacts • Commitment of those entrusted with the implementation process
4. Community Response	• Community response • Community systems that affect project responses.

Source: Chimange, 2012.

5.2 SUMMARY OF MAIN FINDINGS

- All the eight organizations indicated that their main source of funding are international donors with only seventy-five percent indicating that they are also engaged in local fund raising activities to supplement the donor funds. In this case of the implementation of the ZNOCP, the significant donors mentioned included the Global fund and UNICEF through the programme of support which was administered at the national level. However, all the organizations also included that the funding was not adequate to address all spheres of the client system hence some critical areas of the policy recipients had to be ignored or not given immediate attention despite their importance. This financial inadequacy also affected the human resources seriously, leading to poor performance and burn out on those available.
- Donors were reported not to have influence or direct the activities of the organizations they fund. All the organizations indicated that the donors even now, call for proposals from different organizations stating the areas which they have funding for. It is then left to the organization to see if it fits the conditions stipulated in the call for proposals and then go for it or refrain.
- All organizations indicated that they have human resource deficiencies which are a direct consequence of the funding dynamics. Scripture Union out of all the organizations has indicated drastic setbacks caused by lack of funding on its staff. This in many organizations affects the retained staff through burnout and lack of job security because many staff in the civil society service are employed

on contract basis and the end of the funding contract can by extension also mean the end of jobs to many employees.

- Twenty five percent of the participant organizations and a hundred percent of ward councillors indicated that the funding available could not cover the full kit needed by the child and just because the money was disbanded through the consortium leaders which in this case were Scripture Union and CARE International, the Department of Social Services was reduced to an incapacitated coordinator hence it had very little control over the network.
- All the eight organizations indicated that there have been competitions among CSOs for both ground space and resources, but with the change of the donors' tendencies from funding single organizations to funding consortiums; they have learned to respect and live in harmony with each other. Eighty-three percent of ward councillors interviewed also showed that there were no noticeable differences between organizations included in the implementation of the ZNOCP which they could identify.
- Sixty-two percent of the organizations indicated that they play a complementary role to the government rather than a confrontational role. However, thirty-eight percent indicated that the legislation that governs the civil society in Zimbabwe is not supportive, but rather tries to give the government a stranglehold over the civil society. It was observed by the researcher that many organizations were not at liberty to openly talk about the legislation that governs CSOs in Zimbabwe. Additionally, the Department of Social Services was also established as the

secretariat of the implementation network and it coordinated the activities of all other organizations in the network.

- Sixty-two percent of the participant organizations indicated that they are not at liberty to pool resources from other donors to help the problem under policy focus unless if the area falls in the same category as that provided for which gives them a proper reporting strategy. Thirty-eighty percent indicated that mostly organizational goals and objectives are drafted from the National Strategic Developmental Plan from which the policy was formulated hence donations would fall into different thematic areas of the plan and help the policy recipients either directly or indirectly.
- Seventy-five percent of the organizations indicated that the duties and responsibilities of the organizations are delegated through the National Strategic Development Plan of the district, province and the nation at large. This shapes the organization's focal areas right from registration. The local government like Masvingo City Council (MCC) and Masvingo Rural District Council (MRDC) are used to delegate responsibilities to organizations matching the organization's focal areas with the specific needs of people on the ground.
- Fifty percent of the organizations indicated that there are usually no goal conflicts and challenges of value compromise since in the first instance all organizations operate under auspices of the NSDP. Another fifty percent indicated that if any such conflicts do occur, they would pay attention to the call of their organization and leave the Department of Social Service to deal with the network emergency since it is the secretariat.

- All the organizations had a positive feeling about working in a group or network setting advancing that it brings out desirable results in a much larger scale than if they operate independently. It also puts organizations in a spotlight to receive funding from donors since donors are now interested in funding consortiums than a single organization.
- The partnership with the government was based on contract and also on the signing of memorandums of understanding between CSOs and the local government. Sixty-two percent of the organization indicated that they are not involved in policy review and even the reporting strategy provided by the core team does not allow the organizations to go beyond provided prompts in the monitoring and evaluation tool to give their own experiences, views and recommendations as people who had hands-on experience of the implementation process.
- Fifty percent of the organizations indicated that the problem to be addressed by the policy was clear and understandable. Another fifty percent indicated that there were flaws within the policy content itself. For instance, the policy had a specific focus on the orphans ignoring other vulnerable groups and also forgot to take into account that children do not live in isolation and could not look at the larger environmental factors that affect the child. There was also less child participation and the policy did not set locally defined parameters that stand beside the UNCRC basic principles. The policy was also in conflict with other legislations like the Birth Registration Act and did not show how to go about solving the conflicts.

- Sixty-two percent of organizations interviewed showed that the objectives of the policy were clearly understandable but only limited by the resources. This limitation made the objectives seem too ambitious because there was not a corresponding resource expansion.
- All the organizations indicated that the policy implementation network was incapacitated to run the implementation process; a common problem faced by all organizations being limited finances and human resource shortages.
- Standard Operating Plans were used in the implementation of the ZNOCP, but they were flexible enough to allow the street level bureaucrats to panel beat them to suit the circumstances on the ground.
- The policy implementation phase was greatly influenced by the socio-economic and political situation of the country. Dwindling economy accompanied by the erratic rainfalls plus political pressure and instability in the country has hiked up the magnitude of vulnerability and lacking in the children. Many children's status moved into astounding vulnerability per square kilometre.
- Sixty-two percent of the organizations indicated that in terms of reporting, many organizations were committed to the implementation process, but another thirty-eight percent indicated that some organizations had difficulties meeting deadlines and this created a chain reaction of delays from delayed funds disbursements to delayed service delivery. On a larger scale, the government was not totally devoted because once in 2009, the ZIMBANK diverted funds donated towards the implementation of the ZNOCP towards other areas known to the government.

- All organizations indicated that the communities responded in a satisfactory way. They received the policy gladly and were also enthusiastic to put it into action through the establishment of structures such as Ward Child Protection Committees and other necessary establishments.
- Power conflicts between the chiefs and ward councillors were reported as major stumbling blocks met during the network's entry into the wards. Another problem identified also included conflicts in wards which were under the administration of two ward councillors who were affiliated to different political parties. These have been identified as the major community systems that affected project responses.

5.3 CONCLUSIONS DRAWN FROM THE MAIN FINDINGS

The study deduced findings that can help one to understand the implications of partnerships between the government and the civil society in the implementation of the Zimbabwe National Orphan Care Policy. The findings also explained the reason why problems of orphans in Zimbabwe continued to present themselves in their original manner even after they have been identified and an intervention in terms of the ZNOCP was done. The reasons identified ranged from the nature of the partnership itself to socio-economic and political factors that faced the country.

Highly negative sentiments have been channelled on the existing government legislation that governs the operation of CSOs in the country as well as the commitment to address this problem. Therefore, the partnership is based on mistrust, negativity and coercion to some certain degree. The existing PVO Act which was formed during the colonial period and renamed after independence gives the government a stranglehold over the operations of NGOs. The results of the investigation also show that the

government had the impudence to divert the resources targeting OVC to other areas showing a lack of commitment to the cause as a partner in the implementation process.

The study also indicated that the donors have special areas in funding and they call for proposals in those specific areas. Additionally, the programmes which are funded are partially funded. They do not provide a full kit that can holistically cover all the critical areas of the recipients' lives. This therefore provides a very slim intervention that quickly wears away and the problem comes back in its original form as if it has never been identified and an intervention was done. Apart from this, the donors also require feedback on the resources they have provided hence the organizations cannot divert these resources to areas under the policy focus unless if it falls under a channel where it would be easy for report back. The CSOs interviewed indicated that they employ workers on contract basis and this in many instances leads to lack of job security, lack of professional skills, poor performances, lack of motivation, divided loyalty, role overload which ultimately leads to burnout and underperformance in staff. These were the problems identified which are associated with insufficient funding from donors. Even though some organizations indicated that they often engage in local fundraising activities, none indicated having a sustainable income generating project that could stabilize the impact of the above stated problems.

The results also indicate a decline of competition between CSOs which was also facilitated by a shift of donor funding preferences from funding single organizations to funding consortiums which is even a positive development in the quest for partnerships. It ensures the sharing of experiences, problems, solutions and best practices. This has reduced problems of double dipping and duplication of duties. Also attached to this new

development is the role of the government in ensuring these harmonious coexistences of the CSOs through registration and also the use of local government officials like Masvingo Rural District Council and Masvingo City Council which delegate jurisdiction to them.

The government has also provided a standard development plan (NSDP) which touches different areas of human livelihoods which needs intervention. This NSDP also direct the CSOs registration in correspondence with the needs on the ground. However, still on the same concept, it is not clear to ascertain if the NSDP has skipped some areas of human livelihood as those identified by NANGO such as governance, human rights advocacy and democracy because they are a threat to the existing order of the country or they are included but shunned by those who administer the plan for the same reason or any other. The answer to these questions unfortunately lies beyond the scope of this study but it can be an intriguing field to explore in future studies.

Monitoring and evaluation of the policy is done by the core team and other network members are given templates to fill in what they have done in the field. This therefore limits the input of other street bureaucrats who have hands-on experience with the implementation. Having said that; many CSOs denied having been called to any meeting whose agenda was focused on reviewing the policy based on experiences or information got from analysis. The results also indicate that even in their network settings, arrangements for implementation were structured to allow just one organization (the Department of Social Services) to exercise veto power, but even though a scenario of power dependency was created, the Department of Social Services was not controlling the resources. Hence there was a creation of conflicting

principles between what happened on the ground and the general principles of power dependency.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR GOVERNMENT-CSO PARTNERSHIPS

5.4.1 Revision of the PVO Act

The present PVO Act was crafted from the Welfare Organizations Act 93 of 1967 which was enacted when Zimbabwe, then Rhodesia, was regarded as a pariah state which did not pay attention to internationally recognized human rights. According to Randolph, when the act was amended and renamed the PVO Act in 1995, the government did not repeal the repressive sections, but rather retained them and as well added new sections that gave the government greater control over NGOs (1995: 38).

For instance, in November 2002, the minister of Justice, Legal and Parliamentary Affairs (Patrick Chinamasa) published a list of NGOs which he claimed to be a threat to peace and security in the country. Amani Trust appeared on the minister's list and was reportedly accused of working with the British government to unseat President Mugabe and destabilize the nation. The same month, the trust closed offices following the government's decision to criminalize the non-registration of NGOs under the PVO Act. Following this example, the minister in June 2008, suspended the operations of all NGO activities in the country. The state has repeatedly claimed that most CSO activities, especially in the area of good governance, and democracy appear not to be in the economic interests of the state, public order and public safety hence curtailed by legislations such as Public Order and Security Act (POSA) as well as the Criminal Law Codification and Reform Act (CLCRA), (Saki, 2010: 11).

In addition to this jumble, there are efforts being made by the Ministry of Justice and the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare to amend the PVO Act to include Trusts as organizations that must be registered under the act. Registration as a trust will only be allowed if one is registered as a PVO. This will obviously cause problems and conflicts in the future in the governing regulation for PVO-Trust. Basing on this past experience, CSOs are faced with the need to improve the general operating environment which has been characterized mainly by the presence of laws which contribute to self-censorship and constraint in the civic space.

It is therefore imperative for the revision of the PVO Act to be done in a highly consultative manner that involves CSO representatives and the government on the other hand such that chaotic issues can be clearly articulated to avoid the same imbalances to happen in future state-CSO partnerships. There is also a need to develop a constitutional framework which has got an expanded Bill of Rights that would allow CSO to operate with confidence. Following up on that point, there would also be a need to establish institutions that would safeguard these rights.

5.4.2 State politics should be separated from social development

It might seem impossible to separate these two variables as Brynard (2005) put it that policies determine politics and that the most significant political fact is that governments coerce. The content of a policy is then therefore a function of the level and type of coercion by the government. Notably, most of these policies are the agents for social development and change. Or maybe we should understand politics as the struggle for control of the means whereby power is used to affect any organizational context, be it national societies, voluntary associations or economic institutions. Politics as essentially

the struggle for the control of power relations, whether institutionalized or not. Either way, there is no clear distinction that could be put between the two in developing countries neither could there be drawn a more noble and rationalized conclusion on why the participant organizations were not at liberty to openly talk about the legislations that guides their operations other than the politics of the arena itself and the conspiracy theories that have developed around it. However, critically looking at the two examples given in subsection above, of the government curtailing the operations of CSOs in Zimbabwe, one can draw a conclusion on how state politics affects the CSO operations and ultimately social development itself.

In 2002 the Amani Trust was closed and in September 2002, the government issued a notice to all NGOs that are not registered with the PVO Act to cease operations. This was shortly after the most intensified presidential elections the country (held in March 2002) had ever witnessed in its post-independence era which Meredith, (2008: 225) referred to as, “a stolen election,” so maybe somebody had to be held accountable. The 2008, June suspension of NGO operations was done shortly after the most disputable March 2008 presidential elections towards the re-run elections held the same month between the ruling ZANU PF and the opposition MDC which subsequently led to the Global Political Agreement in September the same year. Reading the patterns, it is clear that these accusations only come after intense political elections indicating how politics takes precedence over social development.

According to Aina, (nd: 12) due to these pragmatic and self-serving interests, the state is often felt and seen by the poor through the operations and manifestations of its laws, institutions, various apparatus and their personnel. Because of all these, the state often

appears as alien, hostile and at times indifferent to the real activities and existences of the ordinary people. Taking into cognizance that many organizations suspended were giving aid to OVC and people living with HIV/AIDS (PLWAs), one can feel the insensitive breeze of politics over human livelihood. Separating state politics from social development is however mainly influenced by the willpower of the government personnel, but it does not only improve the state-CSO relations but also the legitimacy of the government to its citizens. It is therefore imperative that there be a change of the mind-set in governance, moving away from selfishness to putting a greater commitment to social development.

5.4.3 Engagement of all parties in policy monitoring and evaluation

As indicated in the results of the findings in the previous chapter, many organizations have denied having been called for any policy review and also added that in their roles as partners in the implementation process, they are not given adequate grounds to contribute in the monitoring and evaluation of the policy. They have indicated that monitoring and evaluation was done by the core team which was comprised of the Department of Education, local government, NAC, the Department of Social Services and one NGO (in this case Rural Unity for Development-RUDO). They also elaborated that their own engagements are only limited to the submission of monitoring and evaluation reports which are just fill-in forms provided by the core team which do not grant them an opportunity to add what they have seen, experienced or observed in the field.

Brynard and Stone (2004) indicate that policy implementation and policy analysis are inseparable. In fact, the process of policy analysis starts during implementation itself

through experiences and observation of patterns of interaction (Brynard and Stone, 2004: 167). Therefore, the street level bureaucrats are the best people to evaluate the policy, analyze it and also contribute in its review because they have got hands-on experience of the issues on the ground. This will avoid the future policies or the reformulated policy to fall into the same trap as the previous one. They might not all be included in the policy review forums, but their input must be valued and taken into consideration. Instead of giving them fill-in forms for monitoring and evaluation, the core team must allow a more flexible way of reporting where these street level bureaucrats could add in their experiences, challenges as well as recommendations for the policy review body to take into cognizance.

5.4.4 CSOs should engage in sustainability projects to supplement donations

The most critical challenges faced by CSOs included in this study were greatly linked to inadequate funding. The inadequate funding has been greatly linked to changes in donor preferences and patterns. It therefore looks like the appropriate time for CSOs to adopt an entrepreneurial approach that allows them sustainability, independence and self-reliance even when donor funding has become scanty. One of the greatest challenges facing CSOs in Zimbabwe is how to sustain and support their activities financially. The primary reason why CSOs need to find different strategies for long term survival strategy is to diversify income sources. A sustainable approach to CSO financing is one that avoids dependency on any single source of revenue, external or internal.

It is difficult to determine a formula for percentages that needs to be derived from various sources in order to support a financially sustainable CSO. However, a balance

between externally and internally generated resources is necessary to allow an organization to meet its operating and administrative expenses while maintaining the freedom to determine its programme priorities and projects irrespective of donor preferences. Most CSOs in SADC remain heavily dependent on external financial assistance from foreign donors. In fact, international support constitutes the single largest source of NGO funding in the region. This presents a two-part problem for local CSOs. Firstly, the level of international funding is unstable. Resources for NGOs have been decreasing because many donors have shifted their attention to other priority areas, greater political expediency or publicly popular regions of the world. Secondly, existing international funds in the region are often earmarked for particular projects or for limited project cycle.

Donors frequently attach specific limitations on how money can be spent, designing particular issues or themes or specifying support only for programme expenses. This has made it difficult for CSOs to acquire adequate funding for their ongoing operational expenses. The current donor enthusiasm for project based funding puts the emphasis on NGO activities rather than on sustaining the organizations themselves. In practice, institutional or organizational development remains a lower priority. CSOs are forced to go where the money is regardless of whether the project priorities identified by a prospective donor mesh with the long term strategic plans of the organization. This situation has led CSOs into an endless cycle of resource dependency.

5.4.5 Development of business-philanthropy strategies with large companies

Regional sources of NGO funding from local and national agencies and public donations have not yet developed to a level sufficient to meet demand. The poverty,

corruption and social problems in SADC present major problems to philanthropic development. Therefore, large companies operating in the region such as mining and construction must fulfill their social responsibility in their area of operation and production in the communities, the environment and other social sectors like hospitals and educational institutions. Most foreign companies have formulated their corporate philanthropic strategies which include making donations to events, giving grants for socially worthwhile projects and so on. This could potentially become one of the strategies for promoting CSO financial sustainability in Zimbabwe. However, this should go hand in hand with the legal environment (to offer tax exemptions to encourage company donations), monitoring to ensure transparency and also raising awareness about fund expenses and places to contribute (Alymkulova and Seipulnik, 2005: 38). Besides donations, there are other many creative ways to invest in the community which includes partnership with CBOs, employee-volunteer programme, membership on non-profit boards and in-kind donations of goods and professional services.

In addition to product, price, positioning and promotion, traditionally known as the four Ps of marketing, philanthropy can become the fifth marketing P. Philanthropy can go beyond donated money and create great value for the community as well as a better corporate image for a firm through improved relationships between public and business sectors. CSOs in Zimbabwe should develop a business philanthropy strategy in their regions by identifying target companies and promoting the benefits that firms could reap through their participation. The easiest type of business-philanthropy would be social partnerships with CSOs and a combination of monetary and in-kind donations, and

contracts for the implementation of income generating activities such as brokering services or administering projects.

5.4.6 Embarking on social enterprising

Social enterprising (SE) is one of the financial sustainability strategy components with application of concepts and features to SADC and Zimbabwe in particular. Mounting frustration with the current funding status quo and the desire to decrease donor dependency has prompted non-profits to utilize private sector entrepreneurial principles. The approach goes beyond the traditional donor-grantee relationship and focuses on a new organizational hybrid which is non-profit in purpose and for profit in approach using the double bottom line concept. Social enterprise is driven by two strong forces. Firstly, the targeted social change often benefits from an innovative entrepreneurial or enterprise-based solution. Secondly, the sustainability of the organization and its services requires the diversification of its funding stream including the addition of earned income. Social enterprising has great potential as sustainability strategy for non-profits in emerging economies where markets are undeveloped and barriers are low.

Comprehensive and well-structured programmes which complement business training and loans, legal advice and networking can increase the likelihood that NGOs will successfully create sustainable social enterprises that can achieve both financial viability and social impact over the long term. To do this however, there is need for extensive preparatory training that is aimed at developing the capabilities of NGOs for managing different aspects of social enterprises by providing an introduction to the SE concept, SE overview and organizational readiness for SE development, feasibility analysis and business planning. There is also a need to initiate a zero percent interest

loan programme and establish funds and funds management. Since the portfolio is an investor approach, the results are measured in terms of return on investment.

The SE financial and technical contributions which are considered investments are monetarized and the returns are assessed for social and economic impact. Economic returns to social enterprise are standard measures borrowed from business profit/loss, gross margin, sales turnover and market penetration. SE also tries to capture economic returns to the community, increased tax base (more money for public social expenditure) and diminished donor dependency (money for social investment). Social impact is hard to measure, but declining subsidies, new social investments and increased coverage of social cost are indicators which can be used to show social returns (Alymkulova and Seipulnik, 2005: 39).

5.4.7 Need to capacity build communities for self-sustainability

A remarkable number of organizations indicated having sustainable livelihoods programmes as well as skills enhancement in their programme outlines, but many are not put into operation. This shows a conscious awareness in the organization to capacity build communities to be self-reliant, but in real practice, it is not happening. Taking for instance a response given by the ward 1 councillor and deputy mayor, Dorcas; CARE International which is operating in the ward is reported to be giving food hampers or money (US$20) to vulnerable groups as per their selection. It is difficult therefore to tell if after the gospel of capacity building has been preached to CSOs, then they just included sustainable livelihoods programmes in their programme outline, but reluctant to employ them in the communities or maybe they do not have adequate funding to kick-start the projects. Maybe it is because of the ecological zone where this

particular ward is situated (urban ward). However, looking at the provisions above one would wonder. If the organization is capable of giving parcels or US$20.00 per month per let's say 10 families in the whole ward, how much would it have given out for a whole year? At the end of the year when the donation stops, where would that leave the client? Could the money not have been saved and used for a remarkably magnificent project that would attract its own profit and continue to exist over decades even after CARE ceases to administer it? If such an approach as sustainable livelihoods project is employed, it is more than just probable that the people would have long time benefits from it than direct donations which they exhaust within that one month knowing that next month they will get something again.

5.4.8 Develop effective communications between the key implementers, donors and the monitoring and evaluation team

Given the broad array of problems faced by CSOs that affected the implementation of the ZNOCP which ranged from scanty resources, poor mobility, insufficient staff in the organizations to run the implementation process and ultimately role overload to those available, definitely there have to be some expected delays in the process. The working party of officials set its deadlines which pushed the provincial child welfare forums and it also in turn pressurized the districts. It is also pushed by a desire to meet the donor's deadlines. On the other hand the monitoring and evaluation taskforce, most of whose members were not directly involved in the implementation process at grassroots level had its deadlines which the same already overburdened and incapacitated network had to meet. To meet the pressure, the network ended up brushing things and leaving them at unsatisfactory levels.

The result in this case was a finished, but half-baked cake, not satisfactory in the eyes of the implementers and futile to the intended recipients. In future settings, the setting of deadlines should be set in full consultation of the parties involved; that is the implementers/street level bureaucrats, the monitoring and evaluation core team and the donors. This would allow the implementers to communicate their challenges and how that would affect the reporting strategy. The deadlines are supposed to be set taking into cognizance the real and not anticipated challenges on the ground if there are no provisions that can be made to overcome them.

5.4.9 Government should provide basic training for CSOs

Normally there are no qualifications that an individual is required to possess before registering an organization in Zimbabwe; hence people from all walks of life are free to register an organization. By virtue of being the co-founder or owner of that particular organization, an individual is found occupying a position of influence in the organization for example, manager or director or principal either with little qualification or without any relevant qualification at all. The CSO sector is basically a voluntary sector and many believe that it is a calling by God. Given the scenario, the government may not necessarily bar or ostracize those who lack the skills, but should be prepared to capacitate committed CSOs if the partnership is to result in optimal performance of the sector. After registration, the government may introduce basic in-service training to the broader CSO sector. As a way of ensuring compulsory participation of CSOs; the government may require CSOs engaged in a certain sector to acquire a certain amount of CPD (continued professional development) points per year, for instance 20 CPD points per year. These CPD points will be awarded as acknowledgements of full

attendance in workshops and trainings and the number (20) resembling the basic minimum training an individual should undergo in a year. This way, CSO would remain abreast and updated with skills and new developments in their sector alongside the government.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Looking at this study, it looks like the relationship between the government and civic society has been largely influenced by the National Strategic Development Plan. Now, development in African states has been put into categories that depict the different stages that the post-colonial African states have passed through. These categories include the early post-colonial period or the development and building phase which ranged from the 1950 to the mid-1970s and the crisis phase which emerged in the mid-1970s and became more evident in the 1980s and 1990s. Stren (1991) has viewed the period of 1960s to 1970s in most African countries as a period of constructions of an elaborate central state structure. It was a period of reconstruction of new physical signs of nationhood, including infrastructure and prestigious airports, ports, military bases and massive white elephant projects, (Stren, 1991: 16).

Developmental plans contained massive allocations for these purposes. It would be imperative to know if the plan is based on this period and how the issues of this era influenced its contents. One would also want to ascertain if the Zimbabwean N.S.D.P was based on the consolidation of power by an aggressive nationalist party, the establishment of one party or military government, the restriction of civil politics outside the direct control of the state, the setting up of mechanisms for central economic planning, the growth of a vast array of state administrative structures and parastatal

bodies and the emphasis on highly personal form of presidential rule which reinforced the tendency towards centralization. Or maybe it was just based on post-colonial developments when most African nations entered a phase of long-drawn-out economic decline accompanied by drought, famine, severe ecological degradation, political instability, conflict, indebtedness and the imposition of Structural Adjustment Programmes (S.A.Ps). Economic decline and debt crisis constituted the most critical elements of this problem ridden era and stabilization and SAPs became their expected antidote, (Aina, nd: 12). Maybe it was based on a nation whose economy was in a sharp downward spiral, escalating inflation, and lack of basic necessities and in dire straits (Meredith, 2008: 211).

Although ascribing dates to these phases gives a false impression of uniformity, but they do assist in identifying major landmarks meant to denote specific processes and structural changes which also indicate strategies of consolidation adopted by the post-colonial ruling groups and the structural crisis of the post-colonial era which influenced the contents of the Structural Development Plans of different countries. Using the periodization, two definite patterns and phases applicable to the understanding of post-colonial development planning and also state-society and central-local government relations can be identified. It would be interesting to know which phase influences the NSDP of Zimbabwe and also how often it is reviewed to suit the changing circumstances of the people in the country.

There are still some grey areas where clarification in form of research is needed. For instance, this study has established that one organization was left to deal with the diverse problems of the areas under their jurisdiction. One would need to understand

what then was the principal reason for partnership if not concerted resource contribution to the problems identified in the communities? The resources solicited from the Global Fund and United Nations International Children's Fund (UNICEF), were they merely for funding the implementation of the policy (to serve the implementing officials only) and not enough to meet the needs of the policy recipients? If it was meant to meet the needs of the policy recipients, why then didn't they receive anything else except BEAM which does not even cover all the aspects of the child? Research into these questions would need someone to move beyond the implementers (government and CSO) and also involve the donors. If answers to these questions can be established through research, then there would be a definite answer to substantiate on the ones already given in this study and in previous analysis studies. An answer would also be found as to why the ZNOCP was a drastic failure.

According to the findings of this study, partnership between CSOs and government has to a greater extent been influenced by a makeshift change in the donor funding preferences from funding single organizations to funding consortiums. Looking at the registration trends of the organizations, no two different organizations would have the same objectives. They might be similar or identical, but different and that difference is what makes an organization unique. It would therefore be interesting to solicit the impacts of these partnerships and specifically the changing funding dynamics on the core missions of different organizations.

5.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided a summary of observations and discussion of the limitations of the investigation and suggestions for future research as well as recommendations for

the intervention strategies. This study has afforded some understanding of the implications of partnerships between the CSOs and the government in the implementation of public policies. It also brought some insight into the interventions that can be adopted in future state-CSO partnerships to ensure smooth and good relationships. Based on the findings, it is clear that the idea for state-CSO relationship in public policy implementation is the best way to solve the public problems for it ensures effectiveness, rapid response and also shared responsibility among various actors. This has also put small organizations in the same spotlight with renowned and well established ones for donor funding and assignment of duties and responsibilities. However, individual organizations' dominant insolent behaviour is usually ascribed to the whole network, hence the labelling of the whole network under the brackets of that culture. Lack of absolute commitment on the side of the government has led to a diverse array of problems that have shaken the whole network and ultimately service delivery. The general sentiment shared by CSOs in relation to the government can be summed up in one participant's statement, "*… there are feelings of compliance but based on compromising our core values. We feel like a small flyer in the bigger atmosphere. There are always conflicts between real policy and political motives which makes it difficult for us to know where exactly to start and where to end without being labelled political activists."*

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ANNEXURE A: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. Biographical details.

Question	Prompt
1. Since we are meeting for the first time, can you tell me about yourself?	✚ Identification. ✚ Care giver ✚ Position ✚ Dependents ✚ Disability ✚ hobbies

2. NPO funding dynamics and preservation of operational independence.

Question	Prompt
1. Who are the major funders of your organization (by category eg. Gvnt, private operations and business, individual donors or international donors or family foundations)? 2. Is the organization financially equipped to	✚ Financial support ✚ Adequacy of financial

serve its clients? 3. How many donors fund this organization? 4. Do funders prescribe services to be offered and what their funds should be used for? 5. Do you have any human resource problems which are a direct consequence of the funding dynamics? 6. How does this impact on your pursuit for partnership with the government? 7. Can you please tell me about the financial challenges that you are facing?	support. - Donor influence on NGO operations. - Recruitment and retention - Implications on partnership. - Financial limitations

3. Implications of partnership between government and civil society.

Question	**Prompt**
1. How do you feel about working in a group or network setting? 2. Being on the same level of authority, how do CSOs behave towards each other?	- Feelings about partnership - Interactional behavior

3. What criterion is used to delegate responsibilities in the network?	Delegation of duties.
4. Do you sometimes in your operations feel like caught between the pursuit of your own goals and the collective goals of the network?	Conflicting goals.
5. What challenges have you came across in trying to compromise your values and meet the government in policy implementation?	Challenges of value compromise CSO autonomy
6. What mechanisms has the government put in place to ensure autonomous operation of CSO whilst pursuing the collective goals of the network?	Resource contribution by CSOs
7. Despite providing the personnel needed to run the implementation process, what other input do individual organizations put to help the problem at hand?	Continuous policy assessment.
8. Who is responsible for the monitoring and evaluation of the policy after implementation?	Policy review
9. Have you at any point been called to review the policy based on information got from analysis?	Collective CSO behavior.

10. In your own view, how do CSOs behave collectively towards government departments? 11. Are these partnerships based on contracts or tenders? 12. What are the challenges that you come across in the partnership?	- Basis of partnership. - Challenges

4. Policy content.

Question	Prompt
1. According to your experiences, were the objectives of the policy clear and understandable? 2. Can you certainly tell that the problem to be addressed was clearly defined and practical? 3. Did you use a standard operational plan you had to follow during the policy implementation? 4. Were these SOPs too stringent/flexible? 5. Can you please tell me of any challenges that you faced in terms of policy context?	- Clarity of objectives - Problem definition. - SOP guided /not - SOP binding. - Challenges

5. Policy context.

Question	Prompt
1. In your own opinion, to what extent was the policy shaped by the larger social, economic, political and legal realities? **2.** In your own understanding, how do you think this has affected the policy outcomes?	✚ Economic, social, political and legal impacts.

6. Commitment of those entrusted with the implementation process:

Question	Prompt
1. How committed were all the members of the network during the implementation phase? **2.** How committed were the government and donors throughout the implementation process? **3.** Have you encountered any difficulties caused by lack of commitment from other network members? **4.** If **"YES"** what are they?	✚ Commitment of street-level bureaucrats. ✚ Institutional corridor ✚ Challenges in commitment.

7. Capacity:

Question	Prompt
1. Did you have enough resources for example, human, financial, material, technological and logistical? **2.** Were the resources accessible? **3.** How were these resources operationalized? **4.** Can you please tell me the problems that you faced in the way the resources were operationalized?	Resource availability. Accessibility Distribution Challenges

8. Clients and coalitions:

Question	Prompt
1. How did the communities receive the policy? 2. What challenges have you encountered in your interaction with the recipient communities?	Community response Challenges.

9. Civil society legislation in Zimbabwe:

Question	Prompt

1. According to your experiences, does civil society legislation consistent and encourages citizen's rights to participate in the country's development process? **2.** Does the legislation limits or blurs your opportunities for foreign funding? **3.** In your opinion, does the current legislation provide an enabling environment to enhance NGO activities?	- Legislative support - Limitations of the legislation - Evaluative understanding

ANNEXURE B: CONSENT FORM

I, the undersigned …… do hereby confirm that:

- I have read **and** understood the information provided on the study.
- I am aware that a voice recorder will be used to capture data during this research.
- I understand that participation in this research is voluntary.
- I reserve the right to withdraw from the study at any time.
- I understand that no payment will be received for participating in this study.
- I understand that the information that I give will be kept confidential.
- I am aware that a pseudonym will be used in place of my real name for confidentiality purposes.

I hereby confirm that I fully understand the conditions of this study and what my rights and responsibilities as a participant will be. I also consent to the use of any verbatim quotes in the research report.

Signature: …….

Date: ……

ANNEXURE C: A NARRATIVE ACCOUNT OF THREE PARTICIPANTS

1. NAC (NATIONAL AIDS COUNCIL) Category: NGO

The major funders are the government, individual donors and international donors. There is limited funding and there is a gap between resources available and the needs in the communities and this is also exacerbated by donor fatigue. The organization also benefits from the AIDS levy and when the economy is not performing well then it means the money is limited. The organization also benefits from the corporate tax which is got from the industries and it is only 3% of the declared net profit and when the industries are not performing well then the turnover is small. There is also no way of collecting the money from the informal sector. Donors just have areas of funding and if your proposal falls into that area then they can fund it. Reporting is a way of assessment and if your budget is too big, then the donor can even call you to review the budget. We have HR problems because we cannot afford to employ more personnel due to financial strains. Due to the shortage, the organization's business becomes reduced vis-a-vis focus on critical issues. The multi-sectoral approach is meant to help by contributing personnel but it also affects accessibility of information because if the official responsible is away, then the office is out of reach to anyone who might need to use it. In other words when the official is away then the office is vacant/locked. As a result of shortage of staff, we end up prescribing duties to volunteers which is against the volunteer policy. We also experience ART delivery difficulties because the equipment requires certain levels of temperatures which we are not able to maintain hence breakdown and volatility. We do not have enough finances to buy air conditioned mobile laboratories. Limited personnel also means that we cannot bring critical services to the people and drug adherents

become a problem because some people cannot afford to hike to town each time they need a service. People also need constant support in behaviour change but due to the lack of both resources and personnel, it is difficult to help these people.

Implications of partnership between the government and civil society

Network is the best because we cannot meet all the needs of the people alone but synergistically we share solutions and experiences and skills, challenges and successes. The element of competition was removed by the allocation of roles and mapping. Now they complement each other, but big organization compromise the position of small organizations to donor funding. We also work with local authorities such as RDC looking at the baseline information to direct their activities. Some organizations however give problems saying that they would need to look at the wards closer to their bases even though they are already taken by other organization. This delayed progress at one time by three months. Usually there are no conflicting goals and where the core priority demands, I will pay attention to the call of the organization first. Depending on the nature of the call, the DSS should take priority since it is the principal/secretariat will go and we only come to support and enhance its activities. We provide transport and advocacy as well as skills and even financial support. The core team is responsible for monitoring and evaluation. (Education, local authority, NAC, DSS and 1 NGO RUDO for this instance). At some point, these organizations do their own engagements with the government but they don’t want to be confrontational but complimentary. They’re afraid of being ostracized as before; however there is always a platform of negotiations and the government as the one which registered them also

monitors their activity. The NGO bill is no longer an issue because it has become outdated and the president (R. G. Mugabe) refused to sign it to pass it into an act.

Content

The objectives were clear but too ambitious for instance to reach 50% of OVC population without a corresponding expansion of service providers and resource. It didn't take into account donor fatigue. The problem to be addressed was also clearly articulated but too diverse for example; psycho-social support (is too broad to reflect as a point of intervention). It is the caregivers who control the standards. There was also a standard operational plan and it was also flexible to the street level bureaucrats. When the community is informed then they participate and if not, they are in the dark.

Context

The establishment of CPCs based in the community means that the needs could be assessed from there by the people who have an everyday idea of what is happening. There was centralized funds and Zimbabwe was regarded as a under additional safeguard measures. Networking always helps to bring modification to policy and improves on accountability, transparency and responsiveness. Monitoring has moved from office to beneficiaries informed which persuades organizations to be more transparent and responsive.

Commitment

Some organizations had some difficulties in submitting reports. Once reporting is delayed, it leads to acquittal which ultimately leads to delayed disbursement of funds

and subsequently delayed service delivery. Sometimes some organizations would do rushed reports which had a lot of errors, but all the same it became a training platform. We also lost some funds because of the delays for example; the OVC component has now been dropped. There were periodic monitoring visits by the core team. The government was supportive and the donors were only affected by delayed reports.

Capacity

Some capacities were compromised because some civil societies do not hire trained personnel hence they needed a lot of training. Lack of Human resources affected the whole process and the implementing organizations had a slim structure that does not have any supportive staff for example, secretariat and administration. There was a strong need for additional support remuneration to those who were available. There is need to budget for this new level of effort.

Clients and Coalitions

The clients were quite zealous but they expected more in hand-outs and they thought it was going translate into an immediate response. They still expect more because their needs are captured.

Legislation

Two sections were repealed by the Supreme Court hence reduced the government's stranglehold in the NGOs for example, section 22 of the PVO Act. President Mugabe refused to sign the NGO Bill into an act and now it's difficult to punish the NGOs/deregister them, but they can only be strictly controlled during registration.

2. THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SERVICES, Category: Government Department.

Funding dynamics and preservation of operational independence

The major stakeholder is the government, the international donor community and locally there is a contribution made by the employed citizens for example, NATIF (National AIDS Trust Fund which is a 3 % of the gross salary. The department is to some extent equipped to serve its clients but there is a major gap between the needs on the ground and the available resources. Usually developmental programmes work with nation modalities and these programmes are usually got through the government in partnership with the donor society and the money is used to fund the various themes in the policy. The national working part of officials/secretariat sends proposals at that national level and once the funds are acquired is allowed to trickle down to the various local governance levels and other stakeholders in the implementation of the policy. The drafted national proposals would be comprehensive enough to touch a lot of thematic areas such that many donors would be able to find at least one area to fund in that broad array. Definitely we have human resources problems and the global fund for example, has come in to fund specifically to fund issues concerning child protection such as compiling the village register. Some districts in Masvingo province is understaffed for example, Zaka, Chiredzi and Mwenezi. (They only have 1 social services officer to run all the errands for the whole district. It therefore stands to reason that the officer cannot respond holistically to the strain and sometimes the partners have to go it alone and in other cases they experience burn out in some certain issues where nobody else can take their position for example, the issue of children in need of care and protection. Overburdened as they often are, they end up just brushing out the work

and the fulfillment of the policy objectives would be delayed. Recently NAPII which has replaced ZOCP has seen a makeshift of the funding dynamics with the shift of money from targeting CSOs which means that in the previous phase the department was reduced to the position of trying to coordinate them to a common understanding. Most of the funds now are placed with the department of Social Services because of lots of leakages in phase 1. Much of the funds were used for administrative costs *visa-vis* the intended recipients/beneficiaries.

2. Implications of partnership between the government and civil society:

Organization can achieve the desired results when they work together even in the government itself it won't be succeed if it work alone. There is need for the involvement of other stakeholder. Beside the programme resources, other network members will be able to utilize other problems and mobilize own resources which are complimentary to the ZNOCP resources e.g. CARE (livelihoods Support Programmes, HTT (psycho-social support) to make a full support kit for the OVCs. They also source other donors towards child protection. There was a competitive attitude previously and this compromised networking and coordination, it was survival of the fittest. The funding thrust has shifted to strengthening the DSS to call partners to see how synergies can be formed for example; Save the Children-UK is not funded but builds other resources to build complimentary relationships. In this way, impact can be realized on the outcomes. Responsibilities are delegated through the strategic development plans of the district, province and national and it is from these that the CSO develop their proposals. From the onset, for example, registration, their plans are guided by these strategic development plans. Even at national level, the MLSS monitors the operations of the

CSOs to see that there are no self-serving interests. Conflicting goals creates operational strains because of time, resource pooling and technical backstopping. Strategic developmental plans plus different thematic areas of the policy creates a framework where different organizations can pool resources from different donors and rescue a certain area under the policy focus even if outside the specific policy resources available. There are mechanisms that enhance monitoring for example, it is the department's mandate together with the department coordination structures for example, Rural District Development Council and PDC to monitor policy compliance plus other social and substructures also to monitor the policy. There are timely meetings which are designed to interrogate various issues in the policy. To a greater extent there is a cooperative working relationship.

3. Content

The objectives were understood to a greater extent because there were measures in place to deliberate the policy experiences and problems through meetings which were also funded. The problem area was well articulated and it involved all stakeholders in a highly consultative manner. The level of funding was not in proportion with the level of needs on the ground. Policies for child care and protection sometimes do not work in isolation. They work in line with other legislations for example, VFU and there are a lot of contestations with other policies for example, Children Act and The Criminal law Codification and Reform Act argue about the age of majority and the Birth Registration Act and other acts especially on user fees. There were SOPs named the Minimum standards for OVC programming and there SOPs were flexible.

4. Context

To a greater extent, the policy was influenced by the larger socio-economic environment for example; the crafting of the ZNOCP and later the NAP for OVC was done in total acknowledgement of the socio-and cultural context of Zimbabwe. Emphasis was given on the family care which is in line with the country's cultural background (6 tier approach). Issue of culture has positively affected the policy outcomes.

5. Commitment

All the parties were committed, but the fact that non-compliance could have disrupted the funding could mean that the people complied just to get funding. On the other hand, most parties committed just for the sake of commitment for example, those that were not even funded, in the network; some parties see to it that all members are committed. Donors were also very committed and with the coming of the GNU there has been less of resource diversion for example, the R.B.Z saga. Through liquidation processes, money was disbursed and monitored for accountability. That has even helped to boost the donor confidence.

6. Capacity

Resources were disbanded through the various CSOs and the DSS was reduced to an incapacitated coordinator. Most cars which were given to the CSOs are now being called back and re-disbanded to the department.

7. Clients and Coalitions

Emphasis of full participation of the community has been on handy issues and it was well received. There is need to avail more resources to further capacitate the community for example, direct survival resources. There is also need for capacity building on how to treat issues surrounding child protection (manageability of sexual abuse cases). There are also challenges which include reduced capacity for total engagement with the community for example, issues of mobility to interact with the community).

8. Legislation

NGO Bill was never passed into an act it was denied. And the repressive sections of the PVO Act were repelled.

3. COUNCILLOR WARD 1 AND DEPUTY MAYOR, (DORCAS)

We have received the policy and we are glad that at least the state is helping us to help the disadvantaged children of our society. The only problem that we're facing is the scarcity of resources to take care of the problems identified. There is one organization that is operating in our ward 1 which is CARE International. Its contact with its donors is going to lapse in June 2012 as they have told us. Previously they have been giving aid in form of food hampers to old people, vulnerable children, child led households and also people in HBC. Presently they have been giving US$20 per month to the same people who fall in the same category. Now they have promised us that they would be focusing on focus group. These programme changes are a result of the funding dynamics and it also affects the service provision in our communities. What the organization has managed to get funding for is what we receive. Despite the

organization's efforts we also find out that some of our people are greedy and selfish with the knowledge that can help others in benefiting from these programmes.

We also appreciate the efforts made on the educational side of these children. BEAM is really helpful; it gives children a chance to proceed with their education and an opportunity to change their circumstances. We have a lot of children who have completed school under BEAM and pursued different carriers. Some have become lawyers, teachers and one has become a pilot (name withheld). The only problem which we often face in this programme is that some children are usually dropped from B.E.A.M (Basic Education Assistance Module) when they transfer to other schools or graduate to secondary schools, but there has been this realization and efforts are underway to keep them in the system for as long as their circumstances qualifies them for the programme. I have been taking some of these children and counselling them elaborating on the importance of education when they have lost hope and in my little businesses that I have, I also help with some necessities to these children where I can.

Mainly the councillor assumes the role of a chairperson to every organization that has been allocated to work in his/her ward and this helps in pointing areas which requires immediate attention. During the implementation phase, it was a team of government and civil society organization that came to implement the programme and only one organization is left now to meet the various needs of the whole ward. My ward has got +_ 3000 people and all the needs of these people together with other wards where the organization operate require 1 organization's attention. With the scarcity of resources and staff in the organization, there is usually side-lining of other needs and what is done

is usually done at substandard level because of burnout, fatigue and a haste to meet deadlines. All these things affect us as recipient communities.

The economic and political environment which the country has undergone has also contributed enormously to the rocketing levels of vulnerability and lacking in the people. Many people (parents) have died and left children behind, some went to Diaspora and nothing was ever heard of them and some even if they are still around, but they have nothing at all to contribute to the children's wellbeing.