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FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF POLITICS AND PUBLIC MANAGEMENT

**AN ASSESSMENT OF THE IMPACT OF FOOD AID PROGRAMS TO
HOUSEHOLD FOOD SECURITY IN ZIMBABWE. CASE OF
CHIMANIMANI DISTRICT**

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CERTIFICATION OF DISSERTATION

The undersigned certify that they have read and recommended for submission to the department of Politics and Public Management, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Bachelor of Science Honors Degree in Politics and Public Management, a dissertation by **CALLISTER WISH MATONGO** entitled:

AN ASSESSMENT OF THE IMPACT OF FOOD AID PROGRAMS TO HOUSEHOLD FOOD SECURITY IN ZIMBABWE. CASE OF CHIMANIMANI DISTRICT

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this dissertation is my own original work, that all sources used or quoted, have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references, and that this dissertation was not previously submitted by me or any other person at any other university for a degree.

Signature.....Date...../...../.....

DEDICATION

I dedicate this research to my parents Mr. and Mrs. Matongo and my sister Rejoice Matongo for their moral, tolerance and financial support throughout this study.

ABSTRACT

This study was carried out in Chimanimani district and it seeks to understand the impact of food aid on household food security. The study sampled 40 households using convenient sampling who are the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries of food aid. Food aid program is widely debated in the world and has made many people to believe that food aid has a disincentive effect while others believe it is an essential tool for agriculture and food security development. For the past decade, food aid deliveries have featured Chimanimani district following its food deficit. This research utilized both qualitative and quantitative research designs. It made use of focus group discussions with local authorities of Chimanimani district, local traditional leaders, government field workers and villagers as well as questionnaire interviews with individuals while observations became an integral part. A two stage sampling design was chosen in order to systematically sample the wards and then randomly sample individuals from those wards. A lot of secondary information was also obtained mostly ZimVAC rural vulnerability assessments. The study found out that negative dependency on food aid occur when rigorous assessments are not done prior to implementation, it does not target the most vulnerable thereby including undeserving cases and excluding deserving cases, it is implemented at the wrong time and if the quantities given are more than the requirements. It is concluded that the food aid programs which were implemented in the area were designed properly such that it did not encourage negative dependency. However, it fell short of attaining the objective of promoting or strengthening livelihoods. In order to attain the objective of food security for the local people of Chimanimani West it is recommended that both the public and private sectors revamp and expand the irrigation developments in the region. Drought resistant crops such as millet and sorghum should be promoted. New farming technology of conservation farming is highly recommended to improve on crop yields. Finally it is recommended that food aid be combined with input support as a way of directly promoting production.

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ACRONYMS

AGRITEX	Agricultural Extension
AIDS	Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
CFSAM	Crop and Food Supply Assessment Mission
DA	District Administrator
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organisation
FEWS	Famine Early Warning Systems
GMB	Grain Marketing Board
HIV	Human Immuno-Deficiency Virus
IFPRI	International Food and Policy Research Institute
IRIN	Integrated Regional Information Network
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
PCMH	Patient Centered Medical Home
RDC	Rural District Council
UN	United Nations
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USDA	United States Department of Agriculture
WFP	World Food Program
WV	World Vision
ZIMVAC	Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

The study is focused on the assessment of contributions of food aid programs to household food security in Zimbabwe using Chimanimani district as a case study. For more than a decade, Zimbabwe has been experiencing a pattern of droughts and food shortage has been the major direct effect of drought. (Jaka, 2009). In view of the dry seasons, food rationing has been occurring in most rustic parts of Zimbabwe and Chimanimani District is not an exemption. This section concentrates on the background to the issue that has incited the assessment and highlights its significance, importance and objectives.

1.1 Research background

Zimbabwe has been experiencing an example of dry seasons for over 10 years now. This has brought about inability to meet the required food supply for its subjects (Tinarwo 2013). With an agro based economy, an estimation of 9, 7 million individuals rely on farming for a living. However the sector has been facing challenges which extend from technological elements to normal variables, for example, dry spells and this has brought about the gigantic collapse of production. As a moderate on set peril, drought is on top of other natural hazard contributing around 86, 9% of hazard induced deaths (Wisner et al, 2004). As cited by Jaka (2009), ‘According to the United Nations Consolidated Appeals Process the level of vulnerability in Zimbabwe is very high especially in the drought prone semi-arid areas’. Around 1, 6 million individuals, with the biggest number constituting the rural parts of the nation need food assistance (USAID, 2016).

The marking of the Food Aid Convention presented a structure for food aid. Thus for a period extending over 30 years, nations, for example, Ethiopia, Haiti, Uganda and Kenya have been receiving food assistance. Kehler, 2004 notes that paying little mind to 30 years of food assistance, Ethiopia's food security has steadily exacerbated and relief food aid has been systematized. Africa has turned into the prime beneficiary of food aid due to low agricultural production and changing climatic condition. (Africa Green

Revolution).The 1996 World Food Summit focused to lessen the world number of hunger stricken individuals significantly by 2015 however after eight years nothing had happened (Shapori and Rosen, 2004). The nations in the developing world are more inclined to food shortages because of its expanding populace and would require free food help to spare the lives of their kin.

Famine is one of the significant difficulties for calamity administration requiring legitimate and sufficient intercession techniques which help both to spare lives and to fabricate versatility to further occurrences of stuns. The strategies ought to subsequently have the capacity to address the transient survival needs and additionally long term food security (Wisner, et al 2004). Worldwide differences of climate, monetary, modern and innovative improvement has brought about some sections of the world delivering food in surplus while others encounter shortages. FAO Trade Policy Technical Notes (2011) uncover that in the 1950s the collection of surpluses (generally grains) in some developed nations offered space for the disposition of these surpluses such that it enhances the food security circumstances in vulnerable nations. This led to the FAO Principles of Surplus Disposal:

“A code of International Conduct that encourages the constructive use of surplus disposal of agricultural commodities, at the same time protecting the interest of commercial exporters and local producers.”

Food aid has assumed a noteworthy part in lightening hunger in yearning stricken parts of Zimbabwe (WFP, 2012). There has been a high impact of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), for example, World Vision, United States Agency for International Development, Christian Care and World Food Program in Chimanimani District accompanying different food aid programs. Regardless of the significant role played by food aid programs as far as enhancing family unit food security, very little research is accessible on observational assessment of the impact of food aid programs on family unit food security (Barret, 2002). Little research has been attempted to assess the impact of food aid programs to family food security by and large in Southern Africa and especially in Zimbabwe. The aim of this study is to fill in this existing gap in literature by

conducting an assessment of the impact of food-aid to household food security in Zimbabwe utilizing Chimanimani region as a contextual analysis.

1.1.1 The Zimbabwean Case at a Glance

There is a striking number of data that gives unimaginable information on the food insecurity circumstance in Zimbabwe. Example of Gunjal, et al (2008) has taken a shot at the nation's vulnerability conditions tressing it for 10 years. Issues like the questionable land issues, economic meltdown, characteristic climatic changes and impossible agrarian changes has been inspected completely since these are the most reasons for decrease in production in Zimbabwe. As indicated by Jaka (2009) he gives a realistic picture by demonstrating insights of national production decrease particularly for 2008 which was by a wide margin under the CFSAM gage. The 2008/09 production year was by a large margin under the earlier years differentiated, with local supply running 40% down. This circumstance was incited by different components extending from, "badly arranged transportation of seeds and deficiencies of fertilizers, infrastructural disintegration, and specifically unrewarding expenses for a huge segment of the GMB controlled yields which are maize and wheat." (Jaka 2009). The ongoing decrease in production can likewise be credited to the result circumstance made by the redistribution of land which has seen a few farmers crippled to do substantial production as a result of absence of cultivating instruments, for example, tractors and some of them really wanted to be entitled for land which they don't use and their farms have transformed into shrubberies/woods/backwoods. Accordingly the little devoted farmers' agricultural production has decreased tressing it since the fast track land reform program was implemented.

The WFP began working in Zimbabwe after production levels had declined by over half in 2002. It began working in the nation "when production had accomplished an unequalled low of around 0.55 million tons against national use needs of around 2.02 million tons." (Jaka 2009). Since 2002 the nation has never possessed the capacity to meet its national need on production and subsequently help organization have contributed to help with the situation since the financial situation could not allow the legislature to

meet its demands ascribing to the financial problems which has left the nation without purchasing power.

The above data gives information of the financial circumstances of the Chimanimani people group. The GNU of 2009 contracts certainties from Gunjal, et al (date) saying that 75% of the Zimbabwe populace was in genuine need of food. As indicated by Jaka (2009) as a worldwide body on food security, the WFP resolved to help 5, 1 people while C-Safe would help 2,1. Amid this time the WFP credited that Zimbabwe was third on the food aid program list after Afghanistan and Ethiopia. About USD240 million was raised by the donor community to help Zimbabwe. However these figures can be an exaggeration paying little heed to Zimbabwe having high food insecurity. It ought to be noticed that a significant number of individuals having been cheating through enlarging their family sizes in order to have more aid. This implies the genuine figure of individuals in need would have been significantly not as much as expressed in different reports on food aid in Zimbabwe.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The food insecurity situation in Zimbabwe has gotten a great deal of consideration in help organization bids and sustenance help has been seen as an earlier reaction to handle this issue (Tinarwo 2013). For example, more than 80% of the United Nations combined between office requests for June 2003 was for food only, while health fell under 10% of the total appeal (Watson, 2003). While food aid may serve a key apparatus in supporting against food insecurity and reducing ailing health, it doesn't address the principal reasons for the food crisis (Watson, 2003). For over 10 years non-legislative associations have been effectively taking part in attending to the food crisis in the country groups of Zimbabwe. In spite of these endeavors, food deficiencies in these regions have not changed and households are not producing enough food to meet their prerequisites. This study intent to look at the impact of food aid projects to the household food security in Zimbabwe, utilizing Chimanimani as a contextual investigation.

1.3 Research Objectives

The main objective is to assess the impact of food aid programs to the household food security status in Zimbabwe.

The specific objectives are:

- To review the effect of food aid programs to household food security.
- To settle on the sort of recipients for food aid.
- To review the food security circumstance of recipients of food aid programs.

1.4 Research Questions

- What are the socio-economic effects of food aid to people benefitting from food aid?
- What defines a beneficiary of food aid and how are these beneficiaries selected?
- Are there any huge changes to the food security status of recipients of food aid?

1.5 Justification

For over 10 years, food aid distribution has integrated unmistakably to cover Zimbabwe's maize gap. This has been as a result of the government's appeal to the international community for help taking after the awaken of unusual rain patterns which hampered the nation's farming production. Mabuza (2008) says that the high state of HIV/AIDS predominance has intensified the food crisis by decreasing the communities' capacity to do labor intensive food production exercises. In any case, Zimbabwe's agricultural efficiency is declining and this has been ascribed to the crumple of rural markets and economic crisis (ZimVac 2009). The NGOs are the prime recipients of this study. They will pick up learning on the impact of their food aid projects to the people of Zimbabwe and this will help them in drafting future mediations. This review will add on to existing writing on food aid which will profit scholastics as they will illuminate their own particular reviews in view of the study discoveries. The study will also profit the policy makers by giving the premise to strategy formulation and arranging intercessions procedures for people leaving in the rural regions in Zimbabwe.

1.6 Limitations

Amid information accumulation respondents were for the most part unwilling to completely coordinate in the information gathering procedures and caution of data restricted the degree of the study in that critical data viewed as secret was destined to be withheld. In any case, apathy in interest was reduced by a skilful and organizing of the questionnaire to guarantee that all the required data is gathered. The analyst likewise utilized strategy as an apparatus to persuade respondents to give data without reserve and ensure discretion of their data. Another danger originated from the current political division which introduced fear in respondents who ended up contorting data for it to show up politically right and subsequently feel secure from political reprisals originating from negative exposure. In any case, the researcher addressed first by revealing personality and verifying that she is honest to goodness understudy just directing and satisfying a scholastic commitment. Also, the surveys did not unveil the identity of the respondents to guarantee free and target cooperation from respondents.

1.7 Delimitations

In spite of the fact that it is of vital significance to perceive the distinctive view of various groups, this study is restricted to Chimanimani locale. Tie impersonation, monetary and material assets brought about the choice of 4 wards as study tests. Despite the fact that Chimanimani area is the concentration and individuals who leave in ripe terrains may have some productive contributions, they were not a portion of my populace since they don't profit from food aid programs.

1.8 Assumptions

The study assumed that an inviting political environment would prevail all through the period of the research to allow free cooperation with the area's populace. Communities would be open about their conditions and the situations they ended up in. Additionally expected was that food aid rationing would proceed typically whether legitimate or not.

1.9 Organization of the study

The study consists of five chapters. Chapter one introduced the study and outlined its objectives. This chapter's main aim is to give an overall background on the issue of food aid programs and bring out the importance of carrying out the study. Chapter two

presents reviews of literature on concepts of food-aid and food security. Generally the chapter's aim was to inform this study based on the empirical findings of other researchers. Chapter three presented the research methods used in carrying out the study. The chapter gave an overview of the research design, data collection, data analysis techniques and the problems encountered in conducting the fieldwork. Chapter four focused on presentation and discussion of the study's findings. Chapter five gave the conclusion and research recommendation of the study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

Food is a basic for people to survive and every individual needs the correct amount of the correct nature of food to leave a solid life. People get food either by developing it, purchasing or accepting it as sustenance help. This part takes a closer look at the implications of food aid and food security and how it affects beneficiaries. This part utilizes writing to evaluate food aid and food security and looks at the effect of food aid on food security. To add on, the section looks at the reasons for food insecurity and achieves a conclusion.

2.1 Definition of Terms

2.1.1 Food Aid

To understand food aid one has to know the definition of aid. According to the *South African Oxford School Dictionary* (Hawkins 2000) aid is defined as money, food or anything sent to another country to help it. *Aid* can also be defined as help, support or assistance given to someone in need. *Dictionary.com* (2016) defines the verb *aid* as the activity of contributing to the fulfillment of a need or purpose. Madziakapita, A (2008), also points out that in some cases, aid can be seen as a piece of equipment that helps someone to do something. *Cambridge Dictionary* (2006) defines *aid* as help in the form of money, food, medical supplies or weapons that are given by a richer country to a poorer one, and this is the definition that can help to deal with this assessment. For the purpose of this study, *aid* is defined as help or assistance given to an individual, family, community or nation in need (Madziakapita, A. 2008). This aid may come in various structures which might be fiscal or in kind, that is, food, garments/ clothes, drugs, farming inputs, expert skills and hardware. The goals of such aid can be to advance food security, raise the models of nutrition, advance the accessibility of food stuffs to the general population and add to adjusted social and monetary development.

With this definition of aid, now food aid refers to aid in the form of food provided to needy countries by countries that produce surplus food. According to the European Commission (2000), it is aid supplied as food commodities on grant or concessional terms. It consists of hand-outs of food commodities by government or inter-governmental organizations, private and voluntary or non-governmental organizations and the WFP in particular. Raffer and Singer (1996) states that food aid embodies more than 10 per cent of the total aid flows to the poorer countries, particularly in Africa, and is more concentrated than financial aid. It is one of the major forms of aid provided to poor and needy nations such as those in sub-Saharan Africa. As quoted by Jaka, E 2009:

“FAO Technical Notes define food aid as international transactions that result in provision of aid in the form of food commodities in a country deemed in need of receiving such aid. It may be a government to government grant to make food importation cheaper or it may be a government or NGO grant or donation to another NGO for free distribution. Food obtained through the later arrangement may be accessed by households through general food distribution, vulnerable groups feeding, supplementary feeding or food for work.”

Food aid is an essential part of the aid policy of donor countries. Every country's foreign aid is a tool of its foreign policy. Its relative importance and content have long been recognized to reflect the export profile of the donor country. According to Shar (2005) the motives and goals of that policy will determine whether the aid would benefit the hungry. Cuny and Hill (1999) specifies that food aid serves two purposes which are being the equivalent of income for families who have lost their normal source of funds; second used to finance, or partly finance, relief or rehabilitation activities.

2.1.2 Objectives of food aid

The Food Aid Charter highlights the general and long term objectives of food aid. According to the Charter the general objective is to help support food security by addressing in a timely and appropriate manner problems arising from food shortages or deficits whether they are caused by structural deficiencies or crisis situations calling for emergency actions. The long term objective is to prevent crises and to correct structural deficiencies by supporting overall development and taking actions aimed directly at

vulnerable groups. In this perspective food aid plays an important role, whether it is supplied as funds generated through local sales or food stuffs.

According to a Canadian workshop report on “*Food Aid at Crossroads*” (2005), the effectiveness of food aid should be assessed against its impact in support of the Millennium Development Goal Number one which is to reduce hunger and poverty. It should therefore focus on the following objectives:

- Saving lives
- Fulfilling a human right to food including that it should be nutritionally adequate
- Protecting assets especially human health
- Facilitate growth of productive assets where food availability and local market performance are limiting.

Shelton (2005) validates these objectives when he affirms that the original objective of food aid is alleviation of poverty and hunger for the most vulnerable groups and consistent with agricultural development in those countries. According to Barrett (2006) the main intent of food aid today is plainly to relieve human suffering. He points out that about half the world’s population lives on less than \$2/day and about 800 million go to sleep hungry on any given day, a child dies of hunger every 5 seconds and that the need to respond to the poor’s need is ever present and widespread.

2.1.3 Forms of food aid

There are different ways to which food aid can take its form. It can be unprocessed grain, which needs to be milled, or it may come in the form of processed ready to consume grain. In some cases food aid is distributed in the form of wet ration, that is, food ready for feeding, mostly to malnourished children. According to Madziakapita, A. (2008) for nearly 40 years, the WFP has provided free school lunches and in 2005, the agency's school feeding program helped 21, 7 million children in 74 countries (WFP 2007). The WFP (2007) uses food aid to soften the blow of the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS). The rations distributed to

people living with HIV and AIDS are meant to provide for their families and creating time to give knowledge to the growing number of HIV/AIDS orphans who are the next generation of food providers.

A lot of countries receive food aid for indistinct reasons. For instance, according to Waves (2004), from 2000 to 2002 China received wheat as food aid to finance development projects; but, during the same period it donated wheat, rice, corn and oils to North Korea and several African countries. In most cases, the form to which food aid can take is determined by both the recipient and the donor. For instance, donors may decide to shift from providing food aid for development purposes to giving emergency relief (or vice versa), both within a country and across countries (Waves 2004).

2.1.4 Types of food aid

There are three types of food aid namely emergency food aid, project food aid and program food aid. (Shaw and Clay, 1993). According to the Bread World Institute food aid is used for different purposes thereby bringing in different types of food aid.

According to Jaka, E. (2009) emergency food aid is usually defined as food aid provided in response to a sudden, major shortfall in food production due to natural or man-made disasters such as droughts, pests, disease, floods or wars. Young and Abbott (2005) define it as food used for humanitarian purposes in the aftermath of crises caused by natural disasters or conflict. Generally it is instant measures taken to assist displaced people or people in need of food assistance. This type of food aid highly targets those in most need ensuring that food reaches them and extenuating potential market distortions resulting from competition between food aid and commercially available food. According to Sijm (1997), this type of food aid has become the most important category of the total food aid to sub-Saharan Africa. In US terms, emergency food aid means the supply of agricultural commodities to meet emergency food needs. These may be provided under government-to-government agreements or through public and private agencies or intergovernmental organizations such as the UN's WFP and other multilateral

organizations (USDA 2006). According to Maunder (2006), a remarkable global shift has taken place from program and project food aid to emergency flows providing short-term relief. He points out that by 2004; about 75 per cent of all food sent to sub-Saharan Africa was emergency aid. The Bread for the World Institute states that the United Nations World Food Program administers the biggest share of emergency food aid which is estimated to be more than half of all the food distributed as aid in recent years.

Project food aid is provided in the form of funding and the resources are used in a range of development projects. Sijm (1997) defines project food aid as food aid meant to support specific projects. The projects range from road construction especially in rural areas, using food as payment for workers (commonly known as Food for Work, FFW) to nutritional supplements in schools or health nutrition services designed for vulnerable groups. Project food aid, add Shaw and Clay (1993), is usually aimed at transferring income to the poor or at satisfying their minimum national needs in normal years. In many cases when food aid is provided in kind, some or all of it is sold in markets so as to generate funds which would cover the project costs and any other finances related to development activities. According to Bread for the World Institute, this process is called monetization. Many NGOs such as World Vision, CARE, and Catholic Relief Services consistently include food aid as a part of their relief and development activities.

Program food aid usually occurs between governments. It is food given to one government by the other in the form of soft loan repayable or as donation. According to Sijm, (1997) program food aid can be described as food aid meant to support the balance of payments, the government budget, the implementation of structural policy reforms, or the achievement of other general development objectives of recipient countries. The US government provides this type of food aid in forms of a donation or s a credit sale of US commodities to developing countries and rising democracies as a way of supporting democracy. Receiving government consequently sells this food aid, a process called monetizing so as to generate funds for domestic activities. This view is supported by the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA, 2006). The latter adds that the donated

commodities are sold in the recipient country and the revenue generated is used to support economic development programs.

Emergency food aid and project food aid have a direct micro economic focus while program food aid has macroeconomic focus. According to Shelton (2005) emergency food aid represents 60% of food aid while project represents 20% and program another 20%. He also states that of all food aid 60% is in kind and mainly comes from USA, Canada, Australia, Japan and Argentina while the remaining 40% is untied aid mainly from the European Union.

2.1.5 Food Security

Food security has been defined in various ways by different authors and institutions. The World Bank's definition is the most accepted definition which is to secure access by all people at all times to enough food for a healthy, active life' (Stevens et al, 2000). This definition includes the most crucial elements that are broadly agreed to be necessary for food security. These are the *guarantee* (availability) of *having access* (accessibility) to *enough food* (utilization) at any given time. The World Food Summit (Global Education 2007) defined food security as follows: 'When all people at all times have both physical and economic access to sufficient food to meet their dietary needs in order to lead a healthy and productive life.' This definition has touched on all generally accepted elements of food security and showed the two different ways of gaining food security which are physically and economically. Hubbard (1995) and Lado (2001) give definition of food security that agrees with the above: People should have the economic right to be physically able to obtain the food they need to be healthy and active, wherever they acquire it and however it is provided. This definition shows that people should be self assured of adequate food at all times. The definition by Santorum and Gray (1993) is somewhat different from the above. It states that food security implies accessibility at all times for all groups of the population to food of sufficient quality and quantity as to meet their nutritional needs. This definition, however, does not give clarity how all population groups can actually enjoy the physical and economic condition that guarantees access to

the food. Putting it differently, Sanchez et al (2005) define food insecurity as a term relating to the condition that exists when people do not have physical and economical access to sufficient, safe, nutritious and culturally acceptable food to meet their dietary needs to lead an active and healthy life. For Sanchez et al (2005), there is close relations between access to food, poverty and lack of economic growth. The poor usually do not have adequate means to gain access to food in the required quantities.

Given the above definitions, a household is said to be food secure when there is availability of food and when it can be able to access it. In this study food security refers to the availability of food and individual access to it. Food availability- is when a household have a sufficient quantity of food on a consistent basis. Food access - is when a household have resources to obtain appropriate food for nutritious diet.

2.2 Contributions of Food Aid to Food Security: Conceptual Framework

The term contribution refers to a set of changes that are brought by a policy, program, project or intervention. Barrett (2006) proposed that the change may be positive or negative, desirable or undesirable, anticipated or not anticipated. It is usually measured against the goal or objective of the project, and is measured after the project has been implemented or midway through.

According to Tinarwo, (2013) the contribution of food-aid on recipient nations can play a positive role in (i) encouraging developing countries to choose a strategy of boosting the economy thus providing employment. This can be applied to projects or where food-aid is given to beneficiaries engaged in food for work projects or other development programs (Mellor 2001). (ii) It pays attention on increasing agricultural production. Food-aid in form cash is given to the beneficiary government, it is then used to acquire local grain or buy grain regionally and this fuel local food production and livelihoods (Musopole, 2004).

Food-aid discourages growth of agricultural production in recipient nations and it encouraging the growth of world population (Mellor, 2001). Food aid has been blamed

for lowering prices on agricultural products in recipient countries because of excess supplies in that way it reduces reason for food production and eventually slowing down long term food security. Occasionally governments give most of their attention to other development activities at the expense of agricultural development because they hope in food aid to cover their food deficits.

FAO (2011) food-aid is seen as a donor driven response that it serve the interests of donors rather than food security needs of the beneficiaries. It is also criticized of creating dependency among beneficiaries, disincentive for local agricultural development and distorting international trade (Tinarwo, C, 2013). Jaka (2009) said that it has an effect on beneficiary households and communities, Barrett (2006) noted two ways in which food-aid can impact communities that is positive dependency and negative dependency. Harvey and Lind (2005) states that there are assumptions and meanings that support common usage of dependency in the context of humanitarian aid which are: Dependency is perceived as something that is negative and as something that need to be avoided, associated with a provision of food relief and seem to discourage people's initiatives, a problem in areas where there is protracted relief assistance.

Lentz, et al (2005) said positive dependency occurs when an individual, community and organization is helped so as to meet its basic needs when it cannot sustain for itself. They point out that positive dependency is important for both development and sustainability. In this condition food-aid may balance social safety by providing insurance for vulnerable people. Barrett (2006) support this idea that food-aid may become welfare improving tool when the alternatives are destitution, for households which cannot take care of themselves for example the disabled. In this condition it will be assisting social safety hence food-aid is endorsed as supporting lives.

Negative Dependency, arises when current needs are achieved at the cost of reducing the recipients' ability to meet their basic needs without external assistance (Lentz, et al 2005). They defined changes in the behavior of individuals, households or communities in immediate response to assistance as incentive or disincentive effects. Negative

dependency is defined as unintended consequences of food-aid. Barrett (2006) noted that at micro level evidence, these consequences are reflected on household labor supply, production incentives, consumption patterns and natural resource use. However, he argued that there is a universal claim that food-aid unintentionally discourages people from working.

Food shortages and HIV prevalence have been identified as the major threats to nations and has been attributed for causing rapid economic decline (Consolidated Appeal Process 2009). As quoted by Tinarwo, C (2013), Chambers (1997) raises issues of dependency that may come from protracted assistance especially by non-governmental organizations and suggests that affected communities should participate in identification of needs, planning, implementation and evaluation of programs. This plays a vital role in ensuring capacity building for communities and sustainability of projects. For that reason communities should actively participate in strategies that help them ensure food security.

Food-aid is considered as an important instrument in addressing both transitory and chronic type of food insecurity in less developed countries (Tinarwo, 2013). There are many effects of food aid that affect the most targeted vulnerable people's livelihoods. Food aid programs are designed in such a way that they help the affected people to benefit from the five capital nets (social, financial, economic, natural, human and physical). In most cases this result in failure to this often results in failure to assist and create income sources among beneficiaries. However, food-aid and food security should be linked in a way that would guarantee durable solutions for vulnerable communities. The World Food Program (WFP) report (2007) added that the existence food and non-food assistance together under a common strategy allows close linkages among sectors, which are essential for food security interventions.

2.3 Costs and Benefits of Food Aid

The competence of food aid has been scrutinized by policy makers and food analysts across the globe. Food aid has contributed to disaster relief and improving economies of donor nations such as the Europe and parts of Asia, but the case is different with Africa

which is mainly the recipient. In between this view there are benefits of food aid, that is, poverty reduction and improving food security but there is need to advocate new and improved strategies to make the program more powerful in achieving its objectives (Barret, 2006).

Today food aid is considered as a vital tool in addressing temporary and continuous types of food insecurity in low-income countries. Humanitarian agencies put into operation food aid programs in these countries as response to the disadvantaged people so as to increase their income sustainability, improve agricultural production, and improve their health and nutrition status. More so, it improves food supplies at national or regional level, increase access to food at household level through higher home production of food crops, market purchase and other means of effective utilization of food at the individual level to meet human biological needs (Barret, 2006).

However, there are disincentives of food-aid on domestic agricultural production that may result from farm level responses to price reduction caused by increased food supplies (Clark, 2001). The negative effects of food-aid can be recognized through the existence of certain conditions. This means that food-aid can have strong negative effects when: It is distributed during harvest period, large quantities of food-aid are released directly into countries with markets that operate with the same locally produced products, and when poor commodity targeting is implemented, such that the food-aid products given to households are likely to be exchanged in the market, particularly when that product has a local substitute and increased market supplies lower prices for the locally produced substitute (Donovan, et al 2006).

Accordingly, the price effect alleges food-aid is a restraint to market and trade development. Traders who rely on the sale of staple foods could suffer short-term losses as a result of decreased demand, price fall or both (Maunder, 2006). This usually transpires when government releases grain under a food-aid program into the market at below market prices. In this situation, reduced trade volumes and profitability may serve to undermine private trader's confidence in the market, hence reducing private

investment and lead to disinvestment and business closure (Maunder, 2006). This could affect marketing chain businesses that are importers, major millers and local retailer. The basic concern is that the supply of food-aid increases domestic food supplies, leading to a fall in product prices and disincentives to domestic agricultural production, which in turn perpetuates the requirement for food-aid (Maunder et al, 2006).

The possible economic impacts of food-aid depend on the marketing policy and production structure of the recipient country (Tinarwo, 2013). Government actions can affect the economic impact of food aid in that they tend to regard food markets as having such strategic importance as to call for different kinds of control mechanisms (Topio-Bristo, 2001). Reducing price means that producers' profits will shrink which will ultimately result in the reduction of production. This occurrence is called the disincentive effect of food-aid, and it was first presented by Schultz (1960). There is a significant amount of controversial literature on the effects of food-aid program on economies, and more specifically on agricultural production of the recipient countries. Such studies were carried out for sub-Saharan Africa by the World Bank, International Food and Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) (Abdulai et al., 2004), (Lowder, 2004), and Regional Hunger and Vulnerability Program (Maunder, 2006), but no evidence is available for Zimbabwe in specific. The lack of evidence has resulted in premature negative conclusions about the contribution of food-aid on the country's smallholder food security.

2.4 Review of Empirical Studies

Various reports have been made on how food aid has made reliance among nationals or groups. As per Mason who cites a report by Oxfam, food crisis in Africa keeps on intensifying. He calls attention to that while the normal developing world figure for under nourishment is 17%, in Sub Saharan Africa the figure is 33% while for Central Africa it is 55%. The quantity of food emergency per capita since 1980 has trebled. Then again FAO contends that economic evidence from various contextual analyses demonstrates that food aid does not make reliance since it is too little for individuals, making it impossible to depend on. On the off chance that this was genuine one then asks why a

few groups are currently caught in constant food insecurity disregarding climate conditions being ideal for agricultural production.

2.4.1 Ethiopia

There is a considerable measure of research works on the Ethiopian food security issues. The greater part of which calls attention to that the nation's masses are currently contrarily relying upon food aid. Articles, for example, "When will Ethiopia quit requesting food aid?" by Kehler 2004, The BBC News (November 1, 2006) article, "Ethiopia's food aid dependency exacerbates" are some among numerous explaining how Ethiopia is vulnerable as a nation, in terms of food security. Indeed, even a man from Ethiopia signifies dependence in the nation's recipients of food aid. Jaka (date) takes a citation from Elliesen (2002) of an extension team leader r in the department of horticulture saying

"Yes, there is something like a 'dependence issue' here. There's no denying that the nourishment help keeps the agriculturists from using imaginative techniques and relying on themselves. They take the guide whether they require it or not."

In 2003 alone Kehler, (s.a) says 13 million individuals in Ethiopia were in genuine need of food aid for survival purposes as it were. He states that regardless of being a sole beneficiary of food aid for over 30 years, Ethiopia's situation has intensified to the extent that food aid has been transformed into a standardized reaction. The nation had been a sole beneficiary of 700 000 tons every year for a period extending 15 years and it is said to be the greatest recipient in Africa yet it doesn't get a similar consideration with regards to development. (Kehler, date).

In 2006 a research by Handio (s.a) was completed in Southern Ethiopia concentrating on why regardless of the numerous years Ethiopia had received food aid, the family units were still food insecure and the quantity of food insecure families were all the while expanding. In depth interviews with both recipients and non recipients demonstrated that the recipients required a move from food aid to rural support through access to land, information sources and draft power and better cultivating measures. Food aid was taking

endlessly their assurance and pride. He takes an immediate citation from one of the respondents saying,

"I don't acknowledge food aid as an answer for food deficiencies. When you begin getting food aid you feel subject to somebody. It dissolves your certainty and assurance to buckle down. So you generally dream of support from some place at whatever point there is food deficiency. It makes you defenseless to food deficiencies."

Non recipients demonstrated the removal of grants by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund has brought about the ascending of prizes for agricultural inputs and individuals who used to have the capacity to manage themselves as far as sustenance, sold their assets as a result of dry seasons thus they are failing to return to their past production levels. The huge food aid program for Ethiopia saved lives however has not stopped diminish in assets, upgraded malnutrition levels or moderated vulnerability to shocks(Kehler, s.a). Food shortages are ceaselessly expanding and affecting more individuals. Kehler (s.a.) states that relief food aid, while effective in saving lives and mollifying famine, it cannot terminate practical food insecurity. He points out that food aid, when particularly centered around and associated with other development activities, can have pragmatic impact.

2.4.2 Kenya

The Kenyan food insecurity situation is brought out by Thielke (2006) and the photo he paints in his writing portrays the situation as something that will exist for ever. As indicated by him the situation in northern parts of Kenya which have high population, is liable to dry seasons and have overgrazed land, are as a result of the government's inability to address the situation in time leaving individuals in starvation because of the deteriorating infrastructure particularly roads and this has made many individuals depend on aid for sustenance.

Conversely the Western parts of the nation receive good rains and production there is high with the populaces producing more than enough for their wellbeing. Yet, as a result of poor infrastructure for example roads that link tem with the nation's capital of Nairobi

have deteriorated and transport to reach the city is costly and this has brought about individuals tossing away their delivering or abandoning it to spoil as they think it is more less expensive than gambling costs to go to Nairobi and experience losses. Thielke (2006) goes on to stress that food aid has brought about increment of cost of grains. Aid agencies are generally criticized for executing food aid without correct data on the ground. That implies they at some point implement food aid programs without assessing the areas so as to give aid to the rightful beneficiaries.

2.4.3 Malawi

Malawi was affected by drought which incited extraordinary food deficiency in 2002/3. Musopole (2004), affirms that the nation's vulnerability was as a result of various elements which ranges from poor government approaches to negligence in food reserves. Around 3.2 million people were affected and there was requirement for crisis food aid to address the situation. Food aid which was meant for the situation was twofold for both development and food assistance.

As indicated by Musopole (2004) like most sub Saharan Africa, Malawi's bigger part of the people practice agriculture as their livelihood activity. He establishes that farming is the fundamental source of income for 80% of the people which partake in subsistence agro business and shows how this occupation was affected by food aid. Malawi experienced both relentless and transitory food shortages and was dynamically depending upon food aid from donors in spite of it being honored with each and every (incredible soil, positive atmosphere, HR, et cetera) indispensable for agrarian creation. Food aid positively affected occupations:

- It gave the vitality to family units to work in their fields.
- People who might spent a vast extent of their time searching for food utilized the time to develop their plots
- Productive resources which could have been sold keeping in mind the end goal to buy food were ensured.
- Social attachment was fortified through food sharing instruments.

In spite of the way that the food aid recorded different beneficial outcomes it furthermore had a couple of perspectives that were negative (Musopole, 2004). It lessened the food costs as it made brief satisfaction and diminished food demand and market cost. The low market cost made prevention to food producrs who then changed to cash crop production. Crisis food aid also diminished weight on the lawmaking body to address rural development and undermined the political will anticipated that would place assets into local agribusiness. The issue underestimates local food production, undermines business supplies and occupations.

2.5 Conclusion

Various works by different scholars on food aid and food security issues was explored in this chapter. The literature review began by looking at the definition of aid and the concept of food aid, that is, its objectives, types, and proceeded to explore food security. This chapter also looked at how food aid impacts the agricultural sector of a nation. The section likewise gave the contribution of food aid to food security and went on to look at empirical studies by other researchers on food aid and food security. The section gave bits of knowledge on the need to take into consideration the wellbeing of the rural populace since their self-maintainability is subject to rain sustained crop production.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

Once the problem had been identified, preliminary work began involving review of the literature and the research design. The latter involved determining the participants, researcher roles, the instruments to be used, field approaches, the method of data analysis, and the resources to be used. According to Mouton and Marais (1990), while varying with studies, in interpretive frameworks 30 to 50 participants were considered a valid population. A total of 50 respondents made up of food aid beneficiaries, community leadership, NGO workers and government extension workers, participated in the study, representing the stakeholders. The nature of the problem required cross-sectional representations, horizontally across the community and vertically across social structures, which then guided the selection of the sampled participants.

The issue was investigated utilizing core questions over all the procedure to contextualize the construct the Chimanimani Community. The decision was guided by the rule that the methodology must be usable and allow basic, adjusted, inter subjective and controllable assessments and explanations, and that it must be dialogical, as in, the examination and the rising learning are not the privilege of the researcher alone, nor is the exploration a matter of subject and protest getting to be noticeably indistinguishable, but of all participants going into an important rationalistic relationship (Mouton and Marias, 1990). Subsequently, the more extensive procedure guaranteed triangulation and limited the negative outcomes of the researcher, member and measuring instrument impacts.

3.1 Chimanimani district overview

Chimanimani district is one of the seven administrative districts in Manicaland. It shares borders with Mozambique to the east, Buhera district to the west, Mutare district to the north and Chipinge district to the south. It seats on approximately 3 450 square kilometers of land and has all the five agro ecological regions and varying land use patterns ranging from small scale and large scale commercial areas, resettlement areas, to state farms and communal areas. It has a population of 132 934 with men constituting

48% and female 52%. As of 2015, the percentage of people of households living in poverty was approximately 76%. The district is 100% rural with a rural service centre.

As a result of the border between Zimbabwe and Mozambique comprising of the largest chain of mountains, the district is characterized by very different terrain resulting in different climatic conditions across the 23 wards of the district. The Border Mountains receive rainfall in excess of 2 000mm per annum in some areas, but portions of the lower inland areas record less than 400mm per annum and often experience prolonged periods of drought. The variables creates differences in agricultural potential across the district. 48, 2 % of the district fall into natural agro ecological region 3, 4, 5 whilst the remaining 51, 8 % in natural agro ecological regions 1 and 2. The rainfall pattern creates very significant differences in agricultural potential. Although agriculture is the main economic activity in Chimanimani, high value crops and intensive agriculture can only be practiced in region 1 and 2.

3.2 Research design

Research design refers to a depiction of the arrangement and hypothetical structure under which the study was done (Mutambara, et al 2010). This review utilized both quantitative and qualitative methodologies in the gathering of information and its investigation. The exploration utilized the elucidating outline which depends on a case study technique. Jaka (2009) characterizes an research design as an arrangement to be taken after to answer the exploration goals or system to take care of the goal issue. It goes about as an arrangement for a review as it aides information gathering and investigation. The design was picked in light of the fact that direct data was accumulated from family units inside Chimanimani area. The design comprised of overviews and perceptions in which self-managed questionnaires were utilized to acquire data.

3.2.1 Advantage of mixed method

There are a notable number of advantages attributed to using the mixed method for research data collection. The method can be useful in comparing qualitative and quantitative data. This helps in understanding contradictions between the results and the findings. More still, it provides methodological flexibility. According to the PCMH

Research Methods paper “mixed method have great flexibility and is adaptable to many study designs , such as observational studies and randomized trials, to elucidate more information than can be obtained in only qualitative research.” Mixed method integrate qualitative and quantitative data to come up with affluent, inclusive data. The PCMH research methods paper gives an example of sports stories which normally incorporate quantitative data (scores or number of errors) with qualitative data (descriptions and images of highlights) to give an additional inclusive story than either method would alone.

3.3 Data Collection

The study used both primary and secondary data collection and analysis. Primary data was collected through detailed interviews, focus group discussions, observations, semi structured interviews. Primary data was important in bringing out the core livelihood strategies of people living in the study area. It was also important in bringing out the community driven views on the impact of food aid as advocated by Eldem and Chisholm (1993). Secondary data was gathered from program evaluation reports by World Vision and Local Government as a way of trying to answer the research questions raised.

3.3.1 Secondary data collection

Secondary data was collected from Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee rural livelihood reports of 2010 to 2016. These reports provide information on food security in Zimbabwe as a nation and for Chimanimani district as a district. They provide statistics for national, provincial and district cereal production, estimated population figures, food requirements, food insecure populations food requirements, food access, geographical and household targeted for food aid and period when interventions are required. The information obtained was linked with reports submitted to the Local Government by aid organisations operating in the district. Information obtained from these reports ranged from targeting, selection, registration and verification of beneficiaries, food distributions, tonnage of food distributed and the impact of the interventions on communities.

3.3.2 Primary data collection

Individual questionnaires, focus group discussions and semi-structured interviews were used to collect primary information. Questionnaires were administered to 40 respondents.

One on one interview method was used in the administration of questionnaires. The researcher chose this method because it provides an opportunity for interviewer to explain any question which may not be understood by the respondents. The interviewer may also make follow up questions and is able to make assessments from the facial and other expressions of the respondent as well as make observations of the area.

The questionnaires produced information on the contribution of food aid to total household food consumed, change in livelihood activities undertaken following the introduction of food aid, perception on capability of food aid to promote livelihood activities and anticipation for continued food aid. Focus group discussions were held with community leaders comprising of councilors, kraal heads, village heads, village community workers, AGRITEX workers, businesspeople and other influential people. Issues for discussion ranged from main livelihood activities that were done in their areas, the change in the rain choice and extent of these activities since the introduction of food aid and reasons for such changes as well as how food aid can be defined to support livelihood strategies. Focus group discussions were used as a fast way of gathering information to establish perspectives from the view point community leadership. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with officials from the DA's office, RDC staff as professionals who have observed and established trends in community behavior towards livelihoods.

3.3.3 Data Collection Error

Data collection errors which could be lack of reliability of measurement or lack of validity of measurement may occur and would need to be minimized. Errors occur when for example a respondent gives different responses to the same question at different times or to different interviewers. (Jaka 2009) Such differences may occur from variations in how respondents interpret confusing or unclear questions, interviewer mistakes in recording data. A lot of care was taken to minimize the occurrence of such errors by designing a questionnaire with clear, precise and instantly recognizable questions. Secondly the enumerators were trained on how to conduct the questionnaires including clarifications of all questions and were encouraged to be accurate in their recordings.

3.3.4 Data analysis

Methods of analyzing and comparing content were implemented to analyze data from secondary sources. Collating and interpretations were made useful during focus group discussions as well as on responses from open ended questions on the questionnaire.

3.4 Sampling technique and procedure

Purge (2005) says that sampling involves getting a certain percentage of the population from which to gather data the results of which then can be generalized for the population (Jaka, 2009). A selected sample should therefore represent the population and this is supported by Purge when he says, “10% of the population is considerable as a representative sample that can produce results which can be generalized across a sector”. A two stage sampling design was done for the questionnaire survey. The first stage was to sample the wards. Chimanimani district has 23 wards which are distributed in the five agro ecological regions. Sampling the wards was necessary so as to select wards with different socio economic and physical characteristics. Out of a total of 23 wards, four wards were selected to represent the district in this research.

The second stage was sampling of respondents or households. Convenience sampling was used to locate households for interviews. Respondents who could be found available were sampled and interviewed. There was an alternative of randomly sampling respondents from a beneficiary register, but this would have been a huge task to locate the households. Convenience sampling made it easier and faster as anyone available had a chance of being sampled. The two stage sampling design sought to minimize sampling error and bias by ensuring that the sample was as representative as possible. At least 10 households were randomly selected from any of the villages within that ward giving a total of 40 households as sample size. An increase in sample size does not ensure valid results; neither does it increase representation of the sample. According to Jaka (2009) a ward in Zimbabwe is demarcated on the basis of a minimum of 100 households. The ten households were therefore targeted on the basis of 10% of 100 households. The selection of respondents was done randomly from a sampling frame which consisted of both food aid beneficiaries and non-food aid beneficiaries.

3.5 Validity of the Study

The validity measures include triangulation, the use of multiple observers and multiple sources of data, and periodic consultations with the supervisor. These enhance the reliability of the procedures and thus, the results can be described as understandably consistent with and stuck in the adopted format and the data collected. In addition, the use of specific criteria as opposed to general impressions reduces the problems of the halo effect, the generosity error and the error of severity, while improving standardization. Events are represented as they were whether or not they were specifically 'prepared' answers. It was possible to detect falsehoods.

3.6 Ethical considerations

During the research there was need to maintain ethics. According to Cohen et al (2000) maintaining ethics is very important and participants can have right to withdraw from the process at any given time. The research was conducted in such a way that respondents participated willingly, after they have agreed to. There were no names on the questionnaires hence maintaining secrecy to the side of the respondents.

Permission to contact the research was acquired from the Midlands State University, Chimanimani R.D.C, Chimanimani D.As office and the village heads who fall under the sampled areas. Participants were assured that their contributions were for research purpose only and there were no incentives and tokens of appreciation given to participants.

3.7 Expected results

Household size is expected to have influence on food security status of a household since empirical evidences in the previous works, in developing countries like Ethiopia, smallholder agricultural production have limited participation compared to non-agricultural activities. Thus large household size has a higher consumption than the labor it contributes to production. Therefore per capita food availability declines as family size increases due to population growth, small families are relatively food secure households (Paddy, 2003). More so, education level of the household head has an impact on the household food security. If the household head is educated he/she is most likely to adopt

new technology in agriculture, is able to read instructions on the use and storage of resources for production, and diversify household incomes sources which in turn would enhance household food supply (Najafi, 2003).

Agriculture is the main livelihood activity in Chimanimani district. By this the theoretical and empirical foundations expect agricultural activity to have an influence on the food security situation of the households. Crop and livestock production are the main sources of food for consumption of the people in Chimanimani, which are as well influenced by socio-economic, agro-climatic and environmental factors. Farm size is another factor that increases the level of production (Haile et al 2005). Surveys provided information on the amount of income gain from agricultural activities, which can serve as an alternative. Agricultural income includes either direct consumption or consumption by selling agricultural products.

Finally, food aid that comes from government and non-government organization are also additional income. In literature there are different conclusions on the impact of food aid incomes on household food security, that is it used to smooth consumption in a situation of shock and shortage of food. Thus food aid is expected to have an influence on the household food security.

3.8 Conclusion

The chapter provided the research methods used in the study and the approaches used. Information was gathered through questionnaires, focus group discussions and semi structured interviews. The study targeted the beneficiaries, implementers of the food aid programs and those overseeing the conduction of food aid in Chimanimani district. The findings will be discussed in chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4: DATA PRESENTATION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter will present and analyze the findings of the study in such a way that it will be answering each given research question in chapter 2. The findings will be presented in tables and graphs as well as pie charts.

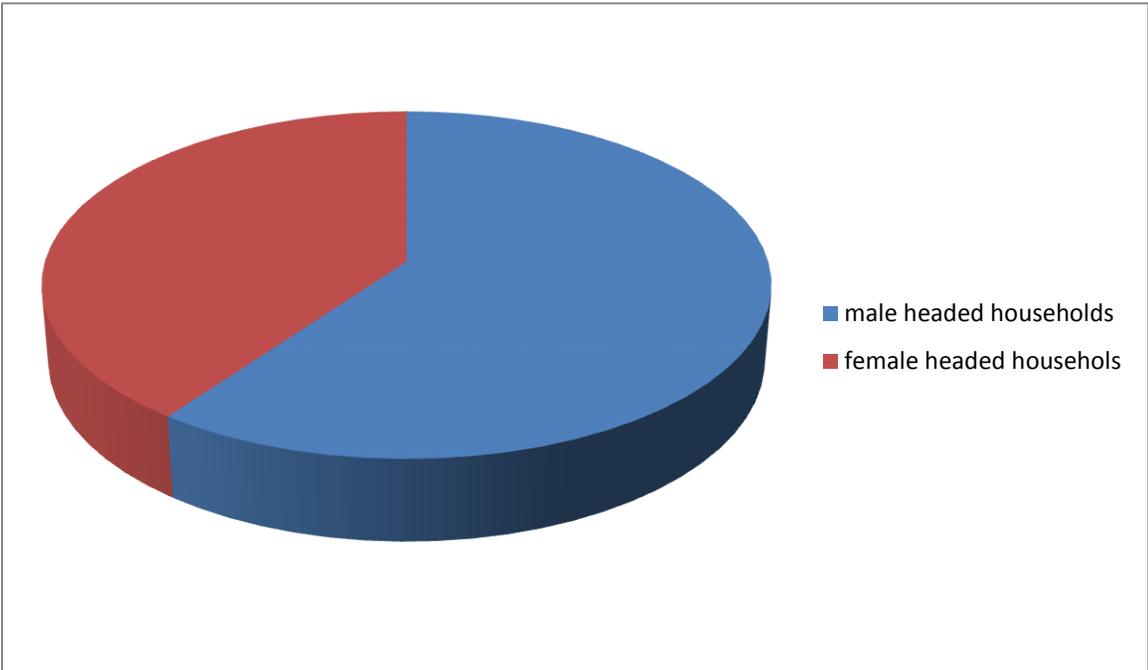
4.1 Primary Data Presentation

General Household characteristics

4.1.0 Distribution of sex among heads of households

Figure 1 is showing the distribution of age for heads of household among the selected house hold. Out of the 40 households, 60% of them were headed by males whilst female heads of houses were 40 %.

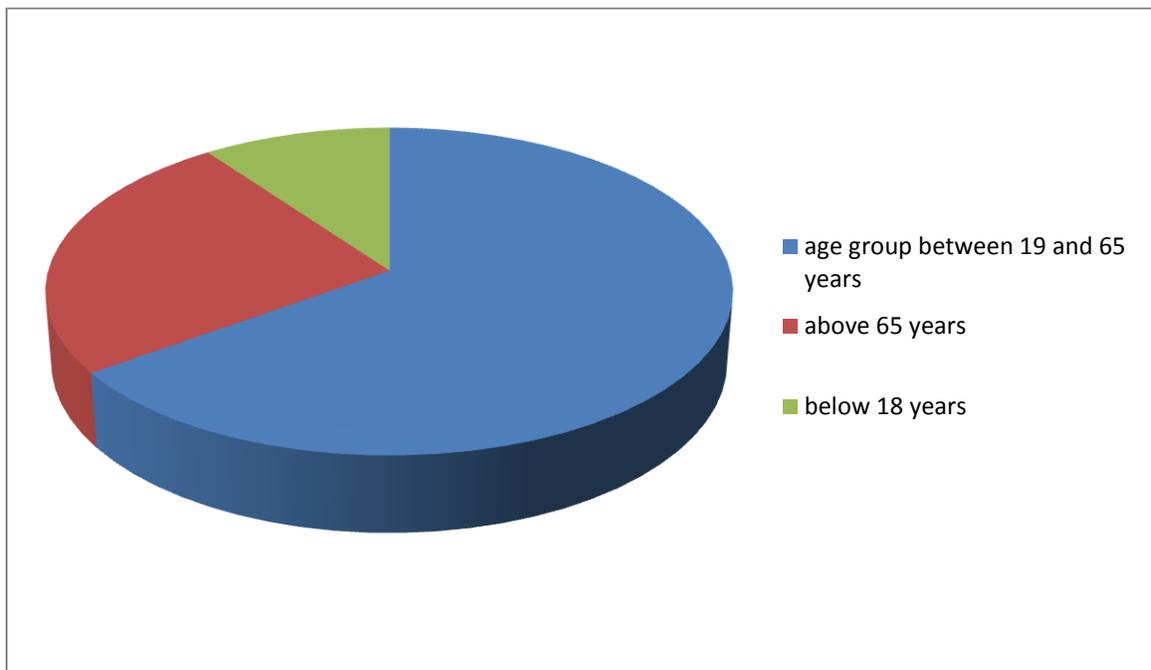
Figure 1: distribution of sex among heads of households



4.1.1 Distribution of age among heads of households

Figure 2 is showing the distribution of age among heads of households. Age is an important aspect because it brings how sensitive is the head of household in making sure that his/her household is food secure. It determines the experience one has in terms of coming up with livelihood activities that would secure the households from hunger. From the results, age ranged from 17 to 90 years. Most households were overseen by adults whose ages range from 19 to 65 years old. They accounted for 65% and these are the active group which are able bodied and can engage in different livelihood strategies for self-reliance. In the case that they cannot engage properly in these livelihood activities because of food aid, there would be an issue of dependency. The remaining 35% is distributed between old people who are more than 65 Years and these constituted 25% whilst the remaining 10% accounts for kids who are below 18 years of age.

Figure 2: Distribution of age among heads of households.

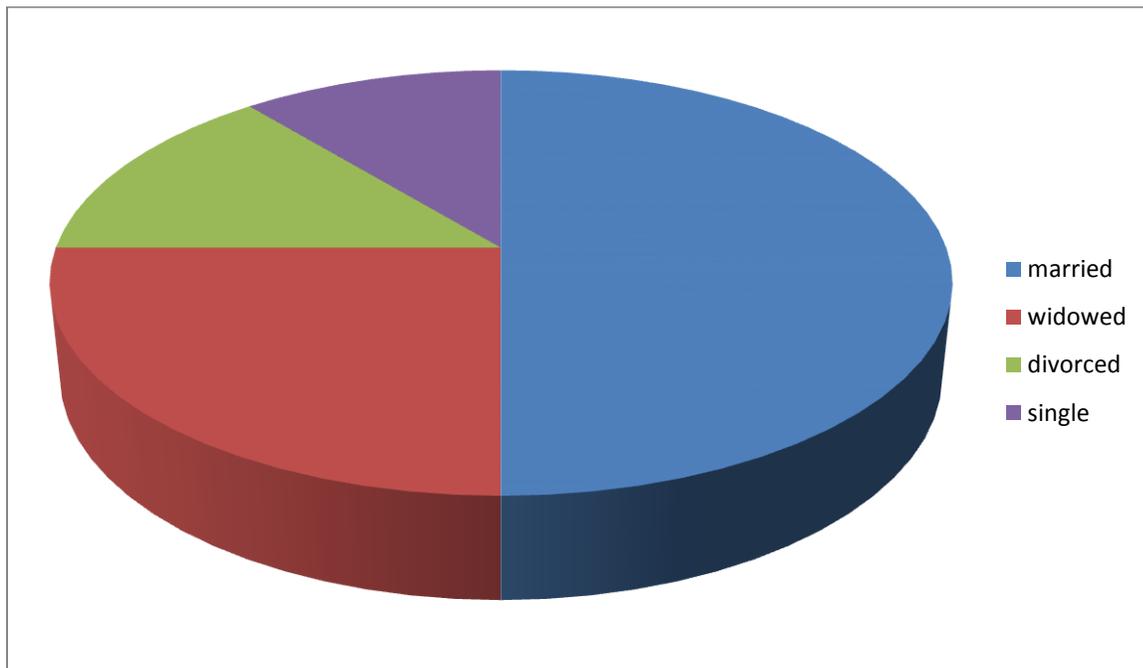


4.1.3 Marital status of heads of households

Marital status of heads of households has proven to be important in this research, therefore an analysis of the same was done. Figure 3 shows the findings which may

explain a general trend that would result in vulnerability cutting across categories. Of the sampled households, 50% were married people, followed by those who were widowed, 25%, divorced 14% and those headed by single constituted 11%. Most single headed households were orphans who lost their parents probably as a result of the HIV/AIDS pandemic. Their case in terms of vulnerability is different and very undeniable as they need to go to school and at the same time need to take care of their siblings.

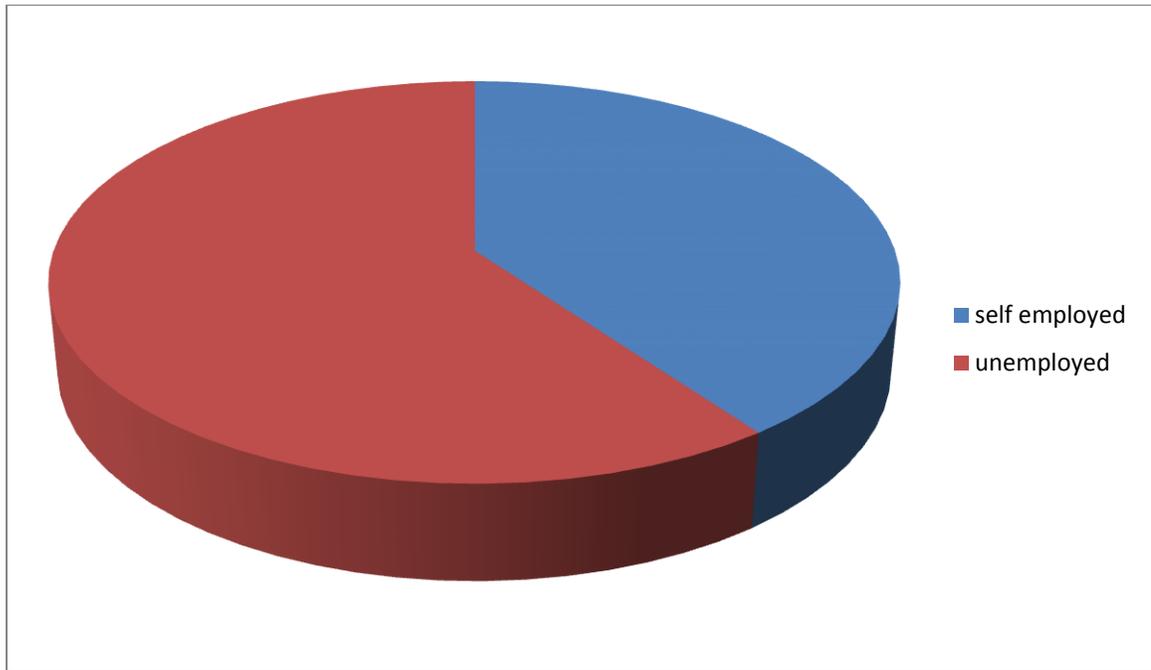
Figure 3: Showing marital status of head of households



4.1.4 Occupation of heads of household

From the results, sampled households shows that there are not formerly employed. 40 % of the households are self-employed, relying on piece jobs, welding, vending, carpentry, to name just a few. 60% rely entirely on agricultural activities, that is, livestock production as well as crop production.

Figure 4: occupation of heads of households



4.1.5 Livelihood activities for Chimanimani communities.

The main livelihood activities for the people of Chimanimani are:

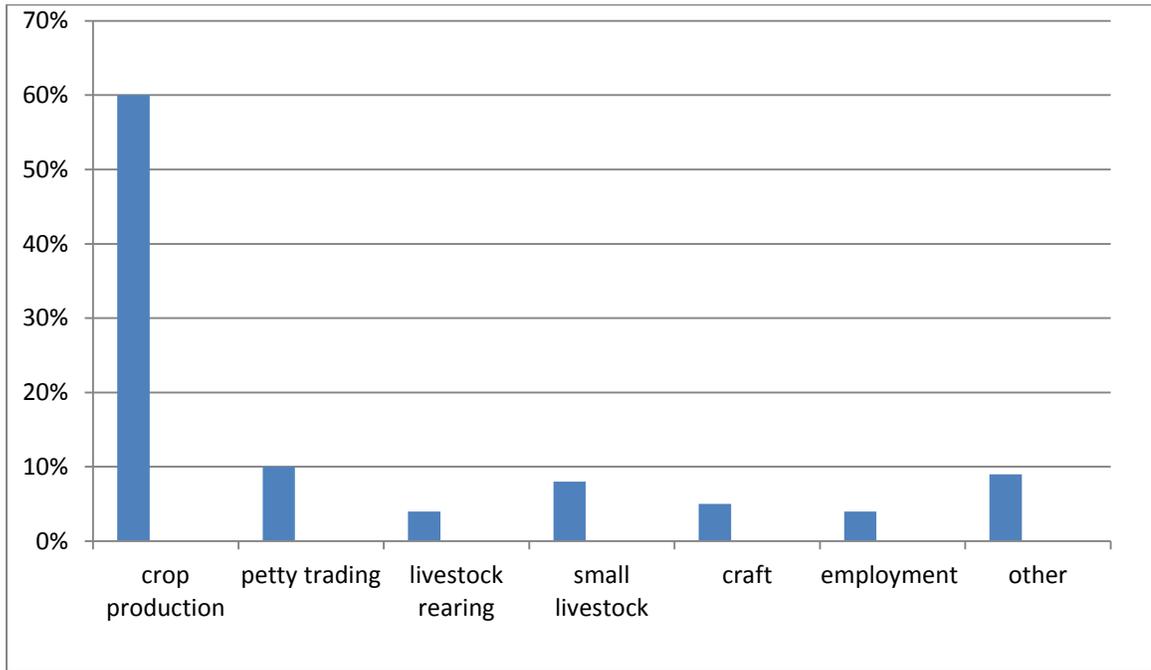
- Livestock rearing- cattle and goats
- Employment
- Crop production focusing on maize and small grains on small pieces of about 0.35 hectares.
- Craft
- Small livestock- chickens, rabbits
- Petty trading

It is intriguing to note that 65% of the general population have crop farming production as their fundamental business action regardless of the climatic states of low (beneath 450mm) rainfall and high temperatures (up to 40 degrees Celsius) which are menacing for dry land farming. Regardless of the disappointing yield they get each year, the people in the area continue planting maize with very high hopes of a good harvest. They alluded that they have few options for altering maize with. Maize gives the staple food, sadza and

they are in an ideal situation attempting it consistently. They additionally experience challenges with millet or sorghum which are appropriate for the climatic conditions of their region. The products are normally pulverized by birds to such an extent that they would be nothing left out to harvest. The zone is additionally reasonable for domesticated animals raising yet numerous family units no longer have any cattle as the stock died due to prolonged dry spells. Batter trade or petty trading was said to be the source of livelihood for 12% of the respondents. A large fraction of them participate in purchasing and reselling farm produce and other different things from neighboring city Mutare, or irrigation schemes in Nyanyadzi, Nenhowe and Gudyanga areas.

Nonetheless, there is constrained buying power by the villagers. I really watched a lady who had 2 cases of eggs which she was offering at a food conveyance point. Toward the day's end she backpedaled with her full containers since no one had cash to purchase. Little animals which speaks to around 8% includes raising of chickens and fowls. Among these 2% rehearse poultry at little scale for egg creation and meat generation. Different exercises speaking to around 9% incorporate market cultivating, carpentry, building and poultry. There is by all accounts an extremely constrained variety of employment exercises.

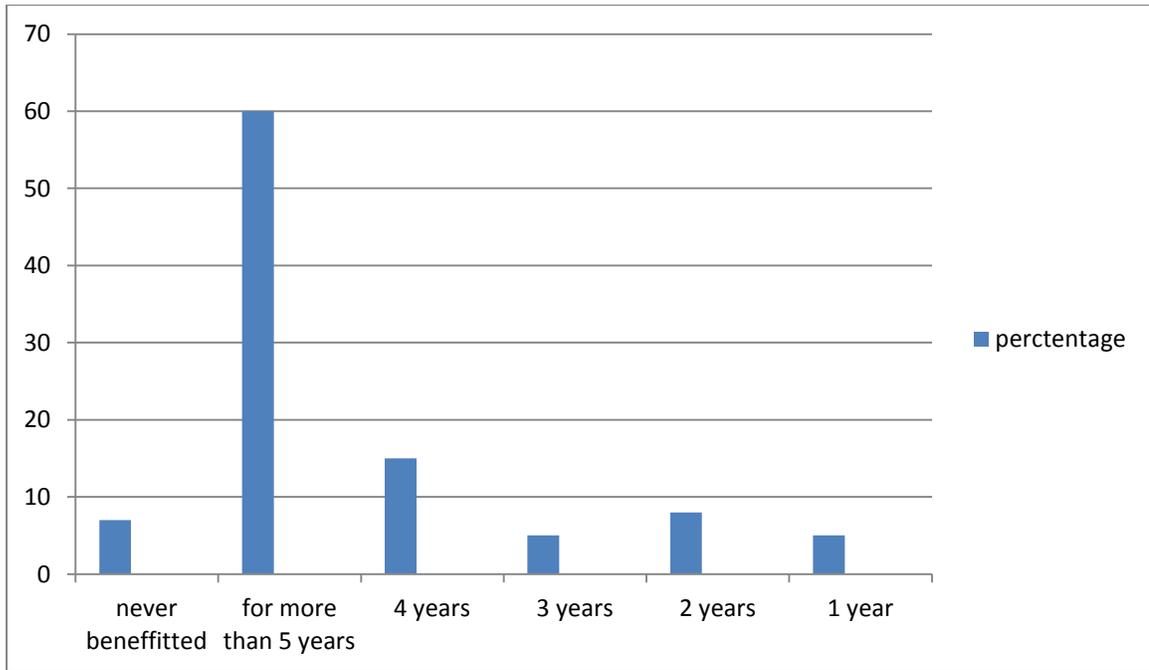
Figure 5: Showing livelihood activities for Chimanimani communities



4.1.6 Beneficiary status

95 % of the respondents demonstrated that they were recipients of food aid programs at least once while 60% percent were recipients for not less than 5 years. In the event that negative dependency has really crawled into the Chimanimani villagers this classification of individuals who have profited each time there was a food aid program are probably going to have been affected. Concerns revolve around whether this classification of individuals would truly apply their endeavors on creating livelihood methods that would encourage food security and self-assurance when they are certain that at whatever point there is a program they would profit.

Figure 6: Showing beneficiary status of respondents

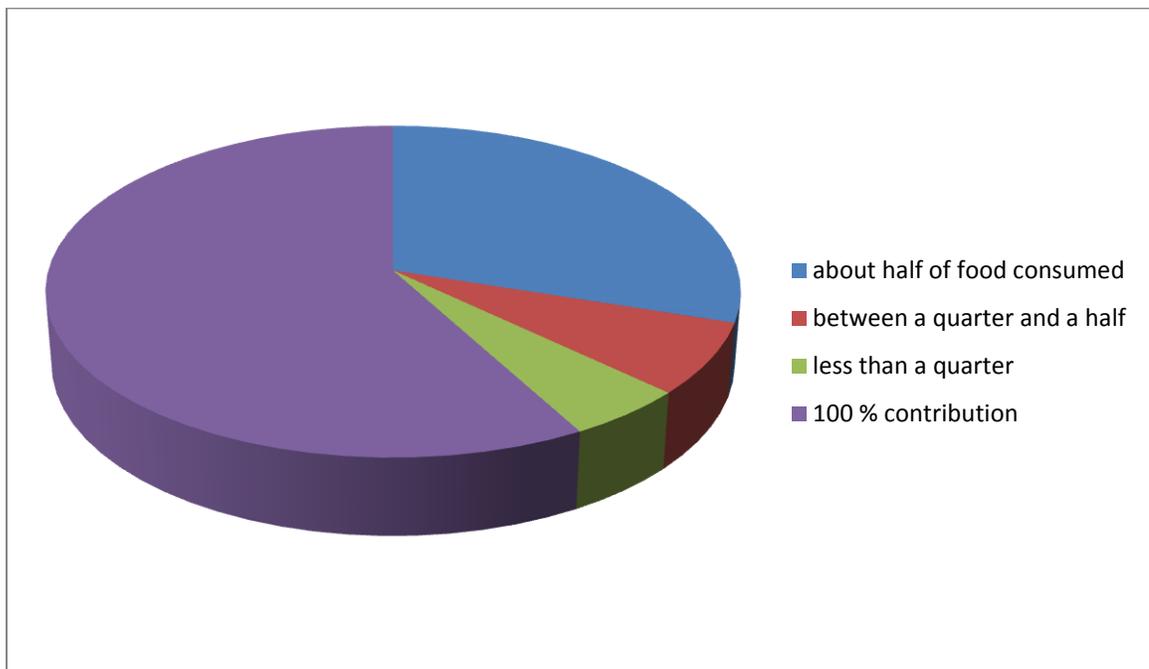


4.1.7 Respondents on the contributions of food aid to household food security

58 % of the respondents demonstrated that food aid contributed almost 100% of the food devoured in their homes, 30% said it contributed to half of the food, 7% between a quarter and a half while 5% showed that it contributed not as much as a quarter. Since an extensive rate had around 100% of their food needs met by food aid it might be presumed that there was legitimate focusing of those households which were entirely requiring aid. Food reached the expected recipients and was utilized suitably. In the event that these individuals had not received aid there were chances that they could have starved. Reliance for them was sure. These family units seem, by all accounts, to be those in classification 1 of extremely vulnerable individuals. 30% of the recipients showed that food aid contributed about portion of the food spent in their homes. These individuals could comprise of class 2 of recipients who are food insecure or encounter passing food insecurity which is different to those in classification 1 who encounter perpetual food insecurity. People in this category can still participate in livelihood activities keeping in mind the end goal to supplement the food aid and in this manner would unquestionably not starve if food aid is stopped. 7% has nourishment help contributing between a quarter

and a half of the aggregate sustenance devoured in their homes while 5% has underneath a quarter. The latter may demonstrate a targeting blunder where undeserving cases were incorporated. In the event that food aid contributed fewer than 25% of the food consumed in their homes then certainly they were not profoundly defenseless. However this incorporation blunder has a little edge.

Figure 7: Showing contributions of food aid to household food security

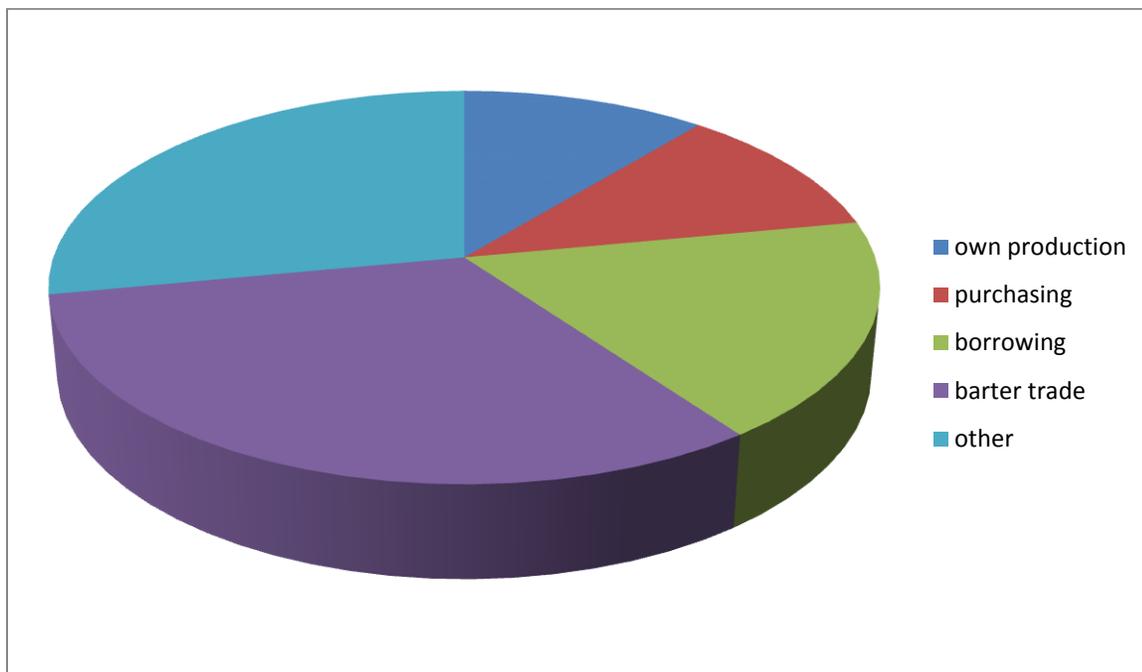


4.1.8 Alternative sources of food

The food aid which was given depended on the possibility that the recipients had some sustenance from their own particular generation or different sources. 58% showed that what they got from rations constituted around 100% of their food. It implies that the food which was made accessible to them was not sufficient to meet their family food prerequisites. Just 11% of the respondents showed that the food which was accessible to supplement the food aid was from their generation, another 11% from purchasing, 18 % from borrowing, 32% from barter trade and the greatest rate of 28% for other. These measurements affirm the obstruction of crop production in the area. The little percentage of 11 for purchase, indicate a situation where other income creating activities, for

example, craft, carpentry, gardening and trade are similarly unviable. Barter is typically done trading livestock or other family assets for food. Alternate sources (constituting 28 %) could really be unlawful and negative ways of dealing with stress. Seventy six percent of the respondents neither produced any food nor might they be able to purchase food from the market. These individuals needed to depend on borrowing, barter trade and other methods for dealing with stress to supplement the food which they got from rations. The situation affirms an atypical state of vulnerability.

Figure 8: Showing alternative food sources



4.2 Secondary Sources

4.2.1 Vulnerability assessments

Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee (ZIMVAC) has been set up since 2002. The advisory group does appraisals in the rustic parts of the nation. The ZIMVAC reports give data on "food security issues such as food production levels, food availability, food access, level of national food deficit, crisis coping mechanisms, and identify food deficit districts and wards, characteristics of the food insecure households, targeting and

recommended interventions"- Jaka, 2009. The reports have assumed an essential part in bringing out techniques that would help different bolster associations and additionally the government in attending to food insecurity in Zimbabwe since it appraise the quantity of food insecure households broadly at national, provincial and also at district level. Table one demonstrates that the intercessions done in the vicinity of 2010 and 2016 have been in line with the food shortfall crevice gave in ZIMVAC reports. In a few cases like 2011 and 2013, WFP disseminated food underneath the required sum most likely in light of the fact that they couldn't get enough donations to cover the hole. Another reason could be the act of agrarian expansion exercises that are being actualized by a notable number of NGO's to address a similar issue of food insecurity focusing on the most vulnerable groups in the rural social orders of Zimbabwe. From the table below, confirmation demonstrates that food appropriated by aid organizations is in accordance with the given shortage in the ZIMVAC reports.

Table 1: Relationship between the food deficit gap and actual food distributed at national level.

Year	Number of people who are food insecure (estimate)	Maize gap (estimate)	Actual cereal distributed
2010-2011	1 287 937	98 000	110 000
2011-12	1 346 297	99 347	95 000
2012-13	1 667 618	146 141	149 000
2013-14	2 206 964	177 000	161 000
2014-15	564 599	20 890	32 000
2015-16	1 490 024	55 151	56 000
2016-17	4 071 233	964 032	

Table 2 shows statistics on food insecure population at district level, registered beneficiaries and the maize gap. Food distributed between 2010 and 2016 in Chimanimani district could not meet demands of the food insecure population. Interviews conducted with officials from government departments of Rural Development and Social Welfare stresses that this has been because of a number of agricultural extension programs which has been benefitting a notable number of vulnerable groups of the Chimanimani rural district society. Thus food aid distributions usually benefits the most vulnerable groups of the society, that is, orphans, child headed households and the elderly.

Table 2: Showing statistics of food distribution against registered beneficiaries in Chimanimani district.

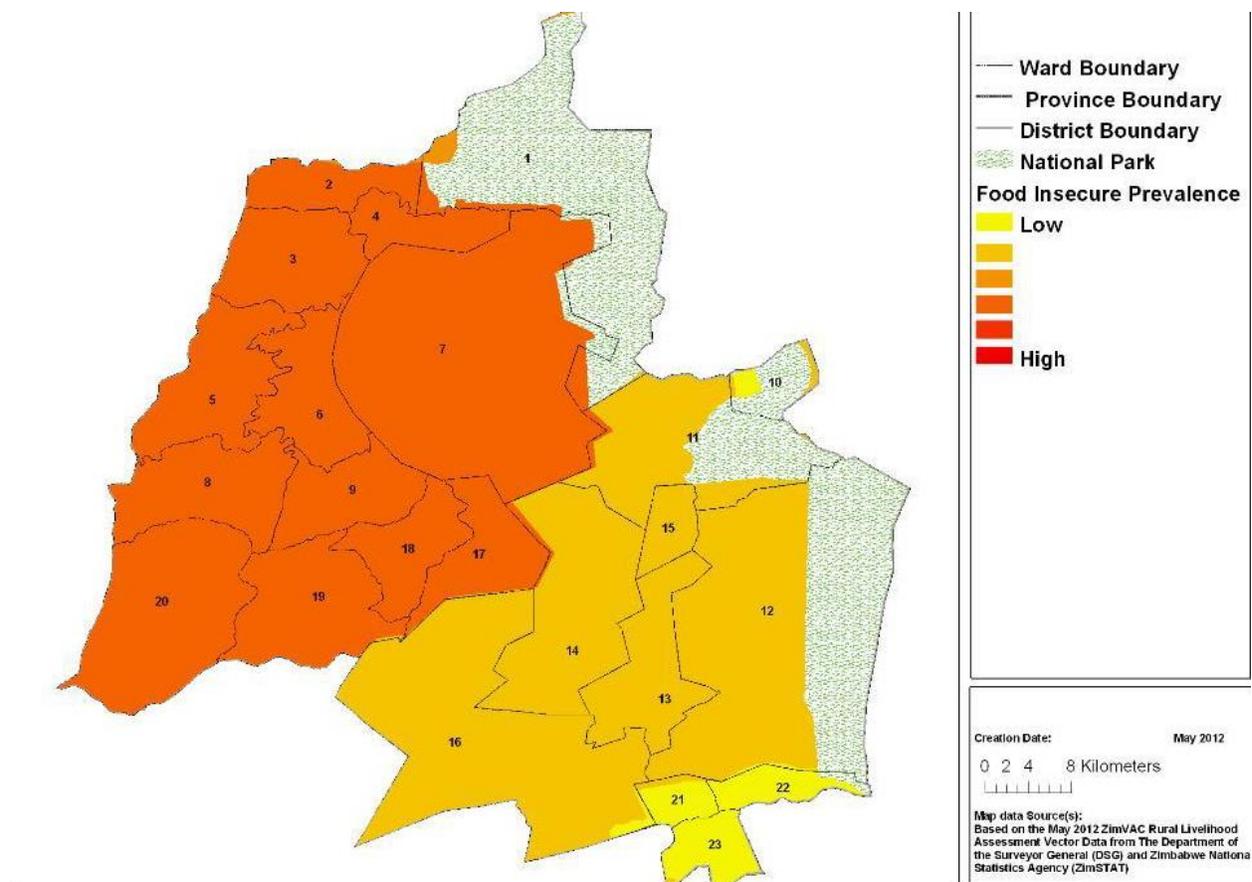
Year	Food insecure population (estimate)	Registered beneficiaries(WFP)	Food deficit	Actual distributed
2010-11	20 018	20 018	8 392	5 694
2011-12	18 543	18 543	7 033	4 300
2012-2013	15 553	15 553	5 264	2 819
2013-14	29 511	29 511	8 658	4 900
2014-1015	15 819	15 819	5 760	2 910
2015-16	16 483	16 483	6 924	3 678
2016-17	57 831	57 831	13 668	

4.2.2 Selection and targeting of beneficiaries

The ZIMVAC reports demonstrate that the area (focusing on land), level of food production, food accessibility measures and food shortage levels in light of the populace levels were utilized as a part of selecting areas for food aid. Zones were mapped showing the very food insecure, the food insecure and moderately food secure in view of the rate of populace that was food insecure. The ZIMVAC report of 2010 demonstrated that all locale were food insecure but would vary on the rate of populace that was food insecure.

In that capacity food aid program operations focused on all districts with various levels of help. Then again at district level the same method was used. The most vulnerable wards were the most targeted and food aid focused on these wards mostly. Selection of food insecure wards is begun by ZIMVAC and finished by the District Drought Relief Committee. The wards that were observed to be food insecure in Chimanimani from 2002 are those in the western parts of the area of Chimanimani which falls in agro environmental zone 4 and 5. The zone is less climatically supported with high temperatures of up to 40 degrees Celsius and low rainfall of under 450mm per each annum. The conditions are horrible for food production and the communities encounter ceaseless food vulnerability.

Map 1: showing food insecure prevalence in Chimanimani by ward.



Extracted from rural ZIMVAC 2012 report

4.2.3 Household Selection

In view of the attributes of the food insecure household as distinguished by the ZIMVAC, the aid organizations built up an ordinary recipient targeting and choice criteria which has the accompanying social pointers of vulnerability:

- The Chronically ill headed house holds
- The Child headed house holds
- Households headed by the elderly
- Single Parent headed households
- Households headed by the disabled.
- Households with large numbers of orphans
- Households with malnourished children.
- Household which harvested less in the fields to carry them through to the next harvest
- No bread winner either locally or abroad
- Households who do not do any form of trade
- Have less than a defined number of cattle

The above selection criteria were utilized in Chimanimani district. For a household to meet all requirements to be a recipient of food aid it must be defenseless and without methods for self-support. Vulnerability is defined at local level and along these lines the communities needed to concede to how it is defined in their wards before households are enrolled. Vulnerability in Chimanimani incorporated the sort of accommodation and different assets controlled by the family, for example, scotch trucks, TVs, or ploughs. In many cases the general populations were getting used to the selection criteria and were controlling the framework which brought about some meriting cases being forgotten and some undeserving cases being incorporated into the program. In 2007 the framework was

inspected to make it more participatory by making utilization of Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) methods especially community mapping and riches positioning. Community mapping involved the group drawing a guide of their area amid a community meeting which required 80% majority. All residences would be recognized and plotted on the guide. Mapping guaranteed that those families who might typically be forgotten on the grounds that they had no agents to go to the enlistment gatherings were altogether included. They neglected to go to gatherings on account of maturity or ailment or would not have found out about the meeting. Wealth positioning involved ordering households into four wealth positions (or classifications) as characterized in Chimanmani. Classification 1 comprised of extremely poor family units with interminable (high) food insecurity and named as exceptionally food insecure. Classification 2 contained family units distinguished as food insecure, class 3 had generally food secure families and classification 4 had the affluent gathering which did not need any help. Classification 4 involved the businesspeople, irrigation farmers, mine workers, professionals and politicians. Subsequent to sorting family units they would then be positioned by vulnerability or food insecurity. The most vulnerable family units were put on a short list while the well-off families would be kept on the village registers which incorporated all villagers.

4.2.4 Beneficiary Verification

Since 2002 recipient verification was an essential and vital segment of the food aid program. It was done openly at village level or through arbitrarily testing family units and going by their residences. The aftereffects of checks really incited for a fabrication of a more thorough and participatory strategy for recipient targeting, selection and enrollment. The segment was heightened as more staff must be enlisted particularly and solely for that capacity. In 2016 the ZIMVAC had shown that 57 831 individuals in Chimanmani were food insecure and needed food support. However the enrollment procedure came up with 134 621 food insecure individuals in October 2016. Confirmations were done seriously which expelled around 16 000 undeserving and apparition recipients, leaving 118 621 meriting individuals but the figure was still way above the 57 831 individuals. The numbers that got assistance were 99 540 in December and January, which were additionally decreased to 85 000 in February and afterward up scaled to 110 980 in

March. The way that under 100 000 meriting individuals profited from December to February implies that a considerable measure of meriting individuals were forgotten. These individuals encountered a great deal of worry as they attempted to adapt to the circumstance. With such a situation it is out of line to imagine that the communities in Chimanimani could build a negative reliance on food aid which was not enough to address their concerns.

4.2.5 Analysis of the beneficiary selection criteria and process

The two noteworthy objectives of food aid programs were: To spare lives. This involved averting suffering, malnutrition and at last starvation to death through arrangement of nutritious food apportions and to protect disposal of productive assets .This is in accordance with the rule of the Code of Conduct of the Red Cross and Red Crescent and NGOs in disaster reaction which expresses that aid ought to forestall future vulnerabilities. The objectives are extremely reputable and the first was met past any question. The second one turned out to be hard to accomplish. The recipient selection criteria forgot those with resources, for example, scotch trucks, furrows, four cattle or more, great houses or TVs. Suggestive in these criteria is that the families which possess these assets ought to dispose them with a specific end goal to purchase food. Accordingly numerous non-recipient households sold domesticated animals as a way of dealing with stress and they just are more defenseless against future shocks which is in total disagreement to the second objective. It was despicable to discover that numerous family units let go their cattle for 100kg maize for every cattle. The privileged in the locale exploited the circumstance and purchased several cattle.

Community mapping was hypothetically extremely solid as it permitted a straightforward and target participatory procedure of recipient selection. It was effectively done in 2007/8 program which kept running from September 2007 to March 2008. In 2015/16 the communities adopted the 2007/8 community mapping which they were very much familiar with and knew the outcomes of a household being arranged in a specific wealth category. The level of vulnerability was more very bad compared to the earlier year yet the evaluation demonstrated that less households were vulnerable. The registration of households saw the head of the household as the only name appearing on the register

while the other the rest of the household was identified by age and physical condition status. At village level the people schemed to ensure that nearly 100% of them fell in the initial 2 wealth classifications which were target recipients, while they put apparition households in the non-benefiting classifications. At household level, for a few families both the spouse and husband enlisted as different households in situations where they did not share a surname or they basically expanded their family unit sizes. The duping was done to guarantee that the families got enlisted as recipients and furthermore with the goal that they could get to more food than their entitlements.

4.3 Program Implementation period of food aid

Since the introduction of food aid in Chimanimani district in 2002 the execution time frame was constantly cultured by proposals of the ZIMVAC. The periods have extended from 3 months (in 2006) to 9 months. It depended on projections of to what extent the reaped yield would last. However in all cases, execution was postponed by a month or two. Disregarding the month food rationing began they have without fail been ended in March or April. Timing of annihilation depended on the suspicion that at that point households would have begun gathering their yields. Notwithstanding when it was clear in the fields that there was no huge gather to depend on, suspension has been done uncompromisingly. Food aid would just resume in the wake of fulfilling every one of the evaluations said above. No food aid (aside from vulnerable groups, for example, incessantly sick) has been actualized for an entire year without a break.

4.4 Sufficiency and relevance of the reaction

Apportion sizes for grain, vegetable oil and pulses were made utilizing the SPHERE benchmarks of 2100 kilocalories of energy prerequisites every day. In that capacity every recipient was qualified for 12,5kg grain/cereal, 0.6kg vegetable oil and 2kg pulses for each month. Lamentably for the 2015/16 operation, due to poor financing and nourishment pipeline breaks the food proportions were modified downwards from month to month. The grain apportion which began as 12,5kg for every individual for each month in October was lessened to 10kg and wound up for January to March as 5kg. The commitment of food aid to family food security accordingly turned out to be profoundly traded off. The apportion was additionally in light of the supposition that it would

supplement what families as of now had or could get. In any case, checking practices uncovered that for most family units what they got from food aid constituted around 100% of food devoured. They had no different sources of food and it implied that the food aid could not take them until the end of the month. The deficiency of the proportions is the thing that incited most families to cheat by increasing their family unit sizes with the goal that they could get more food which would likely take them until the end of the month. Whenever capping was presented in December where they would offer food to a most extreme of 4 individuals for every family the ration turned out to be significantly more deficient for families that had a bigger number of individuals than that. In view of the HIV/AIDS scourge numerous households are keeping orphans, expanding their family sizes to much more than 13. On the off chance that a family of 15 individuals gets food for 4 individuals the apportion turns out to be horribly insufficient and irrelevant. In addition the lessening of grain apportion in December was done in the time capping of family unit sizes was introduced. This turned into a twofold catastrophe to numerous families as they had less individuals in their families getting little apportions. For instance a family of 10 individuals which got 125kg maize in November got 40kg in December and just 20kg every month from January to March. Such a family unit would clearly not build reliance on aid. The aid would sufficiently be to avert death. In spite of the fact that the food aid went for ensuring productive resources it didn't consolidate food production goals by availing crop inputs or helping communities with better cultivating strategies. The food part would guarantee that the general population lived and furthermore assemble vitality to work in their fields and utilize the time that they would somehow use in searching for food. In any case, the general population had the vitality and time to work however tragically did not have the inputs. To get around this issue, through swelling family units some would utilize the additional maize grain to plant or sell it so as to purchase inputs. Observing activities uncovered that 60% of the recipients utilized some portion as seed since they did not have any inputs.

4.5 Conclusion

The chapter centered on presentation of the outcomes of data analysis from both primary and secondary sources. It tried to confirm for Chimanimani community what was deduced in the literature review to be the issues that advance negative reliance or

disincentive impacts of aid. It is for the most part concurred that negative reliance can happen if food aid is done before legitimate appraisals are done, if the time of help is longer than the period when help is really required, if proportions are more than the prerequisite, and if there are mistakes of incorporation where undeserving cases advantage. Reliance can be said to have sneaked in if recipients rely entirely on aid or don't do anything for self-support in expectation of help.

The information that was accumulated unmistakably demonstrates that Vulnerability evaluations were completed in Zimbabwe since 2002 and have now been standardized. These vulnerability assessments are completed at least twice in a year and the Crop and Food Supply Assessment Mission by United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization. These evaluations concentrate on food security and vulnerability issues and have been the significant wellsprings of data for arranging food aid interventions in Chimanimani. The time of food aid has dependably been as proposed in the appraisal reports. On various events the projects have begun a month or two later however have constantly finished in March or April toward the start of the harvest season. Deferment of food aid has been done consistently regardless of whether the harvest was normal. Additional program would trail after vulnerability assessment. The proportions which were dispersed were taken from the base measures in the Sphere Project. There was never a period when apportions were surpassed but commonly the proportions could not be achieved. This was on the grounds that a few products were not accessible amid a few months of the program while others were in little amounts to the extent that apportions were at times cut to not as much as the standard recommended. The majority of the food which was given to the people was made use of within the households. Monitoring exercises did not uncover any incorporation mistakes of undeserving cases.

It can by and large be acknowledged that in light of the findings above, projects for Chimanimani did not support reliance. The responses of the review demonstrate that there are a few family units who don't take or plan to take any activities for livelihood exercises. However the reasons why they do as such are not on the grounds that they have turned out to be reliant on food aid but rather the financial conditions and the climatic

conditions are excessively brutal for anything possible. Portions of the general population are still sure that on the chance that they can be bolstered to start something they will act naturally dependent.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENTATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter seeks to conclude on the discourses that were produced from chapter one to chapter 4. It gives a connection on the objectives of the review in chapter one, the discoveries of literature review in chapter two and the findings in chapter four. It wraps up on the degree which the goals were achieved and the conclusions that can be made. Proposals are then made on the premise of conclusions from the findings.

5.2 Conclusions

5.2.1 The main livelihood strategies for the Chimanimani communities

The fundamental livelihood activities for Chimanimani West communities is farming supplemented by petty trading, small livestock rearing, craft, business and livestock production, in plummeting significance. Crop production is the fundamental job for around 65% of the populace and the primary products developed are maize and little grains. Be that as it may, the climatic conditions for the district are enormously horrible to rain sustained crop production. The area falls in agro natural locale four and five which are depicted by high temperatures of up to 40 degrees Celsius and low unpredictable rains of beneath 400mm each year. There is an awesome open door for water system advancement. A noteworthy stream (Odzi waterway) moves through the area. There are various irrigation schemes owned by the Government yet the vast majority of them have turned out to be out of service as a result of economic hardships faced by the nation.

5.2.2 Suitability of food aid arrangement to strengthen livelihoods

The objectives of the food aid programs which were implemented in Chimanimani district were spelt out in the proposition reports as: a) to spare lives and ease enduring, b) to secure resources and support livelihoods. The findings demonstrate that the main goal

was met the same number of individuals who did not have any food (58% of the respondents) depended absolutely on food aid. The second target could have been met through various ways. firstly, by giving food to the vulnerable people it was trusted that they would then not have to offer their gainful resources, for example , cattle, ploughs , wheel dump carts, or scotch trucks with a specific end goal to purchase food. Furthermore, it was believed that where the general population would invest a lot of energy searching for food, they would then utilize that time in their fields or other livelihood activities with a specific end goal to obtain food security for themselves. Thirdly, the food distributed particularly amid the cropping season would give vitality to individuals to work in their fields.

Literature demonstrates that it is hard to show whether food aid truly affects livelihoods in the sense portrayed above. The instance of Chimanimani is no special case. Regardless the selection criteria for food aid recipients appeared to have been repudiating this same objective. It forgot those families with a well-defined number of cattle and other different assets. The suspicion was that they could discard the assets and purchase food. As such the sale of assets really builds vulnerability to further shocks as opposed to expanding strength. Since the food security condition of Chimanimani people appears to have stayed high it can in this way be presumed that the goal of advancing livelihoods was not met.

5.2.3 Food aid threshold

The research was contacted to find out if there is a food aid verge that spares lives and reduce suffering at the same time debilitate reliance. It can be concluded from the literature and the findings that such a limit is controlled by the planning in connection to the famine time frame, the, the beneficiary selection criteria, and measure of food conveyed per individual. The measure of food distributed ought not to be more than is required. It ought to be given to the genuine individuals in need and ought to be given amid critical crossroads as it were. To achieve this verge, it is of paramount importance to plan, monitor and assess food aid interventions.

5.2.4 Appraisal of negative reliance as a result of food aid

In spite of the fact that food aid has been distributed for some time in Chimanimani District it has not supported negative reliance because of the following:

- Proper appraisals (ZIMVAC, CFSAM, and CHS) were done each year to learn the level of vulnerability and food insecurity. The level of intervention as far as the quantity of individuals needing assistance and also the period when the food would be required were completely dictated by the suggestions of the appraisals. It secured food distribution at the wrong time or to the wrong group of individuals. In any case food aid programs dependably began a month or two later than the prescribed time. It began when food security had become critical.
- Selection of beneficiaries was done towards the start of each program. Households were in this manner not certain whether they would be chosen whenever the program would come to necessitate them to loosen in taking part in exercises that guarantee their food security.
- Food apportions which were arranged utilizing Sphere least norms changed extraordinarily all through the program time frame. Proportions were in some cases cut to not as much as a large portion of the arranged proportion and a few products were not accessible in some months. Capping, which typified the most number of individuals to get proportions at each household was presented on various occurrences. For instance a family with 13 individuals would get apportions for 5 or 6 individuals only. In spite of the fact that the changes in accessibility of products and capping were an aftereffect of resource imperatives, they greatly affected convenience and ampleness of food for the benefiting households. They could consequently not create reliance on insufficient and vague food.
- Although many individuals kept up their employment exercise, a comparison between people who began new livelihood activities and these who dropped livelihood activities shows that a larger number of individuals went up against new exercises than the individuals who dropped a few. Negative reliance could have been said to have sneaked in if households withdrew from their ordinary employments taking security or protection in food aid. In the wake of

understanding that food aid was lacking they even wandered into new livelihood practices yet with insignificant achievement.

5.2.5 The part of the socio economic condition in the achievement of livelihood methods

Zimbabwe has encountered various economic difficulties since the turn of the millennium. The fast track land reform program saw the collapse of the national agricultural sector. A nation that used to be Africa's bread basket turned to be one of Africa's net receiver of food aid with the most noteworthy reliance on food aid in Southern Africa. Loss of both skilled and unskilled workforce together with lack of capital saw the collapse of the industrial and the agricultural sectors. High inflation rates and shortage of fuel assets debilitated the survival of any economic exercises. Sources of inputs were generally inaccessible; access to market was exceedingly hardened while markets were significantly discouraged.

The way that there are households that dropped some production exercises can be ascribed generally to the brutal economic condition. A few family units which used to make a living on working in the irrigation farms in the territory, encountered stuns when farming operations stopped suddenly. They had no way out hence they got themselves unemployed. Different families which relied upon market farming failed to sell their items. There was no cash in the market. Others were hurt to watch their produce decay as they could not stand the transport fares to take them to the market. Such an environment is not constructive for any income generating activities.

5.3 Recommendations

In light of the conclusions made that Chimanimani West people depend to a great extent on rain encouraged yield production in spite of the fact that the climatic conditions don't support such; the territory is reasonable for irrigation expansion and has an awesome open door for water; the outline and usage of food aid did not specifically bolster livelihoods neither did it advance antagonistic reliance the accompanying proposals are made:

- Continuity of the food aid interventions in Chimanimani West is a necessity until the people in the area get revived of their ability to produce their own

food. The vulnerability assessments should continue, focusing on the most vulnerable, monitoring the implementations so as to avoid inclusion of mistakes. The proportions of aid should be adequate and there should be proper timing of the interventions to avoid negative reliance.

- Food aid ought to be combined with direct support to livelihood strategies. Inputs suitable for the area such as rapoko, millet and sorghum, should be distributed when the recipients receive their aid provisions. This could be the most important way of ensuring that the families can create their own food in this manner building strength to further stuns of dry seasons. There is need for the households to halt concentrating on maize production since the climatic conditions are not favorable for maize production.
- When income levels are expanded in a community their buying force is likewise expanded with the end goal that small businesses, for example, poultry, craft, petty trading will begin to flourish. The public and private sectors ought to exploit the open door in the area by reviving existing water system plots to their full capacity and this could create more employment. This will contribute towards the restoration of the economy by creating crops for local utilization and export trade subsequently expanding food accessibility and producing foreign currency. Individuals from the neighborhood get open doors for business, which will raise their livelihood levels with the end goal that they will have the capacity to purchase their own food and pay for other fundamental family unit needs, like, pharmaceutical, clothes and tuition.
- New cropping skills like conservation farming should be introduced in the area. Conservation farming is appropriate for families without dry spell control who likewise cannot manage the cost of fertilizers. Conservation farming if done accordingly can enhance yields unquestionably. In places where it has been utilized recipients have figured out how to enhance their

yields significantly. Conservation farming also uses open pollinated seed varieties (OPV) rather than hybrid seeds which is another advantage of utilizing this type of farming. As opposed to purchasing seed each year people can really create their own seed. Assistance is however expected to advance this honorable farming skill for individuals to move from the customary skills.

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APPENDIX 1 Turn it in Report

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APPENDIX 2: QUESTIONNAIRE

(To be administered in Chimanimani West November 2016)

Main Objective:

To assess the impact of food aid programs to household food security of the Chimanimani Communities

Sub-objectives:

- To review the effect of food aid programs to household food security.
- To settle on the sort of recipients for food aid.
- To review the food security circumstance of recipients of food aid programs.

Questionnaire to be filled in by Household head or spouse or most senior person

Ward Name.....

Village Name.....

Name of Enumerator..... Date.....

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION *(circle were appropriate)*

1 What is the gender of the respondent?

- (a) Male
- (b) Female

2 What is the gender of the household head?

- (a) Male
- (b) Female

3 What is the marital status of the household head?

- (a) Single
- (b) Married
- (c) Widowed
- (d) Divorced
- (e) Separated

4 What is the age of the household head?

5 What is the size of your household?

6. What does the head of the household do for a living?

SECTION B: LIVELIHOODS

1 Do you have a field?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

2 If yes to question 2 above, what is the size of your field?

- (a) 0 - 0.5 hectares
- (b) 0.6 – 1 hectares
- (c) 2 – 5 hectares
- (d) 6 – 10 hectares
- (e) More than 11 hectares

3 Do you have sources of income apart from farming?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

4 If yes to question 3, state the source

5 Have you dropped off some livelihood activities from the time you became a food aid beneficiary/ or when food aid started in your area?

1. Yes

2. No

Give details.....

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

6 Have you taken on some livelihood activities from the time you became a food aid beneficiary/ or when food aid started in your area?

1. Yes

2. No

Give details.....

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

7 What do you think should be done to end the food shortages in your area?

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

8 Do you think you will be able to sustain your household if food aid is discontinued in your area?

1 Yes

2 No

9 If the answer is yes what plans do you have?

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

10 If the answer is No what plans do you have?

.....
.....

-
- 11 How much off- farm income do you earn per month?
- 12 How many meals do you eat per day?
- 13 Has your household consumed less preferred food in the last 7 days?
- (a) Never
 - (b) Rarely
 - (c) At times
 - (d) Often
- 14 Have you reduced the quantity of food served to the household in the last 7 days?
- (a) Never
 - (b) Rarely
 - (c) At times
 - (d) Often
- 15 Have your household skipped meals in the last 7 days?
- (a) Never
 - (b) Rarely
 - (c) At times
 - (d) Often

SECTION C: FOOD AID BENEFICIARY STATUS

- 1 How many years have you been a beneficiary of food aid?
- (a)Not at all
 - (b) One
 - (c) Two
 - (d)Three
 - (e) Four
 - (f) Five years plus
- 2 How much did food aid contribute towards your household’s food security?
- (a) Less than a quarter
 - (b) More than a quarter but less than half
 - (c) About half

(d) About 100%

3 What were your other sources of food?

(a) Own production

(b) Purchases

(c) Borrowing

(d) Barter

(e) Other Specify

APPENDIX 3: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE

To be used for discussions with stakeholders at district and sub district level i.e. District Administrator, Chief Executive Officer, District Social Welfare Officer, Agritex Extension, District Education Officer, Council chairperson, councilors, chiefs and headmen.

Section 1: Sources of Food in the Area

1. What is the staple food in this area?
2. What are the main ways people get food in this area?

Section 2: Food Aid Distribution in the Area

3. In your opinion, do you think food aid is necessary in this area? Why?
4. What are the institutions that distribute food aid in this area?
5. Is the food distributed enough to meet the population's needs?

Section 3: Food Security in the Area

6. Do you think people have enough food in this area?
7. If food distribution was to stop, what do you think would happen?
8. What do you think are the causes of food insecurity in the area?
9. Do you think the Government is doing enough to alleviate the problem of food in this area?
10. What else do you think the Government need to do?
11. What other ways would people do to improve food security in the area?

Section 4: The Impact of Food Aid on Food Security

12. What do you think is the attitude of people towards food aid?
13. Would you encourage food distribution? Why?

14. What would you say is the impact of food aid on food availability, accessibility and utilization in the area?