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FACULTY OF ARTS

DEPARTMENT OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

**IMPACT OF THE GRAIN LOAN SCHEME ON FOOD SECURITY IN MUTOKO
DISTRICT IN ZIMBABWE FROM 2010 TO 2014**

BY

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(R138001T)

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I, Jenara Phiri, declare that this work is my own original work, that it has not been plagiarized nor submitted for similar degree in any other university.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this project to my late parents, my children and my husband who contributed to my attainment of this level of excellence.

ABSTRACT

The main focus of the research was on the impact of the Grain Loan Scheme on food security in Mutoko district's wards 18 and 19 which are naturally drought prone areas in the district. The research was aimed at establishing an effective way of managing government funded food aid interventions including identifying and assessing the impacts of Grain Loan Scheme on food security in the district, assessing the capacity of institutions responsible for managing government funded food aid interventions in the district and assessing the coping strategies that are used to manage droughts by the indigenous people themselves as well as those provided by institutions. Food Security was contextualised and conceptualised in this research. The research subscribed to a descriptive approach of doing a research. Simple random and purposive sampling techniques were employed to come up with a total of fifty respondents. Questionnaires with both closed and open ended questions were used to collect data from beneficiaries, local leaders, councilors, GMB officials, the DA's office, Ministry of Local Government and AGRITEX. The results revealed that the Grain Loan Scheme achieved 80% of its objectives although it faced many challenges. The District Drought Relief Committee lacks resources and proper skill to proactively manage programs and has weak stakeholder engagement mechanisms which exacerbate the inefficiency and ineffectiveness of the institution. Food aid has been found to make people lazy to produce their own food and it has created a sense of dependency in rural communities. The household coping strategies have however been found effective. Recommendations that have been given include that the government should strive to implement sustainable programs that teach people to produce their own food instead of food handouts. Government should subsidize inputs and people should adopt new farming technologies.

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God bless you all for making this project a mission accomplished.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CRS	Catholic Relief Services
DDRC	District Drought Relief Committee
EWS	Early Warning System
FAO	Food Agricultural Organisation
FFW	Food for Work
FTLRP	Fast Track Land Reform Program
GLS	Grain Loan Scheme
GMB	Grain Marketing Board
GoZ	Government of Zimbabwe
HCS	Household Coping Strategy
ISAL	Internal Saving and Lending
MDC	Movement for Democratic Change
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MRDC	Mutoko Rural District Council
NGO	Non- Governmental Organisation
NPDN	National Policy on Drought Management
PAAP	Poverty Alleviation Action Group
SADC	Southern Africa Development Committee
UN	United Nations
USAID	United States of America International Development
WFP	World Food Program
WHO	World Health Organisation
WVI	World Vision International
ZANU PF	Zimbabwe African National Union Patriotic Front

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INTRODUCTION

This study focused on the evaluation of the impact of the Grain Loan Scheme on Food Security in Mutoko District Mashonaland East Province of Zimbabwe, a program that was introduced by the Government of Zimbabwe to avert food shortages in food deficit areas of Zimbabwe in year 2010. Zimbabwe has been experiencing a high incidence of drought since year 2000 and food shortages have been the major direct effect of drought. According to Wisner et al (2004) drought has been ranked first among other natural hazards and it contributes to about 86.9% of hazard induced deaths but statistics on starvation are usually under reported for political reasons. Zimbabwe was once the 'bread basket' of Africa but is now a recipient of food from other countries that have surplus food commodities. This chapter will discuss the background to the problem that has influenced the study, statement of the problem, conceptual framework, theoretical framework, policy impact evaluation, research objectives, research questions, literature review, justification and significance of the research, summary of research methodology and methods, delimitation of the study, ethical considerations, structure of the dissertation and a summary of the chapter. The research also reviewed literature by other authors and involved field research findings, challenges, prospects for food security, possible solutions and conclusion.

In 2010 the Government of Zimbabwe announced the Grain Loan Scheme (GLS) a program similar to previous Government Food Aid interventions like Food for Work, Presidential Input Scheme, Operation Maguta, Government Input Scheme, Productive Sector Facility and Zunde Ramambo. This program began in 2010 and it extended up to 2014. The Grain Marketing Board (GMB) implemented the program and managed over 500 distribution points around Zimbabwe. The Ministry of Local Government, Rural and Urban Development had the responsibility of beneficiary selection. Eligible families were to receive one 50kg bag of

maize per month for up to 4 months for a total of up to 200kgs of maize per family. The scheme was expected to benefit 1 million Zimbabwean households and beneficiaries were obliged to pay back the borrowed maize to GMB once they reap their harvests. USAID BEST (2012) study team heard allegations of corruption related to transport contractors for the GMB's Grain Loan Scheme and allegations of political affiliation being used as criteria in beneficiary selection. USAID BEST (2012) team also revealed that not all communities were aware of this Government of Zimbabwe Program. Government of Zimbabwe benefits and programs' selection typically depend on Local Government officials and traditional village leaders' approvals and the real or perceived political affiliation of individuals or households. ZANU PF supporters and officials are more frequently in control of Food Aid through Local Government Officials and traditional leaders or other groups so that only ZANU PF supporters receive food aid or other forms of assistance. Local communities were obliged to vote a certain way to ensure continued future assistance. Food aid beneficiaries' selection criteria are not typically considered political when resources have been provided by donors compared to resources provided by the Government of Zimbabwe.

While it is a noble gesture to assist communal farmers with inputs under the Presidential Well Wishers Input Scheme and overt shortages of grain through the Grain Loan Scheme the execution of these two exercises has caused a lot of conflicts in rural communities. Government officials and political activists have used these schemes to pursue political agendas and propagate politics of divide and rule, further polarizing the already politically divided communities. A lot of questions have emerged from these interventions the big one being: TO WHOSE BENEFIT HAS IT BEEN? Reports of corruption, mismanagement, the abuse of office, favoritism have dominated the program. Heal Zimbabwe (2012) reported that the unfair distribution was rampant in Muzarabani, Guruve, Buhera, Zaka, Mt Darwin,

Mutoko and Chiweshe that is why this study has picked Mutoko as a case study to evaluate the impact of the program in the district. The scheme which was meant to cushion the needy families mainly in rural areas though for some obvious political reasons some peri-urban settlers mainly from Harare South also benefited. The project has completely diverted from its initial mandate as it has been seriously hijacked by politicians mainly those that belong to ZANU PF and most cases reported to have since declared it a party project.

The 2010 to 2013 agricultural seasons were declared poor ones in terms of rainfall distribution and food shortages in the country are inevitable. There was need to address anomalies in the distribution of food assistance before reports of starvation started to emerge especially in areas that had received little sporadic rainfall. The Grain Loan Scheme was initially supposed to be in a manner that beneficiaries would get grain and some agricultural inputs from GMB and later repay after harvesting. Politicians should be reminded that food relief schemes are meant to cushion the needy and vulnerable people in society regardless of political affiliation. The time of looting is over and people should be accountable in building a better Zimbabwe. Out of the 29 councilors in Mutoko district only 6 are from MDC and said to be just ceremonial councilors when it comes to food distribution programs.

A study launched by the United Nation's Food and Agriculture Organisation (2002) states that there is enough food globally for a growing world population and this situation will continue until 2030 although hundreds of millions of people will remain hungry in developing countries and one sixth of the developing world's population suffer from hunger and fear of starvation. According to the World Hunger (2000) the World Health Organisation estimates that one third of the world is well fed, one third underfed, one third starving and over four million die of hunger every year. According to Knight (1998:p1) the reason for

hunger is poverty which Myers (1999:p81) defines as an absence, deficit or lack of access to social power, powerlessness and lack of freedom to grow. Food is always available to those who can afford it while the poorest remain hungry. People in the world are hungry not because of lack of food but because they do not have ability to acquire it and because distribution is not equitable. The hungry are trapped in severe poverty and they lack the resources to access enough food to nourish them. The following section will give a brief background on food security at international, national, household and individual level.

Background of the study

According to FAO (1996) report, the 1996 World Food Summit report defined food security as existing when all people at all times have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food which meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life. World Food Program (WFP) (2009) shortened the definition by saying it is a condition that exists when all people at all times are free from hunger and famine. Food insecurity on the other hand is a situation of limited or uncertain availability of nutritionally adequate and safe foods and of limited or uncertain ability to acquire acceptable foods in socially acceptable ways according to United States Department of Agriculture. The actual concepts of food security only appeared in the mid-1970s during the 1974 World Food Summit following the global 1973/74 food crisis that left a mark on people's minds.

According to Quizon A. B (2012) the food security concept evolved over thirty years and the initial focus was on physical availability of food regardless of whether people had access to it or not. In 1983 FAO expanded it to include economic access by vulnerable people to available supplies. In 1986 the World Bank elaborated the concept to include the adequacy of food. There was also a shift of focus to rights and entitlements influenced by Amartya Sen's

1981's concept of entitlements during mid-1980s. In mid-1990s there was a concern on food safety and nutritional balance and civil society called for food sovereignty. Food security is affected by factors such as poverty, health, food production, political stability, infrastructure, access to markets and natural hazards. In year 2000 world leaders committed themselves to the Millennium Development Goals whose aim is to eradicate poverty and hunger and to reduce by half the proportion of people who suffer from hunger between 1990 and 2015. The numbers of hungry people in the world is growing at a rate of four million a year and around 820 million people are affected by hunger in developing countries according to FAO (2006) report. Sub Saharan Africa is the most vulnerable region with respect to food security and it will be the food insecurity hotspot in 2020. Each country had an obligation of coming up with a Food and Nutrition Policy to avert the problem of food insecurity and Zimbabwe launched its Food and Nutrition Policy in 2012.

Zimbabwe is ranked amongst the most food insecure countries in SADC region at 13%, Malawi and Swaziland 11%, Angola 10% and Lesotho 39% food insecure. Zimbabwe is primarily an agro based economy and crop production is the main form of livelihood for rural people. It has been a decade since the country recorded bumper harvests. Consecutive drought and poor growing seasons have weakened household resilience to food security shocks and the communities have limited coping mechanisms as most households do not have livestock or other assets that can be disposed to purchase food for consumption. Livestock has been impacted by poor rains with severe shortage of pasture in the drier areas of the country. Water shortages have also affected livestock production as livestock travel long distances to water sources which are drying up. Boreholes in most districts are broken down and in need of rehabilitation. There is limited availability of cash in the rural economy as a result of industry being below 30% capacity and the introduction of multiple currency

economy. This has also made it difficult for households to purchase food for household consumption from retail shops where stocks are available. Affected households are relying on negative coping strategies such as skipping meals, food rationing and school dropout rates have increased attributed to food scarcity.

The Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Report (2012) established a growing food security crisis from December 2012 to March 2013 with estimated 1,667,518 people in need of food assistance. The level of food insecurity for 2012/2013 was a 6% increase from 2011/2012 season where 12% of the rural population was food insecure. The UN OCHA CAP MID YEAR review (2012) reported that maize production declined by 33% with estimated 43% planted crops being recorded as ruined. Chronic malnutrition stood at 32% and 3% respectively. Mutoko district lies in Mashonaland East and the district has been experiencing widespread food shortages as a result of drought. The ZIMVAC report (2012), reported that 29% of people in Mutoko were food insecure and since 2002 non-governmental organizations like Catholic Relief Services, COMMUTECH, Caritas, Plan International and UMCOR have implemented food aid programs in Mutoko District with the support of United Nations World Food Programme. Government has also implemented food security programs like Food for Work Program, Presidential Well Wisher Input Schemes, Grain Loan Schemes, The Grain Marketing Board Monopoly, Government Input Scheme (GIS), Productive Sector Facility (PSFF), Operation Maguta/Inala/Food Security Command Agriculture, Champion Farmers Program, and Subsidized Fuel for Farmers, Zunde Ramambo and Contract Farming to cushion vulnerable people in the district. The district land is also classified into natural regions 2b, 3 and 4 in proportions 15%, 6%, 40.1% and 44.3% respectively which shows that the vast part of the land is in natural region 4 which is not ideal for agriculture. The major proportion of Mutoko communal land falls into natural region 4 and only a small proportion

in the south falls into natural region 3. COOPIBO (1993) described Mutoko communal as overpopulated, overstocked and suffers from serious degradation of soils and overall deterioration of the ecological system. There is high land pressure and the district is experiencing emigration into neighboring Mudzi district. A large proportion of land in Mutoko is now under quarry mining which is eating up land for cultivation and causing serious land degradation. Many able bodied persons are now employed in these quarry mines and there is no labour left for agricultural purposes Mutoko district is divided into 29 wards each with 20 to 30 villages per ward with plus or minus 120 households per village.

It is based on the above that that the Government of Zimbabwe initiated food security policies to address the problems of food insecurity. In 2011 the Government through Grain Marketing Board (GMB) implemented the Grain Loan Scheme (GLS) where selected vulnerable households received 50kgs bag of maize per month and these beneficiaries were expected to reimburse the GMB at the next harvest. The scheme was however unable to reach all the food insecure households due to several reasons which include non -availability of the maize grain at GMB silos and depots, no transporters to transport grain to wards, financial constraints and non- publicity of the program among others. The conditionality of the scheme also required that a household harvests enough grain to repay the GMB and at the same time the household remaining with enough grain for consumption to the next harvest. This GLS programme was based on three pillars, thus:

- a) Increasing the availability of food through domestic production
- b) Ensuring access to food for food deficit households and
- c) Strengthening institutional emergency response capabilities.

The scheme was supposed to benefit close to 1 million households in grain deficit areas. Each household was supposed to be given 50kg bag of maize per month but ward officers and

leadership of ZANU PF in most areas were reported to have blocked all those linked to the MDC from receiving the grain. Those from ZANU PF won contracts to transport the grain to local pick up points and villagers were forced to pay for this to happen. Government had stipulated that villagers only pay \$1 to have their grain transported to a local pick up point but transporters demanded \$4 from the villagers. Each trip with 900 bags would net transporters \$3600 per trip and they would make a lot of money if they made many trips per day. So these transporters were paid by both the government and the beneficiaries themselves. Thus this dissertation seeks to evaluate the effectiveness of the Grain Loan Scheme as one of Government interventions carried out from 2010 to 2014 to address the problems of food insecurity which is vital in assessing the Food Security Policy goal of promoting and ensuring adequate food and nutrition security for all people at all times in Zimbabwe particularly amongst the most vulnerable in line with Zimbabwe's cultural norms and values and the concept of rebuilding and maintaining family dignity and as well as planning for future improvements.

Statement of the problem

A large proportion of the country's population has been affected by chronic and transitory food insecurity. Food security situation in Zimbabwe is linked up to severe, recurring food shortages which are associated to recurrent drought. The people in the communal areas of Mutoko district have been receiving food aid on a yearly basis since 2002 yet there is no demonstrable capacity by the same people to respond to drought using local resources. To reduce dependency the government introduced the Grain Loan Scheme in 2011 to avert the idea of giving free food handouts like Non-Governmental Organisations are doing. There is a growing consensus that food insecurity and poverty problems are closely related. More than 70% of the total population in Zimbabwe live in the rural areas and do not have access to the

medically recommended minimum average daily intake of 2100 calories per day. Although drought plays a significant role in triggering food crisis, the difference in household consumption status between good year and bad year is not enough to claim that drought is the central cause of food insecurity. The majority of the rural people cannot afford to feed themselves and thus have depended on food aid for their survival. Realizing the magnitude and severity of food insecurity and livelihood challenges the government has developed a food security policy guide to improve the livelihood position of the rural people and thereby addressing the problem of food security in the region. Different interventions have been carried out over a long period of time but do these policy interventions achieve intended objectives, do they bring change on the livelihood of the rural poor, or food insecurity in the region continues to grow.

The SW Radio Africa 29 March 2012 reported that the Grain Loan Scheme had been rocked by corruption as politicians from ZANU PF were sabotaging the program by distributing the grain to their supporters worsening the suffering of the poor who were viewed as the opposition. These questions are the rationale for conducting evaluation research to investigate the impacts of the Grain Loan Scheme which is the centerpiece of the regional agenda. The aim of the study is to find out the impact of the Grain Loan Scheme on food security, it seeks to find out whether the rightful beneficiaries benefited, was the food enough to take them through the season and were the intended program objectives of ensuring access to food for food deficit households, increasing availability of food through domestic production and strengthening institutional emergency response capabilities met.

Conceptual framework

The conceptual framework of food security has developed along with the incidence of hunger, famine and malnutrition in developing countries. In the 1970s food security was conceived as adequacy of food supply at global and national levels. This view focused on food production variables and overlooked the multiple forces that affected food access. In 1980s the concept shifted from global and national to household and individual levels. Food security can be chronic thus a constant failure to access food or transitory which is a temporary decline. According to Maxwell and Smith (1992) chronic food insecurity is a sign of poverty which shows a long term structural deficit in food production and lack of purchasing power and transitory food insecurity implies short term variability in food prices, production and income. Degefa (2002) supported by saying transitory food insecurity is a temporal or seasonal shortage of food because of unexpected factors for only a limited period often triggered by seasonal instability in food supply or availability and fluctuation in prices and incomes. The food security concept ranges from micro to macroeconomics and depends on the ability of the population to access food in quantities that satisfy the dietary needs of individuals and households throughout the year. Food security is attributable to a range of vulnerability factors such as the socio economic and political environment, performance of the food economy, care practice and the health and sanitation situation which are also indicators and key vulnerability factors that cause hunger and that should be monitored in assessing food security.

Demographic conditions create vulnerability when size of population exceeds carrying capacity of a particular area. This is the case in Mutoko where it has become overpopulated and this has resulted in pressure on land and resources. Many people have migrated to Mutoko in search of rural farming land and employment on quarry mines. A high proportion

of dependent persons within a family, community, locality or nation also increase the risk of under nourishment for these persons. According to FAO (2000) environmental conditions of people living in areas where natural resource base is poor often have limited opportunities for earning their livelihood. Acts of man lead to pollution and environmental degradation, climatic and geophysical conditions and biological threats create additional risk. As industry expands it takes up arable land and it leads to malnutrition. In Mutoko quarry mining has taken up arable land and also labour. Companies like REDD and Zimbabwe Quarry Company have employed hundreds of able bodied persons within Mutoko district. Economic conditions can also create vulnerability and food insecurity if assets and incomes are distributed inequitably among the population or if private sector investment is inadequate. Food prices, interest rates, inflation rates, labour market conditions, foreign exchange rates and trade balances affect the structure and performance of the national economy which in turn affect food security situation.

According to FAO (2000) political conditions can also affect the food security situation of a nation. Civil conflict can restrict employment and market opportunities, loss, destruction of social and physical infrastructure and also displacement of people. Political demonstrations that have taken place in Zimbabwe have resulted in destruction of property and food commodities as people destroyed shops and looted food commodities. Stay away result in people not going to their places of employment and industrial production declines affecting incomes for people to access food from markets. Social conditions where people have access to social infrastructure such as primary education, health care centres and extension services, serious undernourishment is reduced. People's traditional attitudes influence the kinds of food they eat, the way in which available resources and food are distributed and the kinds of hygiene, food preparation and caring practices that they most commonly follow. According to

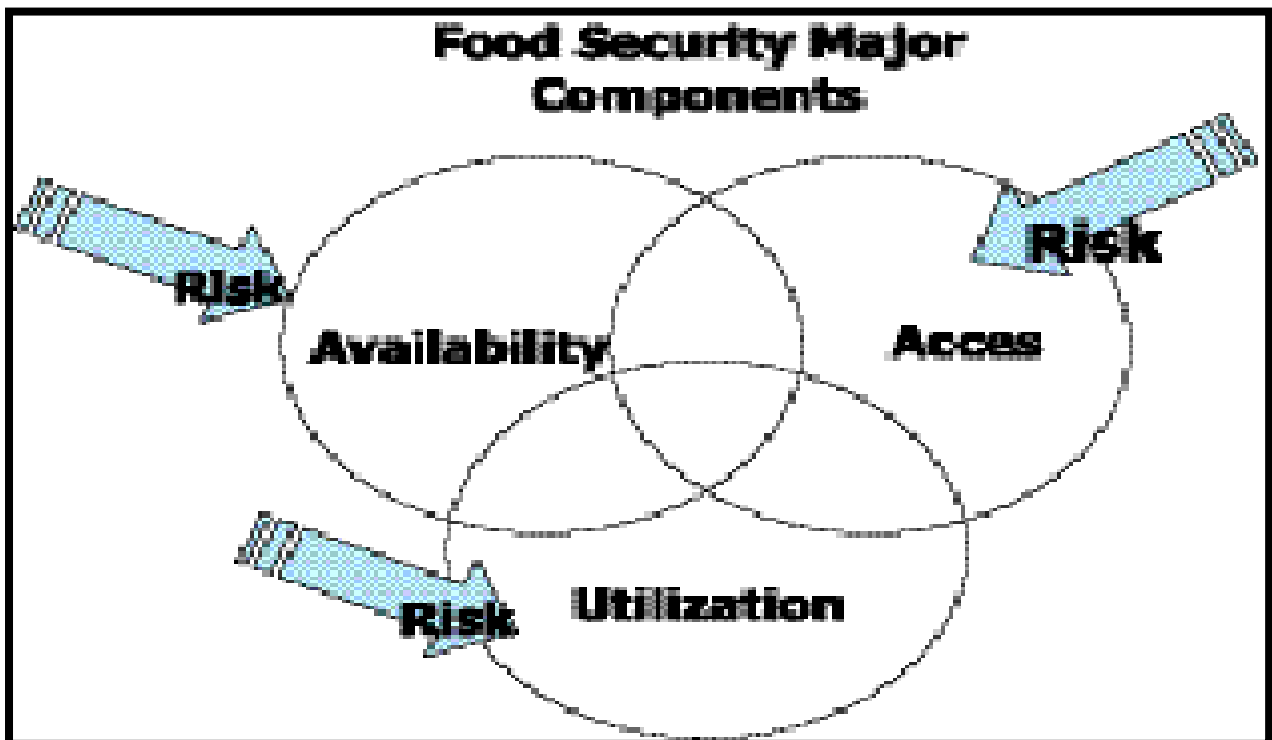
Booth et al (2003) government policy failures or inappropriate development strategies are also responsible for the recurrence of food shortage and famine or under development. A good example is the Fast Track Land Reform Programme which was meant to distribute agricultural land equitably so that everyone produces food for consumption and increase food security at household level for the black majority. This came about after the whites during colonial times had grabbed all the fertile land and forced blacks to live in areas with infertile land in reserves. Instead of people following the proper land allocation procedure people ended up violently grabbing the farms that were once owned by white commercial farmers and some destroyed agricultural equipment which resulted in them not farming on the land and for the few that managed to cultivate their land did not yield much. This resulted in serious food shortages in the country and the President called for food aid from donors and introduced input schemes that were also not very fruitful.

Food security components or dimensions

Food and Nutrition Assistance FANTA (2006:1) defines food security as sufficient quantities of appropriate, necessary types of food from domestic production, commercial imports or donors which are consistently available or in reasonable proximity to individuals. Madziakapita, Abifarin and Asante (2004:9) regard food **availability** as the physical availability of food in the proximity of the household while Tweeten and McClelland (1997:226) view it as the supply of food present from production, imports and stocks. Runge et al (2003:14) and the World Food Summit discovered that today's supply of food is more than enough for everyone but the problem lays in general food availability linked to distribution. Problems of distribution may be caused by lack of transport, inefficient market structure, political instability and war. Benson (2004:8) notes that food availability is a necessity but is not sufficient to ensure food security for a household without access. **Access**

to food is determined by the ability of a household or individual to obtain food from own production, purchases and other resources such as gifts, government transfers and food aid. Tweeten and McClelland (1999:226) point out that food accessibility is the effective demand to acquire available food from earnings or as transfers from others. According to Runge et al (2003:15) people lack access to food because of war, inadequate income and political disadvantages. Food production does not equate to food security according to Benson (2004:8). Sanchez et al (2005:2) adds that people go hungry despite abundant world food supply because they cannot obtain food of sufficient quantity or quality because of poverty. For the rural household productive resources are required together with sufficient labour, tools and the necessary income to acquire the food that they are not able to produce. **Utilization** of food is through adequate diet, clean water, sanitation and health care to reach a state of well-being to meet all physiological needs. According to Tweeten and McClelland (1997: 226) food utilization refers to the human body's actually making use of the nutrients in food that is consumed properly digested and absorbed. According to FANTA (2006) food utilization occurs when there are proper food processing and storage practices, adequate knowledge and application of nutrition and child care and adequate health and sanitation services. **Stability** refers to both **availability** and **access** dimensions of food security and individuals must have access to food at all times. The diagram below shows the main food security components:

Figure 1: Major Food Security Components



Source: FANTA (2006)

Theoretical framework

Sustainable Livelihoods Approach has been adopted to look at development issues and addressing food insecurity and poverty. The need to put the poor and all aspects of their lives and means of living at the centre of development while maintain the sustainability of natural resources for present and future generations necessitated the adoption of the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach. According to Chambers and Conway (1991) a livelihood comprises the capabilities, material and social assets and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future while not undermining the natural resources base. Household Livelihood Security is also defined by Frankenburger (1992) as adequate and sustainable access to income and resources to meet basic needs

including access to food and potable water, health facilities, educational opportunities, housing, time for community participation and social integration.

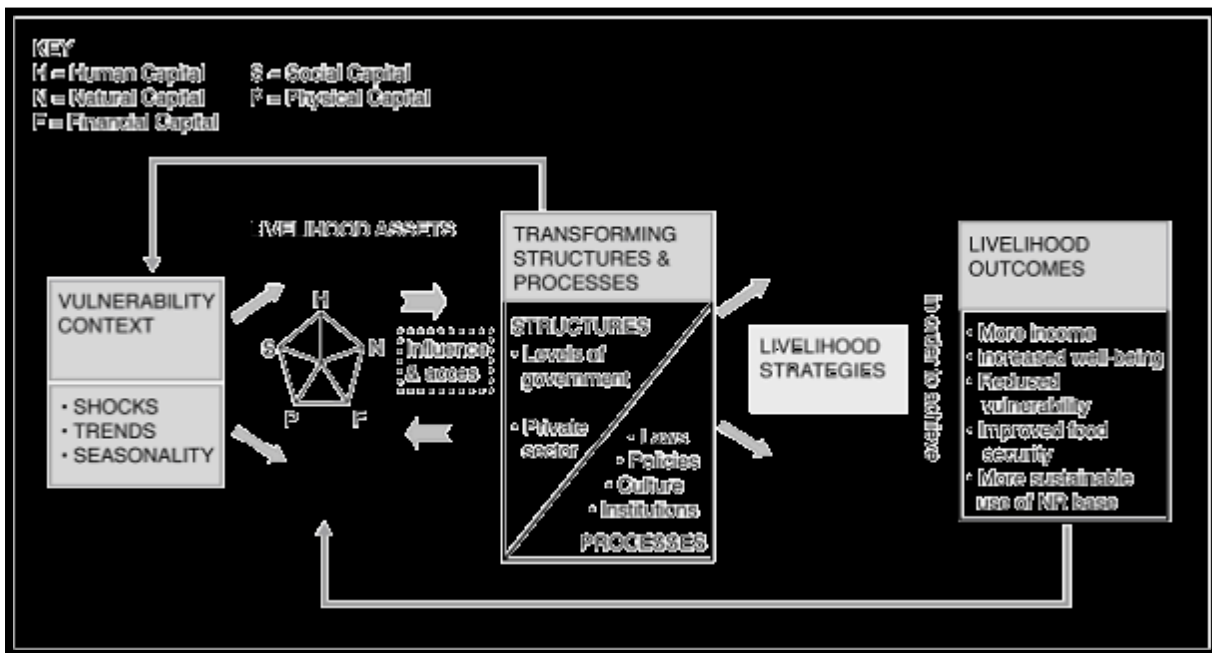
The Livelihoods Framework helps explain how wider policies, institutions and processes affect local livelihoods. Policies, strategies and their implementation must recognize local differences and must identify local priorities to deal with so that they can impact positively and bring desirable outcomes such as increased resilience to disaster risks and increased food and livelihood security. Ashley and Carney (1999) refers to vulnerability context which describes trends and variability in factors that affect and disrupt different aspects of livelihoods which include trends and shocks. Trends include population pressure, environmental degradation and lack of rainfall which have affected Mutoko district. Shocks refer to factors like crop or livestock pests and diseases, illness and conflicts. Carney (1998) noted that there are five dominant forms of livelihood assets namely natural capital (natural resource stock), social political capital (networks, membership of groups and access to wider institutions of society), human capital (skills, knowledge and good health), physical capital (basic infrastructure and production equipment), financial capital (savings, supplies of credit and other financial resources). The nature and operation of government in this study will include the impact of policies on people's access to resources, policies and strategies for food and livelihood security and their implementation processes.

Karl (2002) highlighted that policy priorities of the poor will be realized more effectively if they have the capacity to articulate their demands and influence the policy process which is rarely achieved in many programs because in most cases programs are imposed on vulnerable individuals without their consent. Social sustainability has two dimensions, the negative dimension is reactive coping with stress and shocks, and the positive dimension is proactive

enhancing and exercising capabilities in adapting to exploiting and creating change and assuring continuity. Policies strategies and programmes for household livelihood security must recognize that people have different strategies and should incorporate people's own definition of desirable outcomes. The active participation of people is essential in a livelihood framework.

The Sustainable Livelihood Framework is a tool to improve our understanding of livelihoods particularly the livelihoods of the poor. According to Carmey (1998) it links sustainable livelihoods to basic human needs, food security, sustainable agricultural practices and general poverty reduction. The variables that come into play include the vulnerability context of the poor marked by shocks, trends seasonality which the livelihood assets whose influence and access help in transforming structures and processes like governance systems and social institutions. The advantage of the SLF is that it provides a holistic framework to assess the sustainability of livelihood strategies adopted by poor people like those resident in Mutoko district. People come first and are at the centre of development, hence the need to support their livelihood strategies. It also helps to identify other strengths which can be present within the community that can be developed and utilized for the good of the community instead of depending on food aid. It is also ideal for planning interventions, reviewing and evaluating projects, research, policy analysis and development.

Figure 2: DFID Sustainable Livelihood Framework



Source: DFID, (1999)

Policy impact evaluation

Legovini (2006) noted that the impact of a program or policy is the amount of change in any outcome which is caused by a program or policy. Impact evaluation help identify the causal link between outputs and outcome and are required to inform policy makers and the public on which actions have been effective and which ones have not worked so well in reducing food insecurity and poverty. The main aim of the impact evaluation is to measure whether a particular program has achieved its desired goals, to do this outcomes with the program are measured and compared to outcomes without the program. Metz M (2002) noted that the impact of food security policies is assessed by looking at its impact on a variety of different aspects of food security using the food security core indicators thus increased stability of food supply (stable food production systems and increased food stock), increased availability of food (increase in food production and efficient food marketing), access to all for supplies (increased income of the poor and increased employment opportunities and more effective food utilization (increased food consumption and reduced malnutrition)

Research objectives

Main objective

The main research objective was to analyse and evaluate the impact of the Grain Loan Scheme as a food security policy in ensuring rural food security and poverty reduction in Mutoko district in Mashonaland East of Zimbabwe from year 2010 to 2014.

Specific objectives

- To evaluate the impact of the Grain Loan Scheme in ensuring food security
- To analyse the effect of other external factors in ensuring food security
- To analyse the causes of food insecurity in Zimbabwe and in Mutoko district
- Investigate the Zimbabwe government's approach to food aid and food security
- To propose food aid programming which improves food security

Research questions

- What is the impact of the policy in alleviating rural food security
- Did the policy achieve the intended goal
- What is the contribution of other factors in ensuring food security
- What are the underlying causes of food insecurity
- Is there any relation of food insecure areas with low and unreliable rainfall, high population density and low resource endowments
- What are the coping mechanisms and survival strategies used by food insecure households to mitigate the impact of food shortage
- What is the Government's approach to food aid and food security
- What recommendations can be introduced to promote viable and sustainable options for communities

Literature review

Literature review discusses to what extent other researchers have been involved in the topic. It brings out other researchers' contributions to the problem under investigation. The literature review also facilitates the choice of suitable methods that will be used in data collection and analysis. According to Haslam (1990:15), literature review is a very important step that determines the success or failure of the research. Thus, the literature research is useful in that it promotes a better understanding of the problem. It is important to know what others have done before embarking on the research.

Leedy, P.D. and Ormrod, J.E (2005:69) came up with the observation that the review of related literature could:

- i. Reveal investigations similar to ones own, and could show how the collateral researcher handled these situations.
- ii. Suggest a method or technique of dealing with a problematic situation which might also suggest avenues of approach to the solution of similar difficulties.
- iii. Reveal one's sources of data and provide one with new ideas.

Therefore literature review helps one to delimit the problem and avoid generalization. It introduces new approaches towards solving the problem and helps one to avoid errors in planning one's research. It also suggests how ideas can be improved and it acquaints one with new sources of data.

The review aims at generating and selecting a research topic and expanding the understanding and broadening the knowledge and perspective of the topic and at the same time reaching researchable and well defined questions for the research. This review is divided into four segments. The segments include literature related to the key aspects of food aid,

then food security and its components, then government interventions in Ethiopia, Malawi and Zimbabwe and arguments for and against food security in general.

According to Thompson A.A. and Strickland in *Strategic Management* (1996:241) ‘Implementing strategy entails converting the organisations strategic plan into action and then into results’. The literature review will cover theory work on food aid interventions globally and internationally, it will also look at food security issues globally and nationally and also look at government interventions in food security. The research will explore case studies of government interventions in Ethiopia and Malawi, their successes and failures. It will also cover articles written on the reasons for policy successes and failures. The review will also cover opportunities and challenges in Zimbabwe. Literature review will also include summaries of previous research and dissertations, journals, internet, primary documents like circulars, articles and reports in food security and food aid. Implementation involves changes in structure, culture and realignment of resources. Literature review will look at these aspects and what various authors say about food security and government policies. Implementation involves taking advantage of the existing opportunities whilst minimizing on challenges.

According to the consolidated Appeals Process 2007 food shortages as a result of drought is one of the major threats to the nation of Zimbabwe together with the HIV and AIDS prevalence and unprecedented economic decline. More than 40% of the Zimbabwean population faced hunger and required food aid. Chambers (1997) raises issues of dependency that may emanate from protracted assistance especially NGOs and suggests that affected communities should participate in identification of needs, planning, implementation and evaluation of programs. This is important in ensuring capacity building for the communities and sustainability of projects. Communities should participate in strategies that help in ensuring food security. The 2011/2012 Income and Consumption survey PICES estimated

that the head count of poor rural households in Zimbabwe was at 76% in 2011. The proportion of extremely poor rural households in 2011 was 22, 9% according to ZimStat (2013). According to FAO (2001) food security at the individual, household, national regional and global levels is achieved when all people at all times have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritional food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for a healthy and active life.

In Zimbabwe, Vulnerable Group Feeding (VGF) is offered for four months (January to April) during the hunger period, but the subsequent complexity of the disaster has necessitated otherwise. WFP responded to 1.4 million people at a cost of US\$83million for the 2011/2012 agricultural season. According to the ZIMVAC 2011 report USAID provided US\$18.5 million to meet Zimbabwe's food needs. People resorted to negative coping mechanisms like prostitution, child labour, sell off assets, animal rustling, poaching and deforestation. Some relief programs have slowly replaced direct food handouts with more market oriented strategies that include programs requiring recipients to deliver a portion of their harvest in exchange for inputs or vouchers redeemable for inputs sold through retail shops or seed and other agricultural produce shows or fares where commercial farmers and informal traders exchange vouchers for seed supplied. Government also moved from free food handouts to labour based food aid to grain loan schemes and input subsidies which also reduced dependency.

Background

According to Sullivan (s.a) South America, South Asia, Central and Southern Africa have had high prevalence of hunger and starvation. Niger, Haiti, Horn of Africa, Afghanistan, Pakistan, North Korea, Democratic Republic of Congo and Southern Africa were hot spots suffering the greatest starvation in 2006. Sullivan (s.a) highlighted that 17% of the world population were malnourished or facing starvation. Some parts of the world produce food

commodities in excess whilst others experience shortfalls due to differences in climatic conditions, economic, industrial and technological developments. According to FAO Trade Policy in 1950s, the accumulation of surpluses in developed countries led to the idea of disposing the surplus to developing countries to improve the food security situation in those countries and at the same time guarding the interest of commercial exporters and local producers.

The United Nations World Food Program (WFP) was established under the joint auspices of the United Nations and FAO which marked the beginning of food aid. Food aid donors signed the Food Aid Convention in 1967 whose aim was to enhance the capacity of the international community to respond to food aid needs. According to the African Green Revolution, a combination of low agricultural productivity and adverse environment has made Africa the prime recipient of food aid. According to Shapori and Rosen (2004) the World Food Summit in 1996 targeted to reduce the world number of hungry people by half by 2015 but they are far from reaching the target.

Food Aid

Food aid is defined as help or assistance given to an individual, family, community or nation in need which can come in the form of money or in kind such as food, clothes, medicine, equipment, agriculture inputs and professional expertise. Food aid can also be referred to as food assistance granted to governments, institutions or households to curb food shortages. It may be a government to government grant to make food imports cheaper or it may be a government to NGO grant or donation for free distribution through food distribution points or supplementary feeding. According to the Food Aid Charter the general objective of food aid is to help support food security by addressing timely manner problems arising from food

shortages or deficits whether they are caused by structural deficiencies or crises situations calling for emergency actions. Food aid focuses on saving lives, fulfilling a human right to food including that it should be nutritionally adequate, protecting assets especially human health and to facilitate growth of productive assets where food availability and local market performance are limiting. Shelton ed (2005) supported by stating that the original objective of food aid is alleviation of poverty and hunger for most of the vulnerable groups and consistent with agricultural development in those countries. About half the world's population lives on less than \$2 a day and about 800 million go to sleep hungry on any given day. Raffer and Singer (1996:80) point out that food aid represents much more than 10% of the total aid flows to the poorer countries particularly in Africa and is more concentrated than financial aid.

There are three types of food aid which are emergency food aid, project food aid and programme food aid. **Emergency food aid** is intended to respond to immediate humanitarian needs of the people affected by manmade or natural disaster. It is a targeted distribution which ensures that food reaches those most vulnerable as well as mitigating potential market distortions resulting from competition between food aid and commercially available food. WFP administers a bigger share of emergency food aid in the world. **Project food aid** is provided in the form of grants and resources used in a variety of development projects. Where food aid is provided some or all of it is sold in markets to generate funds to cover project costs and finance related development activities. **Programme food aid** is when food is given or sold from one government to another. The recipient government then monetizes the food aid to generate funds to finance domestic activities. According to Shelton ed (2005) emergency food aid represents 60% of food aid while project food aid represents 20% and programme food aid represents 20%. Food aid can be an important resource for furthering the development of poor food insecure communities provided that it is used appropriately or in a

way that do no harm.

According to Makenete et al (1998:252) food aid was started in the 1950s as a way to dispose of a surplus production of crops in the United States and this method has since evolved conceptually, politically and institutionally. According to Rupiya (2004:83) the African continent is the only region in the world that has not been able to feed itself since mid-1970s. FIVIMS (2006) estimated that approximately 826 million people are undernourished, 792 are in the developing world and 34 million in the developed world. WFP has provided free school lunches and the school feeding programme have helped 21.7 million children in 74 countries.

Food Security

The World Bank defined food security as secure access by all people at all times to enough food for a healthy active life. The World Food Summit of 1996 defined food security as 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. Sanchez et al (2005:11) defined 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. The poor do not usually have adequate means to gain access to food in the required quantities.

Arguments for and against food aid

Advocates for food aid include Shaw (2001), Ruttan (1993) and Silj (1997) and food aid opponents include Shah (2003), Raffer and Singer (1996) and the EU (2000). According to Shaw (2001) the WFP believes that because of the increase in hunger around the world, food

aid and other forms of assistance will be required in years ahead on a growing scale. In Botswana, Lesotho, Mauritius, Swaziland and many other countries food aid has contributed to school feeding programs whereby children are fed at school after arriving with empty stomachs. According to Nurske if food aid were used to help underemployed labour to build infrastructure (food for work) for instance it could contribute to one fourth of investment cost and ease the foreign exchange gap resulting from the responsiveness of domestic supply to rising demand during the initial stages of development. Lavy (1990:1) says that food aid has a significant positive effect on food production and any disincentive induced by the additional supply of food is offset by the positive effects. Maunder (2006) supported this by highlighting that food aid may increase net household incomes and release resources for investment in agricultural inputs. According to Makenete et al (1998:253) food aid improves food security by providing a means of protection and a way to raise the dietary status, nutrition and consumption of the poor.

Shah (2003:1) regards food aid as a means for wealthy nations to dump surplus production for free on poorer nations. Food aid is seen as for the benefit of US and European countries as principal beneficiaries of the food aid operations. Giroux (2001: 277) agrees with Shah that under the pretense of humanitarian assistance of food aid distribution the US and Europe found an opportunity to get rid of their unwanted surpluses. Food aid is being given for economic reasons as a tool for penetrating the market and enhancing exports for American producers. Cathie (1997) and Shah (2003) view food aid as a political weapon and a commercial enterprise. Food aid contributes to the disruption of local markets and loss of jobs in recipient countries. The European Commission supports this by saying that providing food in kind may have adverse effects by disrupting local markets and eating habits, reducing beneficiaries' sense of responsibility and increasing the economic inefficiency of the country.

Maunder (2006) highlighted that the supply of food aid increases domestic food supplies, leading to a fall in product prices and disincentives to domestic agriculture production which in turn perpetuates the requirement for food aid. Food aid is unfair to under pay defeated colonial societies but to continue to sell their labour and resources cheaply to the overpaid industrial societies that overwhelmed them. The US lends governments money to buy food and then forces them to export their natural resources to repay the debt. Food aid is criticized for promoting an undesirable shift in consumption patterns away from traditional local staple food towards the commodities supplied as food aid especially wheat flour and dairy products. Countries are being encouraged to source food aid from neighboring countries in order to avoid being forced to accept genetically modified food from America. Food aid creates dependency as it motivates recipient governments to use food aid as an alternative to the much more difficult task of increasing food production. While others believe that food aid is a solution to world hunger and has a positive effect on food security others believe that food aid does more harm than good as it is a commercial and political endeavor on the part of wealthy countries and results in damage to the food security of recipient countries.

Coping strategies

Households are not passive victims of food shortage; they try to implement different strategies to handle the stress situation. The main strategies used by rural communities in Mutoko district are selling of assets, petty trading, wood selling and agriculture diversification. The selling of available assets including livestock repeatedly as a coping strategy weaken household's resource base and exposes them to permanent food insecurity as it will take years to recover these assets. Farmers try to increase their agricultural production by cultivating two crops in one season or use irrigation. Some of the strategies are out migration, social networks and support from relatives or friends, daily labour, food aid and

reducing number of meals consumed per day. Many people have been depending on food aid as a standard response to transitory food insecurity like drought emergencies. Some even resort to begging.

Realizing the magnitude and severity of food insecurity challenge the government has developed the Food and Nutrition Policy to address the problem of food insecurity in the country. Different programs have been carried out since 2000 to address food insecurity at household level. Government interventions carried out to achieve food security is necessary to evaluate as to how these intervention mechanisms are effective in addressing food insecurity

Justification and Significance of the Research

The above mentioned problems are common to developing countries and findings of this research will contribute to the application of policy design and analysis in evaluating the effectiveness of the policy which is viewed as a basic tool for monitoring progress. Despite its usefulness critical evaluation of policy effectiveness is not carried out in many developing countries like Zimbabwe and in particular Mutoko district. The study acknowledges the existence of a body of knowledge and literature on the subject of food aid and food security. It is hoped that as a result of this study the research will suggest more sustainable food aid interventions that will not only reduce dependency but will mitigate against future hunger, poverty and negative effects of climate change. The study will help challenge humanitarian agencies, government and local communities to begin to engage and interact for the common good of all citizens. Increased participation of beneficiary communities in programs that will benefit them will result in sustainable interventions. It will contribute to improved capacities and resilience against future drought and related disasters. It is however in this regard that the

researcher intends to carry out a study so as to evaluate the impact of the Grain Loan Scheme in two wards in Mutoko district in ensuring food security. The impact can be negative or positive. While the datasets and findings of the research are particular to the study area the evaluation of the impact of the Grain Loan Scheme and the results of the study can be applied elsewhere.

Research Methodology

This section deals with the research methodology that was used in this research. This was largely a qualitative research which would help to extract the views of the people who were involved in the program. The main areas looked at are research design, sampling and data collection procedures. The research design technique that was used was one case study. Two big wards were studied out of the 29 wards in Mutoko district. The two wards are the most food insecure wards in the district. A questionnaire is a document containing a list of pertinent questions for an enquiry. 45 questionnaires were administered to targeted households in the wards to find out their opinion on the effectiveness of the Grain Loan Scheme Program after implementation. Households were randomly selected and a questionnaire was administered to selected households. Interviews were held with the Ministry of Local Government, Public Works and National Housing and the Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanization and Irrigation Development to find out what they intended to achieve by implementing the Grain Loan Scheme and their views on the program. Another questionnaire was administered to the Mutoko District Administrator and the Chief Executive Officer to find out what opportunities they have taken advantage of and what their implementation challenges were. GMB was also targeted to find out their levels of understanding and appreciation of their role in implementing the program. Reports were collected from the Ministry of Local Government, the Ministry of Agriculture,

Mechanization and Irrigation Development and Grain Marketing Board. Electronic mail was sent to selected individuals to notify them of the intended research and what information was required.

Research design

A research is a systematic, controlled empirical and critical investigation of hypothetical propositions about the presumed relations among natural phenomena. Leedy D. and Ormrod J.E. (2005:12), define research, “as a systematic process of collecting, analyzing and interpreting information (data) in order to increase our understanding of the phenomenon about which we are interested or concerned.” Research design deals with the methods of the research that were used. In this case, a single case study method was used. This method was chosen so as to try and understand the system of action of a whole through studying two wards within a district. The research has focused on a single case study for its unique or exceptional qualities and results can be applied elsewhere thus in districts that were under the Grain Loan Scheme during the same period.

Advantages and disadvantages of using case studies

A case study is advantageous because it will document the area of interest. It will bring out the behaviors, events and processes occurring in the rural communities. The case study research design involves some applied analysis of the matter. The advantages are that most of the material from case studies will be original. It is a developmental research method that looks at what has happened. No formal sampling process was used to select the cases as they were chosen because of their relevance. The other advantages of case studies are that they provide answers to why and how certain things happen. They also give a chronological chain of events. Each event can be assessed and its challenges and opportunities clearly stated.

The case study can also provide rich details and information that can be used immediately in solving the case problems. Those who failed to implement the program can use those cases of countries that have done well as a yardstick, thereby providing solutions and direction. The case study design also has its own problems. It is time consuming. In this case, one has to study the whole case chronologically. Generalizing the results also presents limitations as not all districts are in the same region or have the same culture.

Object of the study

The object of the study is the case study of two wards in Mutoko district in Zimbabwe. The wards were studied with the objectives of finding out their views on government funded interventions. They were also studied in order to find out whether the Grain Loan Scheme served a useful purpose. Implementation calls for buy-in by the workers and also the stakeholders and the study sought to find out how much commitment and level of understanding existed in these communities with regards to food aid and food security. This case study will also assist in unraveling the challenges and opportunities existing for districts in Zimbabwe in their implementation of government policy programs. The study sought to add value to food aid programs by bringing out whether the Grain Loan Scheme was a vital tool in improving the livelihoods of the rural poor people and highlight areas that need attention and improvement.

Scope of the study

Study Area

The study concentrated in two wards of Mutoko District thus wards 18 and 19. The aspects deliberated on analyzing the distribution plans for compliance. It looked at what the district

authorities have done in order to implement the programme according to agreed guidelines. The study elaborated the successes and failures the local authorities and communities have encountered during the implementation of the program.

Study Unit

The units of study were the Chief Executive Officer, the District Administrator and GMB Manager and AGRITEX Manager who were responsible for implementing this program. It also focused on non-governmental organizations operating in the district thus Plan International and COMMUTECH then the main stakeholders who are the beneficiaries themselves. The Ministry of Local Government and the Ministry of Agriculture were studied to establish their involvement in implementing the program. The study sought to establish whether they are providing opportunities to foster implementation or they are impeding factors.

Sampling

Sampling involves identifying a subset of the target population from whom information can be gathered. Wagner (1997:56) explains that a sample is a small proportion of a population selected for observation and analysis. The districts which were under the Grain Loan Scheme Program and had reports of political affiliation were selected purposively. Also proximity to Harare was considered to reduce costs. Purposive sampling was applied to the people to be interviewed. "Purposeful sampling selects individuals that will yield the most information about the topic under investigation." (Leedy, P.D. and Ormrod, J.E. 2005:145). Respondents were selected according to own judgment. That is key people who deal with rural community programs were chosen for interviews. This has the advantage that it targets people with a lot of information on the subject matter for example the District Administrator and the Chief

Executive Officer are responsible for all programs that take place in the district and have knowledge of the area at the tip of their fingers. The only disadvantage of this method is that it is subjective as one tends to favor those you have dealt with before.

Convenience sampling was used to respondents from the wards. Households that benefited from the Grain Loan Scheme during the study period are the ones who were given the questionnaire to fill in. The advantage is that it cuts down costs and also reduces the chances of giving questionnaires to non-beneficiaries. The shortcoming of this procedure is that it might miss out some sectors of the population especially if it's a segmented community. Dimensional sampling could have been used as it involves studying the whole population and then including the sample of all factors of the population. This method was discarded as it could have taken more time, yet the research period is very limited.

Sample Size

The sample size was restricted to people who benefited from the Grain Loan Scheme so as to cut down on costs. This sampling might not capture all the strata in the district, meaning that the results might be biased. In-depth interviews were administered to at least one official of each organization who dealt with the Grain Loan Scheme. Forty (44) questionnaires were distributed to beneficiaries from the two wards thus 22 in ward 18 and 22 questionnaires in ward 19. 6 questionnaires were administered to the District Administrator, AGRITEX Manager, GMB Mutoko GMB Manager and GMB head office, Ministry of Local Government and Ministry of Agriculture and Mechanization. Thus a total of 50 questionnaires were administered to respondents in this research.

Research Instruments

These are tools used to collect and analyse data during the research like questionnaires.

Questionnaire Design and Administration

The questionnaire is an observation method. According to Nachmias and Nachmias (1989:p96) observational method of data collection are suitable for investigating phenomena that can be observed by the researcher. However, not all phenomena are accessible to the investigator's direct observation and very often; the researcher has to collect data by asking people who have experienced certain phenomena using questionnaires. This method was used in Mutoko because the Grain Loan Scheme ended beginning of 2014 and the researcher was not able to observe but to use questionnaires to collect data from those who participated in the program.

The questionnaires were structured in such a way as to follow a logical sequence. For interviews, a questionnaire was prepared with all the three types of questions suitable for interviews. Closed questions where the interviewee chooses responses from given alternatives. Open ended questions were also asked to avoid restrictions on the content or manner of the reply other than the subject area. Questionnaires will be attached at the back as appendix. On the other hand, these open-ended questions pose difficulty when analyzing. Probing was also used where it was felt that more information could be given on expanding the responses.

Self-completed questionnaires were also used for local authorities and non-governmental organizations, and beneficiaries. The advantages of using these are many. They are efficient and effective. They are also time-saving for the researcher in terms of filling in. The copies can be sent through mail or internet or fax to the respondent though this might pose a

problem if mailing list is not up to date. Questionnaires can be used for large samples. Respondents have the leeway to take their time in considering their responses. Since one is not face to face then interviewer bias is eliminated. It also makes the interviewee feel anonymous and may give more honest responses. Self-completed questionnaires have their own shortfalls in that at times respondents fill in and omit some of the questions which might be important to the research. The commitment of the respondent is important to the successful return of the questionnaire on time. People do not like filling in open ended questionnaires and this may result in the reduction of returned responses. Under this method there is also no room for probing further as there might be no face to face contact. Some respondents with little reading and writing skills might not respond. For this research, all questionnaires were taken to the field and interviews were done face to face. Generally, there is a low response rate on self-completed questionnaires. Face to face questionnaires provide an opportunity for the interviewer to explain any question which was not understood by the respondent easily or ambiguous. The interviewer could also follow up questions and was able to make assessments from facial and other expressions of the respondent. Questionnaires generated information on the contribution of the GLS to the total household food consumed. Change in livelihood activities undertaken following the introduction of GLS, perception on capability of food aid to promote livelihood activities and anticipation for continued food aid.

Pre - testing of Questionnaire

The questionnaire was tested to find out if it was clear and appropriate. The test was for language use and clarity. Modifications were done to make it easy for beneficiaries to answer the questions. Beneficiaries will obviously prefer a questionnaire in vernacular as most of them are illiterate and translation would be required. Therefore the questionnaire for beneficiaries was further simplified to allow for more responses.

In-depth Interview

In-depth semi-structured interviews were carried out with an official from the Ministry of Local Government and Ministry of Agriculture to ascertain their embracement of the program and their assessment of how well the program has been implemented. Interviews were also held with the GMB depot manager to get an overview of the program, its opportunities and challenges and to ascertain whether the department had achieved its objectives or not and why. E-mails were sent to the selected individuals to notify them of the intended research and what information would be required. Some of the interviewees were telephoned to book appointments for the interview.

Advantages and disadvantages of in- depth Interviews

In-depth interviews are a primary data collection technique. It is kind of observation for the specific purpose of obtaining research relevant information. The advantages are that it is a face to face interaction and offers the possibility of modifying one's line of investigation during the proceedings. Follow up questions can also be asked. It also has the advantage of flexibility. Its disadvantages are that flexibility is only possible if the interviewer is experienced. Bias is difficult to rule out. Lack of standardization raises doubts of reliability. Interviews are time consuming as anything under an hour will not yield much. It is also cumbersome as one has to seek permission, confirm arrangements, rescheduling of appointments is at times unavoidable, and the need to write up notes. The interview types used in this research were semi structured. The semi structured interview has the advantage of having questions prepared in advance but with an option to modify their order, based on the perception of what seems most appropriate in the context of the conversation. It allows one to change the wording, leave out certain questions and even add new questions.

Official records and documents

Official records and documents can be another source of information. Data was also collected by extracting information from existing documents. In this case local authorities and ministries have files on the Grain Loan Scheme which were perused for information of interest. The advantages are that the data is easily available and access time is short as it is within the workplace and finally less costly to get.

Delimitation

The research was confined to the 29 wards of Mutoko District. It made use of a sample of two wards in the district and was meant to find out the effectiveness of policies on food security. The evaluation was done in Mutoko and field research was limited to the geographical area of Mutoko. The study focused on two wards in Mutoko district thus wards 18 and 19 which are in natural region 4. These wards have experienced protracted food insecurity situation and rank as the most vulnerable under the World Food Programme food security ranking. Widest coverage of households receiving food handouts is from the two targeted wards. The wards experience uniformity of climate, ecological conditions, population distribution and the target area made it easier to find a sample representation. The study collected data using questionnaires, interviews, and secondary data sources from the DA's office, AGRITEX, the ward councilors, community leadership, GMB, Ministry of Local Government and NGOs operating in Mutoko district. The study confined itself to a time frame of 5 years from 2010 to 2014.

The researcher encountered financial problems to finance the project. Money was required for transport, accommodation, stationery, allowances for the research assistants as well as for airtime. To overcome this challenge the researcher mobilized funds from well-wishers who

will appreciate the outcome of the research. Time is also another limitation to this research because the time that was required for this research was limited. Resistance by the stakeholders and participants to provide information was also another limitation to this research for example GMB head office did not want to avail their monthly narrative reports but only availed cumulative statistics. The researcher had to explain to the stakeholders that the information will be strictly for research purposes that is when they availed the information verbally.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations are a set of rules or standard that guides the moral conduct and the way in which a person behaves. They help to promote the aims of research such as knowledge truth and error avoidance. Fabrication and falsification are avoided during research. Respondents are respected and the researcher is accountable for every action. The researcher first sought authority from the district offices to carry out research by introducing the research topic and objectives. The researcher explained the benefits of the research to the community and the authorities. Authority was also sought from the ward councilors, chiefs and headman before talking to beneficiaries. Objectives of the research were also explained to beneficiaries and they were notified that names and identification will be kept private and confidential. Beneficiaries were treated with the respect they deserve and participants were allowed to participate voluntarily according to the humanitarian sphere standards.

Structure of the dissertation

Introduction

This section introduces the topic and gives a brief background to the study which is an evaluation of the impact of the Grain Loan Scheme which was introduced by the government of Zimbabwe in 2010 on the food security situation of vulnerable rural population of Mutoko

district. It explores the statement of the problem which is that different interventions have been carried out over a long period of time but these policy interventions seem not to achieve intended objectives, do they bring change on the livelihood of the rural poor, or food insecurity in the region continues to grow. The theoretical framework and conceptual framework of food security are also examined. This chapter also highlights the research objectives, research questions, preliminary literature review, justification and significance of the research, research methodology, and delimitation of the study, ethical considerations, structure of the dissertation and a summary of the chapter.

Chapter 1

This chapter explores the overview of the food security situation. It looks at the history of the food aid and food security situation at global level then national to household and individual levels. The food security concept is reviewed together with its concepts and evolution. The causes of food insecurity are also reviewed in their different forms. Malthus and Amartya Sen theories are also explored in connection with food security. The food security situation in Zimbabwe and Mutoko are also looked at. The chapter introduces the GLS which will be explored in the following chapter.

Chapter 2

Chapter two looks at the implementation of the Grain Loan Scheme in Zimbabwe particularly in Mutoko district. It looks at the food and nutrition policy and framework to be incorporated in the Food and Nutrition Policy that was launched in 2012. It explores the overall contribution of the GLS in Zimbabwe and Mutoko district. Effects of drought and coping mechanisms are also explored. It also reviews government interventions that were implemented in the country to address food insecurity and it looks at Ethiopia and Malawi as

case studies of countries that have implemented government interventions reviewing their successes and challenges. Impacts of the Grain Loan Scheme in Mutoko district are explored in this chapter.

Chapter 3

This chapter looks at the challenges experienced in the Grain Loan Scheme and the prospects for food security in Mutoko district. It also attempts to look at the solutions to the problems and recommendations for further research.

Conclusion

The section gives a brief overview of the research and its conclusion.

Summary

This chapter endeavored to give a background of the problem that is the Impact of the Grain Loan Scheme on food security considering targeting issues and political interventions and outcomes of the program. It explained the justification and significance of the study and research objectives. It also gave the conceptual and theoretical framework of the study, the research questions, ethical considerations and delimitation of the study. The next chapter will give an overview of the food security and food aid concepts and their origins.

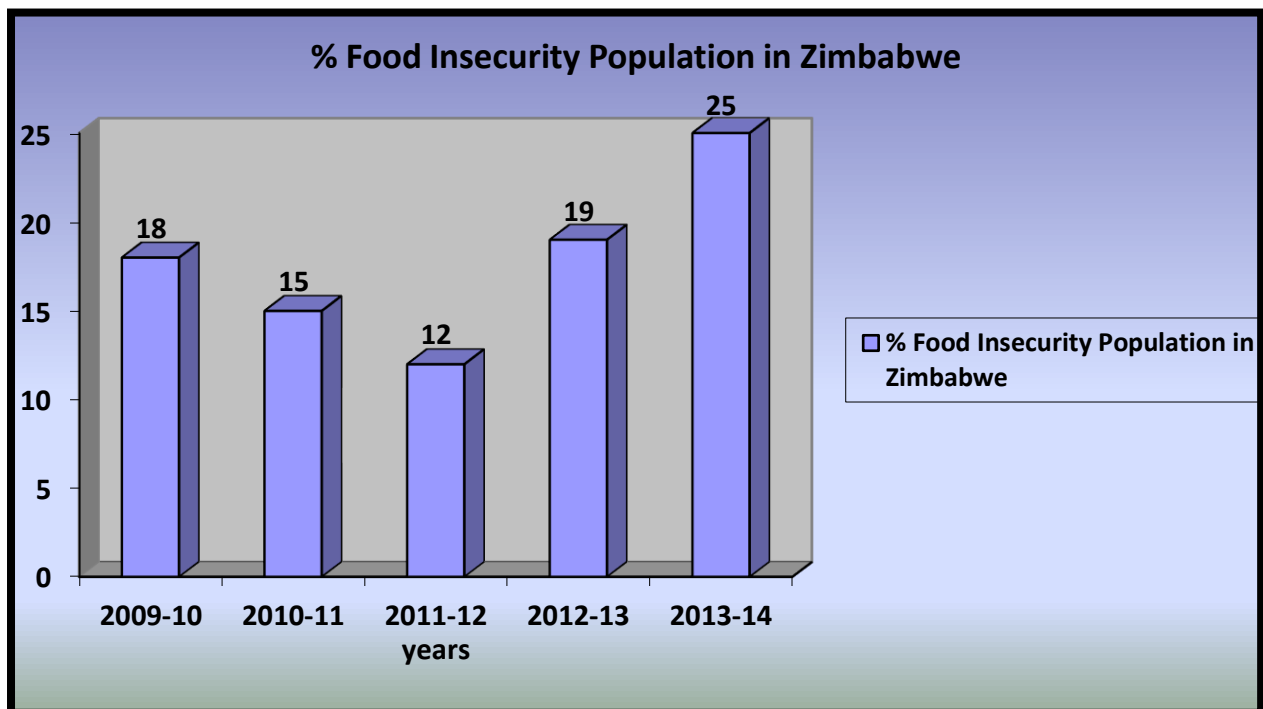
CHAPTER 1

OVERVIEW OF FOOD AID AND FOOD SECURITY

1.0 Introduction

The 2011 Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee (ZimVAC) indicated that approximately 1 million people (12 per cent of the population in Zimbabwe) required food assistance at the peak of the 2011/2012 agricultural season. However, the situation took a turn for the worse as documented in the 2012 ZimVAC assessment report which indicated that food insecurity in Zimbabwe for the 2012/2013 agricultural season would start much earlier in the season, and would be 6% higher than the 2011/2012 agricultural season. The report estimated that nearly one in five rural people in Zimbabwe thus approximately 1.6 million people would require emergency food assistance during the peak of the ‘hunger season’ thus between January and March 2013. The factors that contributed to this significant rise in food insecurity included late and erratic rains, constrained access to inputs, and a reduction in planted area which in turn reduced the national cereal harvest by 33 per cent in 2012. The Second Round Crop and Livestock report indicated that the 2012 cereals harvest was 1,076,772 MT which is one-third lower than that of 2011 and this was the lowest since 2009. The deteriorating situation was monitored by WFP staff around the country who started reporting signs of distress, including high food prices, empty silos and granaries as well as adoption of negative coping strategies which had been adopted by the people such as the reduction in the size or number of meals consumed per day and distress sales of livestock and this indicated an increasingly critical situation from June 2012 onwards. Below is a graph showing the food insecurity trend in Zimbabwe from 2009 to 2014:

Graph 1: Rural Food Insecurity Population Trends in Zimbabwe from 2009 to 2014



Source 1: Mid -Year Fiscal Policy Review (2012)

The graph shows that the percentage insecurity population was high in 2009/2010 and declined slightly in 2010/2011 but continued to rise from 2011 to 2014 agricultural seasons. These trends justified the need for food aid assistance in the country as the food security situation worsened year by year. 25% of the rural households were estimated to be food insecure during the 2013/2014 agricultural seasons which is a 6% increase compared to the 2012/2013 agricultural season which stood at 19%. The 2012 ZIMVAC report reported that Mutoko district recorded a 29.8% food insecurity situation thus around 30% of the population in Mutoko district were food insecure in 2012 agricultural season. From year 2000 to 2008 Zimbabwe experienced severe macro-economic instability characterised by hyperinflation which was evidenced by a decline in GDP of over 40% during this period and agricultural output decreased. As a result the country became a net importer of food and people relied on food aid which contributed to worsening poverty and high unemployment rates. Natural

disasters such as droughts and seasonal floods have been occurring for the past few years threatening agriculture, food and nutrition security and the environment.

In September 2012, WFP and the Government began implementing the Seasonal Targeted Assistance programme in the areas with the highest proportion of food insecurity. Assistance was scaled up until the peak period (January – March 2013) when 1.4 million people were being supported by the programme with monthly household food rations. The ZimVAC report estimated that the number in need of food assistance would incrementally increase over the 2012/2013 agricultural season as follows: a) July – September 2012: 753,218 people b) October – December 2012: 1,184,701 people c) January – March 2013: 1,667,618 people.

According to the Zimbabwe Demographic Health Survey (ZDHS) 2010-2011, 32 per cent of children under the age of 5 years were stunted (short for their age), 3 per cent were wasted (thin for their height) and 10 per cent were underweight (thin for their age). Children who live in the rural areas are worse off across all indicators than children living in urban areas. In rural areas, 33.4 per cent of children under 5 years of age are reported to be stunted, 3.2 per cent are wasted, and 10.2 per cent are underweight, while in urban areas, 27.5 per cent of children under 5 are stunted, 2.1 per cent are wasted and 8.1 per cent are underweight. The ZIMVAC report noted that in 2010/2011 agricultural season Zimbabwe produced a total of 1 451 629 tonnes of maize, 53 000 tonnes of wheat against a national requirement of 180 000 million tonnes of maize and 450 000 tonnes of wheat. The country has been failing to produce enough food to meet its people's needs and has had to rely on food imports. General poverty and chronic food and nutrition insecurity have led to reduced diversity of household consumption and increased prevalence of chronic malnutrition especially among women and young children. These trends are due to a combination of reduced food availability caused by

poor agricultural performance lower access to food due to high levels of poverty and poor food utilization due to lack of knowledge on how to use available food.

1.1 History or Origin of Food Aid and Food Security

1.1.1 Food Aid

The European Union (2000:13) has defined food aid as help or assistance given to an individual, community or nation in need. According to Shaw (2001: 67) food aid has become a global phenomenon with large quantities of food moving towards population in distress as opposed to historical times where populations would move toward food sources. The issue of food aid has become a political and economic business that is even causing social conflicts referred to as the politics of food. According to Marcus (2003) approximately 815 million people are undernourished worldwide and over 16000 children die per day from hunger related diseases. In Southern Africa countries like Malawi, Tanzania, Mozambique Zambia, Angola and Zimbabwe have suffered various natural and manmade disasters that have necessitated food aid programs to reduce suffering among the most vulnerable communities. Zimbabwe was once the bread basket of Southern Africa but has turned into a gross burger and importer of food in recent years. According to Maunder (2006:iv) many countries and organisations, local and international donate food for the hungry and the United States provides more than half of the total global food aid assistance followed by Japan and European community.

According to Shaw and Clay (1993:1) the WFP is the primary international provider of food aid for development and disaster mitigation. It is also the largest source of grants for food resources for developing countries. Donors may buy food in a country to be used as food aid within the same country or they may swap commodities such as wheat for a wanted

commodity or exchanges for a local commodity such as maize for use as food aid. According to FAO (2006) report the economic melt -down pushed government to reengage its obligation to feed its citizens resulting in many humanitarian agencies flooding in the country with food aid to save lives and reduce suffering. The UN OCHA (2009) reported that the population in Zimbabwe has gone through very difficult times in recent years due to protracted droughts, internal displacements which are caused by political violence and food crisis deepened by the widespread shortages of agricultural inputs such as seeds and fertilisers. International agencies that provide aid include, WFP, UN OCHA, FAO, USAID, CANADIAN GRAIN BANK, ORAP, CRS, WVI, GOAL and CARE International.

1.1.2 Food Security

According to Quizon A.B (2012) food security is a flexible concept as reflected in the many attempts at definition in research and policy usage. Even a decade ago, there were about 200 definitions of food security in published writings. Whenever the concept is introduced in the title of a study or its objectives, it is necessary to look closely to establish the explicit or implied definition. The continuing evolution of food security as an operational concept in public policy has reflected the wider recognition of the complexities of the technical and policy issues involved in food security issues around the world. The most recent careful redefinition of food security is that negotiated in the process of international consultation leading to the World Food Summit (WFS) in November 1996. The contrasting definitions of food security adopted in 1974 and 1996, along with those in official FAO and World Bank documents of the mid-1980s are set out below with each substantive.

1.1.3 Food Security: concepts and measurements

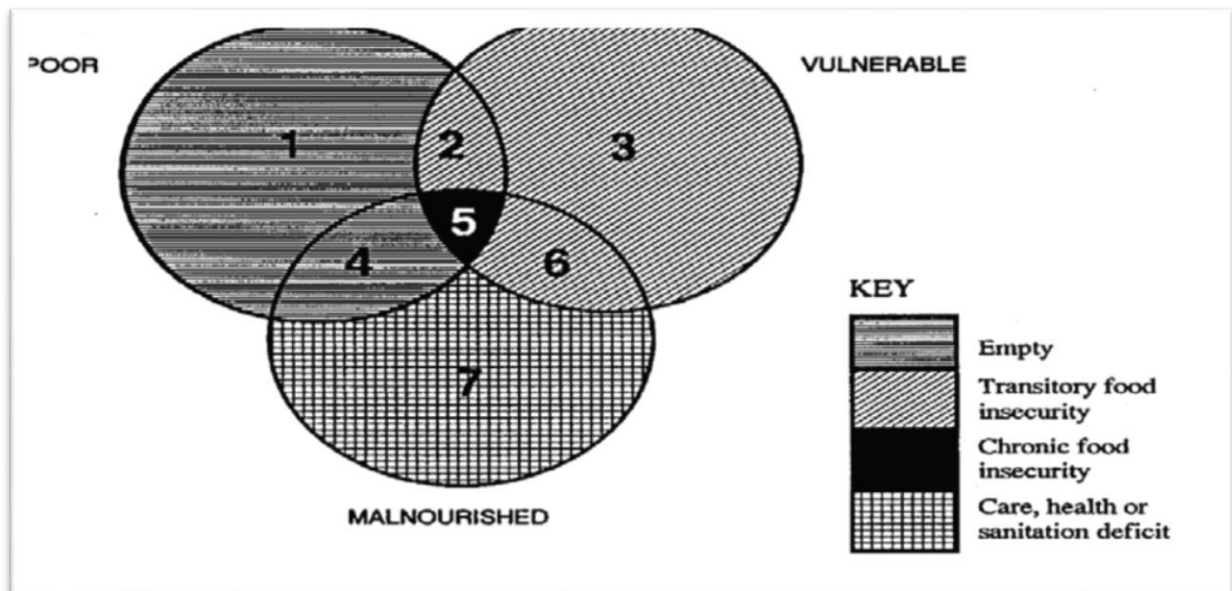
A comparison of these definitions highlights the considerable reconstruction of official thinking on food security that has occurred over 25 years. These statements also provide signposts to the policy analysis, which have re-shaped our understanding of food security as a problem of international and national responsibility. According to FAO (2000) the food security as a concept originated only in the mid-1970s, in the discussions of international food problems at a time of global food crisis in 1973/74. The initial focus of attention was primarily on food supply problems - of assuring the availability and to some degree the price stability of basic food stuffs at the international and national level. That supply-side, international and institutional set of concerns reflected the changing organization of the global food economy that had precipitated the crisis. A process of international negotiation followed, leading to the World Food Conference of 1974, and a new set of institutional arrangements covering information, resources for promoting food security and forums for dialogue on policy issues. The issues of famine, hunger and food crisis were also being extensively examined, following the events of the mid- 1970s. FAO (2000) also noted that the outcome was a redefinition of food security, which recognized that the behaviour of potentially vulnerable and affected people was a critical aspect. A third, perhaps crucially important, factor in modifying views of food security was the evidence that the technical successes of the Green Revolution did not automatically and rapidly lead to dramatic reductions in poverty and levels of malnutrition. These problems were recognized as the result of lack of effective demand.

According to the FAO (2004a), the definition of food security has four interconnected dimensions namely, availability of food, access to food, utilization of food, and stability of available food at a household level. According to Stats- SA (2012) food insecurity occurs

when one or more of these dimensions are weakened, as no single dimension assures food security on its own. The three temporal variants of food insecurity are:

- i) **Seasonal or cyclical food insecurity**, which happens just before the harvest when food supplies are limited and prices are high;
- ii) **Transitory food insecurity (acute)** refers to short periods of extreme food insecurity, which are often a result of more unpredictable and sudden events, such as climatic shocks, natural disasters or economic shocks; and
- iii) **Chronic food insecurity (moderate)** refers to long-term shortage and is closely linked to chronic poverty, lack of assets, and structural deficiencies in the local food systems in the economy. Achieving food security requires households to have adequate resources to obtain appropriate foods for a nutritious diet. Below is a diagram that illustrates the different types of food insecurity:

Figure 3: UNICEF (1990:25) Different types of household food insecurity



Source: UNICEF report (1990)

1.1.4 Food Security Indicators

The Committee on World Food Security, a body set up in 1975 by the UN World Food Conference to oversee developments in food security, adopted in the early 1980s the recognition of food security as a tripartite concept, reflecting the criteria of availability, access and stability. Similarly, the OECD suggests that food security has three dimensions: availability, access and utilization, although this source indicates that there is a tendency to characterize it in terms of availability. Attempts to capture trends in variables that are likely to reflect food security can be broadly categorized into two interrelated sets: those that directly measure shortfalls in consumption requirements, and those that concern the potential to meet such shortfalls. The United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) evaluates two aspects of food security, thus availability and distribution, both of which capture the extent of the shortfall, and analyse predicted trends through to 2009.

1.1.5 The extent of Global Food Security

Mudzonga et al (2009) highlighted that the world is currently experiencing food crisis because of increasing food prices, shortages and reduced access to food for many people particularly those from developing countries. This crisis has resulted in political socioeconomic developmental and humanitarian challenges affecting all countries. Recent initiatives aimed at improving the food security situation of the poor most notably the World Food Summit (WFS) have been stimulated by the fact that although food availability for direct human consumption grew by 19 percent between 1960 and 1994-96, to 2 720 kcal/day against an estimated minimum daily energy requirement of 2 200 kcal/day), availability is still very uneven. According to FAO (2006) in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) calorific intake is still only 2 150 kcal/day compared to 2 050kcal/day thirty years earlier. In contrast the average calorie consumption in South Asia rose from 2 000 kcal/day to 2 350 kcal/day in the

same period. However, during the 1990s per capita growth of world agricultural production slowed. FAO (2000) reported that the world cereal output, for example, fell from a peak of 342 kg per person in the mid-1980s to 311 kg per person in 1993-95, although it has since risen to 323 kg per person in 1996-1983. The results of such statistics are evident in the fact that in 1995-97, 820 million people were estimated by the FAO to be undernourished, with 790 million living in developing countries. Although the number of undernourished people in developing countries actually fell by 40 million between 1980/82 and 1995/97, this improvement was also uneven, being attributable to a reduction of 100 million in 37 countries, whilst in the remaining countries the numbers increased by 60 million. In addition, the fall in absolute numbers is too low to achieve the World Food Security goal of reducing the numbers of undernourished by half by 2015, since this would require an additional reduction of 20 million undernourished individuals on a yearly basis until that date which is a mammoth task to achieve.

1.1.6 Food Security at national and household levels

Food security is a multi-faceted concept, variously defined and interpreted. At one end of the spectrum food security implies the availability of adequate supplies at a global and national level; at the other end, the concern is with adequate nutrition and well-being of individuals. In this section, issues surrounding food security at the national level are investigated first, before a review of approaches to household food security.

1.1.7 Household Food Security

According to the ZIMVAC (2011) report household food security status was determined by comparing its estimated food entitlements to its food requirements. Household food entitlements (measured in maize equivalence) were computed from summing up cereal

stocks, own food crop production, potential income from own cash crop production, potential income from livestock, and income from other sources such as gifts, remittances, casual labour, pensions and formal employment. Household requirement was measured in maize equivalence is a product of household size and per capita cereal requirements of 133 kg/annum. According to this survey, when a household's food entitlements are equal or greater than household requirements, that household was considered to be food secure. In addition, according to ZIMVAC (2006) report food-insecure persons were considered as those unable to meet their daily minimum energy requirements of 2,100 Kcals/day (of which 70% is from cereals) at all times. This minimum energy requirement was also referred to as 'Food Poverty Datum Line' (FPDL). Food stuffs considered were cereals (maize, sorghum and millet), animal protein, fruit, leafy vegetables, milk, sugar, cooking oil, nuts and pulses, and wild foods. The ZIMVAC (2006) also reported that cereals, followed by leafy vegetables were the most consumed type of foods by both the food secure and insecure households. According to ZIMVAC (2011b), an individual whose total consumption expenditure does not exceed the food poverty line is deemed to be very poor. The sum of the FPDL and minimum acceptable expenditure on essential non-food household goods and services determines the 'Total Consumption Line' (TCL). Households with incomes below the TCL were considered to be poor.

According to FAO report (2006) the ability to ensure adequate food security hinges on the ability to identify vulnerable households. Vulnerability refers to the full range of factors that place people at risk of becoming food insecure. The degree of vulnerability of an individual, household or group of persons is determined by their exposure to the risk factors and their ability to cope with or withstand stressful situations. Generally, vulnerable households will constitute three groups:

- those which would be vulnerable under any circumstances: for example, where the adults are unable to provide an adequate livelihood for the household for reasons of disability, illness, age or some other characteristic; those whose resource endowment is inadequate to provide sufficient income from any available source;
- Those whose characteristics and resources render them potentially vulnerable in the context of social and economic shocks, for example those who find it hard to adapt to sudden changes in economic activity brought about by economic policy. A significant increase in the consumer price of staple foods might be an example. Although no definition of ‘vulnerable’ is complete, a useful starting point is estimates of income. It can be assumed that the first two categories will be relatively poor both in terms of income and assets, and it is also likely that:
 - The third category will have a fragile resource base and other characteristics which make its income sources uncertain. An appropriate proxy, therefore, in identifying vulnerable households, is how poor is a particular household measured against some established criterion or ‘poverty-line’.

FAO report (2006) highlighted that the frequent problem in delineating those sections of the population most vulnerable, or at risk from changes in policy direction, is the lack of baseline data regarding household income and consumption patterns. This refers to the various means through which households avail themselves of food, whether through household production, or through other income-generating activities such as the sale of labour or participation in trading. A number of these activities may be pursued by the same member of each household, or by different members. In addition, transfers from sources external to the household, i.e. from the state or friends and relatives, will also add to household entitlement. According to WFP (2009) report entitlement can also be perceived as the household’s ability to express

effective demand for food. It presupposes the availability of food, since for demand to be effective it must be capable of being transformed into consumption. This applies as much to food grown for household consumption as to that purchased with income generated through other activities or from transfers. The former entails a decision to retain part or the whole of the output of productive activity, as opposed to selling it and purchasing food or non-food commodities. Quizon A. B (2012) said household activity or transfers do not directly result in access to food, for there are a number of intervening stages that mediate the process. Both governments and agencies concerned to augment household food security intervene in order to mediate between potential and reality. In the first place, the resource endowment of the household will determine its capacity to produce or to trade. Wisner et al (2004) pointed that events such as civil unrest or climatic disasters can seriously deplete households' resource potential, and increase the likelihood of structural food insecurity. If what might have appeared as a transitory problem is not to become chronic, the replenishment of productive capability should be a necessary part of programmes aimed at reversing this process. Physical resources by themselves, however, may be inadequate, and the upgrading or changing of the range of skills possessed by household members may be a necessary component of any programme. Consequently, training in new agricultural techniques, or in the necessary skills required by local industries or trades, can form an integral component of food security interventions. For many poor households, particularly those whose resource base been eroded by drought, additional resources are the primary requisite if their productive base is to be restored. Recognition of this is apparent in the increasing emphasis on development programmes by governments, agencies and donors alike. For other households, both rural and urban, access to productive resources may be less relevant. These will seek, according to their location and particular skills.

According to FAO (2002) report in circumstances where both the outcome of productive activity is always uncertain and the purchasing power of cash-generating activities is subject to sudden and dramatic shifts, it is both probable and desirable that households will seek to diversify their occupations. This may be either through the principal income earner undertaking a variety of activities, or through different household members generating income or produce from a variety of tasks. Here again, policies designed to promote food security might also simultaneously address resource and skill constraints. Apart from the choice between producing food and non-food crops, farm households also make decisions about whether to retain or sell the food they produce. To some extent, these decisions are dictated by the existence, non- existence and efficiency of marketing infrastructures and household storage facilities. Inadequate storage facilities will, in most circumstances, lead to heavy storage losses, significantly affecting the seasonal availability of food. FAO (2002) reported that the provision of marketing infrastructures is essential not only for traded income, derived through both farm and non-farm activity, and food and non-food production. Its absence in rural areas will also impede the transfer of essential food and non-food commodities, and so reduce the incentive for household economic activity.

Finally, transfers from the state or individuals can augment entitlement to food. Typically, these latter sources of entitlement take the form of cash payments or gifts, although in-kind payments and remittances are also a common occurrence. In the latter case, the household is faced with the previously discussed choice of sale or retention. In both cases there is likely to be a basket of essential cash purchases that households will wish to undertake, and cash remaining can be used to purchase food. The actual mix of food and non-food essentials that are purchased will be determined by both availability and price, with both absolute and relative consumer prices being a crucial determinant of household food security.

1.2 Causes of Household Food Insecurity

A number of factors have contributed to food insecurity in certain regions of the world which include global warming which is responsible for drought and flooding. Other factors are persistent problems in cultivating food from lack of seed, arable land and tools, poverty, HIV and AIDS, globalized system of food production and military conflicts. According to Wisner et al (2004:p127) the worst recorded earthquake disaster caused the deaths of about 240 000 people in China. In Bangladesh 1974 1.5 million people perished as a result of famine, 2.4 million people in North Korea and 14 to 26 million people in the Chinese Great Leap Forward in 1958-61. Famine is therefore one of the major challenges for disaster management requiring appropriate and adequate intervention strategies which help both to save lives as well as to build resilience to further incidents of shocks. The underlying causes of food insecurity at regional and household levels are a combination of both natural factors and manmade processes which can be grouped under natural causes, socio economic factors and policy failures. According to Shelton ed (2005) droughts have been the primary cause of food shortages in the developing world but the developed world has been producing surplus food and ships it to developing countries as food aid.

1.2.1 Natural causes of food insecurity

Madziakapita et al (2004) highlighted that drought and environmental degradation are factors that make households vulnerable to food shortages. The late onset of the rains and the early seizure affects crops when the cultivated crops are at their vegetative stages of growth which results in moisture stress. According to Shelton ed (2005) natural resources like soil and forests are getting depleted over time at an alarming rate and affects farmers' agricultural production and productivity. The ecology in the area has become more fragile than ever

resulting in decline in agricultural production and productivity, frequent food shortage, drought and famines causing food insecurity. Drought is one of the natural threats to regional food production. Meissner (2002:p3) highlighted that it is not only drought that can have an impact on the production of agricultural products, but extreme weather events such as floods, can also cause damage. Excessive rains and floods, together with reduced and late delivery of agricultural inputs have a severe impact on the production of agricultural commodities in these countries. According to Shelton ed (2005) floods can devastate farmland and wash away valuable topsoil that is vital for the production of food which results in many countries becoming reliant on the international food market for their food security needs. Below is a photograph showing the state of crops in Mutoko district during the drought period.

Figure 4: Declining crop production in ward 19 Kashenje village in Mutoko district



Source: Research finding

1.2.2 Socio-economic causes of food insecurity

Population pressure, traditional farming system and practices, poor infrastructure services, shortage of farm and other productive assets are also factors responsible for the households' food insecurity in the district. According to WFP (2009) report one of the main socio economic problems is population pressure coupled with a stagnation of agricultural technology which makes it difficult for agricultural production to keep pace with rising demand for food. Part of the arable land is also being taken up by quarry mines which have sprouted in Mutoko district. Infrastructural services such as marketing, rural transport communications are essential to achieve household food security in particular or for poverty alleviation as people from Mutoko have to market their produce at Mbare Musika which is 150km away. Some traditional practices and values do not encourage innovations that have significant impact on household's food security. The prominent beliefs among rural households include celebrating many non-working religious days and resistance to new technology in favor of traditional practices. Landholding size is crucial for farmers' food security situation or for their livelihood security in general. Economic factors, such as the availability of foreign exchange and capital outlay on infrastructure, play a role. According to Meissner (2002) when government finances are stretched to the limit by debt and mismanagement, countries can have difficulty implementing infrastructure projects to facilitate the distribution of food within the region. This also implies that agricultural sectors cannot develop to their full potential. For instance, irrigation schemes that could lead to a better food security situation cannot be financed. According to Meissner (2002) the implementation of irrigation schemes can make the production of agricultural commodities less dependent on rain. Most farmers, in both subsistence and commercial farmers, rely on dry land farming to produce food in Southern Africa, both these agricultural sectors are equally important to a country's food security.

1.2.3 Government policy failures

Lack of appropriate development policies and strategies is one of the main factors which results in vulnerability to disaster. According to Meissner (2002) whenever food shortage or famine occurs in a given country, the government is responsible for either causing the crisis or failing to prevent it. Government's inappropriate policies and lack of democracy were the major sources of food insecurity and factors for exacerbating the loss of assets, destruction of social and physical infrastructure. In Zimbabwe GMB was the sole trader in grain and distributor of inputs, all farmers depended on GMB for inputs acquisition and crop sales which resulted in areas without GMB infrastructure disadvantaged, farmers who failed to deliver produce to GMB could not access inputs. All inputs directed to GMB leaving nothing in retail outlets and inputs deteriorated in GMB premises due to poor handling. Programs such as Fast Track Land Reform have had an impact on household food security because people grabbed land that they could not afford to cultivate.

According to Moyo P (2013) Zimbabwe inherited a highly unequal land ownership structure from colonial Rhodesia, there was inequality in landholding between white and black people at independence in 1980 with 6000 white commercial farmers owning 15.5million hectares of the most prime land while 8500small scale African farmers held 1,4million hectares of land and an estimated 700000 communal farming households subsisted on 16.4million hectares located in drier and less fertile regions. Given these inequalities the first Zimbabwe government strongly committed to addressing the imbalances through the Normal Intensive Resettlement Program. According to Moyo S (2004) before year 2000 thus before the Fast Track Land Reform commercial farmers owned large tracts of land utilised economies of scale to raise capital, borrow money when necessary, and purchase modern mechanised farm equipment to increase productivity on their land. Zimbabwe was the world's 6th largest

producer of tobacco in 2001 but in 2005 it produced less than one third the amount produced in year 2000 which is the lowest amount in 50 years.

Zimbabwe was once so rich in agricultural produce before year 2000 that it was dubbed the bread basket of Southern Africa but it is now struggling to feed its own population. Hove et al (2012) supported this by saying until year 2000, Zimbabwe regularly produced surplus grain for export and this generated the country foreign currency which boosted the economy. Zimbabwe was very food secure before 2000 from national standpoint with farmers producing adequate food to fulfil the country's requirements in good years. At Independence in 1980s government launched strategies to increase the grain out of relocated farmers and communal grain producers which included the increase in agriculture extension services coverage and ameliorated producer prices for maize. Government controlled Grain Marketing Board and outlined situations for increasing maize output in the communal localities. It increased the number of collection centres and depots to 37 in 1991 from 3 in 1987 and it made known producer prices in advance of harvest time. GMB was able to stock more than 3 years of food security reserves of maize. Farming up to year 2000 had been the backbone of the nation's economy contributing 40% of nation's export but agro industry has since collapsed due to the disruptions on commercial farms and has affected the food security of the country.

Moyo P (2013) highlighted that the post 2000 era was characterised by inadequacy of food, absence of food on the market, lack of supply with variations and shortage from one season to another, unaffordability and poor quality of available food. Implementation of FTLRP triggered food shortages in the country thereby forcing the government to purchase food from its neighbours and depend on donor community. Majority of the people travelled to South

Africa and Botswana to purchase food commodities for consumption and resell because some preferred foods were not locally available or expensive to acquire.

1.2.4 Political conditions

Unstable political conditions can make a bad situation even worse. Poverty is more likely to be reduced where the shape of the political system means that the votes of the poor count, obliging politicians to be responsive to the needs of the poor. Jones and Nelson (2005:p45-46) say a useful way of conceptualising these developments and the links between policy processes and poverty reduction, is through the livelihoods framework. Meissner (2002:p3) added that in May 2002, some areas in Angola and the DRC (Democratic Republic of Congo) were declared as disaster zones where 7.8 million people, of which 5.4million were children, were in need of food aid owing to food shortages made more extreme because of conflict and political crisis.

1.3 Current Food Security Situation in Zimbabwe

Despite gradual improvements, chronic food insecurity continues to plague Zimbabwe. Initial recovery has met obstacles related to low liquidity and a massive shift in production from large scale commercial producers to smallholder farmers, following the chaotic land reform process. The July 2012 Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee (ZimVAC) report estimated that about 1.668 million people in rural areas will need food assistance during the 2012/2013 hunger season, comprising approximately 19 percent of the total rural population (about 8.7 million people). This represented an increase of 61 percent or more than 600,000 people from the previous year, and illustrated the vulnerability caused by reliance on rain-fed agriculture. Matabeleland North and South, and Masvingo provinces recorded the highest food insecurity prevalence and experienced the highest maize prices in 2011/2012. Although

the availability of food throughout Zimbabwe has improved, chronic malnutrition rates remain high. The 2010/2011 Zimbabwe Demographic and Health Survey (*DHS*) showed consistent stunting rates in children under the age of five years, with 34 percent in 1999, 35 percent in 2005/2006, and 32 percent in 2010/2011.

The 2010 Zimbabwe National Nutrition Survey found stunting rates above 35 percent in 24 of the 60 rural districts. The report also indicated that very few young children consume the recommended number of meals or the recommended number of food groups for their age, protein-rich foods such as eggs, meat, milk products, and legumes are rarely included in the diets of young children.

Zimbabwe is primarily an agro-based economy and crop production is the main form of livelihood for the rural population in the country. According to FAO (2006) report the agricultural sector has been performing poorly for over a decade due to poor rains, structural challenges, and consecutive years of drought, and as a consequence poor harvests. It has been more than a decade since the country recorded a bumper harvest. Moyo P (2013) says consecutive droughts and poor growing seasons have weakened household resilience to food insecurity shocks and the communities have limited coping mechanisms as most households do not have livestock or other assets that can be disposed to purchase food for household consumption. Livestock has been impacted by the poor rains, with severe shortages of pasture in the drier parts of the country, specifically. Water shortages have also affected livestock production as livestock travel long distances to water sources which are drying up. The rural economy has limited cash as a result of industry being below 30% capacity and the introduction of the multiple currency economy which has also made it difficult for households to purchase food for consumption from retail shops where stocks are available.

The affected households are relying on negative coping strategies such as skipping meals and food rationing. School dropout rates have also increased and this has been attributed to food scarcity.

The government of Zimbabwe and humanitarian agencies conducted a joint assessment, resulting in the Rural Livelihoods May 2012 Assessment Report (Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee (ZIMVAC) 2012). The report established that a growing food insecurity crisis would peak in December 2012 – March 2013 with an estimated 1,667,518 people being in need of food assistance. In addition it reported that a large percentage of rural farmers continue to depend on Government or NGO-run distribution programmes. ZIMVAC (2012) reported that the level of food insecurity for 2012/2013 is a 6% increase from the 2011/2012 season where 12% of the rural population was food insecure. The UN-OCHA CAP Mid- Year Review (2012), reported that maize production declined by 33%, with an estimated 43% of the planted crops being recorded as ruined. The report states that chronic and acute child malnutrition stand at 32% and 3% respectively. It is important to note that these numbers exclude those living in urban areas who are also constrained by high levels of unemployment and limited access to cash. A total of 146,141 metric tonnes of cereal will be required to cover the food deficit that the country is experiencing. Below is a table showing the food security situation in the country from 2012 to 2014.

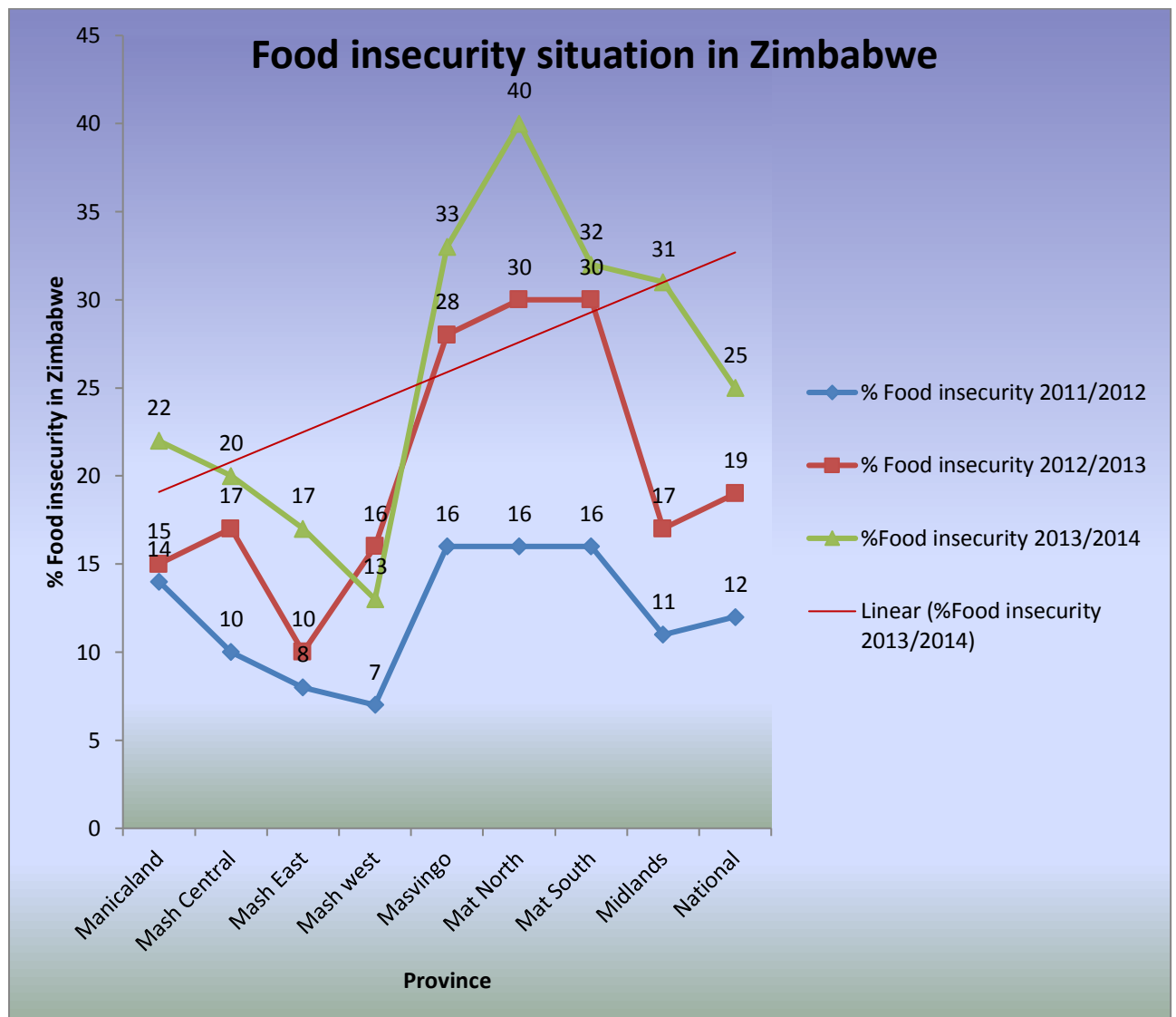
Table 1: Food Security Situation in Zimbabwe

Province	% Food Insecurity 2012/2013	% Food Insecurity 2012/2013	% Food Insecurity 2013/2014	Food Insecurity Population 2012/2013
Manicaland	14	15	22	209 364
Mash Central	10	17	20	198 065
Mash East	8	10	17	113 878
Mash West	7	16	13	159 502
Masvingo	16	28	33	378 046
Mat North	16	30	40	155 837
Mat South	16	30	32	213 338
Midlands	11	17	31	217 178
National	12	19	25	1 667 618

Source: Research findings GMB Reports

The above information has also been shown in the line graph below which shows the food security situation getting worse with the food insecurity status rising year in year out. The food insecurity situation was high during the 2013/2014 agricultural season compared to the 2011/2012 agricultural season as shown in the line graph below.

Figure 5: Food Insecurity Situation in Zimbabwe



Research finding GMB reports

According to the ZIMVAC (2012) report a number of factors account for the food insecurity situation including limited access to certified seeds and fertilizers, combined with a prolonged mid-season dry spell and drought experienced in the 2011/2012 agricultural season. It reported that the country has also been affected by the negative effects of climate change and farmers are having difficulty in their planning. Low moisture content is one of the challenges commonly cited as contributing to poor agricultural performance by most farmers.

Food availability - In Zimbabwe food security has been on the decline for the last decade. In 2006 maize harvest for example was 1.1million tonnes against a human consumption requirement of 1.4million tonnes. According to WFP (2009) report maize grain remained out of reach for many vulnerable households. Overall production of maize in 2008 was 575 000 metric tonnes which was 28% lower than 2007 which shows that food was not available to everyone.

Food Access - Market distortions have affected production of maize. There is little incentive for farmers to produce beyond their subsistence needs given lack of alternative marketing channels and price controls with static procurement prices in an environment of hyperinflation. FAO (2006) reported that set prices discourage production; parallel prices are often not affordable to the majority of the population. Purchase prices are announced at harvest or after not at planting time.

Stability of food supplies – A decline in national production has necessitated national food imports and aid. Food imports have taken upward trend since 2005 and maize constitutes the bulk of the food imports from the Southern African region particularly South Africa.

Mudzonga and Chigwada (2009) reported that decreased agricultural production in Zimbabwe has been affected by the government's land reform program, crumbling irrigation systems and infrastructure in general. Government's price controls have also reduced agricultural production resulting in wide spread shortages of goods and services, high unemployment levels and declining living standards. They deduced that the Zimbabwe government views access to land as the basis for eradicating poverty and increasing food security. There is little incentive for farmers to produce beyond their subsistence needs given

the lack of alternative marketing channels and the presence of price controls with static procurement prices in an environment of hyperinflation. They highlighted that government's capacity to import food has been affected by the declining economy and particularly the foreign exchange shortage coupled with soaring world food prices. In order to avert these challenges the government has embarked on support programs for equitable acquisition and production of food where farmers get subsidies in the form of seed fertilizer and equipment.

1.4 Partners to Food Aid and Food Security

World Vision, UMCOR, Save the Children, CARE, ADRA, Christian Care, ORAP, Goal, Africare and Plan International are cooperating partners in program development. The government through the Grain Marketing Board (GMB) is implementing a Grain Loan Scheme intervention where selected households receive 50kg maize bag per month. The beneficiaries are expected to reimburse the Grain Marketing Board at the next harvest. The scheme is however unable to reach all food insecure households. The conditionality of the scheme also requires that a household harvest enough grain to repay the Grain Marketing Board with the household remaining with enough grain for consumption. Government works and maintains relationships with various technical partners including FAO, WFP, and the Ministry of Agriculture's AGRITEX department, Ministry of Health and Child Welfare and the Civil Protection Unit (CPU). According to WFP (2009) report WFP is targeting 1.6 million people in the 36 affected districts. A total budget of USD 238 million is required to meet the need however the budget is only 52% funded. WFP is currently implementing a WFP funded project in several districts supporting malnourished people on anti-retroviral treatment (ART), malnourished children, and household members. The AGRITEX department has been working with FAO in supporting communal farmers with training in improved farming. FAO also participates and is a member of various working groups that

coordinate humanitarian interventions such as the Food Aid Working Group, Nutrition Cluster and the Agriculture Coordination Working Group (ACWG). At provincial and district levels, FAO has been supporting agriculture recovery projects for nearly a decade and over the years has built strong partnerships as well as experience in grain varieties and government legal requirements. FAO (2006) reported that the Government of Zimbabwe has established a Seed Services Department, which certifies all the seeds that are sold or distributed to beneficiaries. More than ten organisations have been operating in Mutoko district and majority of them are into food aid. Below is a table showing NGOs operating in Mutoko district:

Table 2: NGOs operating in Mutoko District

WARD	NAME OF NGO	FIELD OF OPERATION	YEAR OF INCEPTION	DONOR
1 to 19 and 24	Caritas	Food Security	2009	WFP/UNDP
1 to 19 and 24	UMCOR	Food Security	2013	WFP
1 to 19	ZICHIRE	HIV and AIDS	2010	Global Fund
1, 10, 12	CADS	Agriculture Conservation	2010	European Commission
14, 16,17	Nyahunure CT	HIV and AIDS and Gender	2005	UNIFEM
1 to 29	ACDDT	Peace Building	2009	DORTICUS
4 to 9, 11,14,15,17	COMMUTECH	Food Security	2004	PRP, CRS
1 to 6, 10	Plan International	Health, Education and Agriculture	1999	USAID, ECHO, WFP
10, 11,14,15	Pump Aid	HIV and AIDS Awareness	2003	PRP
7, 15, 27	FACT	HIV and AIDS	2010	Zimbabwe
1 to 29	CBVCT	HIV and AIDS	2005	UZ-UCSF
1 to 29	MAYO	HIV and AIDS Awareness	2003	PSI
14,11,14,15	STREETWISE	Conservation	2009	UNDP

Source: Mutoko Profile Report 2011

1.5 Efforts to reduce Food Insecurity in Zimbabwe

According to LBFP (2010) in Zimbabwe, the 'Poverty Alleviation Action Program' (PAAP) policy framework guides strategies aimed at alleviating poverty and food insecurity, especially in rural areas, through improved livelihoods, access to resources, infrastructure and services and increased knowledge. Szonyi et al (2010) added that the National Policy on Drought Management (NPDM) highlights the need for intensive research on improving the tolerance of staple food crops to drought and disease, and technologies that promote more efficient use of water and mitigate food security risks. Labour based food aid programs were introduced in a bid to alleviate food insecurity and poverty. This new labour based policy adopted by the government had two components: limited free food distribution (FFD) for households with no adult labour capacity and food for work (FFW) for households with adult labour capacity. These FFW activities were taken largely from existing projects under Provincial and District Development Plans and aimed at improving the targeting of resources, reducing dependency on state support and maximising the impact of government spending on the social sector. As the labour based drought relief programme continued, FFW was integrated with the supply of local grain to food insecure areas, this included the supplementary feeding for children from under the age of five years to primary school going age and an agricultural recovery programme for smallholder farmers. From the year 2000, public works programming moved increasingly towards tackling food insecurity through asset maintenance/creation in both rural and urban areas as widespread poverty increased. Legislation by the state in 2003 directed the use of public works approaches to able bodied homes across all humanitarian programmes.

Table 3: Drought Relief Programs Implemented by Government

DURATION OF DROUGHT	DURATION OF RELIEF	FORM OF DROUGHT RELIEF
1981-1983	1984-1985	FREE FOOD AID
1986-1987	1987-1988	LABOUR BASED RELIEF/ FOOD FOR WORK
1991-1992	1992-1993	LABOUR BASED RELIEF
1995-1998	1996-1998	GRAIN LOAN SCHEME
2001-2004	2002-2005	FREE FOOD AID
2010-2013	2011-2014	GRAIN LOAN SCHEME AND
		PRESIDENTIAL INPUT SCHEME

Source: FAO Report

During the 1982 drought the Government of Zimbabwe provided free food aid and drought relief measures adopted included supplementary feeding for children under five years and lactating mothers, a water supply scheme, cattle protection and input provision for peasant farmers. During this period food assistance was distributed as take home rations and the food was distributed by village and members of ZANU PF who were responsible for identifying districts and villages and beneficiaries for inclusion in the food aid program. A total of 850 000 people were reached in the first year and 1,46million in the second and final year. In 1983 government distributed free food to about 2.1million able bodied people 37% of rural population. It spent \$22 million Zimbabwe dollars and \$42million dollars in the second year. In 1986-1995 labour based programs were adopted in the form of food for work in a bid to shift from free food hand outs. 1995-1999 the government adopted the Grain Loan Scheme which offered government relief to drought affected vulnerable affected households as a short term loan to be paid in subsequent agricultural seasons but in 2000 the government reverted to free food aid. From 2010 to 2013 the government implemented another phase of the Grain Loan Scheme and the Presidential Input Scheme whereby vulnerable rural households were given grain on a loan basis which had to be returned during the subsequent season.

1.6 Malthus and Amartya Sen Approaches to Food Security

Malthus argues that the food insecurity is caused by lack of food supply and an increase in population creates more food demand yet food supply is limited. Malthus (1789) highlighted that as population expands land for agriculture is decreased as an impact of rapid population growth. The Malthusian tradition however emphasizes the drivers of demand. According to Godfray et al (2010 p2770-2772) says the critical factor of the increase of food demand is the trend in population. The policy instrument proposed is related to the control of the population such as female education and promoting easy access to contraception. The problem of food insecurity is also caused by the supply side; a decrease in crop yield is the significant factor of the decrease in food supply. Amartya Sen (1980) contrasted with Malthus by arguing that the problem of food security is not about food supply failure but is about access to food. According to Devereux (2001:p246)The significant contribution of Amartya Sen with his entitlement theory for theorizing of famines is that it shifts the paradigm of famines from supply approach to the ability of people to access food.

Amartya Sen argues that famines are caused by access to food and divides two fundamental categories of concept of entitlement thus endowments and entitlements. Entitlements refer to the set of alternative commodity bundles that a person can command in a society using the totality of right and opportunities that he or she faces. According to Devereux (2000:p19) Sen also discusses four types of entitlement, firstly the trade based entitlement which means the ability of people to sell or buy something for food. Secondly, the production based entitlement which refers to the ability to grow and produce food. Thirdly, own labour based entitlements which is the ability for selling skill or labour power for purchasing or producing food. Fourth is the inheritance and transfer based entitlement which refers to access to food

transfer that can be provided for the government or other person. People will face famine and hunger due to entitlement failure even though food supply is still available.

However the structural approach argues that food security problem is the problem of structural at national level. It is about the political and policy issue conducted by the government rather than the issue of access to food. In the case of Ethiopia and Somalia the famines are more complex rather than only access there is the problem of the individual or the household. National security, civil war, natural disaster and political instability are the other factors that create food insecurity. Amartya Sen is too simplistic that the only focus is in a private ownership market economy perspective he just looks in the micro level individual and household rather than problem of structural of the whole nation. The new famine thinking argues that the problem related to political issues such as political regime political conflict war and indeed international role. Devereux (2001) also explains two factors food availability (FAD) decline due to natural factors like drought and floods. Famines are caused by exchange entitlement decline. Sen argues that even though there is no link between democracy and economic development we never find famines in a country which has freedom, democratic independent media monitoring the government policies. Devereux (2001:p258-259) argues that Sen had four limitations, firstly the idea of endowments, people prefer to starve rather than sell their assets. Secondly, based on De Walle's Health crisis model the mortality is not caused by the entitlement but caused by patterns of migration and exposure of new diseases. Thirdly the fuzzy entitlement, the poverty right is owned by the community rather than individual. Lastly extra entitlement transfers problem of famines is not only problem with the individual but also the problem with the individual but also the problem with institutional, social context and political crisis. Food security is also a problem of how government deals with the liberalization and free market ideology the removal of food

subsidy and fertilizers' subsidy. Structural adjustment programs like ESAP obstacle governments to secure food for its people.

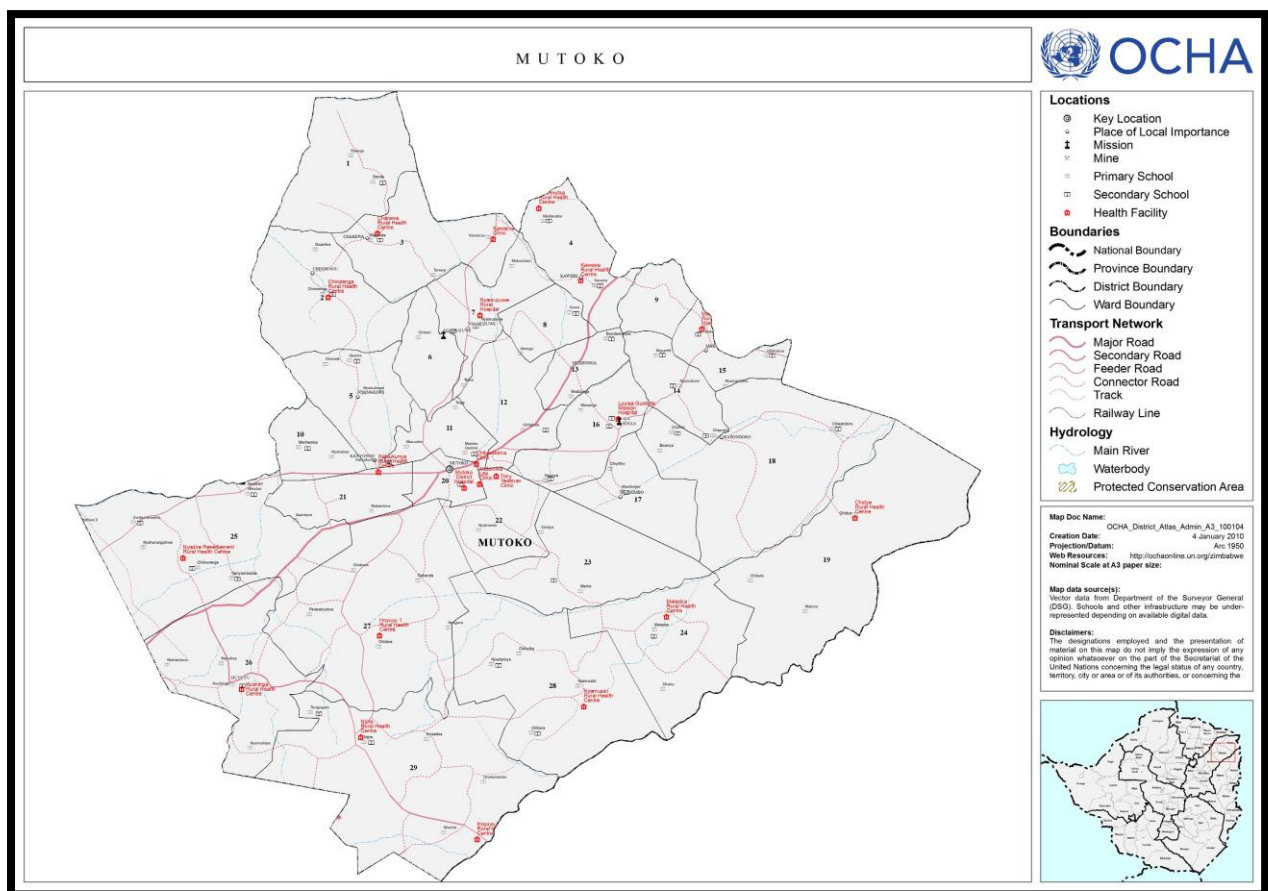
The paradigm of food security changes from supply (Malthus) to accessibility entitlement (Amartya Sen) from entitlement to include political regime natural disaster, civil war, governance and climate. Amartya Sen is too optimistic about individual as a unit of analysis and ignores the power global structure of IMF and World Bank.

1.7 Food Security situation in Mutoko District

Mutoko district is found in Mashonaland East Province named after the local Chief Mutoko. It is found along Harare to Nyamapanda highway and is 140km away from Harare. There are 29 wards divided into communal and resettlement farms. Wards 1 to 19 and 24 are communal areas and wards 20, 21, 22, 23, 25, 26, 27, 28 and 29 are surrounded by farms. The district is in natural region 3 and 4 characterised by annual heavy and infrequent rainfall of between 450mm and 800mm and is marginal in terms of crop production. It has huge sparsely vegetated rocky projections mainly of black granite which is quarried from this area for export. Between the hills often lie potential swampy areas which when dry, leave dry stream beds from which many shallow wells are dug. Along these valley bottoms many families grow vegetables to supplement maize production. Mutoko district was identified as one of the most food insecure districts under the ZIMVAC Assessment programme. Donors like WFP through NGOs like United Methodist Committee on Relief, Caritas, CRS, and Plan International have responded with food aid programmes like Seasonal Targeted Assistance Programme and Food for Assets since 2002. The main objectives of the programmes are to protect lives and livelihoods of food insecure individuals during the seasonal shortages between October and March while also moving away from free food aid to conditional food

assistance through carrying out community works that can benefit the community. In year 2013, 20 out of 29 wards in Mutoko were found to be food insecure and these are wards 1 to 19 and 24. The ZIMVAC (2013) report estimated that around 30% of the population in Mutoko district would be food insecure in 2013. Below is a map showing the boundaries and wards of Mutoko district.

Figure 6 : Map of Mutoko District showing ward boundaries



Source: FAO report (2006)

The food security situation of Mutoko district has been deteriorating for the past five years which has seen the district benefiting from food aid since 2002. Several NGOs have implemented food aid programs in the district. Below is a table showing the percentage food insecurity of the districts in Mashonaland East Province.

Table 4: Household Food Security Status by district

PROVINCE	DISTRICT	% FOOD INSECURE
Mash East	Chikomba	8.3
Mash East	Goromonzi	10.2
Mash East	Hwedza	12.3
Mash East	Marondera	8.9
Mash East	Mudzi	17.9
Mash East	Murehwa	17.2
Mash East	Mutoko	29.8
Mash East	Seke	16.2
Mash East	UMP	35.6

Source: 2013 ZIMVAC Draft Report

The table above shows that Mutoko district and UMP districts were the most food insecure districts in the Province with Mutoko recording almost 30% of its population being food insecure during the 2013 season. This justifies why Mutoko has been receiving food aid throughout the years of drought. NGOs have been operating in the district since their inception in 2002 and most of them have been implementing food security programs to alleviate hunger in the district.

1.8 Government Food Security Interventions in Zimbabwe

1.8.0 Food Security initiatives

Government has implemented several interventions to alleviate hunger in the country which has been caused by recurrent droughts such as:

1.8.1 Zunde Ramambo

The revival of the Zunde raMambo practice was started in 1996 by members of the Chief's Council of Zimbabwe, in collaboration with the Nutrition Unit of the Ministry of Health and Child Welfare. The main objective was to revive the Zunde as a sustainable community project, in line with what was once a known Shona traditional practice. In attempting to

revive this traditional practice, there was a need to assess variables such as the nature of existing social and economic structures, leadership, and the availability of resources such as land and agricultural inputs and implements

1.8.2 The Grain Marketing Board (GMB) Monopoly

The government made the GMB the sole official trader in grains and the sole distributor of inputs in the country. All farmers became dependent on the GMB for input acquisition and crop sales. According to Pazvakavambwa (2009) this resulted in areas without GMB infrastructure being disadvantaged, farmers who had failed to deliver produce to GMB could not access inputs, all inputs or most of them were directed to GMB leaving nothing or very little in other retail outlets; other potential distribution agencies that could have complemented GMB in those areas where they did not have infrastructure were not given the opportunity to participate in the distribution of inputs and grain; and a significant quantity of inputs deteriorated in GMB premises due to poor handling or inappropriate storage facilities.

1.8.3 The Government Input Scheme (GIS)

Pazvakavambwa (2009) noted that in year 2000, the government announced that it would provide inputs for farmers for the next 6 years and the requirements for inputs were appropriated through the Ministry of Agriculture. However, the Ministry never received the budget needed. Over the years, the funding gap increased coupled with the absence of commercial bank lending facilities that cited lack of collateral security resulting largely from the land reform program. When farmers realised that they had lost the initiative, they did not make any preparations for the following agricultural season instead they waited patiently for government inputs. The government also ring-fenced all the available inputs thereby barring any commercial activity in the area. The inappropriate targeting of beneficiaries further

weakened the scheme, and the lack of evaluation and review as well as the decision of the Ministry of Finance to treat it as an off-budget item rendered it moribund. The GIS was succeeded by the Productive Sector Facility Program.

1.8.4 The Productive Sector Facility (PSF)

This Facility was introduced by the government through the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe (RBZ) in 2004 to remedy the government's increasing inability to fund the input scheme through vote appropriations due to financial and fiscal constraints. The PSF also applied to other sectors where vote appropriations from government were inadequate. Pazvakavambwa (2009) reiterated that under the PSF for Agriculture, the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe made financing available at 25% interest for food crop production, given that the interest rates at the time were 300% to 400% for such loans. The facility had 6-month tenure for seasonal loans and an 18-month tenure for medium term loans. This period proved inadequate for effective acquittal of loans as some of the crops financed would not have been marketed at the expiry of the facility. The PSF failed in its very first year – some of the reasons included the following: Loans not paid up by the maturity date or any part remaining thereof immediately assumed the going commercial interest rates - at that time, the rates ranged between 300% and 400%; Although lending was to individual farmers, the loans were accessed through commercial banks that were then held liable for repayment by RBZ. This increased the risk profile of commercial banks for most loans especially those to the development sector; Most seasonal loans matured and were called up before the items they financed were ready for the market; Failure by the farmers to meet their loan obligation due to the short repayment periods resulted in the commercial banks paying the RBZ and in turn charging the farmers the commercial interest rates. This obviously negatively affected the

farmers who found themselves in a debt trap and were not able to farm the following season; and some farmers resorted to side-marketing which negated the objective of food security.

1.8.5 The Agricultural Sector Productive Enhancement Facility (ASPEF)

Pazvakavambwa (2009) commented that ASPEF programs were poorly designed with an apparent emphasis on financial aspects instead of farmer empowerment; Centralized Implementation with the Central Bank making all the decisions. The Central Bank recruited a few key people from the Ministry of Agriculture who were now the sole advisers to the bank; Ministry plans and projections were often ignored as the Central Bank sought to implement its own policies and strategies often at variance with the Ministry of Agriculture;

1.8.6 Operation Maguta/Inala/Food Security Command Agriculture

This was the government's response to the continuing deterioration in national food security status. It was based on the conviction that an improvement in logistics would result in farmers getting their inputs in time, plant early and get decent yields. The Central Bank made Maguta a separate entity from the Ministry of Agriculture and accorded it special payment and clearance arrangements. Maguta began marginalizing the Ministry, and completed the takeover in the second year of its implementation. In the process, it ring-fenced all the inputs and established its own priorities. In the winter season of 2007, farmers could not obtain inputs if they had not "joined" Maguta. According to Pazvakavambwa (2009) there was gross abuse of this scheme resulting in the squeezing-out of genuine farmers, secularized input distribution, and the diversion of inputs to the black market by unscrupulous profiteers. The potential for food security had suffered another damaging blow and the Champion Farmers Program was introduced in 2008.

1.8.7 The Champion Farmers Program

Under this initiative introduced in 2008, the government undertook to provide inputs to targeted farmers capable of producing high yields. It failed to target potentially productive farmers as evidenced by the following: Everyone who filled an application form was considered regardless of capability or track record; The program was launched very late and input distribution suffered from lack of fuel and transport facilities; Original crop packs had been revised and reduced to 50% of the initial quantities, a factor almost guaranteed to make the targeted yield of 5 tons per hectare unattainable; The use of the same Maguta machinery for logistics and distribution rendered the initiative unviable; and The lack of proper targeting meant that the objective of achieving food security was severely compromised.

1.8.8 Subsidized fuel for farmers

Pazvakavambwa (2009) noted that some of the loopholes that emerged here were as follows: The Ministry could not distinguish farmers from non-farmers and a lot of fuel went to non-farmers who ended up selling it on the black market; There was no monitoring and follow-up in the field to ascertain that fuel had been used for the intended purpose; and fuel companies contracted to distribute the fuel to farmers deliberately delayed distribution or significantly reduced quantities destined for farmers by diverting the fuel to the commercial market where the returns were higher. The Government announced that the fuel scheme for farmers was being abandoned and that every farmer was to source fuel from the market.

1.8.9 Food Deficit Mitigation Strategy (FDMS)

The program began in the harvest season of 2010/2011/2012 according to Pazvakavambwa (2009) and was initiated to improve overall food security after the 2010 harvest. Phase I started in August 2010 and US\$1.652 million was disbursed in cash among seven districts.

The program was expanded in January 2011, and an additional US\$2.295 million was disbursed to 16 districts, including the above districts and additional needy areas for the duration of the lean season. The GoZ modified the program so that targeted food-insecure households in 12 districts continue to receive maize vouchers for redemption at nearby designated food distribution points and GMB depots. As of July 2012, the Treasury had not yet disbursed the funds, and the new program did not have provisions for cash distributions of US\$10 per household. MoLSS assisted with transportation of grain to designated food distribution points. The government instituted a Grain Loan Scheme to allow households to gain access to the grain as drought relief. This departed from the previous drought relief approaches based on food transfers through either food-for-work programmes and/or direct food hand outs. A major drawback with the direct food relief approaches was identifying the needy households so as not to offer a blanket programme. This resulted in administrative problems that raised cost of implementing the programmes as well as created potential political discourse from households and regions not participating. In the end, the tendency was to make the drought relief a universal food aid programme. The system was perverted by special interest groups' intervention that expanded the number of households for their own benefits. Another drawback was that it was considered that direct food aid provided disincentives to households and caused misallocation of resources and dependency.

While the food-for-work programmes were used for infrastructure rehabilitation and developmental purposes, only a small number of these programmes had some successes. The weakness of these programmes centred on planning and implementation problems of some of the projects. In a number of cases, the projects were poorly planned or supervised and short-term in nature. Implementation had been dependent on inexperienced or poorly trained local administrators or leaders. Coordination of the projects has been weak and there was no

effective monitoring system. Another criticism was that the food-for-work programmes took labour out of the individual household. The public project activities did not contribute to enhancing increased productivity at the individual household level. The departure from the direct food aid programmes was necessitated by several factors, namely (a) to reduce the cost of administration, (b) to reduce the cost of the food aid programme. It was also intended to enhance targeting of those households in need. The Grain Loan Scheme was therefore conceptualized as allowing household to borrow grain according to their requirements and capacity to repay. This way those households with means to access food from the market and other sources were not likely to borrow from the Grain Loan Scheme. The Grain Loan Scheme was seen as making the household accountable for the grain borrowed rather than households seeing the food aid programme as a generalized benefit courtesy of the good will of the government.

1.9 Grain Loan Scheme in Zimbabwe

The GoZ has also instituted food assistance programs to improve national food security levels. In 2010, the GoZ announced the Grain Loan Scheme, a program which appears similar to previous GoZ food aid interventions. This program was not available in all districts. It began in 2011 and was expected to end at the beginning of the 2012 harvest (April/May); however, it was extended until 2014. The GMB implemented the program, and managed over 500 distribution points. The Ministry of Local Government, Rural and Urban Development were responsible for beneficiary selection.

Under the program, eligible families were to receive one 50 kg bag of maize per month for up to four months, for a total of up to 200 kg of maize per family. The scheme was expected to benefit over 600,000 Zimbabwean households. Beneficiaries were obliged to pay back the “borrowed” maize to the GMB once they reaped their harvest; however, there was

widespread speculation that beneficiaries were not forced to pay back the actual maize quantity that was initially “borrowed.” The USAID-BEST study team heard allegations of corruption related to transport contractors for the GMB’s Grain Loan Scheme, and allegations of political affiliation being used as criteria in beneficiary selection. Furthermore, the USAID-BEST team field visit revealed that not all communities were aware of this GoZ program.

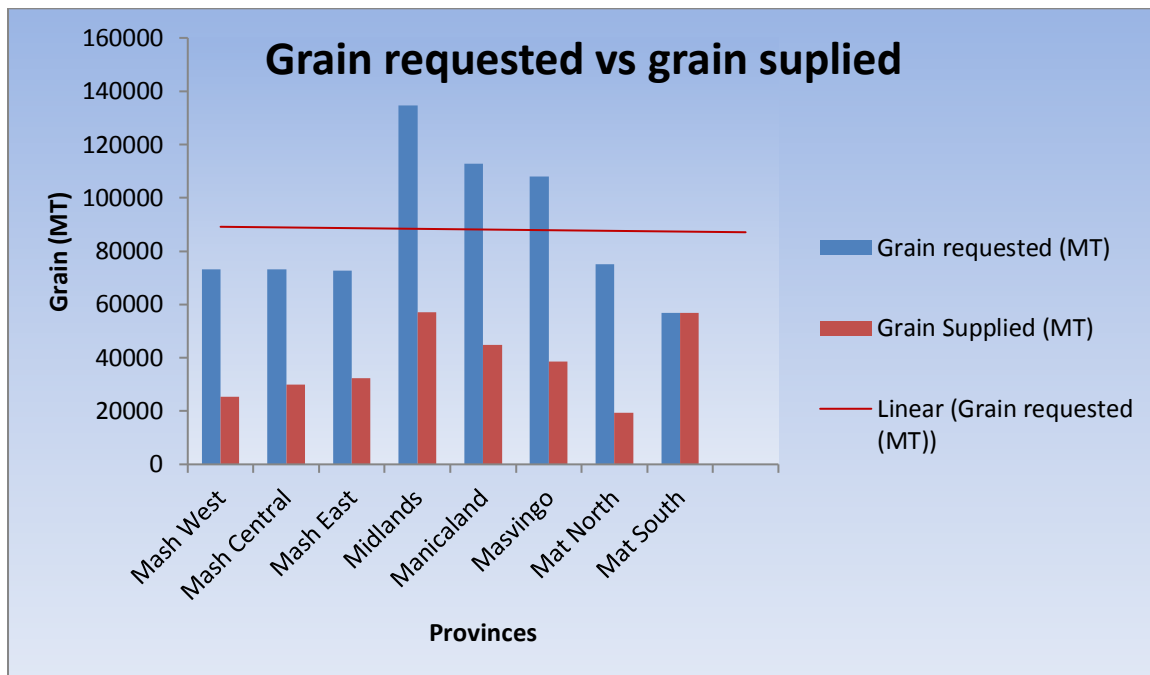
Table 5: Grain Loan Scheme number of applicants and costs

Province	No of Applicants	Grain Requested (MT)	No of Beneficiaries	Grain Supplied (MT)	Total Cost of Grain (Z\$ million)
Mash West	672 438	73 162	579 846	25 436	45.8
Mash Central	581 689	73 137	250 086	29 876	54.71
Mash East	665 799	72 565	653 840	32 435	59.27
Midlands	1 083 386	134 641	622 251	57 161	102.56
Manicaland	958 059	112 811	565 550	44 769	81.04
Masvingo	1 061 065	107 884	401 563	38 579	69.89
Mat North	618 349	74 967	134 533	19 458	36.79
Mat South	434 791	56 752	83 031	56 752	33.25
National Total	6 075 486	705 939	3 290 339	265 991	483.34

Source: Masanzu & Makaudze, 1996

The diagram below shows that grain supplied was far below the grain that was requested. This shows that most people who were supposed to receive the grain did not receive enough supplies due to inadequate supplies from the grain marketing boards. The trend line shows that nothing changed. Mashonaland received almost half of the grain that was requested. Matebeleland North is the only province that got the amount of grain that it requested due to its severity in food insecurity status.

Graph 2: Grain Requested vs Grain Supplied



Source: Masanzu and Makaudze (1996)

The Grain Loan Scheme became operational in the mid-1995. The direct effect was to make grain available and therefore assuring food security following the 1994/95 droughts. The table above gives the number of households who applied and benefited from the Grain Loan. 6 075 486 persons registered to receive 705 939 metric tonnes of grain as loan. A total of 265 991 metric tonnes of grain was loaned to 3 290 339 persons at a total cost of Z\$483.34. The demand exceeded the capacity of the scheme.

1.10 Summary

This chapter looked at the origins of food security and its components. It also explored the food security situation in Zimbabwe and Mutoko district. The factors that cause food insecurity and government interventions that have been implemented to alleviate hunger. Malthus and Amartya Sen theories were also looked at in connection with food security. According to Mudzonga and Chigwada (2009) Zimbabwe has the potential to be food self-

sufficient but needs to be buttressed by addressing supply side constraints and introducing domestic and external policies that support agricultural development. Government has to ensure that food aid is provided in a way that positively resolves the food crisis without undermining local food production. It should integrate smallholder farmers into the global food production chain to avoid their marginalization and strengthen food security and poverty reduction. The chapter also introduced the GLS which will be explored in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 2

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE GRAIN LOAN SCHEME

2.0 Introduction

This chapter will explore contributions of the GLS to the community, the Food and Nutrition Policy, concepts and framework. It will also incorporate the findings of the research and case studies of other countries that have implemented such programs.

2.1 Food and Nutrition Policy

According to Makudoka (2013) the Food and Nutrition Policy was introduced to provide a mechanism for facilitating the harmonization of sectoral plans and programmes which impact on food and nutrition security for a cohesive and cost effective action to occur. Its mandate is to foster a shared vision and strategy for improved household food and nutrition security. Makudoka (2013) also noted that the policy also provides a framework for sustainable concerted and coordinated multi-sectoral action and defines sectoral roles and responsibilities of the various stakeholders involved in food and nutrition programmes. The policy was introduced after realising that the country needed a policy framework in order to facilitate the implementation of coordinated and multi-sectoral programs to the country's food and nutrition situation. According to FAO (2006) Zimbabwe's food and nutrition situation has become a national priority which requires coordinated and multi-sectoral interventions. The food and nutrition security structures which have been put in place should therefore make sure that various stakeholders are held accountable for their role in achieving the desired outcomes.

Zimbabwe has no standing administration commitment to respond to drought through predetermined programs thus policy making is closed and centred on the executive. Most

citizens have their first encounter with policy when it is announced rather than through involvement in its formulation. This implies that government relief programs are not initiated at grassroots level but are a product of lobbying by external agents which means that programs are tuned to the interests and goals of the incumbent who direct policy making in this case government officials. This is supported by a research respondent from Chisambiro village in ward 18 who highlighted that most villagers were not aware of the program or were not fully informed since it involved contributions in terms of money thus those who did not have money could not have their maize grain delivered since the program involved contribution of funds to cover transport costs. This was because the program was not planned from the grassroots but was an imposition from the top so information dissemination was either distorted or strained.

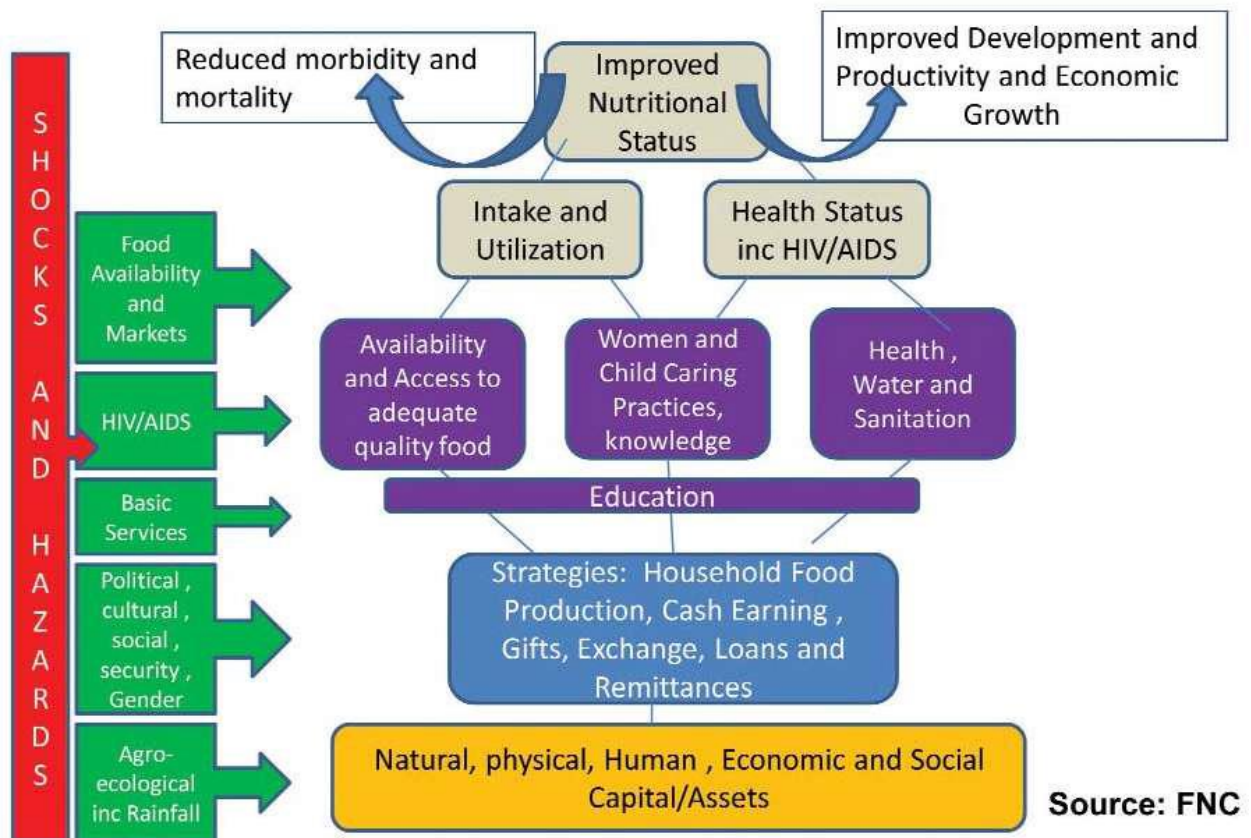
Makudoka (2013) says that the goal of the Food and Nutrition Policy is to promote and ensure adequate food and nutrition security for all people at all times in Zimbabwe, particularly amongst the most vulnerable and in line with the country's cultural norms and values and the concept of rebuilding and maintaining family dignity. According to the Food and Nutrition Policy report (2012) the policy provides a practical way forward towards fulfilment of various global, regional and national policy frameworks that Zimbabwe has committed to like the Human Rights Charter, The Medium Term Plan, The Millennium Development Goals and the Comprehensive African Agricultural Development Programme. Makudoka (2013) pointed out that there are 8 principles that govern the Food and Nutrition Policy thus:

- To be relevant in the socio-economic context of Zimbabwe.
- To reaffirm the “right to food”.
- To reaffirm investment in evidence based best practices for results based research.

- To strengthen collaboration across all sectors.
- To reinforce roles and responsibilities of communities in ensuring Food and Nutrition.
- To reinforce Government, NGO and private sector partnerships.
- To reaffirm that relief, recovery and development should occur simultaneously to mitigate shocks, in risk reduction particularly in the context of climate change.
- To foster multi-sectoral approach in assessment, analysis and action.

The Government of Zimbabwe is committed to ensuring that instruments that protect and enhance food and nutrition security particularly among the most vulnerable people are formulated. It is also committed to ensuring the food security for all including access to adequate diverse and nutritious food by all people at all times ensuring that where social protection including social assistance programs are implemented. According to the food and nutrition framework illustrated below, the Food and Nutrition policy strives to reduce morbidity and mortality, to improve food availability, markets, improve women and child care practices, improve health water and sanitation facilities, improve intake and utilization of food and improved development, productivity and economic growth as illustrated in the diagram below.

Figure 7: Food and Nutrition Policy Framework



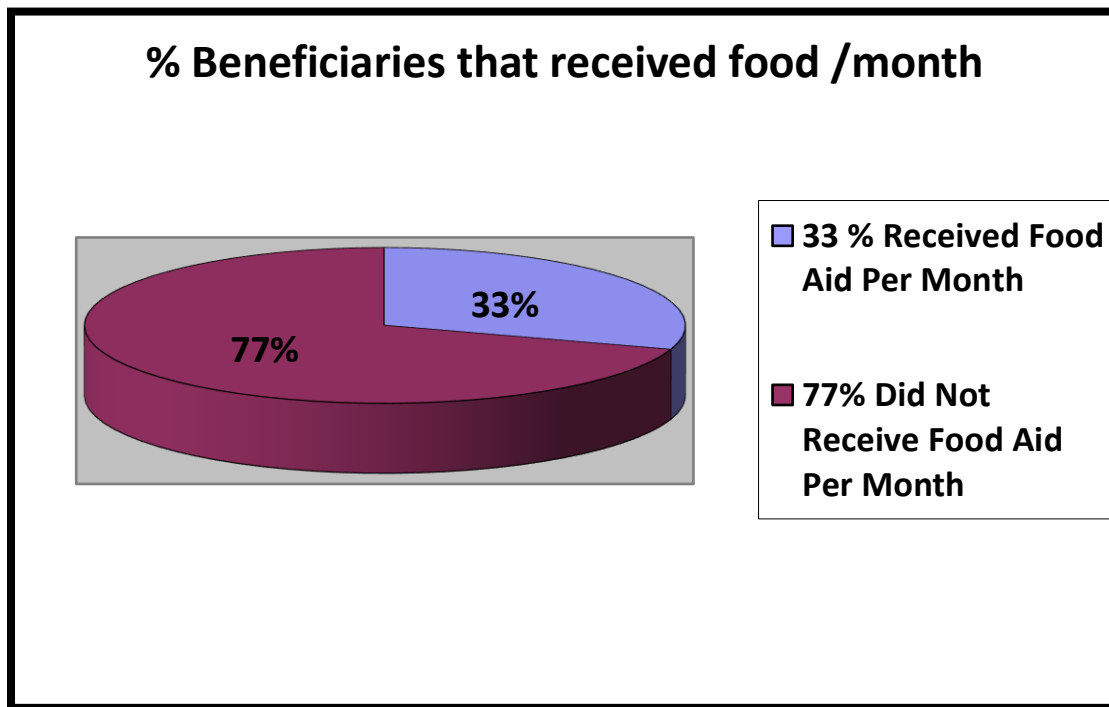
Source: Food and Nutrition Policy Report (2012)

2.2 Overall Contribution of the Grain Loan Scheme in Zimbabwe

The GLS has made a significant contribution in the country as it was implemented at the right time when there was drought in the country and the food insecurity level was high. The Grain Loan Scheme had both positive and negative contributions to the people of Zimbabwe. Overallly 80% of the planned activities under this program were achieved according to officials from the Grain Marketing Board and also from surveys conducted in wards 18 and 19 in Mutoko district. 80% of the interviewees highlighted that the program achieved its goals of helping to alleviate hunger although the program had its own challenges. According to GMB (2013) reports a cumulative total of 1 833.471MT was distributed to 36 669 beneficiaries throughout the country on a weekly basis during the implementation of the program. The GLS created jobs for people, in GMB silos, people were employed as truck

loaders and transport companies were hired to transport grain from bigger silos to depots and from depots to ward centres. Committees at ward level were also strengthened as these were used for record keeping and monitoring the distribution processes. The nutrition status of many vulnerable individuals was also improved as people had the energy to plough in their fields. The District Administrator also highlighted that the program helped alleviate hunger for the most vulnerable households as reports of people starving decreased from the Social Welfare records during this period. Maize grain was transported from GMB bigger silos to GMB district depots where councillors submitted lists of people who were supposed to benefit from their wards. GMB would consolidate these figures and dispatch maize grain to respective wards according to allocations. Results from interviews conducted in wards 18 and 19 revealed that village heads were responsible for registering the needy vulnerable individuals from their villages. This was done on a rotational basis since not everyone could receive the maize grain due to smaller quantities available from GMB at a time. Ward 19 councillor highlighted that 560 households would receive grain per month from his ward out of a total of 1687 households in his ward thus 33% of the household received food assistance per month. This was not enough considering that it was during a time when all crops had been affected by drought and everyone was hungry. Below is a pie chart showing the percentage beneficiary who received food per month:

Figure 8: Percentage beneficiaries that received food per month



Source: Research finding

All 8 rural provinces in Zimbabwe thus Manicaland, Midlands, Masvingo, Matabeleland North, Matabeleland South, Mashonaland Central, Mashonaland West and Mashonaland East benefited from the program. These areas had been affected by drought and were in need of food assistance. The table below shows statistics collected from GMB showing cumulative weekly dispatches of maize grain in metric tonnes per province:

Table 6: Cumulative Weekly Dispatches and Beneficiaries per Province

Province	Cumulative Dispatches (MT)	Weekly	Cumulative Beneficiaries	Weekly
Manicaland	188.822		3 776	
Midlands	62.507		1 250	
Masvingo	91.74		1835	
Matebeleland North	506.392		10 128	
Matebeleland South	684.01		13 680	
Mashonaland Central	78.55		1571	
Mashonaland West	67.65		1353	
Mashonaland East	93.4		1868	

Source: GMB (2013) Report

On a negative note traditional leaders in several provinces were reported to have continuously clashed with civilians on the manner of entitlement of the Grain Loan Scheme. In Mutoko district ward 18 the councillor was confronted by the Chief at Kapondoro food distribution point under the Grain Loan Scheme. It was reported that violence erupted before the distribution resulting in delays in the distribution of the grain. Youths that were among the beneficiaries intervened and clashed and interrupted the process which only resumed later after the police had intervened. Councillors were responsible for compiling the names for the beneficiaries but traditional leaders were not satisfied with the selection criteria. The Grain Loan Scheme continued to be marred by political victimization with traditional leadership playing a central role in victimizing the beneficiaries across the political lines. Political players were reported to be manipulating the scheme due to their fast waning support bases and popularity in exchange for political favours as well as serve personal vendettas in the allocation of the Grain Loan Scheme. There is great need for political tolerance and traditional leaders should be urged to desist from executing political duties. Traditional leaders need to be reminded that their duty is to play a fatherly role in the communities

imparting cultural and social knowledge within their area of jurisdiction scheme. Other issues that became controversial were that of the prominent minister's mother who had been registered to benefit from the program at the expense of deserving vulnerable beneficiaries who had been excluded from the program. The minister's mother was included in the program on the grounds that she is the minister's mother and if she does not benefit the minister would withdraw aid from the whole ward and they would not benefit from other programs that would come to the district. It remains questionable whether it can be likened to the controversial year 2000 land reform programme which left the once so called 'Jewel of Africa' and bread basket of Southern Africa a number one world beggar with lowest Poverty Datum Line (PDL). The question that remains unanswered is '*who benefits from the positive and negative benefits of the programme?*'

2.3 Government Interventions Mechanisms to address Household Food Security:

Case studies: Ethiopia, Malawi, and Zimbabwe

2.3.1 Ethiopia

The Ethiopian economy is predominantly agrarian where the agricultural sector contributes 45% of the GDP and employs over 85% of the population. The agricultural sector is characterized by traditional methods of farming with little surplus output and is affected by climatic conditions. According to Dejene (2006) 60% of the production is for own consumption and only 20% is supplied to local markets. Food production in Ethiopia has never been sufficient for the past three decades for populations to be food secure. Adnew (2004) noted that many Ethiopians are chronically hungry with a low average daily energy supply of 1880kcal per day and 44% prevalence of under nourishment. Devereux and Sussex (2000) also noted that 52% of people who live in the rural area are unable to attain minimum nutritional requirement. Plots of land have decreased due to population expansion

and soil has lost its fertility and productivity continues to decline. Tigray region is one of the regions most affected by drought famine and food insecurity problems in the country. In 1999 the Government of Ethiopia initiated a Food Security Policy to address the problem of food insecurity which is built around increasing availability of food through domestic production, ensuring access to food for food deficit households and strengthening institutional emergency response capabilities. Since 2000 different interventions have been carried out to ensure household food security that include agricultural extension services, water harvesting and utilization and resettlement programs designed to increase agriculture production and productivity. Different activities aimed at increasing incomes of the poor and enhancing livelihood assets including physical capital, natural capital, human capital, financial capital and social capital have been carried out. Extension programs were started as a success intervention in most districts of the region. Safety net programs are playing a significant role in improving the food security of beneficiaries, household asset creation and utilization of health services. Discussion forums were formulated to accommodate the needs and aspirations of the poor. Based on data collected from government bodies the food security program carried out has been achieving its intended objectives. The before and after assessments in the food security policy level indicators revealed there is change or sustained improvement on main components of food security since the introduction of the policy. Government interventions carried out in Ethiopia for the past seven years were effective in improving the lives of the poor. Studies carried out revealed that households interview perceive that government interventions carried out over the past periods have brought change on their livelihoods.

2.3.2 Malawi

The Malawi Input Subsidy Program employed the use of coupons or vouchers to target approximately 50% of farmers in the country to receive fertilizers for maize production with further vouchers for tobacco fertilizers and for improved maize seeds. Maize fertilisers were provided in a package of one voucher for a 50kg bag of 23:21:0+4S basal fertiliser and one voucher for a 50kg bag of urea. Coupons were distributed to districts and to extension planning areas in two rounds. According to Dorward et al (2011) traditional authorities, Local Government and Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security worked with village development committees and other local stakeholders to identify recipients to receive two coupons for redemption at very much reduced cash prices for inputs specified on the coupon. The program's core objective was to receive resource poor smallholder farmers' access to improved agricultural inputs in order to achieve food self-sufficiency and to increase poor smallholder farmers' incomes through increased food and cash crop production. The 2005/6 programme was very successful and was continued in subsequent years to 2008/9. There is evidence that poverty incidence has decreased in Malawi from 52% in 2004 to 40% in 2008/9 attributed to high tobacco prices, macro-economic stabilization with low interest rates and inflation and good weather. Malawi Input Subsidy Program addresses a low maize productivity trap that leads to food insecurity and poverty and constraints economic growth and paradoxically, diversification out of maize and agriculture. The success of the Malawi subsidy program arises where it relieves both affordability and profitability constraints to increased real wages and reduced food prices. This model of success will only potentially apply to other countries where large numbers of people face similar staple food productivity constraints and where substantial potential increases in productivity from increased input use are similarly constrained by thin input markets poorly developed input supply systems and widespread profitability and affordability problems. According to Malawi (2007:8) maize of

the 2005/2006 growing season was estimated at an increase of 23 percent. According to Phiri (2007c:9) food prices have gone down so much that farmers in other parts of Malawi are worried that they will not receive much from their harvest.

2.3.3 Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe has been reduced from a bread basket of Southern Africa to a net recipient of food aid. Factors responsible for maize decline in addition to adverse weather conditions were untimely delivery of seed and shortages of fertiliser, deteriorating infrastructure and most importantly unprofitable prices for most of the GMB controlled crops which are maize and wheat. Newly settled farmers cultivated only half of the prime land allocated to them owing to shortages of tractor draught power, fuel and investment in infrastructure/improvements and absenteeism on the part of some new settler beneficiaries. The UN WFP started operating in Zimbabwe in 2002 when production had reached an all-time low of about 0.55 million tonnes against national consumption needs of about 2.02 million tonnes. Since then production levels have never reached the national consumption requirements and the deficit has always had to be met by both government and aid agencies. Crisis in Zimbabwe Coalition (2009) claims that 75% of Zimbabweans were in need of food aid, the WFP was set to provide food to 5.1 million people before the harvest in April while the Consortium for Southern Africa Food Security Emergency C-SAFE provided to 2.1 million people. Zimbabwe has the third largest food aid program 7.2 million, Afghanistan 8.82 million and Ethiopia 8.67 million.

2.4 Grain Loan Scheme and Food Security in Mutoko District

The impact of food aid on the people of Mutoko district has been remarkable. The survey and the interviews that were done in wards 18 and 19 have shown that the impact has been both positive and negative. As has been pointed out, Mutoko district has been affected by drought

and food aid has helped greatly in times of need. The GLS has saved many lives and all the people interviewed from wards 18, 19, the councillors and government officials appreciated the program. The GLS helped to alleviate the suffering of vulnerable members of the population, including the sick, old and orphaned in Mutoko district. In support of the observations by Makenete et al (1998:253), one has to state that the GLS improved food security in Mutoko district by raising the dietary status, nutrition and consumption of many households. This has contributed to the health status of the people, especially the sick. According to those interviewed from Plan International food aid has contributed to a reduction in malnutrition related diseases, school dropouts, early marriages and child labour practices. Community leaders as well as many other interviewees, agree that food aid has had a significant positive effect on food production by raising labour productivity. People have been empowered and have the energy to go and work in their fields. This view is supported by Lavy (1990), Sijm (1997:464) and Maunder (2006:12), who indicated that certain arguments suggest that food aid can increase the supply of labour and contribute to increased agricultural production. It is also believed that the income transfer provided through food aid frees poor households from the necessity of seeking short-term casual labour opportunities to meet immediate consumption needs, instead of pursuing casual work in their search for food; they have the time and energy to work in their own fields. In the presence of food aid that may act as an effective form of insurance against potential production losses, farmers in Africa have been known to adopt production-maximising behaviour Maunder (2006:13) pointed out that food aid could be used as an indirect means of providing support or as an incentive for initiatives in community and economic development. Maunder's (2006:vii) assertion that food aid increases net household incomes while releasing resources for investment in agricultural inputs has been proven to be true in Mutoko as some of the money that households would have used to buy food has been channelled to farm inputs such as

fertiliser and seeds. Despite food aid having had a positive impact on households in Mutoko it has also affected the community negatively. According to Raffer and Singer (1996:82) it created laziness and food aid dependency. All the interviewees in special interviews, emphasised that people in Mutoko have become lazy and do not work hard in their fields because they are assured of food aid when they do not harvest sufficiently. They have become so dependent on food aid that some people would wait for disasters and would sometimes even put themselves in positions whereby they become victims of disasters so that they are eligible for food aid. Officials from AGRITEX believed that despite the adverse climatic conditions experienced in Mutoko district, people could be able to produce enough food to feed them and even export to other parts of the country, if they were willing to follow advice. Government and NGO officials pointed out that if the people could concentrate on growing crops that did well in Mutoko, they would be able to harvest enough. Moreover, many suggest that irrigation could boost food production in the area whilst others suggested livestock production as an alternative to food insecurity in Mutoko. This area does very well in animal husbandry. According to Raffer and Singer (1996:82) food aid induces the recipient governments to use food aid as an alternative to the much more difficult task of increasing food production. Maunder (2006:13) points out that large-scale external assistance may dissuade governments from taking their own steps and using their own resources to tackle problems of food insecurity. In other cases, food aid allows politicians to divert voters' attention from their failure to address increasing vulnerability over the long term and to resist pressure to relinquish control to the private sector. Although their attitude was not extensively researched, almost all interviewees emphasised their dissatisfaction with the government's poor attempts to help the people of Mutoko out of the cycle of poverty and food shortage. Despite some people's advocating food aid as an important food source and as an addition to food production, many interviewees believed that food aid discouraged food production. This

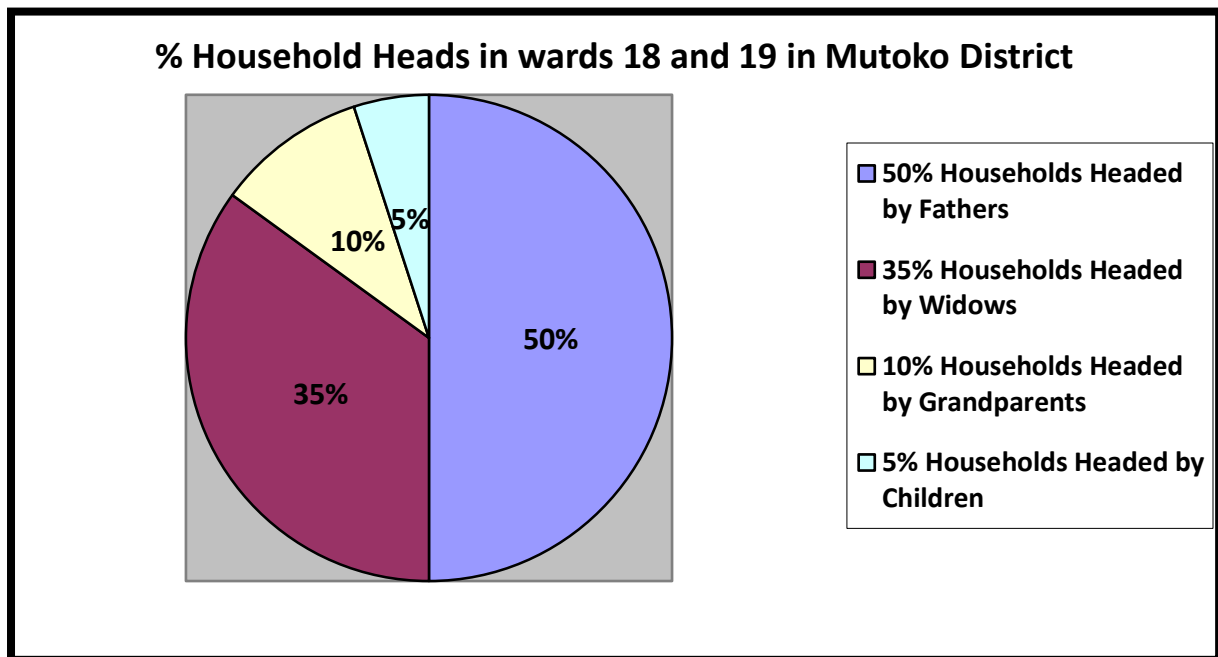
opinion is in accordance with that of Maunder (2006:vi), Raffer and Singer (1996:83) and Sijm (1997:465) who believe that food aid may be a disincentive to domestic agricultural production which, in turn, perpetuates the requirement for food aid. All government officials and members of the NGO believed that food aid had contributed to the low production of food crops because food aid offered people an alternative. Interestingly, all those who advocated food aid as an aid to food production were members of the community who had been surveyed: Ninety-five per cent of the people surveyed refuted allegations that food aid discouraged them from growing their own crops, possibly suggesting that the people have come to believe that they can work hard in their fields only when they have food aid. This may be a sure sign of dependency. Another negative impact of food aid on food security as pointed out by some is its tendency to hinder and discourage community development projects. Community leaders pointed out that food aid caused division among communities. Community members attributed this unfair distribution of food to the chiefs who were involved in the identification of people eligible for food aid, and this accusation caused enmity among the chiefs, village headmen and local people. The last negative impact food aid has on the people of is that they believe it has made the government neglect its duties in the area and emphasised that the government needed to encourage people to be self-reliant in food matters rather than being satisfied with the NGO's distributing food supplies in the area each year.

2.5 Contribution of the Grain Loan Scheme in Mutoko District

The Grain Loan Scheme is reported to have had a significant contribution to the people of Mutoko district. However just like any other program that is implemented it comes with positive and negative impacts. The councilor for ward 19 highlighted that this program came at the right time when all crops had been affected and drought was at its peak. It has helped

people survive the hunger period because it targeted the most vulnerable people. Every ward in the program received something on a monthly basis although the quantities were fewer than the requested quantities. It also created jobs for youths who loaded and offloaded the trucks. The Mutoko GMB depot had to recruit more staff under this program for record keeping and loading of trucks. The bag of maize was loaned at a subsidized cost as people were given for free only to pay back after subsequent harvests so this implies that no cash was needed upfront in order to benefit the maize except for the transport cost which was paid only after GMB would have failed to avail government funded transport. This is when councilors would source their own transport. Out of the people interviewed in both wards 18 and 19, 50% of the households interviewed were headed by fathers, 35% by mothers, 10% by grandparents and 5% by children thus orphans. The survey shows that the selection criteria strived to co-operate widows, orphans and child headed families into the program since they are the most vulnerable people in the society according to the vulnerability classification. This situation was caused by the death of husbands or both parents due to the HIV and AIDS pandemic and the high prevalence of malaria that is prevailing in Mutoko District. The 2012-2013 annual report for Mutoko district recorded 2000 reported cases of malaria and 35 recorded deaths which render malaria a threat in the district. Not forgetting poverty and chronic food shortages that also played a part in inducing death. This situation warranted the wards support from outsiders in the form of food aid that is why the two wards were selected into the GLS program. Below is a pie chart showing the demographic situation of the two wards:

Figure 9: Household Heads in wards 18 and 19 in Mutoko district



Source: Research finding

90% of households interviewed rely on subsistence farming as a main source of food which supports that Zimbabwe in particular Mutoko district is predominantly an agricultural based area. Agriculture is the most reliable source of food but it has been difficult for the people to harvest enough yields due to a number of factors such as droughts, floods, insufficient arable land and population increase. Consequently the households had to use multiple sources of food to survive which explains why a large percentage of the households required food assistance in wards 18 and 19 from 2010 to 2014 when drought was at its peak. 10% is not involved in agriculture either because they do not own land or means of production. All the households interviewed highlighted that they did not harvest enough food to take them through to the next season during the study period thus 2010 to 2014. 10% of the households harvested enough food to take them through half the agricultural season, 20% had food enough for a quarter of the season and 30% harvested just enough to last them for a month and 40% reported to have harvested nothing because their crops had been affected by early seizure of rains and the late onset of the rains. Some had been affected by non- affordability

of inputs like fertilizers. Almost every household interviewed in wards 18 and 19 have fields but they are very small in comparison to the number of members in the household they have to support due to inadequate arable land in the area as land has been taken up by quarry mines, gold panners, land degradation and a general increase in population as people frequent these wards in search of jobs at quarry mines and illegal gold mines. Another reason for poor harvest was people's attitude towards change in farming methods as people are resistant to learn new methods. According to AGRITEX officials interviewed, they have tried to implement programs that teach people new approaches to modern farming like zero tillage through demonstrations but people do not easily adapt. People were said to be lazy and depend on food aid. The photograph below shows beneficiaries of the Grain Loan Scheme in ward 18 at Kapondoro food distribution point filling in forms awaiting a truck of maize grain from Mutoko GMB:

Figure 10: Beneficiaries at a GLS distribution point at Kapondoro ward 18 Mutoko district



Source: Research finding

Many households alluded to that before the Grain Loan Scheme they survived on one decent meal a day because they did not have enough food to eat since they had not harvested well since the onset of droughts and economic changes in year 2000. The number of meals consumed per day had improved since the inception of the Grain Loan Scheme. 20% of the households interviewed said they could afford 3 meals a day, 70% had 2 meals per day and 10% still had one meal a day because their families were too large for one bag of 50kgs maize per month so they still had to ration. However from the statistics above it can be seen that the GLS improved the food intake of many households. Interviewees also highlighted that when the scheme was withdrawn many people have reverted to one meal a day because some did not have access to inputs and some did not anticipate a good season so they had not

tilled their fields. Many households had two meals per day and having 2 meals per day comes down to food rationing which is a coping mechanism for people of Mutoko. During the GLS people had reduced their frequency of searching for casual labour and begging for food because the availability of food gave them time to plough their own fields instead of other people's fields in search of income to feed their families. People no longer begged for food from their relatives as frequently as they used to before the GLS. The photograph below shows a beneficiary carry his 50kgs bag of maize as a monthly allocation for a family of 8 people at Chibeta food distribution point in ward 19 Mutoko.

Figure 11: A beneficiary carrying his 50kg bag of maize from Chibeta food distribution point in ward 19



Source: Research finding

Although the scheme did not have enough food to cover everyone who deserved to be given food aid it contributed significantly to the wards that were covered by the program thus wards 1 to 19 of Mutoko district. Shown below are statistics from Mutoko Grain Marketing Board of beneficiaries and tonnages distributed per ward.

Table 7: Tonnages and Beneficiaries of the Grain Loan Scheme in Mutoko District

Selling Point	Cumulative Beneficiaries from 2010 to 2013	Cumulative Tonnages 2010 to 2013
Nyahunure	558	27.878
7	8162	408.078
3	5582	279.109
2	6399	319.962
1	1643	82.125
5	1670	83.51
10	6560	328.01
15	1092	54.59
18	6003	300.132
19	558	27.878
20	648	32.418
13	1083	54.125
8	2106	105.307
12	5579	278.967
17	526	26.3
4	3914	195.722
Kawere	521	26.053
Nyamhanza	529	26.44
Mbudzi C	558	27.878
14	1072	53.6
Chindenga	526	26.3
11	539	26.939
6	7644	382.18

Source: GMB Reports (2013)

60% of the households interviewed relied on piece jobs or casual labour as a source of income, 10% were involved in informal trading, 20% are in farming and 5% sold their animals and assets to get money and 5% received gifts from relatives. People's involvement in casual labour indicated that they had distrusted their fields to produce enough food owing

to drought and bad weather. A small number of surveyed households obtain an income from selling their farm produce because majority do not produce enough food to feed themselves and others sold their animals mostly at low prices as they became desperate. The Grain Loan Scheme came to their rescue as it helped people to preserve their livestock and engage in farming activities. Levels of income were very low around \$60 per month which is less than a dollar per day for a family of 5. They spent 70% of their income on food which shows that they are desperate for food. Although households did not harvest enough for the year they still sold what they had in order to obtain money to pay for transport under the GLS.

A large number of households preferred growing their own food because food aid was not enough, not always on time, not always reliable to their liking. Food aid distributors agreed that food aid was not enough to meet the needs of the whole population in the area. This was also supported by the Mutoko GMB manager who highlighted that there were delays in dispatches from bigger silos to depots to the wards and transport unreliability was also an issue. Councilors from wards 18 and 19 said that transport was supposed to be for free but they ended up asking beneficiaries for a \$1 to as much as \$3 as payment for transport cost to their respective wards. Food aid was not fair because households received 50kgs of cereals per household regardless of the number of household members. There were also inclusion and exclusion errors spearheaded by political affiliation or conflicts. Some wards like ward 19 was not easily accessible due to a bridge that had collapsed so transporters did not reach the intended destinations around the wards. This resulted in food being distributed far from intended destinations and old aged beneficiaries could not walk for long distances so they lost their allocation as it was collected by someone else due to non - attendance.

Food availability is described as a sufficient supply of food to all people at all times. Food was not readily available in Mutoko district because of climate changes which caused drought and 30% of the population in Mutoko relied on food aid for survival. FANTA (2006:1) pointed out that food availability means sufficient quantities of appropriate, necessary types of food from donors, local production and commercial imports that are consistently available to individuals in reasonable proximity to them. GLS has had a positive impact on food availability it has made food available in the area. Food aid in addition to local production has created food availability in sufficient quantities of appropriate types in reasonable proximity to the people.

Food accessibility refers to the way in which people acquire food. FANTA (2006:1) presents food accessibility as individuals having adequate incomes or other sources to purchase the levels of appropriate foods needed to maintain consumption of an adequate diet. Most families access food by consuming what they produce or by purchasing food from the income from casual labour or informal trading. 70% of people interviewed spend 70% of their income on food. The GLS made food accessible to the needy people. Food accessibility in ward 19 was hindered by poor road infrastructure which saw the collapse of the bridge to an extent that trucks could not cross the bridge so they could not reach the intended destinations.

Food utilization is referred to by Madziakapita (2004:9) as the actual consumption of sufficient quantities and quality of food to provide adequate energy and nutrients to household members. GLS provided nutritive value to school going children and the sick, elderly and energy to labour force. Raffer and Singer (1996:84) believe that food aid promotes an undesirable shift in consumption patterns away from traditional local staple food towards the commodities supplied as food aid. In Mutoko the GLS distributed the staple food

thus maize so 100% of the people interviewed were content with the food. The food received had nutrients easily consumed and properly digested and absorbed.

2.6 Effects of drought in Mutoko District

100% of the respondents propounded that hunger in Mutoko district is caused by poor rains, overpopulation and quarry mines that have taken up arable land. 50% of the respondents pointed that the frequency of droughts has increased due to global warming and climate change is playing a huge role in increasing the frequency of drought. 97% argued that livestock is lost as a result of droughts and 100% highlighted food insecurity. When food insecurity is high business people and other individuals would hike prices of food items mostly farming produce like maize. Food insecurity leads to malnutrition, forced marriages, prostitution as a survival strategy leading to HIV and AIDS. Traditional leaders and councilors were reported to induce fight and hatred for scarce relief food commodities. All the respondents thus 100% expressed concerns about some food distributors who become corrupt and politicize relief food aid.

2.7 Coping mechanisms in Mutoko District

All the people interviewed pointed out that the first coping mechanism they apply is saving the little food they have and reduce the number of meals they consume per day. During the GLS households increased their number of meals per day and did not save for as much as they used to in anticipation of another dispatch. 70% of the respondents would exchange labour for food or cash but this was reduced to 50% as most people concentrated on producing their own food in their own fields instead of selling labour to acquire food for survival. Others sold their livestock since almost every household interviewed had owned some livestock like goats, chickens, sheep and cattle. Some engaged in gold panning at

Makaha and some were employed in quarry mines. Some sell their assets which are difficult to replace and others gathered wild fruits. Most of these coping mechanisms were relaxed during the implementation of the GLS which came to the rescue.

2.8 Institutional arrangements and capacities in Mutoko District

Data gathered from key district informants highlighted that the drought relief committee is made up of the District Administrator who chairs the committee, the Chief Executive Officer, GMB, AGRITEX, NGOs like COMMUTECH, Plan International and Mutoko Farmers Association. According to Wilhite et al (2005) this is the main committee which manages projects and they meet when there is urgent need to resolve issues. The survey revealed that this committee does not have the capacity to monitor early warning and prediction, impact assessment and mitigation response. Wilhite et al (2005) says committees are very important as they carry out monitoring and planning functions, village and ward committees are there but not functional. Councilors, AGRITEX officers and traditional leaders pointed out that institutions do not have enough resources to manage programs. According to Schilderink (2009) the lack of requisite capacities especially resources and skills by institutions are the reason why proactive drought management through use of drought cycle management in Kenya failed. Councilors, AGRITEX officials showed that people mainly use their resources when such programs occur. Government officials have no means of transport to go to wards for monitoring purposes.

2.9 Summary

The chapter explored the food and nutrition concepts to be incorporated in the policy that was launched in 2012. It looked at the overall contribution of the GLS and the contribution of the scheme in Mutoko district including the food security components of food availability, food access and food utilization. Effects of drought and coping mechanisms were also explored.

Case studies of two countries, Ethiopia and Malawi that also implemented government funded programs were explored including their successes and challenges.

CHAPTER 3

CHALLENGES EXPERIENCED IN THE GRAIN LOAN SCHEME AND THE PROSPECTS FOR FOOD SECURITY IN MUTOKO DISTRICT

3.0 Introduction

Just like any program that may be implemented positive and negative challenges may be faced and future recommendations accessed. This chapter will look at the prospects for food aid whether it is positive or negative for Mutoko district.

3.1 Overall challenges of the Grain Loan Scheme in Zimbabwe

The Grain Loan Scheme in Zimbabwe lost its credibility and was unable to demonstrate lasting impact mainly because it was interfered by politics and it lacked adequate financial and human resources to effectively manage the program. There was lack of clarity on who the beneficiaries of the programme were and who was supposed to benefit. It is therefore critical for government to tackle these challenges.

- The government food and nutrition guidelines were inadequate for effective coordination and implementation of the program.
- There was lack of compliance to available state guidelines any attempt to adhere to these guidelines was very poor.
- The opportunities for corruption in the programme were very high as evidenced by reported incidents of violence and confrontations by the youths to councillors. The use of political rather than community based structures for targeting has polarised communities.
- There was lack of coordination capacity, commitment and resources at all levels.
- The quality of reporting was poor as evidenced by many errors in the compilation of data and the little useful data gathered was not analysed or disaggregated.

- The programme had inadequate administrative budgets to support effective implementation of the program.
- There was a weak appreciation of accounting procedures at provincial and district levels as evidenced by lack of captured data when the researcher visited the District offices where some data could not be found.
- There was a high staff turnover during the implementation of the program due to non-payment of salaries and services; therefore the programme was generally understaffed at all levels.
- Communication about programme objectives and its outcomes was poor and was not communicated to the community.

3.2 Challenges of the Grain Loan Scheme in Mutoko District

- There were inadequate food supplies from the big silos to the smaller depots to ward level down to the beneficiary. According to officials from GMB Mutoko the GLS was supposed to ensure that each household selected will get a 50kg bag of maize monthly but due to unavailability of enough stock this could not be achieved. Some beneficiaries did not receive food in other months. There was also an intermittent supply of maize grain from large silos to district depot which affected the smooth flow or the availability of grain both at depots and wards. It became a mammoth task to get adequate grain on time due to delays and small quantities from big silos also impacted negatively on smaller district GMBs to deliveries to wards to beneficiaries.
- There was also a shortage of transport because transporters were not being paid or politicians wanted to recruit their colleagues or transporters shunned other routes that were not accessible. Some of the roads were not accessible for example the bridge to ward 19 was swept away rendering the area not reachable and it was very difficult for vehicles to pass through that explains why they did not receive their complete

allocation. Transporters were reluctant to transport maize grain from Mutoko depot to ward centres due to non-payment of transport costs by government. Results from the survey revealed that councilors had to source their own transport to transport maize grain to their wards where each beneficiary was charged between \$2 and \$3 per bag depending on the distance from Mutoko depot to their wards. People were forced to pay the transport cost because they were hungry and others even sold their assets like goats, wheelbarrows and chickens in order to get money to pay for transport.

- The distribution committees were headed by village heads and village committees who favored their relatives and friends at the expense of deserving beneficiaries.
- According to Chigodora (1997) very few households paid back the loan during previous government programs and it was the same situation with this program, both councilors supported this notion by saying that no one from wards 18 and 19 returned the borrowed maize grain to GMB throughout the 2010 to 2014 GLS program. This was supposed to be a short term loan but results from the survey revealed that all beneficiaries from both wards 18 and 19 did not return the grain to GMB citing continuation of drought in the district.
- According to Kaseke (1998) public assistance programs are not evenly distributed in rural areas and lack of knowledge of these limit rural elderly from accessing aid. This also happened in this program as transporters did not reach intended food distribution points and so the elderly could not reach these points, some people did not even know the details of the program.
- Government introduced the GLS program but did not cover all needy households because of resource constraints on the government part. There was also politicization of food and corruption in the distribution system and ignorance of the bureaucratic system by some households.

- Results of the study show that public assistance is not making a positive contribution towards improving food security of vulnerable households. Public assistance has potential to enhance the food security of vulnerable households if amounts are substantial and transaction costs of accessing are low. Martin et al (2004) argued that transaction cost of collecting public assistance can be too high compared to the benefit and hence discouraging high transport costs long queues, time spent before being served.
- Local leaders like village heads practiced nepotism as they made sure their relatives receive the little grain that is delivered first. In other circumstances one household would benefit more than one bag at the expense of omission of another deserving vulnerable household on the grounds of political affiliation.
- There was a general impression that food was coming from ZANU PF as village heads told people to support ZANU in order to benefit from food aid and Members of Parliament gained mileage through this program.
- The food was received on a rotational basis and so not everyone received food on a monthly basis, some received only once since the inception of the program.
- According to GMB reports there was also an acute shortage of dispatch empty bags for maize distribution to areas affected by drought.
- There was lack of adequate resources to manage the program and there was no funding to conduct monitoring activities.
- Councilors and traditional leaders argued that there were no proper mechanisms to ensure that GMB buys food stuffs from the people and stock it for future use
- 66% lacked proper knowledge pertaining to management of the program.

3.3 Zimbabwe Government Approach to Food Security in Mutoko District

- The government's general approach to food security in Mutoko has been to encourage NGOs to provide food aid and the government itself implementing loan schemes.
- Another government approach to issues of food insecurity in Mutoko is to encourage agricultural production by teaching people modern methods of farming through agricultural extension workers. The government has struggled to convince people in the area to embrace change and embark on modern methods of agriculture to improve their harvest by introducing conservation farming.
- The government of Zimbabwe has also tried to subsidise inputs and also embarked on the Land Reform Program.
- The government provided the people with packages of farm inputs including seeds and fertiliser to help farmers plant their own food crops under the Presidential Well - Wishers Input Scheme.
- The government helps farmers by setting good selling prices for their products and encouraging companies to buy more.
- The government has not invested much in long-term solutions to the problem of food shortage in Mutoko since there is no proper food security policy.
- The Department of Agriculture is greatly understaffed and renders it impossible for them to offer extension services to the community.
- Many people appreciate government effort to provide food aid but are dissatisfied with the method government uses to distribute food to the people thus through political structures.

3.4 Future of Food Aid

According to the USAID report (2013) most rural households are experiencing minimal IPC Phase 1 food insecurity which is expected to continue to September 2014. Most households are accessing cereals through own production as a result of this year's above average harvest, the highest in the past five seasons according to the Government of Zimbabwe. Markets have responded with lower food prices as a result of the above average harvest. From 2010 to 2013 Mutoko district has been experiencing shortages of food attributed to drought due to change in climatic conditions. This warranted the district to receive help under food aid programs both from the NGOs and from the government. Since this area is better placed in terms of agrological regions the government came in with Grain Loan Schemes instead of free food aid that was being practiced by NGOs from 2002 to 2013. This agricultural season has seen an improvement in the agricultural situation that is why NGO food aid programs ended in April 2014 and the Grain Loan Scheme also ended around that time. Holding climate changes constant there is a brighter future in terms of agriculture for Mutoko district.

3.5 Solution to the problems

- Government has the responsibility to provide resources and it is necessary to provide a pool of funds from well-wishers to be used to acquire resources and people should be capacitated at community level to manage programs.
- People should not be over dependent on the government and NGOs instead they should use strategies like internal savings and lending income generating projects to raise money so that they buy their own resources.
- Quarry mines should plough back into the community so that it benefits through Share Ownership Schemes but mines in Mutoko are known not to be contributing much but they are benefiting from the local resources.

- According to the findings and conclusions from the research, there are some issues the government needs to address. The government of Zimbabwe needs to do a great deal more to address the issues of food insecurity in Mutoko and the surrounding areas. The government needs to investigate and be clear on what people in Mutoko really want by carrying out research.
- The government needs to commit to helping and empowering people to produce enough food from their fields through modern farming practices. Although people are resistant to change, some do take the advice and help seriously. The people should be taught and encouraged to engage in irrigation farming and helped to acquire irrigation equipment such as pumps. The government seriously needs to provide enough skilled human resources, especially in agriculture, and maintain them. The government should increase funding for agricultural programmes. The government should help farmers with loans for fertilisers, pesticides and equipment. Zimbabwe has several underutilized large, medium and small farm dams that can be used for full or supplementary irrigation. Current efforts to rehabilitate irrigation systems should be strengthened. Programs such as water harvesting, conservation farming and the utilization of wetlands for smallholders could make significant contributions to food security.
- The government can look into other approaches to food security, such as intensifying livestock production, which could do well in this area.
- The creation of canning industry for the people of Mutoko since they produce lots of vegetables and fruits like mangoes that are perishable in order for them to earn a living or income to purchase other food commodities.
- The government should improve infrastructure such as roads and bridges; this step would contribute to more efficient transportation of produce and lead to improved

food availability and accessibility in the area. Roads in Mutoko district have been damaged by heavy trucks carrying quarry stones and the companies are not doing enough to maintain the roads.

- The price of maize is a critical factor in determining the household food access in consumption year. It needs to be monitored and stabilised at best lowered price as far as possible to increase household access.
- Foods consumed by rural households are of low diversity and largely unbalanced.
- Initiatives by government should be built on ideas suggested by the communities to address food and nutrition security challenges as doing so increases success rates and sustainability of the interventions.
- There is need to improve the accountability and monitoring of government activities either as a single programme or as integrated relief or development tool. There is need to agree on a framework for the monitoring, learning and communication that the different models and approaches can adopt for projects. The stakeholders should have the capacity to follow basic guidelines, ensure accountability and take action on non-compliance to the programme
- Stakeholders should improve their targeting of beneficiaries in order to ensure relief and recovery approaches that build ownership of the project objectives. The use of broad stakeholder committees at the local level to improve and combat targeting errors and strengthening community level committees is essential.
- The need to move away from food remittances (and cash pegged only to a limited food basket transfer) to include meaningful cash transfers and other forms or types of benefits in response to locally identified needs and demands;
- The need to rebuild trust and understanding on food aid programmes through a concerted communication effort. The Government should engage with development

partners to mobilize resources for production and improvement to improve food security.

- The Central Bank needs to support the private sector to mobilize resources for agriculture and the government should explore opportunities for the private sector to take over certain activities. These could include research and extension as appropriate and verifying compliance with standards and norms. The government could put in place facilitatory mechanisms including the provision of incentives for private investment, particularly to banks and financial institutions, to provide financial services to the private sector for investment to boost agricultural productivity.
- The government must encourage inputs to flow directly to commercial retail outlets where farmers can source appropriate requirements. Free inputs supply must be stopped as it has proved skewed and disastrous.
- Government should facilitate support to the local fertilizer industry for raw material procurement in order to ensure that in the short to medium term, the local fertilizer industry is revived and strengthened to provide a sustainable service. Banks and financial institutions should provide lines of credit to the fertilizer industry.
- The agricultural machinery service and repair facility should be financially supported because current indications are that the mechanization program needs to be complemented by repair and maintenance facilities to sustain the tillage requirements. This applies to both the old mechanization inherited from the land reform program and the new thrust. Financial facilities should be provided for individual farmers to purchase tractors and other equipment.
- The performance of domestic markets needs to be enhanced; problems such as the lack of market information and the absence of market intermediaries will need to be addressed. On the input-market side, the capacity of local suppliers of credit,

improved seed, etc. would need to be strengthened, with a view to establishing dependable marketing links between suppliers of inputs and farmers, based on sound small business management, reliable supplies of inputs, and financial sustainability. Overallly, special attention should be paid to putting in place institutional, legal and financial frameworks that promote private investment in agribusiness and agro-industrial enterprises, with emphasis on small-scale industries that are capable of diversifying food and agricultural products, supplying effectively agricultural inputs, and providing basic transport and marketing services. In addition, the development of strong and effective market information systems should be promoted.

- Saving habits need to be enhanced by bringing attitudinal change in terms of improved saving habit of farm households should be emphasized as one of the intervention measures. Improving saving habit of rural households should be considered as one aspect of the extension package for farmers.
- Off-farm and non-farm employment opportunities should be promoted, through which some proportion of the farmers could shift from direct reliance on land for their livelihoods. This can be materialized only if the farmers' problem regarding shortages of cash income could be overcome. Therefore, enhancing rural credits to the subsistence farmers would be vital. The success and effectiveness of the suggested interventions towards improving the households' food security will be partly based on the collaborative and integrated efforts of the different development actors, namely, the government, NGOs and private investors. Therefore, enhancing networks and information exchanges among these actors may help in the planning and implementation of appropriate development activities. Otherwise, resources may be wasted by duplicating similar interventions whereby other constraints would remain without receiving the necessary attention.

- Food aid needs to be managed in a way that responds to emergency food shortages without acting as a disincentive to domestic production and broader agricultural commodity sector development.
- Country needs to strengthen food procurement system and mechanism including those related to importing food and financing purchases from abroad.
- Zimbabwe import tariffs remain high and in view of the food crisis tariff policy could be reviewed and rationalised to ensure availability of imported food staples at affordable prices.
- Country needs to integrate small scale farmers into the global food production chain in global food production chain in order to avoid their marginalisation and strengthen food security and poverty reduction.

The community in Mutoko might have to consider some issues in order to improve their everyday lives. Community members need to change their mind set about food aid and work towards self-sufficiency. Community leaders should encourage their people to work hard in their fields and do away with their old farming practices and adhere to modern methods of farming such as applying fertiliser or manure in their fields. Households should learn not to sell everything when they harvest and to think of the future. The community should take the initiative to come up with ways of improving their livelihoods and should not wait for someone to do it for them; for example, they should protect their crops against domestic animals and also grow drought resistant crops. Irrigation methods should also be adopted in times of drought.

3.6 Recommendations for further research

Further research is recommended in the following areas:

1. An investigation of sustainable productive farming approaches suitable to Mutoko district.
2. An analysis of alternative ways of helping the people of Mutoko to produce their own food.
3. A look into alternative ways of food aid distribution approaches that would be suitable for Mutoko district.
4. What other solutions can be employed to curb food insecurity in Mutoko district.

3.7 Summary

The Grain Loan Scheme faced its challenges but overallly the program strived to achieve its desired goal. It managed to reach more than 80% of deserving beneficiaries. The goal of the project was achieved although with a lot of disturbances that included political interference and financial constraints. The following chapter will conclude the research.

CONCLUSION

The research objectives of the study were to understand what GLS and food security entail; to investigate the causes of food insecurity; to investigate the Zimbabwe government's approach to food aid and food security; to determine the factors that led to food aid distribution in Mutoko area. The primary research problem was to evaluate the impact of the Grain Loan Scheme to food security in Mutoko district. The government's approach to food insecurity had not been critically evaluated to see whether it has produced the intended results or whether the GLS approach has contributed to people's dependency on food aid, changed the people's eating habits, contributed to food production in the area or disrupted the local markets. The outcome of the evaluation has been discussed in Chapters 3 and 4. GLS has had both a positive and a negative impact on food security in the area. The impact of GLS in Mutoko has been extremely positive, especially in times of crisis. GLS has helped save and improve many people's lives, especially those of the sick, the old and the orphaned. GLS has provided energy to many people in Mutoko to go and work in their fields and has sometimes contributed to an increase in food production. It has encouraged the creation of community assets and has provided jobs for distributors employed by the government. The negative impacts of GLS on food security in Mutoko area include a resulting laziness and food aid dependency and low food production in the fields. GLS has contributed to people's change in attitude towards self-reliance while the government has become relaxed and neglects its duties because it is assured that something is being done: food aid is being distributed to the needy. Many people wish that the government could do more to alleviate the problem of food shortage in the area. As pointed out in Chapter 1, Mutoko was chosen as a case study and the results of the evaluation do not necessarily relate to the whole of Zimbabwe even though they could possibly apply to some parts of the country.

Government fails to protect citizens from drought induced threats of famine because of bad policies, weak political institutions and inhospitable social conditions. Countries in Africa are vulnerable to drought induced famine because of poorly conceived agricultural policies that force farmers to de- invest from domestic food crops in favor of cash crops. Leaders are more interested in pursuing their own private goals than providing for citizens. Policy and policy making are personalized not institution for example Ethiopia famine of 1984-85 under Mengistu's military regime and the Somalia's famine of 2011 was due to government policy failure.

Achieving food security is among the most significant development challenges facing Zimbabwe. In fact, many would say it is the most urgent task facing the country today. Achieving sustainable food security requires a complex of public and private actions. It implies reaching a number of development goals, including stimulating agricultural production, expanding livelihood opportunities, increasing incomes, and improving nutrition directly at household level. Currently food security had become virtually synonymous with development.

Concepts and theories of food security helped to get the broader picture of food shortage causations while Sustainable Livelihood Framework helped to understand the general picture of households. Before and after evaluation designs were employed to evaluate the impact of government interventions on improving the lives of the poor (policy effectiveness), and interface concepts of the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework approach. Food security policy level indicators such as availability of adequate food, access to food, and utilization of food supplies were considered to assess the change in food security situation. The main findings of the research are summarized below.

The underlying factors for household food insecurity can be grouped in three main types as natural, socio-economic factors and policy failures. Natural resource degradation, recurrent drought and environmental degradation are important natural factors that make households vulnerable to food shortages. Social factors such as population pressure, traditional farming system and practices, and economic limitations like poor infrastructural services, shortage of farm land and other productive assets are also factors responsible for household's food insecurity in the region. Poor infrastructural services such as poor marketing, rural transport and communications are the main constraints to achieve household food security. In general a combination of short-term and long-term factors explains the increasing food insecurity caseload in the region. Long-term factors, such as the interaction between environment, and high population growth, and diminishing land-holdings lead to significant decline in productivity per household. These trends have combined the repeated effects of drought over the years, to substantially erode the productive assets of communities and households. Above all, past governments' misguided economic policies were the main factors for exacerbating food insecurity in the region.

The evaluation study findings revealed that considerable progress is being made through out Zimbabwe in delivering improved services to the farmers. In Mutoko agricultural extension services appear to be improving quite fast and the extension programs have increased in terms of the number of participants and services rendered. The extension programs have been found successful in augmenting agricultural production and thereby increasing incomes of the poor. Different interventions have been carried out to increase incomes of the poor and enhance the livelihood resource of households which includes the physical capital, natural capital, human capital and financial capital of the poor. In conclusion the aims of the program

were achieved to a greater extent. 80% of the beneficiaries benefited from the scheme when drought was at its peak.

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APPENDIX 1: HOUSEHOLD SURVEY

Household Survey Paper

NAME OF INTERVIEWER _____

DATE COMPLETED _____

NAME OF REVIEWER _____

DATE REVIEWED _____

INSTRUCTIONS TO THE INTERVIEWER

1. Ensure that the sampling procedure has been followed before starting the interview.
2. Only the chosen household per plan should be interviewed.
3. Greet the respondent of the survey and ask if they are willing to participate.
4. Tell the respondent the time it will take and make sure they are comfortable to go with it.
5. Before commencing with the questionnaire, complete the information requested above.
6. Read the questions the way they appear in the questionnaire, without any explanation unless there is need.
7. Give opportunity to the respondent to ask any questions or give comments on the interview if need be.
8. Thank the respondent after the survey and assure them that their answers will be treated with all confidentiality.

Section 1 – Personal information

1.1 Who is the head of this household?

- a) Father
- b) Mother
- c) Child
- d) Grandparent
- e) Other _____

1.2 How many people live in this household?

- a) 1 - 2 people
- b) 3 - 4 people
- c) 5 – 6 people
- d) 6 – 7 people
- e) 8 and above people

Section 2 - Source of Food

2.1 What are your main sources of food?

- a) Own crop production
- b) Purchase food
- c) Food Aid
- d) Casual Labour
- e) We receive gifts from relatives
- f) Other Specify_____

2.2 Do you own land?

Yes No N/A

2.3 If yes to question 2.2 how much food do you normally harvest per season?

- a) Enough to take us to the next season
- b) Enough for half a year
- c) Enough for a quarter year
- d) It lasts for less than a month

2.4 How many meals did you eat per day before the Grain Loan Scheme

- a) One meal
- b) Two meals
- c) Three meals

d) More than three meals per day

2.5 How many meals did you eat per day during the Grain Loan Scheme

a) One meal

b) Two meals

c) Three meals

d) More than three meals

Section 3 – Source of Income

3.1 What is your main source of income?

a) Selling from own production

b) Casual labour

c) Petty Trade

d) Gifts

e) Other-----

3.2 How much do you earn per month?

a) Less than \$50

b) \$50-\$100

c) \$100-\$150

d) \$150-\$200

e) More than \$200

3.3 How much did you spend on food before the Grain Loan Scheme

a) 10 - 20 percent

b) 20 - 30 percent

c) 30 - 40 percent

d) 40- 50 percent

e) 50 percent upwards

3.4 How much did you spend on food during the Grain Loan Scheme?

- a) 10-20 percent
- b) 20-30 percent
- c) 30-40 percent
- d) 40-50 percent
- e) 50 percent upwards

3.4 Does any household member have a full time job?

Yes No

3.5 If yes to question 3.4 above, which member of the household works?

- a) Father
- b) Mother
- c) Son
- d) Daughter
- e) Relative

Section 4 – Food Aid

4.1 How many times did you receive food aid during the programme implementation?

- a) Once
- b) Twice
- c) Three times
- d) More than three times

4.2 How many kilograms of maize did you receive per month?

- a) 50kgs
- b) 100kgs
- c) 150kgs
- d) more than 150kgs

4.3 Is it true that people do not want to grow their own food because they depend on food aid?

True or False

4.4 Do you prefer to grow your own food or to be given food aid?

4.5 How do you grow crops during drought periods?

- a) Use the little rains
- b) Use irrigation
- c) Grow drought resistant crops
- d) Use wetlands

4.6 How do you survive in the absence of food aid?

- a) Sell belongings
- b) Starve
- c) Produce little food
- d) Casual labour

APPENDIX 2: PERSONAL INTERVIEWS

Questionnaire for Stakeholders

NAME OF INTERVIEWER _____

DATE COMPLETED _____

NAME OF REVIEWER _____

DATE REVIEWED _____

INSTRUCTIONS TO THE INTERVIEWER

1. Ensure that the sampling procedure has been followed before starting the interview.
2. Only the chosen officials per plan should be interviewed.
3. Choose and agree on the appropriate venue and time.
4. Greet the respondent of the survey and ask if they are willing to participate.
5. Tell the respondent the time it will take and make sure they are comfortable to go with it.
6. Before commencing with the questionnaire, complete the information requested above.
7. Read the questions the way they appear in the questionnaire, with explanation if there is need
8. Give opportunity to the respondent to ask any questions or give comments on the interview if need be.
9. Thank the respondent after the survey and assure them that their answers will be treated with all confidentiality.

Guiding Questions for Government Officials

Section 1: Sources of Food in the Area

1. How do people get food in this area?
2. Do you think people produce enough food in this area?
3. What do you think are the main causes of food shortages in Mutoko district?

Section 2: Food Aid distribution in the area

4. How much food did the government distribute under the scheme and where did it come from?
5. How was the food distribution conducted?
6. Was the food distributed enough in your own opinion?
7. How did the people react towards the Grain Loan Scheme?
8. Would you encourage the Grain Loan Scheme to continue?
9. Do you think it was necessary for government to implement the Grain Loan Scheme?
10. Did beneficiaries return the grain to GMB?

Section 3: Food Security in the area

11. Do you think there is food security in Mutoko District?
12. What do you think are the causes of food insecurity in the area?
13. Do you think government is doing enough to alleviate the problem of food security?
14. What else do you think government should do?
15. What were the challenges with Grain Loan Scheme?
16. What are the contributions of the scheme to the community?

Section 4: The impact of food aid on food security

17. What do you think is the attitude of people towards food aid?
18. Would you encourage food distribution? Why?
19. What is the impact of food aid in this area?

Thank you for your time



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08 October 2014

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: RESEARCH FOR JENARA PHIRI

This letter serves to inform that I, Jenara Phiri, am a registered final year Masters Student with the Midlands State University – Department of Development Studies. I am currently doing a field research as part of the final steps for the completion of my studies titled, **Impact of the Grain Loan Scheme on Food Security from 2010 to 2014** using **Mutoko District** as my case study. This research is going to base on your responses for its validity and your responses will not be used for any reasons other than academic purposes. This means your confidentiality needs will be upheld and respected. I am therefore kindly requesting you to avail information on the Grain Loan Scheme in terms of its contribution in Zimbabwe and specifically Mutoko District from 2010 to the end of the program in 2014.

Your assistance will be greatly appreciated to enhance this study.

Yours faithfully

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