



**THE ROLE OF FOOD FOR ASSETS IN ENHANCING HOUSEHOLD LIVELIHOOD
OPTIONS AND FOOD SECURITY: A CASE OF NYAMINYAMI DISTRICT, KARIBA
RURAL.**

BY

TATENDA GWANZURA

A RESEARCH PROJECT SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF DEVELOPMENT
STUDIES, FACULTY OF ARTS IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT
FOR THE DEGREE.

MASTERS OF ARTS IN DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

MIDLANDS STATE UNIVERSITY

SUPERVISOR

MR MUNHANDE

JUNE 2016

Declaration

I Tatenda Gwanzura, declare that this work is my original work. All the published work or sources have been acknowledged. This dissertation has not been submitted to any University.

Signature.....

Date.....

Dedication

This work is dedicated to my late mother who has always wanted to see me succeed in life.

Further dedication goes to all the rural development practioners and all the food insecure communities whose livelihoods are not sustainable enough to keep their households food secure,

I hope this work will help develop rural areas in a sustainable way.

Acknowledgement

Firstly I would like to acknowledge the presence of God in my life and to thank him for the opportunity, strength and wisdom he has given me throughout this programme.

My earnest gratitude goes to my family and best friends Ruvimbo Mkabeta and Talent Chuma for understanding and supporting me as I went through this adventure. I know it took a lot of commitment from you to help me out. Your efforts are really appreciated.

It would not have been easy to complete this work without the priceless support and technical guidance from my supervisor Mr Munhande. I would like to thank him for his patience and time.

I would also want to express my appreciation to study mates for all your precious knowledge and time.

Lastly I am thankful to all my respondents who include WFP, Nyaminyami local authority, Save the Children, local leadership, the community and others. I would not have done this research without your input. Thank you for your time and honest opinions.

Table of Contents

Declaration.....	ii
Dedication.....	iii
Acknowledgement	iv
Abstract.....	x
CHAPTER ONE : INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Background of the study	2
1.3 Statement of the problem	9
1.4 Objectives	10
1.5 Research questions.....	10
1.6 Theoretical framework.....	11
1.7 Conceptual Framework.....	12
1.8 Delineation of the study	12
1.9 Limitations	13
1.10 Assumptions.....	13
1.11 Significance of the study.....	14
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	15
2.1 Introduction.....	15
2.2 Historical perspectives of donor aid.....	15
2.3 Objectives of food Aid.....	16
2.4 The Impact of aid	18
2.5 Livelihoods	22
2.6 Income levels and Sustainability of FFA programs.....	23
2.7 Demographic Characteristics and Sustainability of FFA programs.....	25
2.8 Climate change and Sustainability of Food for Assets programs.	27
2.9 Community involvement and the Sustainability of Food for Assets programs	28
2.10 Critique of previous methodologies	31
2.11 Effects of food for Assets.....	35
2.12 Summary of Literature Review.....	39
2.13 Conclusion	40
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY.....	41
3.1 Introduction.....	41

3.2 Research Design.....	41
3.3 Population	42
3.4 Sampling size and sampling procedure.....	43
3.4.1 Sample size	43
Table 3.2: Sample size distribution of all the FFA sites and ward 8.....	43
Table 3.3 Sample size from each ward.	44
3.5 Data collection Instruments	46
3.6 Data presentation and analysis techniques.....	49
3.7 Ethical considerations	49
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS.....	50
4.1 Introduction.....	50
4.2 Response rate	50
4.3 Primary data analysis	50
4.4 Sex versus age of the respondents.....	51
Table 4.1 Sex against age of respondent.....	51
4.5 Family size	51
Table 4.2 Family sizes of respondents	51
4.6 Beneficiary status.....	52
Figure 4.1: Number of years the respondents were food aid beneficiaries.....	52
4.7 Duration the food obtained from Food for assets would lasts.....	53
Table 4.3: Time food lasts	53
4.8 Sources of food prior and after FFA	54
Figure 4.2: sources of cereal	55
4.9 Livelihood activities.....	56
4.10 Food for asset design.....	58
4.11 Beneficiaries dropping off livelihoods during FFA implementation	58
4.12 Perceptions on how to end food insecurity situation	59
4.14 Community contribution.....	61
4.15 Capacity building	62
4.16 Self-reliance after termination of food aid	63
4.17 Plans after termination	64
4.18 Conclusion.	65
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	67

5.1 Introduction.....	67
5.2 FFA Livelihoods in Nyamimiyami	67
5.3 Appropriateness of the Food for Assets programme design to strengthen livelihoods.....	68
5.4 The relationship between socio economic environment and successful livelihood strategies	69
5.5 Recommendations.....	70
Annex i: Questanaire for food and non food for assets beneficiaries	73
Annex ii Interviews and Focus group discussion guidelines	80
Annex iii Table that determines random sample from a particular population.....	81
Reference	82

Abbreviations and Acronyms

AGRITEX	Department of agricultural technical & extension services
CAMPFIRE	Communal Areas Management for Indigenous Resources
CAP	Community Action Plan
CBP	Community Based Plan
CLPP	Community Level Participatory Planning
CNC	Community Nutrition Centre
C-SAFE	Cyber Security Audit Forensics and Education
DDC	District Development Committee
EMOPs	Emergency Operations
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization
FDG	Focus Group Discussions
FEWSNET	Famine Early Warning Systems Network
FFA	Food for Assets
FNC	Food National Council
FSMS	Food Security Monitoring System
FTLR	Fast Track Land Reform
HEA	Health Economic Analysis

ISAL	Internal Savings and Lending
LPD	Livestock Production Department
MoHCW	Ministry of Health Child and Welfare
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NRDC	Nyaminyami Rural District Council
NSART	Nutrition Assistant For People Living with HIV/AIDS and TB
OXFAM	Oxford Committee for Famine
PCW	Productive Community Works
PRA	Participatory Rural Appraisal
PRRO	Protracted Relief and Rehabilitations
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
UN	United Nations
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WFP	World Food Programme
ZIMASSET	Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation
ZIMVAC	Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee

Abstract

It is proving difficult to achieve food security for both developing and developed world. The severity of this problem however is dependent on a country's ability to cope with stress and shocks. Food aid has become a solution to most of the developing countries in trying to mitigate this challenge. Nyaminyami district is one area that has constantly remained in the top ten of Zimbabwe's most food insecure districts. The area has been receiving food aid since the year 2000. The food aid has been in different projects such as STA, NSART, Cash transfers and Food for Asset. Although these projects are different in scope the aim was to make Nyaminyami food secure, however the area is still being considered food insecure despite the efforts. It against this background that the researcher sought to investigate the role of FFA in enhancing the household livelihoods options and food security. The research paid much focus on the whether the community livelihoods were improved by this project, there is a change in perception of the community from being dependant on food aid to self-reliant, the extent to which capacity building helps enhancing household livelihoods options and food security and providing recommendations based on the findings. Both qualitative and quantitative techniques were employed to obtain data from a sample size of 220 from both FFA and non-FFA beneficiaries. Focus group discussions, interviews and questionnaires were used to collect data. Probability and non-probability sampling techniques that stratified random sampling and convenience sampling respectively were used to select the sample size. After collection of data, the data were analysed and presented in form of tables, percentages and frequencies. It was found out that FFA changed the livelihoods and food security during its project cycle, however after its implementation the community resorted to their normal livelihoods and is still depending on food aid for their food security for various reasons Following the analysis, recommendations were given based on the findings, it was recommended amongst other recommendations that there is need to consider the five capitals in every development intervention as development hinges on these capital.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Food security has been defined by Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO 1996) as a situation that exists when all people , at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life.

Food security has become a topical issue which has affected the economies and livelihoods in developed and developing countries. The condition has been constantly declining for the past number of years, this is predominantly as a result of an increasing population growth which is affecting the ever changing supply and demand for food, increase in demand for food in rising economies, varying food habits, prioritization of cash crop production at the expense of cereal production, infringement on productive agricultural land by rapid urbanization and industrialization. In addition, exhaustion of natural resources resulting in loss of ecosystem services and the impact of climate change pose a major threat to the agricultural production. (Roberts 2009; World Commission on Environment and Development 1987). Other factors that have contributed to this tendency include high prevalence of diseases such as Ebola, Cholera, civil wars and poor governance.

The United Nations (UN) in the year 2015 developed a desire to address the challenges resulting from advancing globalization which indeed resulted to the extension of the Millenium Development Goals (MDGs) into the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Attention also is still being paid to hunger and poverty as stated in SDG 1; eradication of extreme poverty and

hunger (2015). To counter the challenges of food insecurity a meaningful global partnership is needed between donors, international institutions, governments, civil societies and private sectors which should trickle down to marginalized communities by involving the community in the implementation of food security interventions that will help ensuring improved rural livelihoods and sustainable development.

1.2 Background of the study

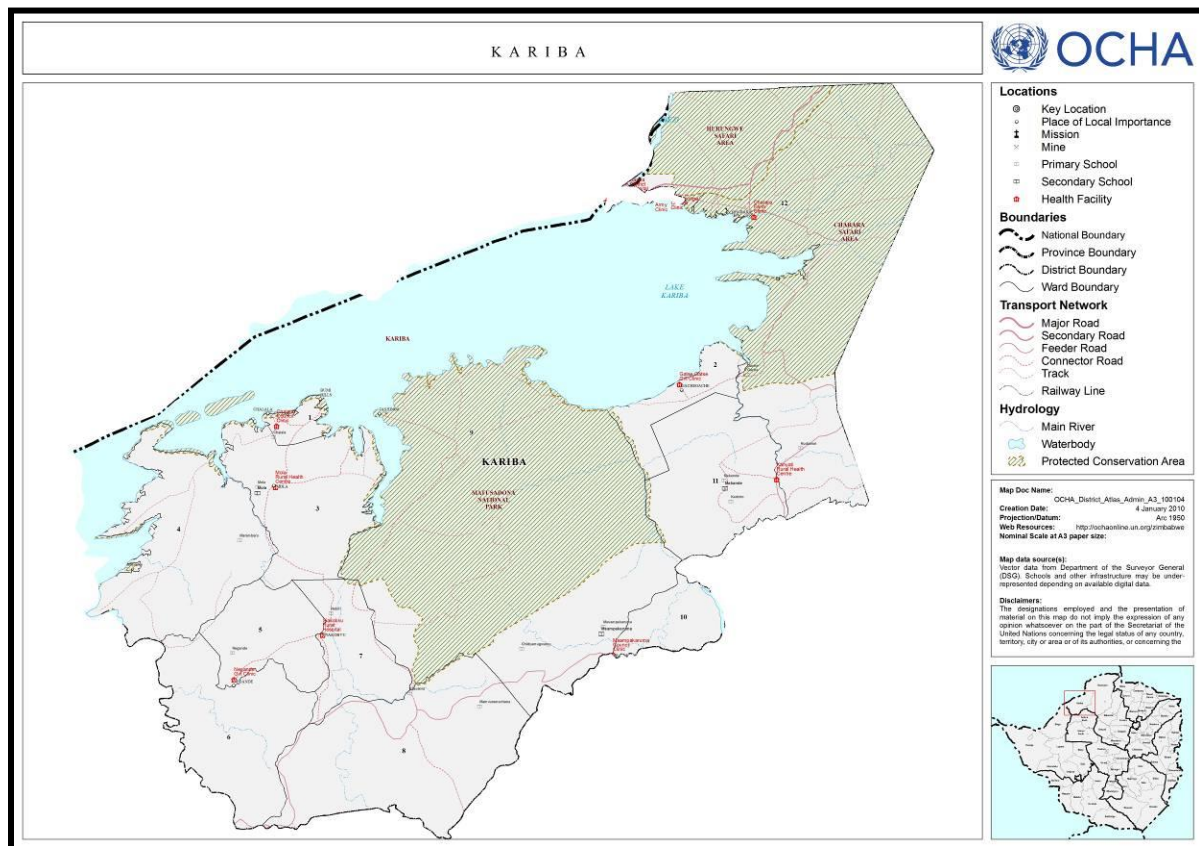
The Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO, 2009) report provides useful framework for examining food insecurity in the developing nations including Zimbabwe. According to the report, Food and Agriculture Organisation and World Food Programme (WFP) were urged by the United Nations Secretary General to advocate for safety nets and social protection programmes to address increasing food insecurity levels. The report also highlighted that of the 218 million people in Africa, 30 percent of the total population, was estimated to be suffering from chronic hunger and malnutrition. Cereal yields per hectare had gone down to 1.2 tonnes, compared to an average of 3 tonnes per hectare in the developing world as a whole. Only 3 percent of land in Sub-Saharan Africa was irrigated, compared to more than 20 percent globally. According to Kazibwe (1998) post-colonial governments in Africa inherited over centralized systems and inefficient bureaucracies with long, non-participatory planning and decision making processes. Such tendencies have created a situation of spoon-feeding, lack of ownership and a sense of powerlessness among the grassroots producers. Extension services are not accountable to small holder farmers. Most rural households are food insecure and lack some of the basic life skills to enhance livelihood security (Chimedza- Mabeza, 1999).

Zimbabwe has not been spared of the global food insecurity problem. The production of food in Zimbabwe, which was referred to as the breadbasket of Southern African, has constantly remained below subsistence levels since 2000, leading to unpleasant food security situation (Mudzonga and Chigwada, 2009). According to the USAID (2014) agricultural production in Zimbabwe has been falling dramatically over the last decade. In 2002 when drought struck in Southern African region, Zimbabwe's agricultural production was already falling. One of the major challenge to the agricultural and food securities in Zimbabwe include the fast track land reform programme of 2000 that caused the transfer of approximately 25% of Zimbabwe's productive land from the white commercial farms to the landless black farmers who have poor technical expertise and access to infrastructure and modern technologies. This was further exacerbated by the worst ever series of drought which were experienced in 2007/8 and 2008/9 agricultural seasons were by smallholder farmers realized very poor yields and the political unrest. (FEWSNET 2010).

Most districts that were once bread baskets have turned out to be beggars for food hand-outs from the Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs). These districts are no longer able to meet their annual cereal requirements and spend most of their time sourcing food at the expense of development. However, efforts were and are being made to improve agricultural productivity, and create a self- sufficient and food surplus economy and see Zimbabwe re-emerge as the "Bread Basket of Southern Africa" through the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-economic Transformation (ZIMASSET). It also seeks to build a wealthy, diverse and competitive food security and nutrition sector that adds meaningfully to national development through the provision of an enabling environment for sustainable economic empowerment and social transformation.

The Government of Zimbabwe's 1998 Research Act created the Food and Nutrition Council (FNC) whose work includes coordination of Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee (ZIMVAC). ZIMVAC whose mandate is to inform the government and its development partners on programming necessary for saving lives and strengthening rural livelihoods in Zimbabwe. It is the essential pillar around which the FNC plans to build its strategy to fulfil the 6th commitment of the Government of Zimbabwe's Food and Nutrition Security Policy (FNSP) and monitor implementation of the ZIMASSET. According to ZIMVAC (2015) 44% of the population in Nyaminyami district will be food insecure from March 2016 to March 2017.

1.2.2 Nyaminyami district profile

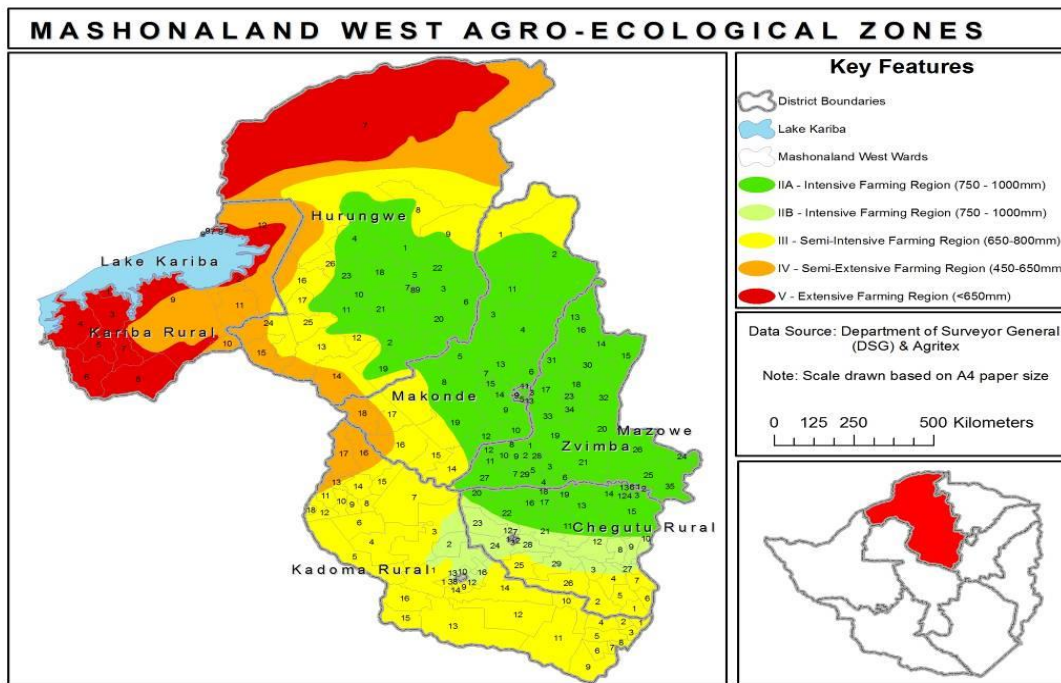


Nyaminyami rural district is one district amongst others that has turned out to be a constant beggar of food hand-outs since 2000. It is one of the least developed districts in Zimbabwe which

suffers a dual disadvantage of restricted agricultural potential because of the poor agro-ecological environments and the existence of wildlife and animal diseases. Nyaminyami Rural District is far from markets and consequently it receives meagre supplies of food at exorbitant prices, at the same time earning low value from livestock which is sold out of the area (Save the Children, April 2003). Nyaminyami is situated in the Zambezi Valley of northern Zimbabwe. It is the least developed and poorest of Zimbabwe's 55 rural districts (Taylor., D. R 1994). The district consists of 12 wards and it reached its current configuration in 1960 after the completion of the dam on the Zambezi River at Kariba. The construction of the Kariba dam in the years 1955 to 1959 resulted in the submergence of approximately 5500 square kilometres of terrain which was largely home to various wild animal species. Not only did the wild animals and humans lost their habitat and green pastures for the nurture animals, they also lost rich natural resource base in fertile alluvial soils from Zambezi river tributaries which allowed population densities to build up to levels which were high by Central African standards (Scudder, T., 2005). The dam consumed the vast of the land that was available for humans, livestock and wildlife. This has since led to human wildlife conflicts exacerbated currently as the population of local communities has grown and the communities continue cutting down trees for agricultural purposes.

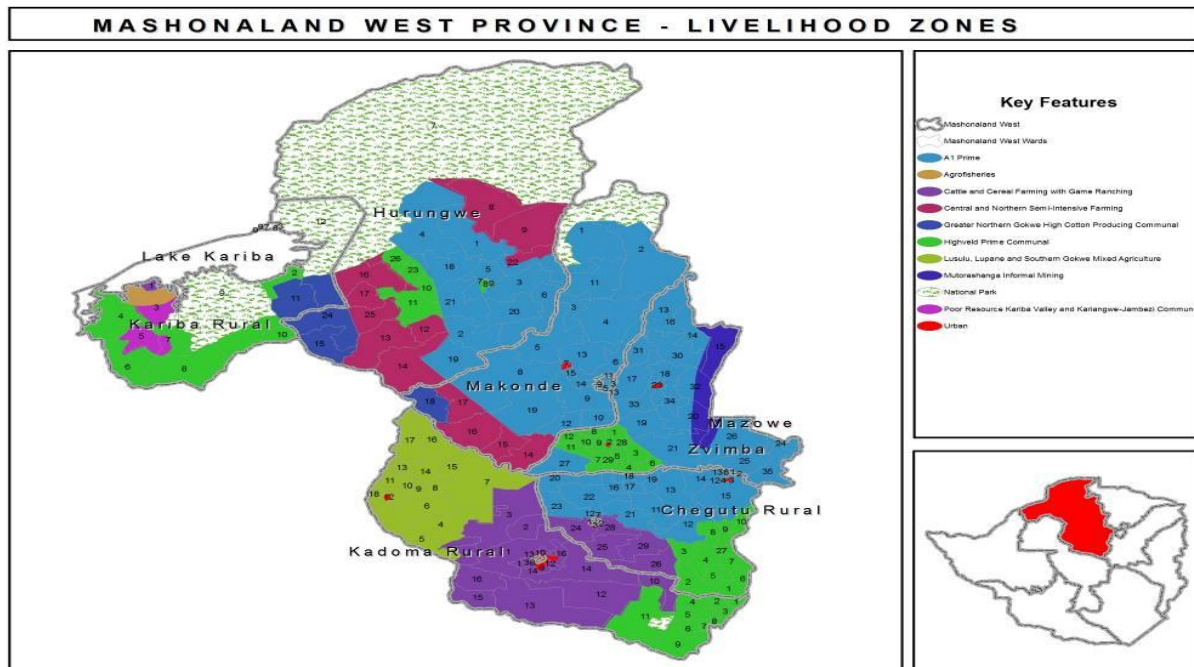
Nyaminyami residents survive on agriculture (livestock production and subsistence farming) and get a share of the profit from the CAMPFIRE dividends. The district falls into natural region five (V) which is the last category of the agro-ecological zones with little or no rains (dry spell region suitable for semi-extensive and extensive farming). Despite the fact of the low productivity of the land, the majority of the population is engaged in farming whilst wild-animals consume the crops, livestock and humans. The land is very dry because receives little rainfall, which

sometimes cannot sustain plant life, in 2015 the dry spells lasted for more than 21 days resulting in withering of maize plants hence lower harvest in some wards. Crop pest and diseases like army worm periodically affect crops in estimated periods of once in 5 years. The temperatures are always high during summer and winter, the area is characterised by sandy soil that has poor water holding capacity and most of the places lack perennial water for gardening. Dams are not holding enough water to last through the dry spell due to livestock, wildlife and human consumption (AGRITEX 2015). Map 2 shows the Mashonaland West agro-ecological zones.



Large numbers of wildlife in the area pose a regular threat to the community's livelihoods as the animals damage or consume crops. The CAMPFIRE project is working with local farmers to

control the problem. Tsetse fly infestations foot and mouth disease, tick-borne diseases and anthrax are the common diseases that affect livestock. In addition, due to the presence of wild animals, there is a risk of animal diseases being transmitted to the domestic herds. Map 3 shows the livelihoods zones in Mashonaland West.



As a result of these harsh weather conditions that have increased because of the effects of climate change, the district has been receiving food assistance from various donors since 2001 (NRDC 2015). A number of food aid programs have been implemented in Nyaminyami district in an endeavour to curb food insecurity situation such as food relief programs for the vulnerable groups, government input schemes, livestock drought mitigation programs amongst others. In addition, to the government initiatives, NGOs have been implementing food based programs such as Seasonal Targeted Assistance (STA), NSART and cash transfers.

Food assistance interventions by both local and international non-governmental organizations in Zimbabwe have historically comprised of free hand-outs of food or cash to vulnerable and food insecure households. WFP Zimbabwe has responded to food insecurity in Zimbabwe through three emergency operations (EMOPs- 2002 to 2004) and three protracted relief and rehabilitation operation (PRRO- 2005 -to date). Scholars such as Siyoum et al (2012) argue that such programming of giving free hand-outs has often resulted in the perpetuation of food insecurity as a result of the dependency syndrome. WFP embarked on a shift of its programming from free food hand-outs to food for assets. The Food for Asset (FFA) interventions are fairly small but labour-intensive community-based projects supported by World Food Programme (WFP) intended to address the food insecurity of vulnerable and poor households. Beneficiaries work for 4 hours/day, 60 hours / month under this programming, the work depend on the asset to be created and the assets include construction of earth dam, dip tanks and fish ponds, creation of nutrition gardens. The beneficiaries receive various trainings from relevant government line ministries such as AGRITEX, LPD, MoHCW, during their course of working to enhance sustainability and livelihoods. The FFA is still part of the WFP seasonal targeted assistance programme which has shifted from free food distributions to supporting productive asset creation.

FFA programming is an innovative way by WFP to work in partnership with government, donors and other stakeholders to empower communities to move out of dependency and take control and lead in the creation of productive assets that increase their resilience to future food security shocks. The FFA interventions require building upon existing experience and approaches, context specific requirements and priorities, partnerships aimed at complementary support and convergence of efforts. Overall, the major intention is to generate scalable interventions and

sufficient coverage to generate desired changes in food security and local level resilience (WFP 2012). It is against this background that the researcher was motivated to investigate the role of food for assets in enhancing household livelihoods and food security in Nyaminyami district, Kariba.

1.3 Statement of the problem

Food security has proved to be a major challenge in the last decade in both developing and developed countries; people have suffered from extreme hunger and malnutrition whilst others have succumbed to death from hunger. For example an estimated 795 million people around the world were undernourished in the 2015 (FAO 2015). However efforts of all the countries towards achieving the SDG 1 of reducing hunger and extreme is proving to be futile in some countries especially developing countries.

A number of strategies have been put in place in an endeavour to fight the food insecurity situation in Zimbabwe such as government input schemes, food relief programs for the vulnerable groups, livestock drought mitigation programs amongst others. In addition, to the government initiatives NGOs have been implementing food based programs such as Seasonal Targeted Assistance (STA), Food For Assets (FFA), NSART in Nyaminyami district and other regions in Zimbabwe.

However concern has been raised amongst scholars that the anticipated impact of these interventions of food security is never achieved as evidenced by the predictions by ZIMVAC 2015 report that food security may continue to decline, coping strategies will be eroded and livelihoods threatened. For example 2015 ZIMVAC rural livelihoods assessment carried out in

May estimated that 1 490 024 (250 000) Zimbabweans in rural areas, will be food insecure and in need of humanitarian assistance at the peak of the lean season (January to March 2016) (ZIMVAC 2016). This is despite the food security interventions in the country.

A number of contributing factors have not been fully investigated in order to advise key stakeholders such as government, development partners and farmers on what could be done to improve the household livelihoods so as to address food insecurity in Zimbabwe. This research sought to investigate the role of Food for Assets in household livelihoods options and food security.

1.4 Objectives

- To investigate the extent to which food for asset has contributed to enhancing household livelihoods options and food security.
- To identify the community perception towards the transition from food hand-outs to food for asset.
- To explore the extent to which capacity building helps enhancing household livelihoods options and food security.
- To provide recommendations in accordance with the findings on how to improve the food for asset programming and food security.

1.5 Research questions

- What are the effects of the transition from food hand-outs to food for work on community's livelihoods and food security?
- Does the shift help in changing perception from the dependency syndrome to self-reliance?

- Does the shift help in improving the food security situations?
- What were the community livelihoods before and after the FFA intervention?
- How have these livelihoods been affected by the programming of the FFA?

1.6 Theoretical framework

The research was informed by the Sustainable Rural Livelihood Framework by Ian Scoones (1998). The framework defines the scope of and provides the analytic basis for livelihoods analysis. At its heart lies an analysis of five different assets upon which individuals draw to build their livelihoods. These are the resources that households use to do their day-to-day livelihood activities. Access to these assets is depended upon age, gender and class. These assets include natural capital: land, water, wildlife, biodiversity and environmental resources , social capital: networks, memberships of groups, relationships of trust, access to wider institutions of society upon which people draw in pursuit of livelihoods, human capital: skills, knowledge, ability to health and good health, physical capital: basic infrastructure (for instance transport, shelter, water, energy, and communication) and production equipment and means which enable people to pursue their livelihoods and financial capital: resources available to people(savings, supplies of credit or regular remittances or pension) and which provide them with different livelihoods options. According to this framework livelihoods are affected by access to assets, diversity and amount of assets and balance between assets. Structures and processes can either support or obstruct the rural livelihoods. Combining the assets they can access and using their capabilities, taking into account of their vulnerability context (the ability of household and communities to be able to cope and recover from stresses and shocks in their external environment) and supported or obstructed by structures and processes people are able to define the livelihood that they will

take, i.e. agricultural intensification/ extensification, livelihood diversification and migration. A household which pursues more sustainable strategies is likely to generate more desirable livelihood outcomes, which will have a positive impact on the assets and capabilities of the household thus putting it in a better position to diversify and improve livelihood strategies which will improve the food security status of the household. For rural people to have sustainable livelihoods they should be empowered enough to identify capital assets available to them and the means to which they can harness them to improve food security and alleviate poverty. This study will examine whether the above contentions are true in Nyaminyami district.

1.7 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is a hypothesized model identifying the concepts under study and their relationships (Mugenda&Mugenda 2003).FFA programming is an innovative way by WFP to work in partnership with government, donors and other stakeholders to empower communities to move out of dependency and take control and lead in the creation of productive assets that increase their resilience to future food security shocks. Overall, the major intention is to generate scalable interventions and sufficient coverage to generate desired changes in food security and local level resilience (WFP 2012).The household livelihoods options and food security is dependent on the sustainability of the assets created under the FFA programming

1.8 Delineation of the study

This research sought to investigate the role of Food for Assets in household livelihoods options among the Food for Assets project beneficiaries which mainly target the non-labour constrained food insecure households population in wards 5, 6 and 7 and the households in ward 8 where the Food for Asset was not being implemented. The area was selected because the Food for Asset

Program has been implemented in these wards since 2014, yet these wards have been always a target for every food based intervention. Wards 5, 6, 7 and 8 were chosen because of its proximity to the researcher. The researcher was also popular to the beneficiaries of the program in the area and the geographical area. The data was collected from the Food for Assets beneficiaries because it is the hope of the researcher that they had key information on the role of the program in their household's livelihoods. Non beneficiaries of the program were also selected in the data collection process to have an in-depth understanding of how the program has an effect on the beneficiaries' household livelihoods options and food security. Open and closed ended questions were used in data collection for clarity and triangulation of the data.

1.9 Limitations

Nyaminyami district has high illiteracy rate, language barrier was another limiting factor whereby the respondents had a challenge to give responses in written form, however the researcher used enumerators from the local areas who understand, speak Tonga and Shona.

Furthermore, uncooperative informants were encountered due to the suspicion on the real motives of the researcher. The researcher cleared their expectations and doubts by being transparent and respecting the respondents with regard to the purpose of the study.

1.10 Assumptions

- The researcher assumed that the respondents will provide honest and reliable feedback.
- It assumed that the respondents are rationale and responsible beings who will cooperate
- It also assumed that the sample size will be representative of the population the researchers wish to make inferences to.

- The researcher assumed the research will be completed within the expected time without major external interruptions.

1.11 Significance of the study

Food insecurity constitutes a significant burden in Zimbabwe and it is an important national task to reduce this burden. This research expects to assist the government to formulate and implement strategies that can effectively support the implementation of food based programs which will ensure improved community livelihoods and address the food insecurity challenge. The study also seeks to provide important lessons to enable development and humanitarian agencies to put into account when they are designing and implementing developmental initiatives. Lastly, it wishes to document the factors that influence the sustainability of Food for Assets program and community livelihoods which will improve the food security status of Nyaminyami district and Zimbabwe in general.

CHAPTER TWO LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the results of previous research related to the researcher's topic- the role of food for assets in household's livelihoods was analyzed. This was done to enable the researcher to identify knowledge gaps in the literature reviewed and create new knowledge from the identified gaps to enable the successful FFA project implementation leading to sustainable livelihoods and food security of the beneficiaries and community at large if considered.

2.2 Historical perspectives of donor aid

While the idea and practice of community development existed within the colonial period, voluntary bodies did not present themselves or their work in terms of development until much later when the US Government and international agencies began to distinguish half the world as "underdeveloped" and to describe development as a universal goal.

The post-independence Africa economy did at least sustain a social infrastructure that, while not comparable to the conditions in the west nevertheless served a wide population. The impact of these interventions was reflected in the subsequent dramatic changes in average life expectancy, infant and child mortality rates, improvements in nutritional status of the young, literacy levels and educational enrolment. These achievements were observed up to the 1970s as a result of these social programmes (Manji & Carl O'Coil, 2002, p.3).

Consequently, the role of NGOs in the early post- independence period remained marginal as the state provided most of the social services. With most developing countries increasingly becoming indebted to the west, the neo-liberal policies became the political –economic ideology by the west over the developing countries demanding a minimalist role of the state in delivering

social services, and rather concentrate on providing the enabling environment for growth and waste time in providing social services (FirozeManji& Carl O'Coil, ibid).

2.3 Objectives of food Aid

The Food Aid Charter presents the general and long term objectives of food aid. According to the Charter the general objective is to help support food security by addressing in a timely and appropriate manner problems arising from food shortages or deficits whether they are caused by structural deficiencies or crisis situations calling for emergency actions. The long term objective is to prevent crises and to correct structural deficiencies by supporting overall development and taking actions aimed directly at vulnerable groups. In this context food aid plays a positive role, whether it is supplied as food stuffs or through use of counterpart funds generated through local sales. The workshop convened by Canadian Food grains Bank, Oxfam Canada and Oxfam Quebec in 2005 with the theme 'Food aid at Crossroads' resolved that the effectiveness of food aid should be assessed against its impact in support of the Millennium Development Goal (Sustainable development goal) Number one which is to reduce hunger and poverty. It should therefore focus on the following objectives:

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

Shelton (2005) confirms these objectives when he states that the original objective of food aid is alleviation of poverty and hunger for the most vulnerable groups and consistent with agricultural development in those countries. According to Barrett (1998) the core intent of food aid today is plainly to relieve human suffering. He points out that about half the world's population lives on less than \$2/day and about 800 million go to sleep hungry on any given day, a child dies of hunger every 5 seconds and that the need to respond to the poor's need is ever present and widespread.

A study done by Rates, in 2003, aimed at identifying opportunities, issues and constraints facing maize trade in Malawi. It identified several factors that hinder maize trade in Malawi. One of the key findings was that there were evident market distortions arising from increasing food aid. The study recommended that the government should take a cautious approach to food aid to ensure that food aid does not lower maize prices and deter maize production.

The Humanitarian Charter and Minimum Standards in Disaster Response were developed in 1997, through the Sphere Project (an initiative launched by a group of humanitarian NGOs and the Red Cross and Red Crescent movements). The project developed a set of universal standards in core areas of humanitarian assistance in order to improve the quality of assistance provided to people affected by disasters, and to enhance the accountability of the humanitarian system in disaster response. These standards have been universally agreed upon by many stakeholders (over 400 organisations in 80 countries) in the humanitarian sector (Sphere Project, 2004). Some of the minimum standards on food aid encompass issues of participation, initial assessment, planning, response, targeting, monitoring and evaluation. Other specific standards relate to food aid planning (ration planning, appropriateness and acceptability, and food quality and safety)

and food aid management (food handling, supply chain management and distribution). These standards are supposed to guide implementation of food aid policies and programmes. In line with these standards, governments should collaborate with all stakeholders to come up with national standards and procedures that can be followed in food aid management. This will ensure efficiency and effectiveness in food aid management, thereby maximizing the impact on food security and minimizing the negative impacts on markets and production systems.

2.4 The Impact of aid

Aid has a positive impact on growth in developing countries with good fiscal, monetary and trade policies but has little impact on countries where such policies are poor. Aid itself has small and insignificant impact on growth but aid interacting with good policy has a positive impact on growth. Policy seems more important on aid effectiveness in lower income countries (Vu Minh Duc, 2002). On the contrary, Gong and Zou (2001), Quoted in Vu Minh Duc stated that foreign aid depresses domestic savings, and mostly channels it into consumption and has no relationship with investment and growth in developing countries. Aided projects are likely to have little or no substantial impact in poor sector-policy environment and where projects are not well integrated. Unfortunately, a donor is more likely to ignore the potential negative externalities on recipient country systems (Stephen Knack, 2006). Part of the problem of aid ineffectiveness has a lot to do with the fragmentation of donor program/projects. The real effects of donor fragmentation among others include; each recipient must contend with many small projects from many different donors which breeds duplication, take much time of government ministers in aid intensive countries (William Easterly and Tobias Pfitze, 2008:p.12). Accordingly, the enhanced role of NGOs in the development process is their presumed efficiency and effectiveness in terms

of program delivery and meeting the needs of the poor. This is compared favourably with the failures of the state, the private sector and multilateral efforts to promote development. Arguably, NGOs possess development capacities and capabilities that states and governments lack and are acceptable as a necessary part of the development process (Iain Atack, 1999:p.6).

The NGOs/donor aided programs do reduce some of the worst forms of poverty, although a modest achievement, for the people helped it can be very significant. Donor aided programs focused on credit and agriculture in Latin America have led to an increase in employment, growth in income, and production (Alan Fowler and Rick James, 1994). There have been modest improvements in the economic status of those reached by NGOs and their programs, however, there is little evidence that beneficiaries had managed to break out of self-reproducing spirals of impoverishment. Even people helped by successful projects still remain poor (Alan Fowler & Rick James, 1994). Globally, development assistance has increased but lacks ability to reach out to the poor. Concerns have been voiced about the impact of donor funding to NGOs. Although their funding has increased enormously, their visibility with the general public has never been higher. Their legitimacy and relationship with funding agencies is in question. There is increasing debate that NGOs have become implementers of donor policies and their relationship with donor's compromises the work of Civil Society Organisations (Gilles Nancy et al, 2006). An NGO is only accountable to its particular funding organisations or its members (Gerald M. Steinberg, 2003).

According to Oxfam (2001) since the 1990s, the development community has realized the importance of linking relief and development activities. Responses to emergencies, must therefore seek to assist in meeting the immediate short-term needs to those in need. However there are certain conditions, were some aid responses sabotage longer-term development by

weakening local markets, reducing farmer incentives, and/or creating dependencies among the poor. If responses to emergencies can be developed in a way that improves the functioning of local markets, diversifies household livelihoods, and increases household incomes and assets, then relief efforts can be supportive of longer-term development. For example, a well-oriented food-for-assets program could improve local infrastructure (e.g., roads, marketplaces, schools) while at the same time provide food support to those in need. Households with expanded livelihoods living in communities with better infrastructure would be able to better withstand future shocks, improving the success of, or even reducing the need for, subsequent relief efforts. These insights grow out of a framework, known as the “relief to development” continuum, in which intervention activities could be classified as either relief, rehabilitation, or development. Or, using the livelihood framework, activities on this continuum ranged from livelihood provisioning (e.g., supplementary and therapeutic feeding) to livelihood protection (for instance distribution of seeds and tools) to livelihood promotion (e.g., small enterprise development).

Food aid in some areas has not adhered to the “Do no harm principle” in some areas such that the communities have often been reluctant to improve their livelihoods. Thielke (2006) gave an example of a community called Loiyangalani in Northern Kenya where the population of the community has risen to 15,000 from 500 in the 1980s despite the area being semi-arid. With limited job opportunities, a very small number of people is employed. Continued food aid by the World Food Programme is the major reason why people have flocked to this community over the years. The World Food Programme is said to have distributed food despite the fact that in some years harvest would see people to the next season, the harvest were satisfactory and did not warrant any external assistance. Loiyangalani community values cattle as a wealth symbol, they do not consume the meat but milk and blood. Due to the continued food aid the community stopped

growing any crops as they would be certain that they would receive free aid, they rather kept cattle. Some people who used to kill their cattle for meat to sell during drought ceased doing it as they were assured of free food. Steady deliveries of food aid to the barren region have dramatically exacerbated its problems instead of alleviating them. "In the past, people slaughtered their animals for food during difficult times," says Okola. "But ever since the World Food Program began feeding us, hardly anyone does this anymore. Everyone just waits for the next delivery' (Thielke, 2006). People flock to areas where food aid is being provided doubling the population for the area in less than two decades. Nyaminyami is one area where the community is used to free food aid, the researcher therefore sought to investigate the perception of the community towards working to get food aid.

According to Rasmussen (2007) the greatest concern around food aid is the possibility that it can undermine the livelihoods of poor farmers by creating disincentives for local food producers, by flooding markets and depressing prices. Substantial volumes of food aid provided over a long-term basis could discourage local production, result in increased poverty, and create long term food insecurity due to increased dependence on food imports. At the local level, there are numerous cases where producers report falling prices and market displacement as a result of an influx of food aid commodities. For instance, in 2002 and 2003 food aid donors over-reacted to a projected 600,000-tonne food deficit in Malawi, and sent close to 600,000 tonnes of food in aid. However, commercial and informal importers brought in an additional 350,000–500,000 tonnes. Malawi was flooded and had very large carry-over stocks. Maize prices dropped from \$250 per tonne to \$100 per tonne in the course of a year. Local production of maize, cassava, and rice fell markedly, and estimated losses to the Malawian economy were approximately \$15m.10

Unfortunately, economic studies are often inconclusive about the extent of disincentives for local production caused by food aid. Most studies of food aid impacts are conducted at a national or global level, using aggregated data. This hides impacts in local markets, where price depression and displacement are more likely, especially in the fragmented markets typical of many countries receiving food aid. In fact, there is strong historical evidence that the use of food aid tends to correlate with long-term dependence on food imports — either food aid or commercial imports. This study therefore researched on how food aid in form of FFA has impacted the local farmers' livelihoods in Nyaminyami district as farming is their livelihoods.

2.5 Livelihoods

Livelihood strategies encompass activities that generate income and many other kinds of choices including cultural and social choices that come together to make up the primary occupation of a household (Brown et al, 2006). Brown et al (2006) points out that rural households earn income from diverse allocations of natural, physical and human capital assets among various income generating activities. They choose patterns of diversification so as to achieve the best possible standard of living. Musopole (2004) defines livelihoods as means of people's access to adequate stocks and flows of food, cash and other resources to meet basic needs in an environmentally sustainable way. According to Lentz, Barrett, and Hoddinott (2005) one approach to understanding the livelihoods conceptual framework begins with the idea that households hold a bundle of assets or endowments that include;

- (i) physical capital in the form of agricultural tools and livestock,

(ii) natural capital such as owned land and access to common property resources

(ii) human capital in the form of knowledge, skills and health

(iii) financial capital such as cash in hand, bank accounts and outstanding loans

(iv) social capital such as networks, norms and social trust that facilitates coordination and cooperation.

2.6 Income levels and Sustainability of FFA programs.

In his research on the sustainability of food/cash for assets program in Bamba Division, Kilifi County in Kenya, which targeted the rural, poor, food insecure and vulnerable individuals and households Kidane (2006) found out that education levels among food-based programme beneficiaries can influence the level of involvement of individuals in key decision making as well as the implementation processes which affects their livelihoods. Again, educational qualification can determine the capacity of individuals to explore and exploit alternative innovations and technologies with the potential to boost their development most of whom have not attained any form of education or very low if any, hence high levels of illiteracy among the target beneficiaries. It is against this that the researcher intended to find out whether or not improving educational qualification among the rural academically disadvantaged communities through the attainment of some level of education would contribute to the achievement of an enhanced and sustainable food security through the successful implementation and replication of the Food for Assets program.

The ownership, adoption and replication of community projects such as Food for Assets is dependent on the income levels of the target beneficiaries from other sources other than the anticipated benefits from the programme being implemented. Frances (2009) argues that the poor

and marginalized feel stigmatized and rarely join with others in community projects. Lack of capital has been identified in many studies as a major constraint in expansion of projects. In Central Kenya, Macharia (2010) found out that lack of affordable credit was a major impediment to intensified use of modern farming methods and technology.

In Uganda, Rutaisire et al (2010) found out that lack of capital was one of the major factors hindering project implementers from achieving their desired results. In Bamba, the desired goal of the Food for Assets program is a sustainable food security situation among its target population. The report further notes that, most of the active participants of community projects were community members of stable incomes and were able to generate incomes for expansion of the projects. Occupation of different members of the community will affect their income and the availability of labour for agricultural activities. The type of occupation will also determine available savings that can be invested in agriculture activities as well as the adoption and replication of community development projects. Rutaisire concluded that daily income of the community members significantly influences the implementation of community projects and their sustainability. The long term goal of Food for Assets in Bamba division is to help communities attain sustainable food security through the successful implementation, and the subsequent adoption, replication as well as scale up of the Food for Assets projects at household levels. However, economic levels across individuals and households will determine the level at which these are achieved. It is in this regard that the study sought to find out the role of FFA project in enhancing the household livelihoods options and food security in a community that has agriculture as the major form of livelihood.

2.7 Demographic Characteristics and Sustainability of FFA programs

In general, most studies that have looked at food-based projects have focused on women and the gendered nature of work. In Australia, Kuntala (2004) argued that involvement of women, youth and minority members of the society in development and food-based projects was very low, and thus persistence of food insecurity in marginalized communities. The researcher intended to investigate whether the household livelihoods and food security of the community in which FFA was implemented changed considering that the programming considers the inclusion of women as noted by Pontier (1998) that it is essential for women and youth to be involved in projects which profoundly affect their lives. In the past, involvement of women in implementation of community development and food security project has been the focus of intensive debates by most international forums like the 1995 Forward Looking Strategies for the advancement of women held in Kenya, the 1995 Beijing Declaration and the United Nation Development Fund for women 2000. Despite all these awareness and understanding of gender imbalance in development programs, there still exists a gap as yet not much has resulted in significant priorities for majority of women. Involvement of women in project implementation is still faced by various disabilities. A study done by Blackden (2006) indicates that food security comprises of a vital aspect of human welfare in a society, particularly for women in Africa. Implementation of food-based agricultural projects has been seen as a women fundamental responsibility if not an obligation to human society, and indeed households. Traditionally, African women have spent their entire life time ensuring that their families are fed.

According to O'Reilly et al (2013), in their study on Evaluation of the Impact of Food for Assets on Livelihood Resilience on women in Nepal, within Nepal, around one in four households now

have a male member engaged in long- and short-term migration. This level of migration has increased the level of participation by women in WFP programmes, despite some evidence that migration was reduced when there was reliable work available. Involvement in FFA work brought increased opportunity for women to work and to earn food or money. This has enhanced their confidence in handling money, fund management, engaging in group decision-making and voicing their concerns. Examples of women's direct engagement in selection of assets includes the following examples: Women expressed that there is no workload issue due to the timing of the FFA (in the agricultural off-season) and they would like to do more of this type of work in the future. This is important if men continue to migrate for employment or move seasonally with livestock herds to remote mountain districts. Whilst the research focused on the effects of FFA projects on women in Nepal this research investigated the role of FFA in enhancing household livelihoods options and food security to both men and women in Nyaminyami district.

Furthermore, results in to O'Reilly et al (2013), in their study on Evaluation of the Impact of Food for Assets on Livelihood Resilience on women in Nepal showed that due to the scope of the work associated with FFA which involves road construction in Nepal, it has many disadvantages to women in some districts such as Dadeldhura. Road construction work (especially on larger or long roads) was often located some distance away from women's homes. Key informants in their research at district and project level indicated that problems in accessing FFA activities included: Conditions in the worker "camps" for those not able to return to their houses at night posed problems around security for women (single or married); sanitation; nutritional status for pregnant and lactating women (often given less strenuous jobs). Delays in food/cash supplies contributed to problems. Attending to the care of young children when working away from home – especially if the household is short of labour. Rarely have child-care

facilities been provided. Intra-household effects, when women were away from home for long periods or when men migrated, the FFA reduced the ability to engage in other activities as women were required to undertake more agricultural work this therefore affected their major household livelihood as men would have migrated as well. The researcher however investigated the role of FFA in enhancing household options and food security in a setup where the beneficiaries do not migrate and camp in order to access the FFA activities.

2.8 Climate change and Sustainability of Food for Assets programs.

Evidence indicates that more frequent and more intense extreme weather events (droughts, heat and cold waves, heavy storms, floods), rising sea levels and increasing irregularities in seasonal rainfall patterns (including flooding) are already having immediate impacts on not only food production, but also food distribution infrastructure, incidence of food emergencies, livelihood assets and human health in both rural and urban areas (FAO, 2008). Production of food and other agricultural commodities may keep pace with aggregate demand, but there are likely to be significant changes in local cropping patterns and farming practices (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005). As a result of the absence of rains for long periods or its unreliable availability a challenge has been posed on the successful implementation of agricultural-based projects, such as Food for Assets projects since majority depend on the availability of adequate rain. Further, many crops have annual cycles, and yields fluctuate with climate variability, particularly rainfall and temperature. Maintaining the continuity of food supply when production is seasonal is therefore challenging. Droughts and floods are a particular challenge to the implementation and sustainability of rain-dependent projects, hence a threat to food production and stability and could affect the effectiveness of the projects hence inability to curb both chronic and transitory food insecurity. Further, extreme weather conditions destroy the

livelihood-based resources which community development projects, such as Food for Assets, attempt to rebuild and protect. They include roads, water sources, crops, and livestock and thus their destruction affects the sustainability and resilience of the affected populations (Macharia 2010). Weather conditions pose great challenges to livelihoods based thinking during emergencies such as the one caused by drought since it becomes difficult for one to develop a link between relief and development.. Based on this information and more, the researcher intended to investigate whether or not prevailing weather conditions have an influence on the sustainability of Food for Assets program where most of the projects are rainfall-dependent.

2.9 Community involvement and the Sustainability of Food for Assets programs

According to Chambers (1989) community involvement as a participatory approach is the key in community development and poverty reduction. Community involvement and views should be considered in assessment, program design, and evaluation. Research has shown that participatory approaches increase program effectiveness and sustainability due to the sense of ownership. Community members know their local conditions better than the external program developers as a result can develop interventions that can help develop their areas better because of elimination of biases from the outsiders. Participatory-based programs have the potential to develop local capacities beyond the specific objectives of a particular program. In contrast to top-down approaches which tend to stifle local initiative, the empowering nature of working together to assess and develop solutions to a problem may be useful for confronting other challenges that communities face.

The same sentiments were shared by Okafor, 1984, Moughalu, 1986, Udoye, 1992; Asnarukhadi & Fariborz, 2009 and Ekong, 2010 that community participation always influences

the direction and execution of community development projects in contrast to communities merely being consulted and receiving project benefits. People's participation in the implementation of community development projects is an important element and a sure way to the speedy development of the rural areas and it is well attested to in research literature as reviewed . Other studies have concluded that capacity building of the target community equally contributes to people's reception to community projects irrespective of their education level. Studies reviewed have established the need for capacity building in all phases of project cycle and most of the projects studied have encompassed the same Udoh, 2012). The researcher wanted to find out if trainings conducted to the beneficiaries contributes significantly to the community livelihoods and food security in Nyaminyami district.

In its research WFP (2012) on the evaluation of the Impact of Food for Assets on Livelihood Resilience in Senegal (2005-2010).It was found out that generally WFP FFA successfully contributed to short term hunger gap alleviation, as well as to medium term impacts on food security, biophysical change, agricultural productivity and income opportunities particularly for women. Despite concerns over targeting and transparency effects, social cohesion benefits were also recognized by beneficiaries, partners and agencies concerning mobilisation for collective action, and improved women's participation in decision-making. The evaluation team concluded that evidence on productivity, livelihoods, and community cohesion has, combined, positively enhanced community resilience and ability to face shocks. Strengthened coping strategies acquired - diversified diets, land recovery techniques and income opportunities contributed to food security and enhanced livelihoods - considered by respondents as important domains of resilience. External contextual, and factors within WFP's control such as weaknesses in

programme strategy, operations, monitoring systems and community communications limited the potential positive impacts, affected ownership and sustainability of assets, and heightened the risk of conditional transfers affecting incentives for FFA. It is against this background that the researcher sought to investigate whether the same benefits will be realized in Nyaminyami district, Zimbabwe considering the different cultural norms and values.

According to Udoh, E.A. (2012) labour-intensive asset-creation programmes are usually implemented as Public Works or Food-for-Asset programmes and aim to improve livelihoods of food insecure people through two main avenues: firstly, through the direct provision of wages (cash or food) as a remuneration for labour-intensive investments in natural resource assets, and secondly, over the longer term through the assets themselves. While the link between the wage and its contribution to improved livelihoods is relatively straight forward and has been confirmed through research, the contribution of the natural assets to livelihoods, poverty reduction, food security and resilience is much less clear. This is not least because there is a lack of baseline information against which to measure livelihoods improvements, because there are many compounding factors which make it difficult to separate the impacts of assets on livelihoods from other developments, and finally because there is a lack of rigorous and efficient methodologies for assessing the impacts of natural asset creation interventions on livelihoods, food security and resilience. This research therefore sought to validate if the claim by Udoh that there are many compounding factors which make it difficult to separate the impacts of assets on livelihoods from other developments in Nyaminyami district.

According to O'Reilly et al 2013 on their evaluation of the Impact of Food for Assets on Livelihood Resilience in Nepal the focus group discussions and road study showed that increased road access improved product marketing and communities' access to agricultural inputs and other goods. However it was found out that, the livelihood gains would have been greater if asset development had been accompanied by support for other parts of the value chain such as post-harvest processing. Roads were reported to have increased people's mobility in emergencies and for seeking employment. Nyaminyami district is a remote area which lies in region five, the researcher wanted to find the contribution of FFA in promoting household livelihoods options and food security in such a remote area, that is, if the same impacts is being realized.

2.10 Critique of previous methodologies

According to C-SAFE (2004) The Chinthebe water harvesting micro-project is located in Thyolo RDP near Satemwa tea estate in Malawi. The project was initiated by the community who expressed interest in diversifying their livelihoods options. The project aims to harvest water for the establishment of seasonal gardens and fish farming. Ten households participate in the project, with eight male-headed households and two female-headed ones. The community expressed interest in finding alternative livelihoods apart from upland cultivation of maize in order to diversify their income base. The community has since established vegetable gardens on the downstream side of the dam with produce such as tomatoes, drumhead cabbage and other vegetables. Placing the plots on the downstream side allowed for self-watering (percolation) and cuts down on labour requirements for the plots. Sugarcane and bananas grown were also grown along the sides of the community gardens introducing further dietary variety. Two dams have been constructed and 800 fingerlings (provided by Oxfam) have been put in each dam (8x4m).

The fingerlings are fed household waste and vegetable leaves. The Department of Fisheries provided initial training in fish farming and World Vision initiated farmers' exchange training to allow the sharing of ideas and experiences between farmers. However although a lot has been done Thyolo, the major challenge is that the project only involves only 10 households hence the impact of the project cannot be representative of the whole community. The researcher therefore wanted to investigate the role of FFA in household livelihoods and food security in projects that involve a lot of people that is a minimum of sixty beneficiaries for each asset that was created.

In a research that was done by Impact Initiatives in 2013 to evaluate the impact of activities on food security and resilience, by comparing households and communities that participate in FFA with those that do not across three states in South Sudan – Northern and Western Bahr el Ghazal and Warrap. The household economic analysis (HEA) parameter used in this report to categorize households according to wealth was household expenditure on livelihoods. The food insecurity rating that was used in this report, is a composite index developed for the WFP-led Food Security Monitoring System (FSMS). The index is based on Food Consumption Score; percentage spent on food; reliability and sustainability of income sources; and Coping Strategy Index score. It was found out that households that had participated in FFA were more likely to have a better food security rating when comparing households within the same wealth group and State. There was a significant positive correlation between FFA participation and household food security when comparing households within the same wealth groups and states. The strongest effect was seen amongst Poor households where 31% of FFA households were food insecure, compared to 38% of non-FFA households. In the Middle/Better-off group, 23% of FFA households were food insecure compared to 29% of non-FFA households. The smallest effect

was seen in the Very Poor group, where 49% of FFA households were food insecure, compared to 53% of non-FFA households. The effect remained when comparing households within states, households participating in FFA were less likely to be food insecure in both Northern Bahr el Ghazal (50% compared to 53%) and Warrap (36% compared to 41%). Receipt of general food distribution (GFD) was not significantly correlated with food security when compared with households within the same wealth group. The poorest households were least likely to have benefitted from FFA interventions. Amongst ‘‘Very Poor’’ households, 49% had not taken part in any intervention, compared to 47% of ‘‘Poor’’ households and 44% of ‘‘Middle/Better-off’’ households. ‘‘Middle/Better-off’’ households were most likely to have taken part in FFA (37%) – compared to 29% of ‘‘Very Poor’’ and 27% of ‘‘Poor’’ households. The report by Impact Initiatives used quantitative research to evaluate the effects of FFA. In addition the report evaluated food security and not household livelihoods as well, however this research used both quantitative and qualitative research methods in order to get a full insight of the role of FFA in enhancing household livelihoods options and food security. It investigated the its role in enhancing household livelihoods option to get an in-depth understanding of how the household livelihoods will eventually leads to food security.

According to Siyoum et al (2012), on their survey on food aid and dependency syndrome in Kilifi and Mbeere, Ethiopia. The two FFA activities showed substantial increases in the number of meals per day. The baseline surveys showed that in Kilifi and Mbeere, 46.5% and 57% of targeted beneficiaries respectively were consuming two or more meals per day, compared to 73% and 97% upon project completion. In Mbeere, this included an increase in those consuming three meals a day from 3.7% to 40%. Reliance on negative coping mechanisms also showed strong

signs of decline in Mbeere including the proportion of those limiting meal portion sizes from 70% to 39%, those begging for food on a daily basis from 7.3% to 0.5% as well as a decrease in charcoal burning activities. Whilst Siyoum et al research made a comparison between district which FFA is being implemented in, this research investigated in wards with FFA and non-FFA activities.

In his research on, Can food assistance promoting food security and livelihood programs contribute to peace and stability in specific countries? , Frankenbergeri (2012) points Food for Assets (FFA) programs as one potential means of supporting livelihood recovery. Its argued that FFA is particularly effective in such situations because it not only meets the immediate consumption needs of participating households, it also creates durable assets designed to enhance the skills and livelihood security of participants, and when employing male youth, gives them a profitable alternative to participation in violent conflict. However, one key challenge in implementing FFA programs is that they require relatively high levels of technical and logistical capacity at the institutional level. This is often not present in transitional settings characterized by nascent or fragile institutions. For example, in both Timor-Leste and South Sudan, major FFA programs have experienced difficulties in finding adequate technical staff and faced funding shortfalls, both of which limited the impact of FFA during the recovery period. While FFA may be an appropriate and preferred assistance modality for promoting stability over the longer-term, practical realities may limit its implementation in transitional settings. Sudan is a country that has been experiencing war , therefore the researcher sought to investigate the role of FFA in enhancing household livelihoods options in a conflict free country.

2.11 Effects of food for Assets

Ethiopian governments have tried to address the issue of food insecurity in the country. However, none of them have successfully addressed the problem. Structural attempts to address food insecurity started in the mid-1970s, however the 2011 food crisis in the Horn exacerbated the issue(Bevan and Pankhurst 2009). Of the 13.3 million people in need of food assistance in the Horn of Africa, 4.6 million were in Ethiopia. The debate over dependency syndrome in Ethiopia has strongly influenced government food aid policy since the 1980s. In an attempt to address the issue, the government introduced a public works component to food aid programming. The government's Productive Safety Net Program states that no able-bodied person should receive free food aid without working on public works activities. This policy aims to ensure that food aid should not create dependency behaviour among beneficiaries (Lind and Jalleta 2011). However, it was observed that Food-for-Asset (FFA) programs were relatively more attractive than work on recipients' own farms/businesses, because the FFA paid immediately, and because the household considered the payoffs to the FFA project to be higher than the returns to labour on its own plots. In this case, food aid-based programs siphoned productive inputs away from local private production, creating a distortion due to substitution effects, rather than strengthening the community's livelihoods. This caused negative dependency by diverting labour from local private uses to FFA obligations decreasing labor on a household's own enterprises during a critical part of the production cycle (Jayne et al 2001). For highly food-insecure recipients, FFA program participation may provide recipients with essential food today while hindering labour investments in future productivity, a classic case of positive dependency (humanitarian support) inextricably twinned with negative dependency. Kanbur et al (1994), Barrett (2002). The researcher investigated the role of FFA in enhancing household livelihoods options in a different area that has not been drought stricken like Ethiopia.

According to Holden, Barrett and Hagos (2006), food aid can have the unintended consequence of discouraging household-level production. If food aid lowers local food prices, that may decrease the relative payoffs to investing in one's own production. This type of disincentive impacts not only food aid recipients – who may enjoy a countervailing stimulative effect due to the increased resources at their disposal – but perhaps especially to non-recipient producers who live in or sell to areas receiving food aid flows. In theory, a producer is more at risk of facing food aid-induced disincentives the more unresponsive (i.e., inelastic) demand they face. These disincentive effects can be short-term in nature, in which case concerns about negative dependency are minimal. The risk of triggering negative dependency looms largest when food aid has what producers expect to be a relatively permanent negative effect on product prices, or when it interrupts regular investment or maintenance cycles that maintain or enhance local agricultural productivity. The key triggers to study are thus the medium-to long-term expected price effects and any disruptions in on-farm activities due to the method and timing of food distribution. Both of these factors are largely driven by programming variables such as targeting methods and timing.

According to Little (2008), a vast amount of unverified anecdotal evidence suggests that food aid, in the form of FFA programming, harms local production by encouraging households to reallocate their labour away from production towards this programming. The econometric or ethnographic evidence in support of this claim is thin, however, and there are examples where the opposite seems to have occurred, as in the case of FFA for on-farm soil and water conservation in Tigray, northern Ethiopia, crowding in on-farm labour and private investments (Holden, Barrett and Hagos 2006), or in the case of lean season FFA projects enabled

smallholders to purchase fertilizer and hire labour to increase on-farm labour effort on their own plots in Baringo District of central Kenya (Bezuneh et al., 1988). FFA programming are often used to counter a perceived —dependency syndrome associated with freely distributed food. However, evidence suggests that poorly designed FFA programs may cause more risk of harming local production than free food distribution does. Ravallion (1991) has argued that setting wages correctly will induce self-targeting of food insecure households whose time is less valuable than that of richer households. Barrett and Clay (2003) argue, however, that in structurally weak economies FFA programming design is not as simple as determining the appropriate wage rate. The authors find that in rural Ethiopia higher-income households had excess labor and thus lower (not higher) value of time, therefore they allocated this labor to FFA schemes in which poorer households could not afford to participate due to labour scarcity. It is against this background that this researcher that the researcher thought to investigate the role of FFA in enhancing the household livelihoods option for both beneficiaries of the FFA and non-FFA beneficiaries.

Bennett (2001) argues that FFA programs in Cambodia are an additional, not alternative, source of employment and that the very poor rarely participate due to labour constraints. Therefore, some targeting in addition to FFA may be necessary to reach the neediest households. Abdulai, Barrett, and Hoddinott (2005) found that a seemingly negative correlation between food aid and production does not appear to reflect any causal relationship from food aid to diminished labour inputs or on-farm investments once one controls for targeting-related placement effects (i.e., the fact that food aid flows in response to adverse shocks). Given that they are able to use repeated longitudinal observations of households, Abdulai, Barrett and Hoddinott (2005) are able to

directly refute claims of negative dependency among Ethiopian farmers in their sample. Further, recent research in Kenya suggests that producers choose their crops based on long term price trends, not on short-term fluctuations. Therefore, production changes may be more likely to occur in areas with recurrent crises with a long-term, steady stream of food aid rather than one-off events such as emergency response (Deloitte Consulting, 2005).

There exist a number of unverified anecdotes suggesting that communities alter their collective behaviour in the presence of external assistance (Lentz et al. 2005). For example, Groupe URD (2005) reports that in Afghanistan some communities stopped maintenance on public goods in anticipation of food aid payments for the same projects. Similarly, Salisbury (1992) reports that Ethiopians planted trees upside down as part of a FFA scheme, allegedly to encourage the ongoing delivery of food aid. This is a form of community-wide moral hazard. Communities opportunistically choose not to maintain or rehabilitate public goods or their own assets in anticipation that programs will compensate them to do so later. Lentz et al. (2005) refer to this type of moral hazard as —opportunism, defined as behaviour which makes full use of external services but which does not necessarily result in long-term adverse consequences. Although the objectives of the FFA programs is to build a community that is resilient to shocks by building assets, using the above examples the community’s behaviour defeats the objective of the programming because of the dependency syndrome. It was therefore the to evaluate whether there has been a shift of perception from being dependent on external assistance to being self-reliant in the Nyaminyami community. It was also the researcher’s wish to understand if the community has grasped the concept of FFA.

2. 12 Summary of Literature Review

The literature reviewed was intended to help the researcher identify gaps in knowledge so as to establish a framework and a direction for other new research studies. In most of the literature reviewed, educational level of beneficiaries has been identified as a key component in project implementation. It was found out that beneficiaries with a little educational background are able to understand the importance of owning community projects by being actively involved which in turn will improve their livelihoods options and food security.

It was noted that with climate change occurring rapidly, weather conditions do have a major influence on the implementation of agricultural-based projects which solely depend on rainfall. Extreme weather conditions have been frequently occurring which include drought, heat and cold waves, heavy storms, floods, rising sea levels and increasing irregularities in seasonal rainfall patterns (including flooding) and these conditions have been affecting everyone. However the poor and vulnerable are the worst to be affected as they do not have other form of livelihoods to resort to except agriculture. (FAO, 2008).

The same literature reviewed also highlighted that income levels do influence the implementation of projects. Most of the studies reviewed identified lack of capital as a major constraint in expansion of projects. In Central Kenya for example, Macharia (2010) found out that lack of affordable credit was a major impediment to intensified use of modern farming methods and technology. It was also noted that community participation always influences the direction and execution of community development projects. People's

participation in the implementation of community development projects is an important element and is a way to the speedy development of the rural areas and (Okafor, 1984; Moughalu, 1986; Udoye, 1992; Asnarukhadi & Fariborz, 2009; Ekong, 2010; Udensi, 2012; Udoh, 2012).

Other studies have concluded that capacity building of the target community equally contributes to people's reception to community projects irrespective of their education level. Most studies reviewed have established the need for capacity building in all phases of project cycle and most of the projects studied have encompassed the same. The researcher wanted to find relevance of training offered to the implementation of the projects undertaken.

2.13 Conclusion

Poor implementation of community based development has been sited which has caused failure of some projects. Therefore it is against this background that the researcher sought to find if these project are improving or exacerbating the vulnerability of the community and provide recommendations on how such programming can be improved based on the findings.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter gives a synopsis of the research methodology that was used in the study. According to Silverman (2006), a methodology refers to the choices we make about cases to study, methods of data collection, forms of data analysis, etc in planning and executing a research. The following areas were covered in this research: the used research design, the studied target population, the applied sample size and sampling procedure, data collection methods, data collection instruments used and data collection procedure. The validity and reliability of the instruments that was used for data collection was scrutinized. Ethical considerations that were adopted in this research were explained in this chapter.

3.2 Research Design

The research employed mixed research design or combined research. A mixed methods research design is a procedure for collecting, analyzing, and “mixing” both quantitative and qualitative research and methods in a single study to understand a research problem (Creswell, J. 2012). It is also defined as integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches to generate new knowledge and can either concurrent or sequential use of these two classes of methods to follow a line of enquiry by Stange et al (2006). According to Aliaga and Gunderson (2000) quantitative approach involves explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that is analyzed using mathematical based methods (in particular statistics). The purpose of quantitative approach is to form a data base from which to infer characteristics or relationships of population. This means survey research where the sample of population is studied to determine it's characteristics and it

is then inferred that the population has the same characteristics (Kothari 2004).research
 Qualitative approach involves collection of data which yield categorical or non-numeric responses. The researcher relies on the views of participants, asks broad, general questions, collects data consisting largely of words (or text) from participants, describes and analyzed these words for themes and conducts the inquiry in a subjective and biased, manner (Kothari 2004). This approach was taken to because both quantitative and qualitative data together, provided a better understanding of the research problem than either type by itself that is, gave a fuller picture as results were interpreted from different angles. Combining both qualitative and quantitative research methods in this study is justified because qualitative methods were used to understand the meaning of conclusions produced by quantitative methods. (Silverman, 2006).

3.3 Population

Kothari (2004) defines a population or universe as all items in any field inquiry universe. Target population is defined by Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) as the whole group a researcher is interested in or the group about which the researcher wishes to draw conclusion. In this research Nyaminyami district was the researcher's population and the target population of the study was FFA beneficiaries in wards 5, 6, 7 and non-FFA community in ward 8 community. The targeted population was selected because of the limited time and money that was available.

WARD	NUMBER OF FFA BENEFICIARY HOUSEHOLDS
5	813
6	372
7	450

TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS	1 635
WARD	NON-FFA COMMUNITY
8	1 165

Source: UMCOR FFA Monthly Report summary, June 2014

3.4 Sampling size and sampling procedure

This section discussed the method that was used to determine the sample size from the targeted population and from which data was collected. In addition, the sampling techniques that were used in choosing respondents were also discussed.

3.4.1 Sample size

According to Doodley (1995), the perfect situation in research would be to collect data from all the elements of the population which is called census. However, census is not cost and time effective. The point of sampling is that by choosing parts of the elements in a population a conclusion can be drawn about the whole population (Cooper 2006). Therefore a sample is a segment or portion of population elements under study, representative of a population (Creswell, J.W 1998). Making reference to the table for determining random sampling from a given population as used by David A Payne and Robert F McMorris (1967), the sample size was given as 338 members based on the target population of 2800 beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries.

Table 3.2: Sample size distribution of all the FFA sites and ward 8

ward	Asset #	Name of FFA site	Number of households benefiting	Sample for FFA site	New sample
5	1	Kantulwe dam	250	$250/2800*338=30$	30

5	2	Kantulwe CNC	60	$60/2800*338=7$	7
5	3	Mwala CNC	60	$60/2800*338=7$	7
5	4	Mwala spring protection	143	$143/2800*338=17$	18
5	5	Simalulu dam	300	$300/2800*338= 36$	36
6	6	Gumpa CNC	60	$60/2800*338=7$	7
6	7	Mpangwa pipeline	312	$312/2800*338=37$	38
7	8	Bhuruwayo dam	300	$300/2800*338= 36$	36
7	9	Nyamakara CNC	60	$60/2800*338=7$	7
7	10	Nyamakara spring protection	90	$90/2800*338=11$	11
8	Ward 8		1 165	$1 165/2800*338=140$	141
	Total		2800		338

The researcher used systematic random sampling technique to select the particular sites from which the data was collected. The sites were firstly arranged in their wards and using the interval of 2 that was selected, the 2nd, 4th, 6th, 8th and the 10th FFA sites were selected, that is, Kantulwe CNC, Mwala spring protection, Gumpa CNC, Bhuruwayo dam and Nyamakara spring protection respectively. This led to a new sample of 220 individual respondents that is 79 respondents from FFA beneficiaries and 141 from non-FFA households in ward 8.

Table 3.3 Sample size from each ward.

ward	Asset #	Name of FFA site	Number of households benefiting	Sample for FFA site	New sample
5	2	Kantulwe CNC	60	$60/2800*338=7$	7

5	4	Mwala spring protection	143	$143/2800*338=17$	18
6	6	Gumpa CNC	60	$60/2800*338=7$	7
7	8	Bhuruwayo dam	300	$300/2800*338= 36$	36
7	10	Nyamakara spring protection	90	$90/2800*338=11$	11
	8	Non-beneficiaries	1 165	$1 165/2800*338=140$	141
		Total			220

3.4.2 Sampling procedure

The researcher used probability and non -probability sampling techniques to select the respondents in both non-FFA and FFA operational wards

3.4.2.1 Probability sampling technique

According to Ogula (1998), a probability sampling technique is a sampling method in which each element of the population has an equal chance of inclusion in the sample. It was the blind chance alone that determines whether a respondent or the other was selected. To obtain data of the questionnaires, the researcher used stratified random sampling. This is where the population elements are first divided into strata of a common or similar characteristic then the sample elements are randomly selected from each of the stratum (Kothari 2004). The researcher divided the respondents in their respective wards that is those in wards 5,6,7 and 8 so as to create common characteristics hence created subgroups. The respondents were then were randomly selected from their subgroups. Since each strata were more homogeneous based on their wards

than the population, the researcher was able to get more precise estimate of each stratum. Stratified sampling results in more reliable information (Kothari 2004).

3.4.2.2 Non- probability sampling technique

Non-probability sampling is defined by Kothari (2004) as the sampling procedure which does not afford any basis for estimating the chance that each item in the population has of being included in the sample. In this type of sampling, respondents for the sample are selected deliberately by the researcher. The researcher's choice concerning the items remains supreme Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) . In other words, under non-probability sampling the researcher purposively choose the particular element of the population for constituting a sample on the basis that the sample size that they select out of the target population will be typical or representative of the population (Burgess 1949) .In order to locate the respondents for interviews, the researcher used convenience non- probability sampling. This sampling method is based on the proximity of the sample. The researcher visited the villages and respondents who were found available were then interviewed. Most members of the community migrate from their homesteads to their fields to guard their crops against wild animals hence convenience sampling was time effective. Convenience sampling the data collection process to be facilitated in a short duration. The sampling techniques that were used to select the sample size and respondents sought to reduce sampling error and bias by ensuring that the sample was as representative as possible.

3.5 Data collection Instruments

3.5.1 Primary data

According to Creswell (2006), data collection instruments are tools that are used for the data collection process from the respondents on the topic under study. The primary data of the

research was collected through semi structured interviews, questionnaires and focus group discussions. Questionnaires were administered to 150 respondents by the enumerators hired by the researcher. This involved walking from one village to another so as to meet respondents. Ideally it would have been easy for the researcher if the questionnaires were mailed, however due to the rural setup in Zimbabwe moving from one household to the other was ideal for the research. In addition most of the people are illiteracy hence having someone to administer it was ideal.

The researcher also conducted interviews, although this was very expensive it was the only option that the researcher had. Interviews helped the researcher to probe more and enable the interviewer to explain questions which were not easily understood by respondents. The interviewer managed to observe the non-verbal expression of the respondents. The researcher conducted an interview with the United Methodist Committee on Relief which is the WFP cooperating partner, which has been implementing the programme over the years and has observed the trends and perceptions of the community towards livelihoods.

Focus group discussion and participant observation were also conducted through informal and semi-structured interviews in order to get in-depth information from different respondents. FDG were conducted in order to triangulate with the data from the interviews and questionnaires. These were conducted through informal and semi-structured interviews in order to get in-depth information from different respondents. Focus group discussions were mainly conducted with the local community leadership consisting of ward councillors, village heads, village community workers, AGRITEX workers and other influential people such as the committees that worked

during the implementation of FFA. Matters for discussion hinged around the major livelihood activities in their areas, the transformation in the range and extend of these activities since the introduction of FFA. The researcher sought to obtain an in-depth knowledge on the grounds for the change, recommendations on how FFA programming can be designed to positively support the livelihoods options of the community. FDG enabled the gathering of information quickly and to ascertain trends and perspectives from the local community leadership point of view.

3.5.2 Secondary data

The researcher data also used the desk study approach to review secondary data relevant to the topic so as to meet the objective of the study. Secondly data was collected from AGRITEX, District Development Committee (DDC), NRDC journals, books, websites, and research reports.

3.5.3 Pilot testing of data collection instruments

Orodho (2004) defines a pilot study as a smaller version of a larger study that is conducted to prepare for the study. The pilot test was conducted to understand the rationale for the design. The researcher administered the pilot test to a group of FFA beneficiaries from a different ward, that is wards 3 and 4 and necessary adjustment to the research instruments were made. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) a sample equivalent to 10% of the sample size is ideal for piloting the research instruments. Basing on what Mugenda and Mugenda(2003) said, the researcher used 22 respondents to test the research tools. The pilot survey was done to the validity and of the reliability the research instruments. According to Joppa (2002) validity determines whether the instruments truly measures that which is intended to measure and

reliability is the extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under the study.

3.6 Data presentation and analysis techniques

The researcher presented the data in tables, percentages and frequency tables, the researcher used SPSS to analyze the quantitative data. The data from secondary sources were used for comparison and during content analysis. Qualitative techniques were used to explain quantitative data that is making connections with the quantitative data.

3.7 Ethical considerations

The following ethical issues were taken into consideration by the researcher during the research;

- The researcher informed the respondent on the objectives of the research and consent was sought from the respondents to participate in the interviews. There was an agreement that the researcher were not to quote or record personal information about the respondents for instance names of organizations or individuals.
- Quotes from respondents and their names were concealed for confidentiality purposes, instead pseudo names were preferred.
- Permission was obtained from the relevant authorities study that is for NRDC and local leadership for the researcher conduct the research in the area under study.
- The researcher provided sources and quotes for every secondary data that was used in the research.

CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presented and analysed the data that was collected from the food for assets beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries. The researcher collected data on the demographics of the respondents, their livelihoods options prior, during and after food for assets, the level of donor dependency and whether capacity building has helped them in choosing their livelihoods options.

4.2 Response rate

Out of the sample size of the 220 planned respondents, the researcher managed to reach and successfully administer interviews and questionnaires to 209 respondents only, which is 95% of the sample size. A response rate above 95% of the sample size can be said to adequately represent the study sample and provide sufficient information for the study analysis and therefore provide conclusion and recommendations with regards to the collected data.

4.3 Primary data analysis

The sex of the respondents was taken into account on the questionnaires and during the interviews so respondents were requested to indicate their sex to determine the composition of the sample by gender. The findings showed that 167 of the respondents were females at 80% constituting the majority of the sample whilst males were 42 at 20% . This was because during the rainy season most males migrate to their fields to guard their crops against wild animals this leaves women at home doing some household chores resultantly women do all household activities whilst men are away which is why when the researcher was collecting data only women were found at the homesteads.

4.4 Sex versus age of the respondents

The findings of the study indicated that of the 42 male respondents 4 were aged between 18 and 25 years, 22 between 26 and 35 years, 16 between 36 and 45 years whilst 28 of the 178 females were aged between 18-25 years, 65 between 26-35 years , 42 between 36-45 years and 32 of them were aged above 45. Table 4.1 below shows the sex against the age of the respondents

Table 4.1 Sex against age of respondent

Age of the respondent					
Sex of the respondent	18-25 years	26-35 Years	36-45 years	Above 45 years	Total
Male	4	22	16	0	42
Female	28	65	42	32	167
Total	32	92	62	34	209

4.5 Family size

60% of the respondents which account for 125 respondents had a family size between 5 and 10 whilst 30% (63 respondents) had a family size of 11 and above n and 10% (21 respondents) had a family size between 1 and 4.

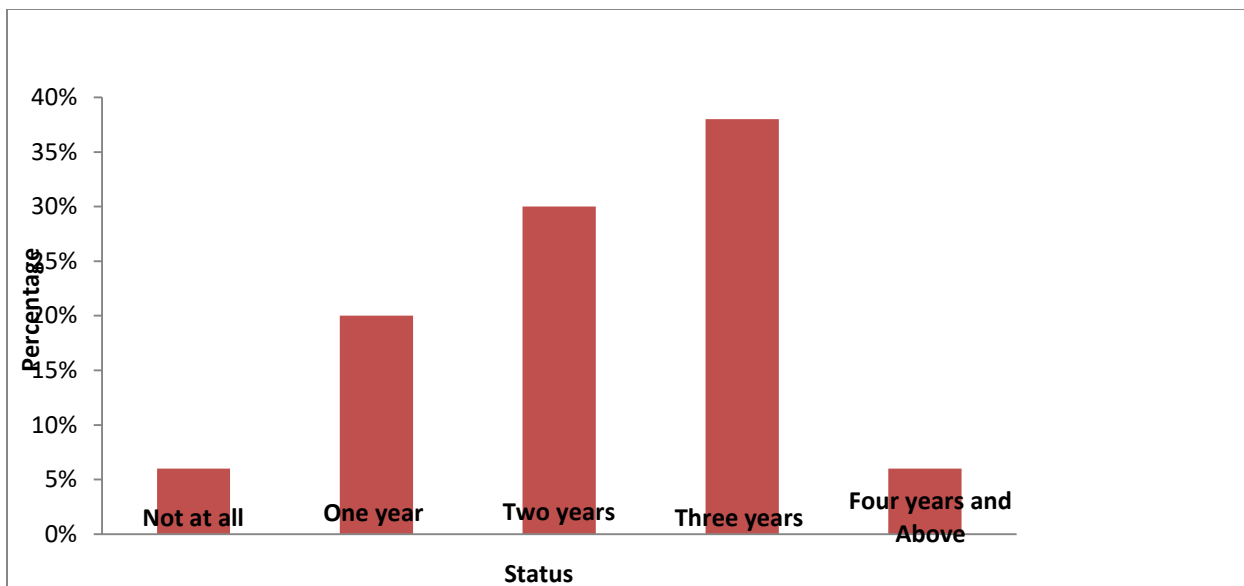
Table 4.2 Family sizes of respondents

Household Size	1-4	5-10	11 and above	Total
Number of respondents	21	125	63	209

4.6 Beneficiary status

What was interesting to note was that 196 of the 209 respondents (94%) were once food aid beneficiaries whilst 38 % of the respondents indicated that they were in fact beneficiaries of the food aid for the past three years consecutively. Although these respondents (94%) were once food aid beneficiaries the number of years they were beneficiaries differed depending on the wards of the respondent because NGOs target the most food insecure wards hence there are years were some wards were not selected for food aid assistance. Only 6% of the respondents indicated that they have never been food aid beneficiaries and this was because these respondents were new to the wards hence they had never been targeted by any intervention .Nyaminyami district has constantly been in need of food hand-outs since 2001 and the researcher noted that because of this, food aid dependency has developed in the wards that are deemed to be the most food insecure that is wards 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7. This therefore explains the reason why 38% of the respondents reported that they have been food aid beneficiaries for the past three consecutive years.

Figure 4.1: Number of years the respondents were food aid beneficiaries.



4.7 Duration the food obtained from Food for assets would lasts

In order to determine if there was a correlation between family size and household food security, the researcher asked the respondents the duration that the food they got from food for assets would last for them and the findings are presented in table 4.3 below. From the findings it was noted that 23 respondents indicated that the food they received from FFA lasted less than week. 49 respondents said it lasted 1-2 week, it was observed that most of the FFA beneficiaries fell in this category, respondents in this group are those who suffer from transitory food insecurity. These are people who under normal circumstances can produce sufficient food stocks to cater from their dietary requirements or to meet their household requirements but are affected by natural disasters like Elnino and hence the term transitory food insecure. Since the objective of the programme is to target households in this category, intended beneficiaries were selected since the majority of them fell in this category. The food lasted between 3 and 4 weeks for 5 respondents, only 2 respondents indicated that the food lasted 5 week and above. Respondents whose food lasted between 3-5 and above were those beneficiaries who had small household size of between 1-3, although the programme targeted labour endowed households, beneficiaries who fell in this category were labour constrained food insecure households who were given light tasks. These were the respondents who were chronically food insecure who would have starved if they were not given aid as the majority of them were elderly who could not fend for themselves. The researcher found out that the question was not applicable to 62% of the respondents as they were non-beneficiaries to the FFA programme.

Table 4.3: Time food lasts

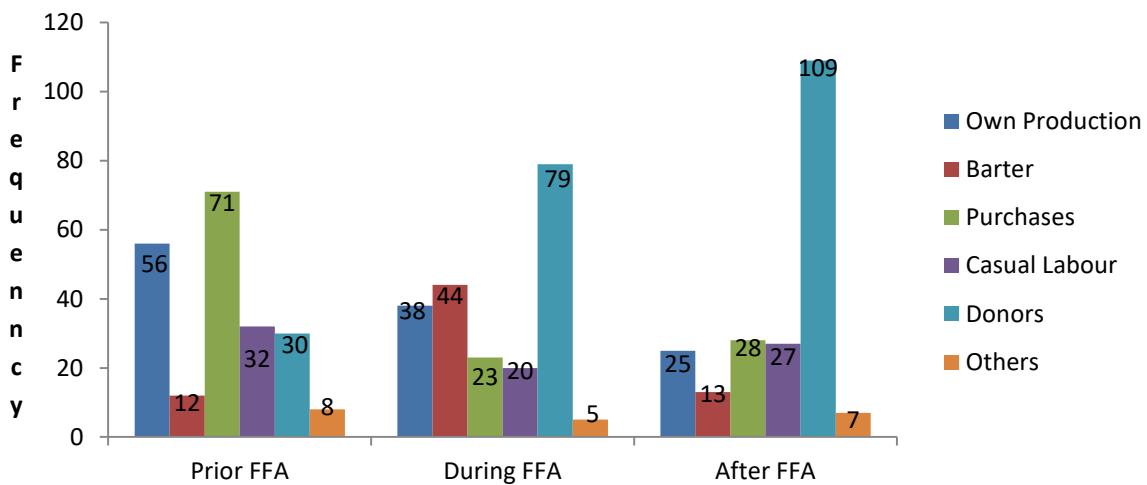
	Frequency	Percentage %	Cumulative percentage
Less than 1 week	23	11	11
1-2 weeks	49	23.4	34.4
3-4 weeks	5	2.4	36.8
5 and above weeks	2	1	37.8
Not applicable	130	62	100
Total	209	100	

4.8 Sources of food prior and after FFA

To show the role of FFA in enhancing the community household livelihoods options and food security, the researcher asked the respondents about their sources of cereal prior, during and after the food for asset programme. Figure 4.3 below show the sources of food for both beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries for FFA program. The researcher found out that prior to the inception of FFA, most of the respondents (71) relied mostly on purchases as their source of cereal followed by own production (56 respondents), only 30 respondents relied on donors and a few respondents relied on other sources such as gifts and remittances. During the implementation of the FFA it can be noted below that the donor was the major source of cereal for most respondents which increased from 30 before FFA to 79 during FFA. FFA became a form of livelihood for many beneficiaries during its implementation so as to get food. Barter trading increased by 32 respondents this was because members of the community from ward 8 barter traded items such as plates, crafts and clothes for food with the FFA beneficiaries. In as much as FFA beneficiaries were correctly selected according to the standards, the barter trade of non-food items for food

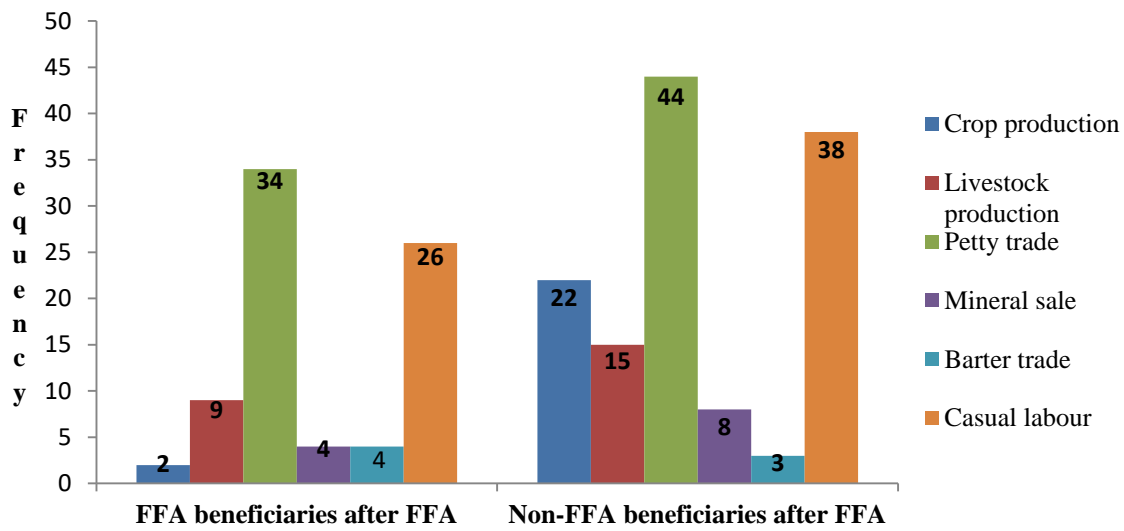
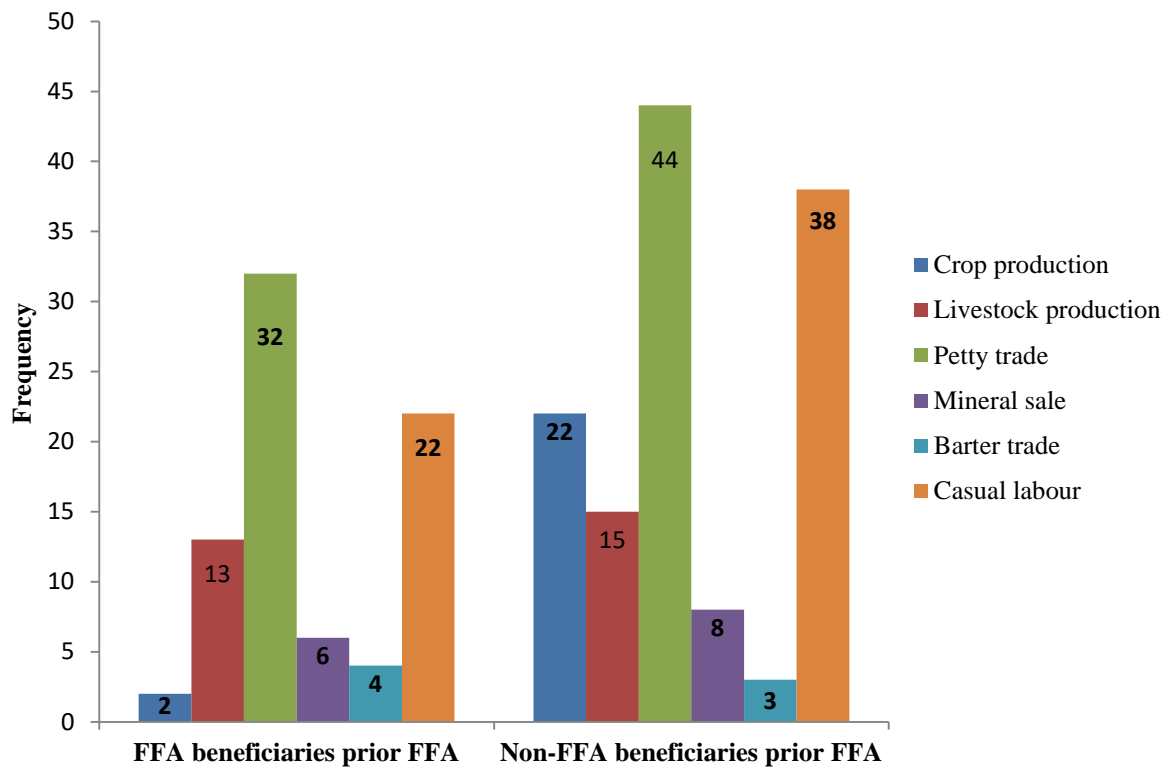
items showed that some beneficiaries were not food insecure. In addition, this showed that the beneficiaries have other needs that food only cannot address, which is why some argue that cash transfers work out better for the beneficiaries. The researcher observed that respondents who relied on own production reduced from 56 respondents to 38 respondents during FFA, this could be because of the depletion of their harvest. Casual labour also dropped from 32 respondents (before FFA) to 20 respondents (during FFA), since most of the members of the community were reporting for duty to their project sites. After FFA it was observed that respondents who relied on donor for their cereal escalated from 79 (during FFA) to 109 this could have been caused by the erratic rainfall and the El Niño effect that has struck the country, those who relied on barter dropped from 44 (during FFA) to 13 after FFA as there were no people to barter trade with since the programme had ended. Purchases, casual labour and own production were sources for cereal to 28, 27, and 25 respondents respectively after FFA. This showed that the objectives of FFA were not met as the community's livelihoods were affected by the erratic rainfall that resulted in dams not harvesting water and the plants drying up as a result most of them have resorted to donor assistance for food.

Figure 4.2: sources of cereal



4.9 Livelihood activities

In order to determine if FFA played a role in enhancing household livelihood options, the researcher asked beneficiaries of their livelihoods prior and after the FFA. Petty trade and casual labour were the major livelihoods in wards 5, 6 and 7 with 32 and 22 respondents respectively whilst petty trade, casual labour and crop production were a major source of livelihoods in ward 8 with 44, 38 and 22 prior and after FFA. Fig 4.4 and 4.5 show livelihoods prior and after FFA. There were no significant changes that were noted for FFA beneficiaries the increase in petty trade was noted from the beneficiaries from Nyamakara garden who were selling their produce in other wards. Other respondents have however, indicated that they resorted to their normal livelihoods as soon as the programme ended resulting in the inability of households and the community at large to be able to cope and recover from stresses and shocks in their external environment. This shift to their normal livelihoods can be attributed to obstruction by structures that are causing people to be unable to define the livelihoods that they will take as propounded by Ian Scoones' framework. In addition, it could also be because the assets that were created are not essential for their livelihoods. Livelihoods for non-beneficiaries after FFA programme did not change as assets were not created in their wards, additionally there was no activities in 5, 6 and 7 that could help in improving their livelihoods. However it is worth mentioning that some of the non-FFA beneficiaries were barter trading with FFA beneficiaries to get food hence livelihood diversification. Some non-FFA beneficiaries benefited indirectly from the FFA assets by buying the agricultural produce. Figures 4.3 and 4.4 : livelihoods prior and after FFA of both FFA and non-FFA beneficiaries



4.10 Food for asset design

Livelihood options did not change for the majority of the respondents although 68% of the respondents indicated that the FFA program was designed to support household livelihoods.

Reasons included that:

- a) the programmes targeted vulnerable food insecure households
- b) they received food entitlement after working 60 hours which stopped household starvation
- c) the food they received was an addition to the food they got from other household livelihood activities.
- d) FFA programme was a source of livelihood for some households.

32 % of the respondents indicated that FFA was not designed to support household livelihoods options because of the scope of works it involves and the number of hours was too much for some people such that they were tired to do other livelihood activities after finishing off .However in as much as the respondents expressed concern over the design of the programme that it is burdensome, the work norms rates and the number of hours worked by beneficiaries of the programme are derived from the government of Zimbabwe's policy on community works. Hence the respondents could have complained because the element of working for food is new to the district as people were used to having free food aid hand outs. Fig 4.5 above shows livelihoods after FFA.

4.11 Beneficiaries dropping off livelihoods during FFA implementation

85% of the respondents who were FFA beneficiaries indicated that they dropped off some livelihood activities during the implementation of the programme. Example of livelihoods that

these respondents dropped off include casual labour, mineral sale, and vegetable sale. Common reasons being that;

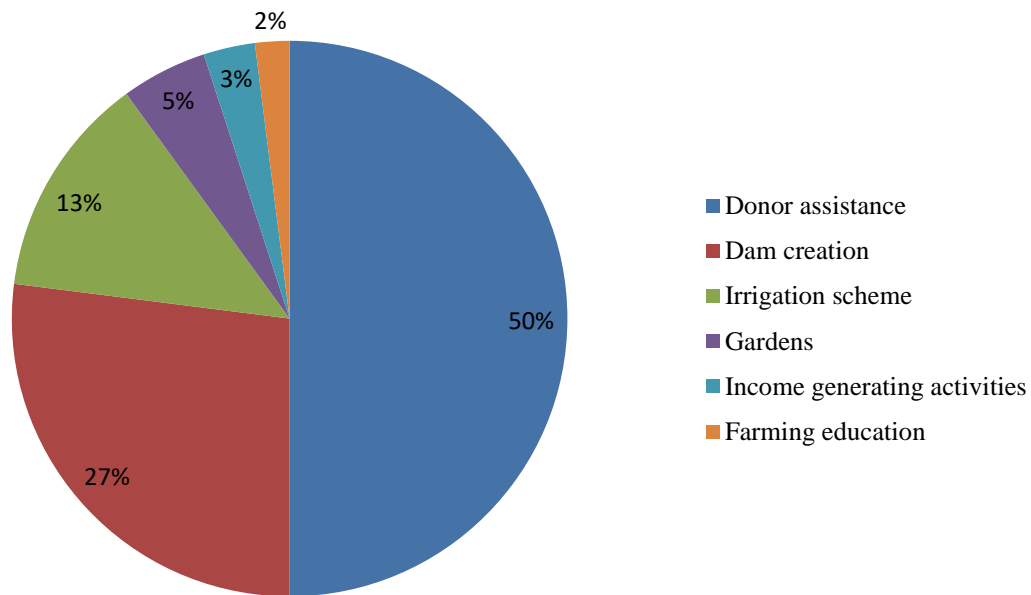
- A) most of their productive time were spent on project sites usually from 0800hrs-1200hrs as a result it was difficult to do other livelihood activities thereafter.
- B) hot weather conditions made it difficult for them to embark on other activities
- C) some indicated that they were the only source of labour in their households and it was difficult to do other activities as they would be tired as some of them travelled more than 5km to the project sites.

15% of the FFA beneficiaries indicated they did not drop off their livelihood activities because of the availability of labour in their households. Others indicated that they reside close to the asset hence they would not spend time walking to their homesteads after they knocked off this resulted in more time doing their normal livelihood activities. Non FFA respondents indicated that their livelihoods improved during the implementation of FFA as they were barter trading with beneficiaries of FFA.

4.12 Perceptions on how to end food insecurity situation

To make inference to the level of dependency syndrome, the community were asked on the approaches that can be taken to end the problem of food shortages in their community through a questionnaire. A total 105 respondents suggested food aid to be a solution to the food shortage problems. The findings showed that the community has a high dependency syndrome, the high dependency could be because Nyaminyami is in region 5 which receives erratic rainfall hence inhibiting efforts to practice farming. Although the community created assets which they

selected, they still thought that food aid ends the food shortage and not the use of the assets they created to ensure food security. It is therefore the lack of human capital (knowledge and skills) that has caused the community not to think beyond food aid and embark on livelihood diversification since they have assets. 30% suggested that the problem can be curbed by creation of more dams as the district do not receive sufficient water that see plants through the rain season, 15 % acknowledged that dams are not sufficient to end the problem they however suggested irrigation schemes so that those who practise farming far from the dams will receive water . 50% of the respondents managed to acknowledge the combination of five different assets to improve their livelihoods options. This therefore confirms the contention by Scoones sustainable livelihood framework that livelihoods can be analysed and improved through the combination of the five different assets. Fig 4.5: Strategies to solve food insecurity.



4.13 Community involvement

63% of the respondents agreed that the level at which the project beneficiaries were involved in the programme was beneficial to its successful implementation and sustainability which helped in some household's livelihood options. The researcher noted that some of the respondents were not FFA beneficiaries but because they reside nearby ward 7 they saw how the project was being implemented. 27 % indicated that the level at which the beneficiaries were involved in the project was detrimental to its successful implementation as a result this led to unsustainable livelihoods as there was no sense of ownership. In addition, respondents indicated that the projects were not part of their ward plan, the donor imposed the projects on them as a result they were just working on the assets so as to get food. 10% of the respondents indicated that they did not know the level of involvement of the workers.

4.14 Community contribution

All 79 FFA beneficiaries indicated that they provided labour and their personal tools as their contribution towards the implementation of the programme. The researcher observed that from the focus group discussion the village heads provided their communal land towards the creation of the assets as these assets are communally owned. The FFA beneficiaries respondents indicated that most of the ideas came from the donor staff and their contributions were heard through the committees that were put in place to supervise the work and these committees were selected by the community. The community's contribution to the assets they created has created a sense of ownership, the community has embraced assets such as dams because they serve a wider catchment however there is still a gap in the utilization of these assets to improve the community's livelihood options and food security.

4.15 Capacity building

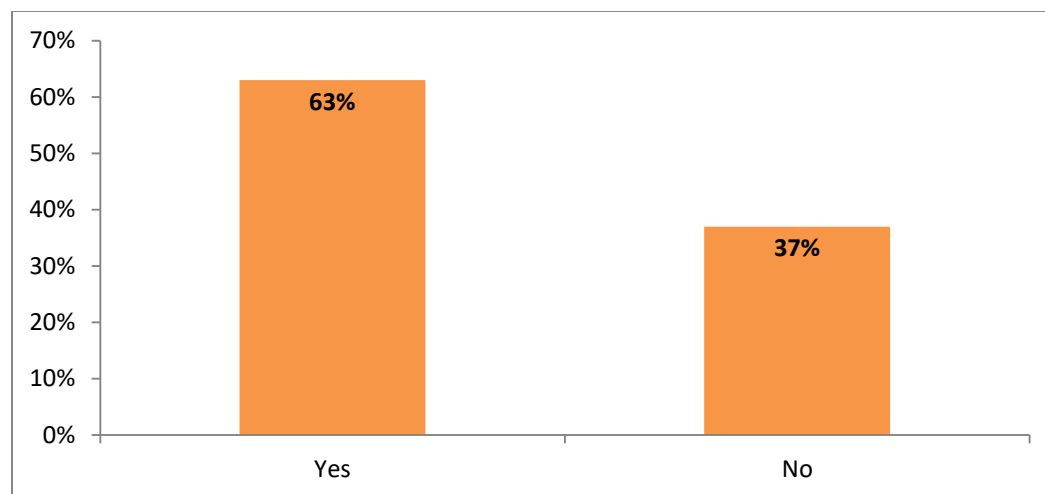
To determine how the assets created helped to improve the food security status and household livelihoods options, the researcher asked beneficiaries if they had received any training. All the FFA beneficiaries' respondents revealed that they received training such as infant young child feeding, value addition, post harvesting and marketing. FFA beneficiaries indicated that the trainings helped them in choosing their household livelihood options because they are implementing what they have learnt, however, although these FFA beneficiaries indicated that they are implementing what they were trained, evidence in their community nutrition gardens proved otherwise. Out of the 4 community nutrition gardens that were established in ward 5, 6 and 7 under FFA, only 1 garden (Nyamakara in ward 7) is successfully functional with its beneficiaries selling their produce in other wards such as 5 and 4 of which the same gardens were also established in these wards. Nyamakara community nutrition centre is only 7km from the Siakobvu growth point where these beneficiaries sell their produce. All the gardens confirm what Ian Scoones (1998)'s Sustainable rural livelihood framework suggests that the livelihood analysis must be based on five different assets. It was the researcher's view that whilst the idea of capacity is a noble idea, other assets must be considered in order for these assets to enhance the community livelihoods. Nyamakara garden has unlimited supply of water (natural capital), access to wider institutions of the society to which they can sell their produce as they are close to the market that is the growth point (social capital), there is a good transport network to the market which enables the beneficiaries to pursue their livelihoods (physical capital), they have a strong financial base from the produce they sell (financial capital) and they have capitalised on the trainings for the knowledge.

Additionally because of the proximity of the garden to the growth point where AGRITEX offices are stationed the beneficiaries have an added advantage of the department's knowledge (human capital). Some gardens do not have the components of all five capitals as a result the livelihoods are not being enhanced for instance gardens such as Mwala CNC is inaccessible, the road network is very poor and the area is infested with baboons as a result the beneficiaries have since given up as their crops are always eaten by baboons. Gumpa CNC is dependent on the water supply from the pipeline that is used by everyone in ward 6 which is not even enough for domestic consumption. The water supply is erratic, this has led to crops drying up, and the garden is only productive during the raining period. It is therefore the lack of balance between the five capital assets that has resulted in some of the community livelihoods and food security not being enhanced, hence the contention by Ian Scoones holds water that programmes meant to improve rural livelihoods must take the five types of capital into consideration for it to make a meaningful difference.

4.16 Self-reliance after termination of food aid

Although FFA was not implemented in ward 8 it is of interest to note that 63% of the respondents indicated revealed that their household food security cannot be sustained if food aid is terminated. It was observed that the majority of the 63% respondents were those respondents who have been food aid beneficiaries for 2-3 years and these did not have a plan on how they can sustain themselves in the event that they food aid exits the district. The researcher noted that these households are not exerting enough effort to develop their livelihood options in order to have a sustainable food secure households as they are aware that year in and out they will be

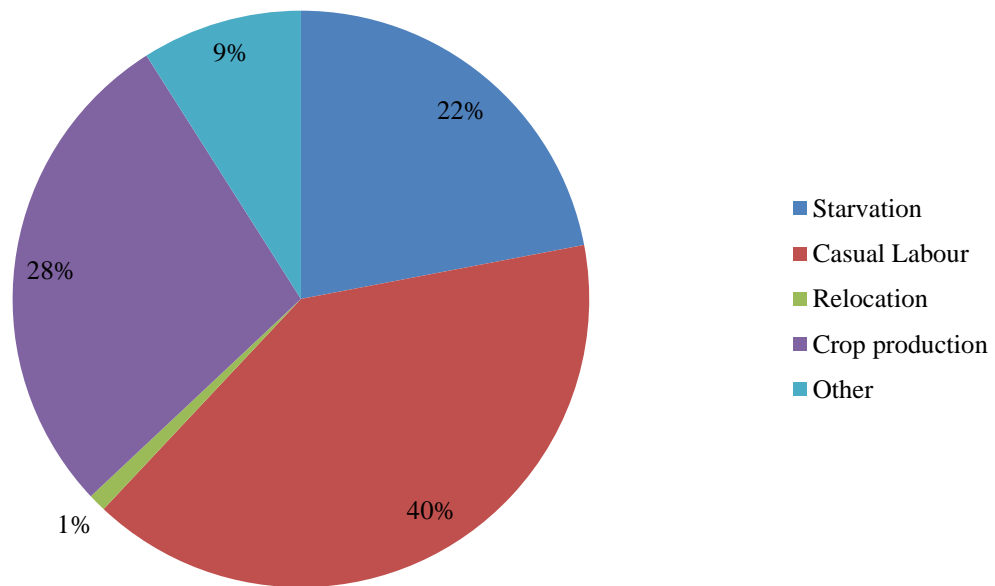
targeted by every food aid intervention that comes in the district. 37% of the respondents revealed that they can sustain in the event that food aid is terminated, these respondents largely relied on crop production as their main livelihood. In addition these are the people that are not selected in any food aid intervention hence they turned out to have various strategies to sustain themselves. Fig 4.6: Ability to sustain when food aid is terminated or exits in the district.



4.17 Plans after termination

After the respondents had showed their ability and inability to sustain themselves as shown in fig 4.9 above, the respondents were asked about their plan in the event that food aid exits the districts. The researcher noted that of the 63% of the respondents who indicated that they will be unable to sustain themselves after the exit of food aid could be because these respondents said this in anticipation of continued food aid support as these respondents have developed a dependency syndrome, they could additionally have said this because they have considered the vulnerability to stress and shocks which inhibits their household livelihood options and food security hence food aid assistance is imperative in order to assist government's effort and salvage lives. 22 % of the 63% revealed that they would suffer from starvation under such circumstance and that they had nothing to do that could sustain their families. However 40% of the 63%

revealed that they would resort to casual labour in nearby areas such as Gokwe and in wards which practise fisheries although they will not be able to sustain their household food security. 1% indicated that they will relocate to other areas to find jobs to do. 28% of the respondents who revealed that they are able to sustain themselves indicated that they will continue with crop production to ensure that they have a sustainable household food security, 9% of the respondent revealed that they will embark on other livelihood activities such as mineral sales and petty trade so as to have a sustainable food security. The 37% who indicated that they are able to sustain their families are those respondents who are self-reliant these were found in in ward 8. Fig 4.7 Plans after food aid exits or is terminated.



4.18 Conclusion.

The chapter presented the data that was collected from the respondents .It sought to present data that was collected to answer the research questions on the perceptions of the community towards the transition from free food hand outs to food for work, to find out of the shift help in changing

perceptions from the dependency syndrome to self-reliance and whether FFA has changed the food security and household livelihoods options for the community. The findings of the research proved that livelihoods for FFA and non-FFA did not change as evidenced by their livelihoods prior and after FFA. To meaningfully change household livelihoods and food security status, all the five capital assets must be considered and integrated. The Nyaminyami community needs intense capacity building in order for them to think beyond free food hand outs and embark on diversification of their livelihoods. The community must be empowered enough to identify capital assets available to them and the means to which they can harness them to improve food security and alleviate poverty.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter sought to draw together what has been discussed from chapter one to four. It links the objectives of the research, the results of the literature reviewed and what was gathered after data collection in chapter four. It gives a conclusion on the extent to which objectives of the study were met and provide recommendations based on the findings.

5.2 FFA Livelihoods in Nyaminyami

FFA is a noble idea when it is implemented with all the five capital assets in mind. Its role in enhancing livelihood options in Nyaminyami has proved to be a challenge as evidenced by the finding in chapter four. The livelihoods of FFA beneficiaries respondents did not change significantly after FFA as expected despite the fact that assets were created in their wards. It is however worth noting that the livelihoods changed during the duration of the cycle as they avoided the negative coping strategies because of the food aid they received. One would expect these beneficiaries to surpass livelihoods of non-FFA beneficiaries as these do not have assets. It was therefore noted that livelihoods enhancement is a complex process which needs to incorporate the physical, social, financial, human and the natural capital. However the ever changing climatic conditions have also contributed to the stunting of household livelihoods

options and food security as these assets are heavily depended on rainfall. The climate change has caused high temperatures and erratic rainfalls that have seen dams' water level decline as a result most of them have dried up.

5.3 Appropriateness of the Food for Assets programme design to strengthen livelihoods

FFA programming is an innovative way by WFP to work together with the government of Zimbabwe, other donors and various stakeholders to empower communities to do away with the dependency syndrome and assist the communities in taking control and lead in the establishment of productive assets that will improve their resilience and cushion them against future food security shocks. The programme entails building on present experience and approaches, context specific requirements and priorities. The general objective is to generate a scalable intervention and adequate coverage to generate desired changes in food security and local level resilience.

However since Nyaminyami is a community that was used to getting free food hand-outs , the concept of FFA has not been fully embraced considering the poor utilization of the assets that were created. When the community were creating these assets, they had food rations that they received after having worked 60 hours but as a result the dependency syndrome, the community views the design of the programme as affecting their livelihoods despite the fact that the work norms and the number of hours they worked was according to the Productive Community Works(PCW) (2013) which states that “Participants shall work for five (5) hours per day. This takes into account the need for participants to spend time travelling to the PCW site, and the need for participants to carry out other activities during the day. These work norms state that beneficiary households shall receive a maximum of fifteen (15) days of employment per month. This will ensure that participants have time to dedicate to other productive activities or to other important activities for the household. In particular it will ensure that women with children have

enough time to dedicate to essential home, nutrition and health activities.” It is the view of the researcher that the design of the FFA is designed to improve the livelihoods however the experience and perception of the community affects its ability to improve the livelihoods. The community is reluctant to go an extra mile to improve their livelihoods because every year there is always a new donor in the area that targets the same people. This therefore affects their effort to engage in other livelihood activities which lead to chronic food insecurity as a result defeating the objective of food aid which is to alleviate poverty and hunger for the most vulnerable groups (Shelton 2005).

5.4 The relationship between socio economic environment and successful livelihood strategies

In as much as efforts are being made to improve that the resilience of the community to stress and shocks through the FFA, the socio economic environment has a role to play in the ability of the FFA to improve the livelihood options. Zimbabwe has experienced an economic meltdown since the year 2000 which the USAID (2014) argued that it was caused by the FTLR programme which saw the demise of the agricultural sector in the country, brain drain, high inflation amongst others. These effects threatened the livelihoods of many people and some people are still suffering from the effects. It can therefore be said that the members of the community whose livelihoods have not improved their livelihoods after the creation of the assets could be attributed to the harsh economic conditions. It is difficult to engage in any income generating activity when the majority of the people surrounding do not have any money. The socio economic situation could also be another reason why the assets created do not function for long after the donor has pulled out because the communities face challenges in raising money to purchase seeds and/or maintain the assets with their own funds because of poverty.

5.5 Recommendations

Following the conclusions above, although the climatic condition is not favourable, the community depends on rainfall for their livelihoods activities. Continued assistance from donor is exacerbating the food insecurity situation for most households as this has resulted in the creation of a dependency syndrome although it seeks to build resilience in the community. However in order for Food for Assets programme to enhance livelihoods and food security, the following recommendations can be made:

- As a result of extreme poverty levels in Nyaminyami, the community is very vulnerable to stress and shocks such that they are not able to engage in other livelihood activities. Donors and the cooperating partners should include components of self-help groups such as internal savings and lending (ISAL), village savings and loans amongst others in their programming such that beneficiaries have the financial capacity that will ensure sustainability of livelihoods and food security.
- The implementation of food based project is a complex process which requires full participation of the beneficiaries and the community because they are the custodians of the assets. This will ensure ownership and sustainability of these assets which will help in improving livelihoods activities and food security. Therefore the researcher recommends that whilst the community may not be capacitated enough to design assets, the community's perspectives must be considered because they are the ones who knows their problems and how they want them to be solved. The process can be done through Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) or Community Level Participatory Planning (CLPP) or Community Based Planning (CBP) which will result in community creating their own action plan called the community action plan (CAP) as explained by Makumbe (1998).

This means that every donor that wishes to implement agricultural based projects will use the blue print.

- Climate change and climate variability have affected crop yields and failure to mainstream disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation into programming in future, crop productivity is likely to be affected even more. The researcher recommends that the community must be trained on adaption to climate change as an important factor in their livelihoods and ways to improve them. The researcher observed that the community do not know much about climate change since Nyaminyami is very traditional. According to the community of Nyaminyami the lack of rains and high temperatures is attributed to ancestral punishment hence the need to capacitate them to improve their livelihoods activities.
- It is the recommendation of the researcher that the agricultural capacity building trainings must be done from the onset of the project throughout to the end so that the community will appreciate the value of the assets in improving their livelihoods. In addition, these trainings must be facilitated by relevant government line ministries because they will remain in the district when the donors exit
- Although aid has created dependency in Nyaminyami, the researcher acknowledges that food aid is a necessary evil. It is therefore recommended unconditional assistance should be given to labour constrained households whilst the non-labour constrained households receive conditional assistance so as to do away with the dependence syndrome. The ZIMVAC must continue to conduct its work, however guard must be made against inclusion and exclusion errors. The community must be told from the onset that the food aid is given to complement their efforts and not to rely on donor assistance only.

- The government of Zimbabwe must have food aid policy since food aid is imperative to reduce food crises. There is need to come up with a policy that will make sure that food aid backs up the national food security without destabilizing local production and market operations. The Food National Council must include food aid planning and management in its planning so as to food aid targets the intended vulnerable food insecure households appropriately.
- There is need for joint efforts between the government and NGOs to provide appropriate interventions to prevent hunger. Both parties must do their part, the government must give effective leadership and coordination so as to ensure that the intended beneficiaries are given the support to enhance the livelihoods and food security.
- There is need for NGOs to consider ad link the capitals the community has when they want to implement development projects in order to ensure that the are sustainable enough to improve livelihoods and food security.

Annex I: Questionnaire for food for assets and non- food for assets beneficiaries

The Questionnaire seeks to collect data from the food for assets project beneficiaries who are the key implementers of the programme. The questionnaire is divided into sections each addressing research questions. For confidentiality sake, do not include your name in the questionnaire. The data provided will be used for this research only. The identity of all the respondents will be held in strict confidence. Do not include your name in the questionnaire. Participation of the survey is voluntary and all the information given will be used only for the research purpose. Kindly spare your time to provide answers based on your knowledge and experience of food for assets . Any clarification or need for translation, please feel free to ask.

WARD NAME.....

VILLAGE NAME.....

ASSET NAME.....

ENUMERATORNAME.....**DATE**.....

SECTION (A) Demographic data

Please put a tick where appropriate.

1. Gender:

(i) Male []

(ii) Female []

2. What is the gender of the household head?

(i) Male []

(ii) Female []

3. Age :

(i) 18 -25 years []

(ii) 26-35 []

(iii) 36-45 []

(iv) 45 and above []

4. Household size:

(i) 1-4 []

(ii) 5-10 []

(iii) 11 and above []

B. Household food aid beneficiary status

5. How long have you been a food aid beneficiary?

(i) Not at all

(ii) 1-2 year []

(iii) 3-4 []

(iv) 5 and above []

6. How long did the food obtained from Food for Assets program last in your household?

(i) Less than a week []

(ii) 1-2 weeks []

(iii) 3-4 weeks []

(iv) 5 weeks and above []

(v) Not applicable []

7. What were your sources of food prior to Food for Assets program?

(i) Own production []

(ii) Barter []

(iii) Purchases []

- (iv) Casual labour []
- (v) Donor
- (vi) Other specify..... []

8. How much did food aid from Food for Assets program contribute towards your household's food security?

- (i) About a quarter []
- (ii) Half []
- (iii) About three quarters []
- (iv) 100%
- (v) Not applicable []

9. What were your sources of food during the Food for Assets program?

- (i) Own production []
- (ii) Barter []
- (iii) Purchases []
- (iv) Casual labour []
- (v) Donor
- (vi) Other specify..... []

10. What were your sources of food after Food for Assets program?

- (i) Own production []
- (ii) Barter []
- (iii) Purchases []
- (iv) Casual labour []
- (v) Donor
- (vi) Other specify..... []

C. Livelihood Activities

10. What was your main livelihood before the Food for Assets program?

- (i) Crop production []
- (ii) Livestock production []
- (iii) Petty trade []
- (iv) Mineral sale []
- (V) Remittances []
- (VI Formal job []
- (vii) Other specify..... []

11. In your opinion, do you think Food for Assets program was designed to support your livelihoods options? 11

- (i) Yes []
- (ii) No []

12. Provide reasons for your reasons for number 8 answer

.....

.....

.....

.....

13. When you became a Food for Assets beneficiary did you drop off any livelihood activities?

- (i) Yes []
- (ii) No []
- (iii) Not applicable []

If yes, provide reason.....

.....

.....

.....
14. Have you embarked on some new livelihood activities from the time you became a beneficiary of Food for Assets?

- (i) Yes []
- (ii) No []
- (iii) Not applicable []

Provide reasons

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

17. In your opinion, how significant has Food for Assets program helped you in the sustainability of you household food security?

- (i) Very significant []
- (ii) Significant []
- (iii) Not significant []

D. Perceptions towards Food for Assets

18. What do you think must be done to end the food insecure situation in your area?

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

19. Do you think you will be able to sustain your household if food aid stops in your area?

- (i) Yes
- (ii) No

20. If yes, what do you intend to ensure that?

.....
.....
.....
.....
21. If no, do have any plans to ensure that your household is food secure?

.....
.....
.....
E. Levels of participation among program beneficiaries

22. What resources did you contribute towards the implementation of Food for Assets projects?
(Tick all relevant options)

(i) Labour []

(ii) Land []

(iii) Tools []

(iv) Ideas []

(v) Other []

specify.....
.....

(vi) Not applicable []

24. In your opinion, do u think the level at which the project beneficiaries were involved in the programme were detrimental to its successful implementation and livelihoods options of the community?

(i) Yes []

(ii) No []

(iii) Don't know []

F. Capacity building

25. Did receive any training on the sustainability of assets created that helped you improve food security in your household?

(i) Yes []

(ii) No []

If yes, list the types

trainings.....
.....
.....

26. Do you think the trainings are helping in choosing your household livelihood options?

(i) Yes

(ii) No

(iii) Not applicable

If yes, please explain

how.....
.....
.....
.....

27. Do you think there is a correlation between the capacity building and food security?

(i) Yes []

(ii) No []

(iii) Don't know []

Thank you

Annex ii Interviews and Focus group discussion guidelines

This guide is to be used for discussion with the community, community leadership, and relevant government ministries such as AGRITEX, LPD, and VET department and ward councillors. Names will be withheld during to ensure confidentiality. There is voluntary participation in the interview and focus group discussion.

1. What are the common livelihood activities in your community?
2. To what extent do you think Food for Assets has affected these activities and in what ways?
3. Has the livelihood options changed after the introduction of FFA in the communities?
4. In your opinion what could be the reason for the changes if there are any?
5. In what ways can FFA design be improved to ensure that it supports livelihood options and improve food security?
6. What do you think of free food handouts as opposed to FFA?
7. What do you think are the factors that affect the success of livelihood options in your area?
8. In your opinion have wards in which FFA was not implemented in been disadvantaged?

Explain why.

Annex iii Table that determines random sample from a particular population

(Confidence level 95%; Margin of error + or - 5%)

N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
70	59	380	191	2800	338
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	100000	384
				1000000	384
				10000000	384

N= Population Size S=Recommended Sample Size

Source: Adapted from Educational and Psychological Measurement by David A Payne; Robert F McMorris 1967

Reference

Abdulai, A., Barrett, C. B., & Hoddinott, J (2005) Does Food Aid really have disincentive effects? New Evidence from Sub-Saharan Africa. International Food Policy Research Institute, Cornell University.

AGRITEX 2015 Nyaminyami Annual Report.

Aschale Dagnachew Siyoum et al (2012) Food aid and dependency syndrome in Ethiopia: Local perceptions, The Journal of Humanitarian Assistance, November 2012.

Asnarukhadi, A.S. and Fariborz, A. (2009) People's Participation in Community Development: A Case Study in a Planned Village Settlement in Malaysia, World Rural Observation, Association of Social Workers/NASW Press, Washington, DC.

Barret, C. B. (1998). Food aid: Is it Development assistance, Trade promotion, both or either? Blaisdell Pub. Co. Development Journal: 43(3) .

Blackden, M. (2006). Gender and economic adjustment in Sub-Saharan Africa. Human resources and Poverty. AFTHR Technical note, Washington D.C.

Barrett, C. B. 2002. Food Aid Effectiveness: "It's the Targeting, Stupid". Ithaca: Department of Applied Economics and Management, Cornell University

Barrett C.B. (2006) Food Aid's Intended and Unintended Consequences, FAO, Agriculture and Economics Division, ESA Working paper No. 06-05

Barrett, C. B. (2006) Food Aid as Part of a Coherent Strategy to Advance Food security objectives. Background paper for FAO State of Food and Agriculture.

Brown, D.R., Stephen, E.C., Okuro Ouma, J., Murithi, F. M. & Barrett, C. B. (2006) Livelihood Strategies in Rural Kenya, Ontario: World Vision Canada.

Bongo, P. (2003) 'The Politics of Environmental Conservation in Selected, Off-Farm Rural Livelihoods: A Case Study of Commercial Tree Bark Fibre Craft Production By Women in Biriwiri and Nyanyadzi, Zimbabwe, in The Context of Tourism', Unpublished DPhil Thesis, University of Zimbabwe.

Chambers R. (1995)Poverty and livelihoods: whose reality counts? ID discussion paper, 347, Earthscan, London.

Dooley, D (1995)Social Research Methods, New Jersey: Prentice Hall

Ekong, E.E. (2010). Rural Sociology ,3rd Ed, Uyo: Dove. Evaluation Methods, Zapf Chancery and P. Olivex Publishers, .Eldoret, Kenya

FAO (2006) The State of Food and Agriculture: Food Aid for Food Security? FAO, Rome

FAO. (2005). The Millennium Development Goals Report.

FAO. 2008. Expert Meeting on Global Perspectives on Fuel and Food Security: Technical ,Rome.

FAO. 2006. Food Aid and Food Security. The State of Food and Agriculture,Rome

FEWSNET. 2008. Zimbabwe Food Security Outlook. USAID. October 2007-March 2008

Frankenberger T, Tanguy B, Dercon S and Seyoum A, (2011) Empirical Exploration of Self-Efficacy and Aspirations Failure in Ethiopia, University of Oxford, Oxford

Jere, P (2006) A Desk Study on the Underlying Causes of the 2005/2006. Food Crisis in Malawi, ActionAid International, Malawi

Joppe, M. (2000)The Research Process,Journal of Development Agriculture Economics,Vol 8(11), Journal of the Community Development Society.

Kidane, (2006).Responding to food security challenges through an integrated watershed approach: Tigray experiences, Tigray, Ethiopia

Kuntala, A. (2004).Women and food security.The Opportunity for Africa Development.40(2).

Leach, M. and Mearns, R (1996) *The Lie of The Land: Challenging Received Wisdom on the African Environment*. International African Institute, James Currey and Oxford and Heinemann: Portsmouth.

Lentz, E. C., Barret, C.B. & Hoddinott J (2005) *Food Aid and Dependency: Implications for Food Security Assessments*, United Nations World Food Programme Needs Assessments Branch, Rome.

Lind R and Jalleta P (2011), *Food aid dependency , Power and Relief Assistance*, National Policy: 27, An CSAE WPS/2011-03

Madeley, J. (1999) *Big Business, Poor Peoples: The Impact of Transnational Corporations on The World's Poor*. ZED Books: London and New York.

Mugenda, O.M and Mugenda, A.G. (2003). *Qualitative and Quantitative approaches*. Research

Moughalu, L.N. (1986). *Structure and Pattern of Community Self-help Development Projects in Nigeria: An Appraisal*, *Journal of Community Development*, 21 (1): 33 – 41.

Makumbe, J. M.W. (1998) *Participatory Development: The Case of Zimbabwe*. Harare: UZ Publications.

McMorris M. (1967) Adapted from *Educational and Psychological Measurement* by David A Payne; Robert F English Book

Millennium Ecosystem Assessment. (2005) *Ecosystems and human well-being: Synthesis*. Washington DC, Island Press for WRI.

Musopole, E. (2004) *Impact of Food Aid on Livelihood Sources in Malawi*. Action Aid, London.

Maxwell S, & Frankenberger T (1992) *Household food security: concepts, indicators, measurement*. A technical review, Unicef, Rome.

Nyaminyami Rural District Council 2015 Annual Report.

Ogula, P. (1998). *A handbook on Education Research*, NewKemit Publishers, Nairobi.

Okafor, F.C. (1984). Dimensions of Community Development Projects in Bendel State, Public Administration and Development, Nigeria.

Orotho, A.J. (2004). Techniques of writing proposal and reports in education and science: (1st edition). Reater Printers Nairobi Pearson Education.

Pontier, J. (1998). African Food Systems under stress: Perspectives and Methodologies

Payne D&McMorrisR (1967) English Book x, 419 p. illus. 23 cm. Waltham, Mass.,

Rutaisire et al. (2000). Indicators of citizen participation: lesson from learning teams in rural EZ/EC Community. Community Development Journal Vol 35 No. 1.

Save the Children April 2003 monthly report

Shelton, T. (2005) Dumping Food Aid: Trade or Aid? Subsidized. FoodAid in Kind: What is in it for WTO? Document 1011/2. Wemos Foundation, Amsterdam

Silverman, R. M. (2005) Caught in the middle: community development corporations

Udensi, L.O. (2012) Traditional Governance and the Challenges of Community Development: A Case Study of Boki Local Government Area of Cross River State, Unpublished M.Sc. Thesis, Department of Sociology and Anthropology, University of Uyo, Nigeria.

Udoh, E.A. (2012). "Participation and Sustainable Community Development: The Case of Eastern Obolo Community Development Foundation". Unpublished M.Sc. Thesis, Department of Sociology and Anthropology, University of Uyo, Nigeria.

Udoye, E.E. (1992). "Grassroots Involvement in Rural Development". In. Olisa, M.S.O. and Obiukwu, J.I. (Ed.). *Rural Development in Nigeria: Dynamics and Strategies*. Akwa: Mekslink.

United Nations. 2008. *Zimbabwe Consolidated Appeal*. Harare.

World Bank, (2006). *Poverty and hunger issues and opinions for food security in developing*. Washington D.C .The international bank for reconstruction and development: The World Bank

World Commission on Environment and Development 1987 York Pp 103-120

World Food Programme. 2007. World Hunger Series. Hunger and Health. Rome: Earthscan& WFP.

World food programme (2010) Evaluation of the Impact of Food for Assets on Livelihood Resilience in Uganda (2005-2010) WFP.evaluation@WFP.org

World Food (2011) Evaluation of the Impact of Food for Assets on Livelihood Resilience in Bangladesh (2008-2011) WFP.evaluation@WFP.org

ZIMVAC (Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee). 2015. Zimbabwe Rural Food Security Assessment National Report. Harare: Government of Zimbabwe.

ZIMVAC (Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee). 2016. Zimbabwe Rural Food Security Rapid Assessment National Report. Harare: Government of Zimbabwe.