

**THE IMPACT OF POVERTY REDUCTION PROGRAMMES IN REDUCING AND  
PREVENTING DISASTER RISK**

**THE CASE OF MANGWE DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE.**

By

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## **ABSTRACT**

This study sought to assess and evaluate the impact of poverty reduction programmes in reducing and preventing disaster risk of Mangwe communities in Zimbabwe. The main objectives of the study were to:

- i) Determine through individual questionnaires the development projects that have been implemented and evaluate their impact on disaster risk reduction initiatives and also.
- ii) Determine impact that the development programmes had on resilience and the social and economic lives of individuals and the community at large.

Survey and participatory interviewing methods involving 150 participants were employed to gain insights from the implemented development projects. The following conclusions emerging from the study contribute to the emerging disaster risk reduction, disaster reliance body of knowledge.

Firstly, females formed the highest number of direct or indirect project beneficiaries, most of whom have been empowered through participating in development programmes.

Secondly, most households in the district still remained entrenched in the cycle of poverty and badly exposed to all forms of hazards despite scores of developmental projects having been implemented in the area.

Thirdly, the education levels in the district were still very low and they greatly influence individual, household income levels, thus forcing them to live by one dollar per day.

Fourthly, community participation in project identification and designing is yet to be achieved, hence the limited success of such projects. The study recommends that:

- i) Small and upcoming traders should be granted access to basic education and entrepreneurial training to increase their capacity.
- ii) There is need to establish banking facilities at community level so as to encourage community members to receive money from their relatives through formal channels while at the same time encouraging saving.
- iii) There is a need to diversify development projects, such as education, governance, human rights, water, sanitation, health and infrastructure development rather than pool resources to agricultural related projects that focus on food security.

Projects need to be evenly spread in all wards so as to avoid over subscribing the same wards; at the same time encouraging communities to design schemes that seek to preserve and improve their economic, social conditions and cultural mechanisms. Programmes should not be prescribed for them.

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## DEDICATION

*To my wife Ntombie and children*

*Sodu and Wethe*

*To whom I owe everything*

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## DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Sifelani Ngwenya, hereby present for consideration by the Disaster Risk Management Training and Education Centre for Africa (DiMTEC), within the Department of Agricultural Economics, Faculty of Natural Sciences at the University of the Free State (UFS), my dissertation in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Masters in Disaster Management.

I declare that this dissertation is the product of my own efforts. No other person has published a similar study from which I might have copied. No part of this work may be published without my consent as well as that of Disaster Risk Management Training and Education Centre for Africa (DiMTEC).

The views, opinions and suggestions expressed in this study should be attributed to the author only.

Name and Surname: -----

Signature: -----

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## APPROVAL FORM

The undersigned certify that they have read and recommended to the University of The Free State for acceptance; a research entitled “*The impact of poverty reduction programmes in reducing and preventing disaster risk: the case of Mangwe district, Zimbabwe*”, submitted by Sifelani Ngwenya in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Masters Degree in Disaster Management.

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>Abstract</b> .....	ii
Acknowledgements .....	iv
Acronyms .....	xiv
Approval form.....	vi
Declaration of originality .....	v
Dedication .....	iii
List of Figures.....	xii
List of Tables.....	xiii
Operational definition of terms.....	xv
<b>CHAPTER 1</b> .....	<b>1</b>
BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY .....	1
1.1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.2 BACKGROUND .....	2
1.3. AREA OF STUDY .....	3
1.3.1 <i>Geographic description</i> .....	3
1.3.2 <i>Mangwe district facts</i> .....	5
1.3.3 <i>Livelihoods in Mangwe</i> .....	6
1.4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM .....	7
1.5. RESEARCH QUESTIONS .....	8
1.6 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY .....	8
1.6.1 <i>Sub objectives</i> .....	9
1.7 ASSUMPTIONS .....	9
1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY. ....	10
1.9 DELIMITATIONS.....	11
1.10 STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH.....	11
1.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	11
<b>CHAPTER 2</b> .....	<b>12</b>
LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	12
2.1 INTRODUCTION.....	12
2.2 GENERAL OVERVIEW OF POVERTY REDUCTION AND DISASTER RISK.....	12
2.3 DEFINITION OF POVERTY .....	13
2.3.1 <i>Well-being</i> .....	14
2.4 <i>Characteristics of Poverty</i> .....	14
2.4.1 <i>Relative</i> .....	15
2.4.2 <i>Dynamic</i> .....	15
2.5 <i>Core Dimensions of Poverty</i> .....	16
2.5.1 <i>Economic capabilities</i> .....	16
2.5.2 <i>Human capabilities</i> .....	17
2.5.3 <i>Political capabilities</i> .....	18
2.5.4 <i>Socio-cultural capabilities</i> .....	19



2.5.5 Protective capabilities.....	19
2. 6 FACTORS THAT PROMOTE THE GROWTH OF POVERTY .....	20
2.6.1 Struggles over control and ownership of land.....	20
2.6.2 Lack of education.....	21
2.6.3 Prescribed economic policies .....	22
2.6.4 Economic causes of poverty.....	23
2.6.5 Environmental causes of poverty .....	24
2.6.6 Globalization .....	25
2.7 POVERTY INDICATORS .....	26
2.8 THE SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS FRAMEWORK .....	28
2.9 DISASTER RISK REDUCTION .....	29
2.10 Department for International Development (DFID) Model in the light of Sustainable Livelihood.....	29
2.10.1 The Vulnerability Context.....	30
2.10.2 Livelihoods.....	31
2.10.3 Human Capital.....	35
2.10.4 Social Capital .....	35
2.10.5 Transforming structures and processes.....	36
2.10.6 Livelihood strategies .....	37
2.10.7 Livelihood outcomes.....	37
2.11 APPLICATION OF LIVELIHOODS APPROACHES .....	37
2.11.1 People-centred .....	38
2.11.2 Holistic .....	38
2.11.3 The unit of analysis .....	39
2.11.4 Building on strengths.....	39
2.11.5 Macro-micro links.....	39
2.11.6 Dynamic.....	40
2.11.7 Sustainability .....	40
2.12 WEAKNESSES OF THE DEPARTMENT FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT (DFID) MODEL .....	41
2.13 FORMULATING DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTIONS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT.....	41
2.14 CASE STUDIES OF DISASTER RISK REDUCTION INITIATIVES .....	43
2.14.1 Case studies from Asia .....	44
2.14.1.1 Bangladesh.....	44
2.14.1.2 India.....	45
Reducing risk in poor urban areas to protect shelters, hard-won assets and livelihoods.....	45
2.14.1.3 Indonesia .....	45
Reducing flood impacts on community health and livelihoods: a water well rehabilitation project: Community Association for Disaster Management.....	45
2.14.1.4 Nepal.....	46
The shallow tube well: a tool for fighting drought and poverty: Practical Action - Nepal (In partnership with MADE/Nepal).....	46
2.14.1.5 Pakistan .....	47
Integrating disaster risk reduction into post-disaster livelihood rehabilitation: The Concern Worldwide Pakistan Programme (CWPP) Concern Worldwide - Pakistan20 (In partnership with HAASHAR).....	47
2. 14.2 Case studies from South America.....	47
2. 14.2.1 Bolivia.....	47

<i>Developing vulnerable communities' emergency preparedness in drought-prone southern Bolivia: International in Bolivia</i> .....	47
2. 14.2.2 El Salvador .....	48
<i>The National Network for Disaster Risk Reduction in Central America National network for DRR helps curb poverty Oxfam America (In partnership with the National Network for DRR)</i> .....	48
2. 14.2.3 Honduras .....	49
<i>Reducing vulnerability and poverty through disaster mitigation: Central American Mitigation Initiative (CAMI)</i> .....	49
2. 14.3 <i>Cases studies from Africa</i> .....	50
2. 14.3.1 Kenya .....	50
<i>Disaster preparedness poised to help reduce poverty in drought-prone area: Community-based rock rainwater harvesting and storage (German Agro Action, January, 2011)</i> .....	50
2. 14.3.2 Liberia .....	50
<i>Reducing flood risk through a job creation scheme: Mercy Corps</i> .....	50
2. 14.3.3 Malawi .....	51
<i>Building Disaster Resilient Communities: Drought mitigation Initiative</i> .....	51
2. 14.3.4 Zambia .....	52
<i>Providing nutrition curbs poverty of access</i> .....	52
2. 14.3.5 Mozambique .....	52
<i>Protecting livelihoods with local warning and response systems</i> .....	52
2.14.4 <i>Lessons learnt and achievements</i> .....	53
2.15 TARGETING .....	55
2.16 COMMUNITY RESILIENCE IN THE EVENT OF DISASTERS .....	56
2.16.1 <i>Self efficacy in times of disasters</i> .....	56
2.16.2 <i>Sense of community in times of need</i> .....	57
2.16.3 <i>Coping style for survival in the event of a disaster</i> .....	57
2.16.4 <i>Resilience and preparedness</i> .....	57
2.16.5 <i>Resilience and Development</i> .....	58
2.17 FIGHTING POVERTY AND RISK REDUCTION STRATEGIES .....	58
2.17.1 <i>Fighting poverty</i> .....	59
2.17.2 <i>Reducing the poverty of money</i> .....	60
2.17.3 <i>Reducing the poverty of access</i> .....	61
2.17.4 <i>Reducing the poverty of power</i> .....	62
2.17.5 <i>Capacity-building/protective capabilities</i> .....	63
2.17.6 <i>Do it yourself approach</i> .....	64
2.17.7 <i>Protective capabilities</i> .....	65
2.17.8 <i>Socio-cultural capabilities</i> .....	65
2.18 RECENT STUDIES OF POVERTY REDUCTION IN ZIMBABWE .....	65
2.19 CONCLUSION .....	66
<b>CHAPTER 3</b> .....	<b>68</b>
<b>RESEARCH METHODOLOGY</b> .....	<b>68</b>
3.0 INTRODUCTION.....	68
3.1 RESEARCH APPROACH AND DESIGN.....	68
3.2 LITERATURE STUDY .....	68
3.3 EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION .....	69
3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN .....	69
3.4.1 <i>Population</i> .....	69

3.4.2 Sampling procedures.....	70
3.4.3 Data collection.....	71
3.4.5 Data collection tools.....	71
3.4.6 Questionnaire.....	71
3.4.7 Interviews.....	71
3.4.8 Data Collection Procedures.....	72
3.4.9 Data presentation and analysis.....	72
3.4.10 Validity and reliability of the study.....	72
3.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS.....	73
3.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	73
<b>CHAPTER 4.....</b>	<b>74</b>
RESEARCH FINDINGS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION.....	74
4.1 INTRODUCTION.....	74
4.2 BACKGROUND INFORMATION ABOUT THE RESPONDENTS.....	74
4.3 Main Source of Income.....	78
4.4 OWNERSHIP OF ASSETS.....	81
4.5 ACCESS TO BASIC NEEDS.....	85
4.6 AWARENESS LEVELS.....	88
4.7 Common Hazards.....	90
4.8 DISASTER PREPAREDNESS AND RESILIENCE.....	94
4.8.1 Developmental projects implemented to minimize the impact of hazards.....	95
4.9 PROJECT IMPACT EVALUATION.....	96
4.7.14 Issues pertaining to development from the beneficiaries.....	105
4.10 CONCLUSION.....	105
<b>CHAPTER 5.....</b>	<b>107</b>
SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	107
5. 1 SUMMARY.....	107
5.2 CONCLUSIONS DRAWN FROM THE RESEARCH.....	107
5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS.....	110
5.4 POSSIBLE RESEARCH AREAS.....	112
<b>APPENDIX A.....</b>	<b>126</b>
<b>APPENDIX B.....</b>	<b>127</b>

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## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure1-1 Map of Mangwe District.....	4
Figure 2-1: Core dimensions of poverty.....	20
Figure 2-2: Poverty levels: Source: UN Millennium Development Indices, 2009.....	28
Figure 2-3: Sustainable livelihoods framework .....	30
Figure 2-4: Major forms of capital .....	34
Figure 2-5: Paths to be followed when implementing SL projects .....	43
Figure 4-1: Gender distribution by ward.....	74
Figure 4-2: Role in the household by gender .....	75
Figure 4-3: Marital status and age.....	76
Figure 4-4: Education level by ward .....	77
Figure 4-5: Main source of income .....	79
Figure 4-6: Highest level of education and income level.....	81
Figure 4-7: Analysis by gender and land ownership .....	82
Figure 4-8: Analysis by size of land owned by ward .....	83
Figure 4-9: Type of accommodation by ward.....	84
Figure 4-10: Electrification and main source of cooking energy .....	85
Figure 4-11: Numbers of meals per day .....	86
Figure 4-12: Main water source and time taken to reach it .....	87
Figure 4-13: Main water source and time taken to reach it .....	88
Figure 4-14: Humanitarian assistances by ward.....	89
Figure 4-15: Main source of information .....	90
Figure 4-16: Common hazards .....	91
Figure 4-17: Disaster induced losses .....	92
Figure 4-18: Preparedness in relation to hazards .....	94
Figure 4-19: Importance of development projects to the community.....	97
Figure 4-20: Projects implemented since 2002.....	97
Figure 4-21: Implemented projects that are still running .....	98
Figure 4-22: Reasons for the state of the project.....	98
Figure 4-23: Project identification .....	99
Figure 4-24: Satisfaction with the beneficiary selection criteria.....	100
Figure 4-25: Disaster Risk Reduction levels due to implemented projects.....	101
Figure 4-26: The effects of projects on the community .....	103
Figure 4-27: Contribution of development programmes on community resilience .....	104

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---

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1: Mangwe and Bulilima profiles .....	5
Table 4.1: Education levels by income level .....	79
Table 4.2: Benefit frequency and management of the disaster .....	93
Table 4.3: Contribution of development projects towards socioeconomic growth .....	101
Table 4.4: Contribution of development projects towards personal growth .....	102

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## ACRONYMS

WDR	World Development Report
PAAP	Poverty Alleviation Action Programme
NGO	Non Governmental Organization
ORAP	Organization of Rural Association for Progress
CBO	Community Based Organization
SL	Sustainable Livelihoods
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ZHDR	Zimbabwe Human Development Report
CSO	Central Statistics Organization
DAAC	District Aids Action Committee
ARI	Acute Respiratory Infections
Zimvac	Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee
WSSD	World Summit for Social Development
WFP	World Food Programme
UNICEF	United Nations Children Education Fund
SPSS	Special Programme for Social Sciences
UNIDRR	United Nations International Disaster Risk Reduction
UNISDRR	United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction
FTLRP	Fast Track Land Reform Programme

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## OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

**A resilient community** is a community that takes intentional action to enhance the personal and collective capacity of its citizens and institutions to respond to and to influence the course of social and economic change (The Community Resilience Manual, 2000).

**Capacity** is the combination of all strengths and resources within a community that can reduce the level of risks or disaster (ISDR, 2003).

**Community** is a typical group of people (a town for instance) held together by some common identity or interests (Marias, 2001).

**Disaster risk reduction** is prevention and mitigation through environmental management, land use planning, protection of critical facilities networking a partnership and financial tool (Concern, 2004).

**Disaster** is a progressive or sudden, widespread or localized, natural or human caused occurrence which (a) causes or threatens to cause; death or disease, damage to property, infrastructure or the environment or disruption of the life of a community, and is of a magnitude that exceeds the ability of those affected by the disaster to cope with its effects using only their own resources (Blaikie *et al.*, 2006).

**Food insecurity** is when an individual or community have no physical and economic access to sufficient safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life (World Food Programme Manual, 2006).

**Food security** at an individual, household, national, regional and global levels is achieved when all people at all times have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and a healthy life (World Food Summit, 1996).

**Early warning** is the provision of timely and effective information through identified institutions that allow individuals exposed to hazards to take action to avoid or reduce the risk and prepare for effective response (UN-ISDR, 2003).

**Hazard** is a potentially damaging physical event or phenomenon and human activity that cause loss of life, injury, property damage, social and economic disruption or environmental degradation (ISDR 2002).

**Household** is social unit composed of individuals with family or other social relations among themselves, eating from one pot and sharing a common resource base (World Food Programme, 2002).

**Needs** are gaps between what is and what should be (Tabezinda & McCalsin, 2007).

**Participation** refers to the community's active involvement in matters affecting them and includes making decisions on the right actions to take (United Nation Children Education Fund (UNICEF) Training Guide, 2003).

**Poverty alleviation** is reducing the impact of poverty on a person or a community (The New Choice English Dictionary, 1999).

**Poverty eradication** is the total removal or getting rid of poverty on a person or a community (The New Choice English Dictionary, 1999).

**Poverty** is deprivation, the denial of access to those things which make a life of dignity possible, including not only food, shelter and safe drinking water, but also such as 'intangibles' as the opportunity to learn, to engage in meaningful employment or to enjoy the respect of one's fellow (Wikipedia, 2010).

**Preparedness** is the process of ensuring that an organization has (1) complied with the preventive measures, (2) is in a state of readiness to contain the effects of a forecasted disastrous event to minimize loss of life, injury, and damage to property, (3) can provide rescue, relief, rehabilitation and other services in the aftermath of the disaster, and (4)



has the capability and resources to continue to sustain its essential functions without being overwhelmed by the demand placed on them (Business Dictionary, 2010).

**Programme** is an asset of related activities, which is like a project, identifiable as a whole but is not necessarily confined to a specific geographical location (Wikipedia, 2010).

**Project** is an instrument of change, a coordinated series of actions resulting from policy decisions to change resource combination and levels so as to contribute to the realization of the country's economy (Wikipedia, 2010).

**Resilience** is the ability of a community to successfully meet and surmount challenges, obstacles and problems.

**Risk** refers to expected losses from a given hazard to a given element at risk over a specific future time period that) can be measured in terms of expected economic loss or in terms of numbers of lives lost or the extent of physical damage to property (Coburn, 1994: International Charter, 1997-2009).

**Stakeholders** are anyone affected by or who can affect any programme under implementation (World Food Programme Manual, 2000).

**Targeted person** is an individual who by the programme implementer has been found or is presumed to require assistance and been scheduled for assistance. (World Food, 2002)

**Targeting** is restricting the coverage of an intervention to those people who are perceived to be most at risk, in order to maximise the benefit of an intervention whilst minimising cost (World Food, 2002).

**Vulnerability** is a result of exposure to risk factors and has underlying socio economic processes, which serve to reduce the capacity of populations to cope with those risks (Wikipedia, 2010).

**Livelihood** comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for means of living. Livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks and maintain or enhance its capability and assets both now and in the future while not undermining the natural resource base (DFID, 1999-2000).

**Dependency** is an attitude and belief that a group cannot solve its own problems without outside help. It is a weakness that is made worse by charity (Bartle, 2007).

# Chapter 1

## BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

### 1.1. Introduction

Africa is one of the leading continents with an increasing number of reported disasters in the past ten years. These disasters are attributed to natural and man-made hazards, vulnerability and economic conditions which leave communities more susceptible to disasters. The levels of poverty exacerbates the impact of disaster hence the consented effort of poverty reduction by many humanitarian organizations.

Poverty alleviation, poverty eradication and disaster risk reduction are topical issues the world over nowadays; however, achieving poverty reduction which in turn reduces disaster risk remains a substantial challenge to most countries. Despite all the technological advances of the century, and a gradual increase in the average level of current indices of well-being, poverty has remained an extremely serious problem. It is growing in many parts of the world, especially in developing countries such as Zimbabwe.

More attention is now paid to these areas and declarations of intention have been made. Positive results are yet to be realized. The United Nations declared 1996, the International Year of the Eradication of Poverty, and established the first United Nations decade for the Eradication of Poverty: 1992-2006. For example the United Nations General Assembly Proclamation for the eradication of poverty (1977-2006) sought to eradicate absolute poverty through national action plans and international cooperation. Developing countries' governments were therefore challenged to design Poverty Alleviation Action Programmes (PAAP), targeting poor rural and urban communities.

Such programmes had to be tailor made to suite the specific needs of individual countries at the time. There is need to adopt a developmental approach that supports community's own effort to build resilience and capacity to withstand existing or potential disaster risk. (Africa Regional Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction, 2004). There is need

to adopt the disaster risk management approach that advocates looking beyond hazards alone to considering prevailing conditions of vulnerability (UNIDRR, 2002).

## **1.2 Background**

Poverty reduction is a very popular topic in developing countries and in United Nations agencies, non-governmental organizations and community based organizations. The Micro Credit Summit's estimated 1.3 billion live in poverty, and this is the largest and intractable social problem in the world (Biggart, 2000). Despite the magnitude of the effort being exerted in this area, it is interesting to observe that poverty is far from being eradicated hence the notion that, "Poverty amidst plenty is the world's greatest problem" (World Development Report, 2000/2001).

NGOs world over have been formed, thus increasing the number of players in the field, aiming at addressing different needs of diverse societies in alleviating or eradicating poverty. Different theories on the evolution of poverty have been articulated, but most scholars agree that lack of access to productive resources, such as land, agricultural inputs, capital and technology are major causes of low income and poverty in developing countries where over 80% of the worlds' poorest live (Nkum, 1998). Nkum's assertion suggests that communities that have access to productive resources have lower cases of poverty while the opposite is true with those that have no access to such.

Increasing access to credit facilities to the poor, coupled with efficient resource allocation could be a possible remedy that can result in employment creation, improved standards of living and poverty reduction (Creane, Rishi, Mushfiq & Randa, 2003). There is admission that poverty alleviation will only be possible through a joint effort of all stakeholders, namely the beneficiaries of the programme, corporate world, government, the intergovernmental organizations and the NGOs, hence the need for a comprehensive, multifaceted and properly integrated mandate.

Poverty reduction efforts in Mangwe need to increase the community's resilience to face all forms of disaster. Of interest to note, is the district's extreme vulnerability, ill health, economic dislocation and natural disasters such as drought. That was the cause for concern that formed the basis of this study. There is need to adopt the sustainable

Livelihood (SL) approach which starts from developmental standpoint, and put livelihood at the centre of discussion (Twig, 2001). Poverty has wide ranging and devastating effects and is associated with many hazards with high reaching consequences (World Bank, 2000).

### **1.3. Area of Study**

#### **1.3.1 Geographic description**

The area under study was Mangwe district, with a total population of 78 162; male population of 36 056 (46.12%) and female population of 42 110 (53.88%). Five hundred and sixty three (563) households are headed by children under 19 years old; 1 162 households headed by elderly, 75 years and above (Central Statistics Office (CSO), 2020). Zimbabwe's transient population is situated between Botswana and Zimbabwe. It is situated some 100 Kilometres south of Bulawayo (Zimbabwe's second largest city).

Geographically, as seen in Figure 1.1, this district sits on the edge of the Botswana desert; hence it is arid and very dry, unsuitable for agriculture (Wikipedia, 2010-01-07). This district lies in the agro-ecological regions 4 and 5 with low agricultural potential due to erratic rainfall regimes and related ecological traits, which are characterised by erratic patterns with frequent mid season droughts, dry spells and early cut offs that cause harvest failures in rainfall-fed communal area cropping systems.

Crop farming has often proved risky due to escalating input prices, lack of guaranteed markets, poor soil fertility, low rainfall, and shortage of land (ICRISAT, 2004). These conditions make the area more susceptible to the hazard, drought that compromises the district's food security and livelihoods. Like other parts of Zimbabwe, Mangwe is faced with high unemployment, and increased poverty. Water provision has been a major challenge and large parts of the town are often without piped water for long periods of time.



Figure 1.1: Map of Mangwe District

### 1.3.2 Mangwe district facts

- **Population**

The population consists of 78 162 people: female: 42,110; male: 36,052; orphan prevalence 17; households headed by <19: 542 and by>75 1,162 (Zimbabwe. CSO, 2002)

- **HIV/AIDS Situation**

HIV/AIDS prevalence among adult population is 25%; HIV/AIDS prevalence among child population is 21% (District AIDS Action Committee, 2010).

- **Top Ten Health Conditions**

Acute respiratory Infection (ARI); skin diseases; injuries; diarrhoea; eye diseases; malaria; dental conditions; dysentery; poisoning and toxic effects; remaining diseases, Sustainable Water, Hygiene and Sanitation (WASH, 2007)

- **Sustainable Water, Hygiene and Sanitation WASH Coverage**

**Regarding sanitation**, the district sanitation coverage is 44%; using the bush for excreta disposal is 26.5% (WASH, 2007).

TABLE 1.1: MANGWE AND BULILIMA PROFILES

Description	Mangwe	Bulilima
Wards	18	19
Business centres	12	9
Electrified Business Centres	6	5
Government sponsored income generating projects	15	5
Health Centres	9	11
Doctors in institutions	0	0
Primary Schools	46	53
Secondary schools	15	12
Colleges	0	0
Dams	4	5
Dip tanks	31	46

Source: (Parliament of Zimbabwe, 2008)

### 1.3.3 Livelihoods in Mangwe

The major employment providers are the government, through its elected and non-elected structures, administration and immigration and customs services. The major private sector employers in the area are the Customs Clearing and Forwarding Agents. Wage employment within the district is low with most of the people in wage employment employed as migrant workers outside the district within or outside the country. The most popular destinations for migrant labourers are South Africa and Botswana. Most of the migrant labourers are men, leaving most of the households as female-managed households. Hobane (1999) found that 62% of the adults in Ward 7 were employed in South Africa and Botswana and that their remittances constituted an important source of household income.

People in Mangwe mainly grow drought tolerant crops such as millet and sorghum. Maize is grown to a lesser degree as it cannot withstand the prevailing harsh climatic conditions. The recurrent droughts have drastically reduced their contribution to household incomes as herds of livestock are continually lost due to the decline in pastures (Maphosa, 2004:2). Other livestock such as goats, sheep, donkeys, pigs and chicken are also raised for sale and domestic consumption. Other livelihoods include the sale of *amacimbi* (Mopane worms), home brewed beer and crafts. Some residents are also engaged in petty trading in basic commodities such as sugar, matches, salt and tea leaves, sourced mainly from South Africa and Botswana, while others are engaged in cross-border trade.

The area has a high incidence of HIV and AIDS, which is often found in communities with either economic hardship or large transient migrant populations (DAAC, 2007). Mangwe is the first port of call for many Zimbabweans returning from Botswana. More than 90% of the district's population live in the areas, that mostly targeted by non-governmental organizations (CSO, 2002). Poverty and vulnerability are most pronounced in these areas.



#### **1.4 Statement of the Problem**

The problem studied in this research was the impact of poverty reduction projects in reducing disaster risks in Mangwe district. More than 90% of the Zimbabwean population is living in extreme poverty, and unemployment stands at over 94% (Agence France-Presse (AFP), 2009). Despite scores of NGOs doing developmental projects and huge sums of money poured into the district, poverty has not been prevented or reduced. The communities are still susceptible to drought and epidemics. The situation is further compounded by the fact that there are few water reservoirs and has occasional episodes of flash floods (Bongo, 2003). A large number of NGOs have been formed and registered to complement government effort in poverty reduction since 1990. However, it is interesting to note poverty is far from being reduced and worse still, more than 90% of the Zimbabweans are living in extreme poverty. Mangwe, the area under study has the highest number of development NGOs operating compared to Bulilima its counterpart, but it is still ranked as one of the most vulnerable districts in Zimbabwe (ZIMVAC, 2009).

Zimbabwe has appealed for food aid assistance on four occasions, that is 2002/03, 2004/5, 2006/07 and 2008/09 agricultural seasons. In such cases mainstream and official prescriptions have focused on response and relief aid without paying due regard to the need for reducing the vulnerability of affected communities by increasing their resilience through building their capacity (Bongo, 2003) The community's resilience in the face of hazards appears to have been reduced over the years by over dependency on development and humanitarian aid. Dependency is an attitude and belief that a group cannot solve its own problems without outside help (Bartle, 2007).

Prescription of poverty reduction projects for communities by NGOs does not foster a spirit of programme ownership, a very useful ingredient in the successful implementation of any development project. It is natural for the community members to see it as belonging to the NGO. Thus when that organization goes away or runs out of funds, the community members will have no motivation to repair and maintain the facility or to sustain the service. In order for any project to be maintained and sustained, the community members must have a sense of ownership and responsibility for the project. Communities need to be involved in the planning and management of the project if ever a sense of project ownership is to be achieved. If communities cannot become more and

more self-reliant and empowered, they simply will not develop and so poverty and apathy will eventually destroy them.

### **1.5. Research Questions**

The purpose of the study was to establish answers to the following questions in an effort to deal with the main research problem:

- Is there a relationship between access to productive assets and poverty?
- Why is Mangwe still in extreme poverty when scores of NGOs have been implementing poverty reduction projects in the district?
- What approaches are used by NGOs to implement given projects?
- Are communities involved in programme identification design and implementation?
- To what extent have these projects benefited the local communities?
- How many developmental projects have been successfully implemented between 2002 and 2008, and to what extent have they addressed poverty and disaster risk reduction?
- How have the programmes increased community resilience and reduced disaster risk in the district?

### **1.6 Objectives of the Study**

The study sought to assess and evaluate the impact of poverty reduction programmes in reducing disaster risk of Mangwe communities.

### **1.6.1 Sub objectives**

The research sought to serve the following primary purposes:

- To determine through individual questionnaires the developmental and poverty reduction projects implemented in the district from 2002 and 2010.
- To determine the impact of poverty reduction programmes on disaster risk reduction in Mangwe district.
- Identify and evaluate the impact of poverty reduction programmes on the social and economic life of Mangwe community and assess the community's perception of the importance of development projects.
- To identify strengths and weaknesses of poverty reduction concept.
- Determine community awareness of disaster risks and how they can reduce them.
- To obtain recommendations and suggestions on the expectations the community with regards to poverty reduction projects.

### **1.7 Assumptions**

The most basic assumptions of the study are:

- The literacy levels hinder better management of poverty reduction programmes. Lack of community capacity building hinders and also retards development in Mangwe.
- Despite increasing NGO involvement in poverty alleviation programmes, no signs of poverty reduction will be exhibited.
- The approaches used by NGOs and the rural district councils are responsible for non-success of poverty alleviation programmes.

- Increasing access to productive resources to the poor can reduce poverty in developing countries like Zimbabwe.
- Increased number of NGOs does not necessarily result in development that reduces poverty levels and disaster risk.
- The success of a programme under implementation is determined by the approaches used by NGOs.
- Involving communities in project identification, design and implementation has a great bearing on the success or failure of any project under implementation.
- Non-involvement of communities in the identification of projects does not create a sense of programme ownership; a very important ingredient for the success of any programmes under implementation, hence the prevalence of poverty.
- Members of the community who do not partake in development programmes are more resilient than those who do participate.
- Members of the community who have been beneficiaries of development projects are not better prepared, to mitigate or reduce the impact of a disaster.

### **1.8 Significance of the Study.**

It is hoped that the research will benefit all stakeholders in the field of poverty alleviation and reduction by helping establish reasons why poverty is still prevalent despite the implementation of various projects in the district. It will also suggest solutions on how to make poverty alleviation and risk reduction programmes a success. The study will also give a picture of approaches used by NGOs and Local Government Authorities when planning any community development project and suggest solutions on how to link poverty reduction and disaster risk reduction.

All development organizations that emphasizes poverty eradication, acknowledge that NGOs have a major role to play in the development equation. It is therefore important to establish how successful the NGOs have been in this regard. The March 1995 Copenhagen World Summit for Social Development (WSSD) underlined the importance

of improving access to credit for small rural producers, landless farmers, low income earners, women and disadvantaged but vulnerable groups. This study will make a contribution to the national agenda on the need to fight poverty and increase the community capacity to cope with hazards by offering relevant development projects to communities.

## **1.9 Delimitations**

The study was carried out in three of the 18 wards in the district. The wards were chosen because they were the highest recipients of development projects. A sample of 150 households was interviewed, as it was considered big enough to ascertain that most perceptions of communities in the district were captured. Mangwe district has a population of 78 168. The study did not cover the whole district, because of time factor coupled with financial constraints.

## **1.10 Structure of the Research**

This study comprises of five chapters, each with a brief introduction to give highlights of the chapter, the main body, and a conclusion to wind up each chapter and link it with the next one. Chapter 2 focuses on the review of the related literature while Chapter 3 discusses research methodology, Chapter 4 discuss the findings of the empirical study and the analysis of the data from the questionnaires. Chapter 5 provides the summary, conclusion and the recommendations of the study.

## **1.11 Chapter Summary**

This chapter outlined the background, problem statement, purpose and scope of the study. The study sought to assess and evaluate the impact of poverty reduction programmes in reducing disaster risk of Mangwe communities. This chapter also summarised the structure of the study. The next chapter reviews relevant literature.

## **Chapter 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter reviews literature as it applies to poverty reduction, disaster risk reduction in general and community resilience in particular. Works by other researchers in Zimbabwe and globally, are reviewed to give detail to the study on the impact of poverty reduction projects on disaster risk reduction in Mangwe. The terms poverty reduction, disaster risk reduction refer to all Sustainable Livelihoods projects carried out by the Government of Zimbabwe (GOZ), UN agencies and NGOs in communities as defined by DFID (2004), Cobert (2004), UNDP (2003), ZHDR (2003), UNDP (2000/2003), World Development (2000/2001), to mention but a few authorities.

#### **2.2 General Overview of Poverty Reduction and Disaster Risk**

Poverty can be traced back at least to the codification of poor laws in medieval England, through to the pioneering empirical studies, at the turn of the 21st century (Maxwell, 2009). It is a major factor in increasing disaster risk, as it increases vulnerability to disasters and reduce the communities' coping capacity. It is only by addressing the two issues (poverty reduction and disaster risk reduction) together that we can make the difference between communities trapped in a grinding poverty cycle and those with secure lives and livelihoods (ISDR, 2008).

Poverty reduction and disaster risk reduction initiatives need to be integrated to help reduce vulnerability of the poor and protect their livelihoods and development gains. This implies that well articulated and implemented initiatives can reduce poverty and build the resilience among the world's most vulnerable communities. The opposite is true when the same initiatives are poorly articulated and implemented. In the case of Zimbabwe poverty reduction and disaster risk reduction initiatives are implemented by the government, United Nations agencies, international non-governmental organisations (NGOs), local non-governmental organisations and community based organizations (CBOs).

### **2.3 Definition of Poverty**

Poverty has rich vocabulary in all cultures and throughout history. The terms: Income or consumption poverty; human (under)development; social exclusion; ill-being; (lack of) capability and functioning; vulnerability; livelihood unsustainability; lack of basic needs and relative deprivation, are relatively used to define poverty (Maxwell, 2004). This rich vocabulary indicates that the definition of poverty world over has evolved over time and that it is the state of the majority of the world's people and nations. These periodic changes in the definition can be attributed to the variation, both across time and space in the description of what constitutes socio-economic well-being.

This multidimensional understanding of poverty helps us define poverty as a human condition characterised by sustained or chronic deprivation of the resources, capabilities, choices, security and power necessary for enjoyment of an adequate standard of living and other civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights (Bosnia Herzegovina). Poverty is hunger, lack of shelter, being sick and not being able to see a doctor, not having access to school and not knowing how to read, not having a job, fear for the future, living one day at a time, losing a child to illness brought about by unclean water, powerlessness, lack of representation and freedom (The World Bank, 2007). Ashley and Carney (1999) concur with the World Bank's definition and further suggest that poverty is a lack or loss of sustainable livelihood. It is also perceived as the inability of the individuals, households and communities to acquire sufficient resources to satisfy a socially acceptable minimum standard of living (Cobert, 2004).

Since poverty is an inability to acquire sufficient resources to lead minimum standard of living, Nadel (2007) views it as discrimination, barriers, exclusion from satisfying the basic necessities of life in the following ways, that is the:

- Use and development of the individual's physical and spiritual capacities and creativity.
- Seizing the opportunities and choices for fashioning a fulfilling and dignified life.
- Realization of personal aspirations.

- Participating in the formulation and decision making stages of social, political and economic transformation processes.

The given definitions infer that poverty is a condition in which a person or community is deprived of, or lacks the essentials for a minimum standard of well-being and life.

### **2.3.1 Well-being**

According to Nadel (2007), well-being implies the following:

- ✓ Being able to ensure your subsistence in dignified living conditions with the ability to ensure your livelihood, thanks to the fruit of your own toil.
- ✓ Being an equal-footed and responsible member in the social, economic and social dimensions of society; having equal access to resources, information, services, institutions and decision making structures.
- ✓ Being protected from violence and arbitrariness.
- ✓ Being able to count on assistance, security nets, and solidarity in the event of disasters and crises.
- ✓ Enjoying a positive outlook towards the future for yourself and for the coming generations.

These statements imply that when an individual or community's well-being is compromised, it gives birth to poverty. In actual fact poverty is tantamount to a threatening hazard.

## **2.4 Characteristics of Poverty**

Poverty and development are not just about assets owned or goods and services consumed, since non-material factors, such as security, health, education, civil rights, culture, social relations and leisure, are central to the quality of life (Soussan, Blaikie & Soussan, 2000). This contention seems to suggest that a full definition of poverty is to be



derived from material and non-material factors hence the need to recognize poverty is both relative and dynamic.

#### **2.4.1 Relative**

Poverty is relative in that specific characteristics of the time and place where people live, condition both their experiences of poverty and the way they are able to respond to it (Soussan *et al.*, 2000).. They also maintain that poverty is often both a product and a reflection of power relationships, embedded in the fabric of social and institutional structures that are the basis of systems of exploitation that exclude the poor from controlling key parts of their lives and livelihoods. In their view poverty is as much about power or rather the lack of it, as it is about wealth. This suggests that those who possess power need to actively participate in the poverty reduction equation.

#### **2.4.2 Dynamic**

Poverty is dynamic in that its form changes over time as people and communities move in and out of it (Soussan *et al.*, 2000). This thinking suggests that changes at individual household and community, national and international levels together define the vulnerability context within which livelihoods exist. In essence the position of the poor can either be positively or negatively changed by social, economic and political changes at any level.

Policies that seek to address poverty should reflect this variable, and avoid prescriptive blueprints but create capabilities to change and adapt through time and respond to the diverse opportunities that may be available to the poor. Poverty and development are not just about assets owned or goods and services consumed, since non-material factors, such as security, health, education, civil rights, culture, social relations and leisure, are central to the quality of life (Soussan *et al.*, 2000). This contention seems to suggest that a full definition of poverty is to be derived from material and non-material factors. This thinking suggests that poverty reduction initiatives should be diverse if they are to effectively and efficiently address the needs of different communities, hence the need to take cognizance of the dynamic and relative nature of poverty from place to place.

## **2.5 Core Dimensions of Poverty**

Poverty comprises of five core dimensions of poverty namely: economic capabilities; human capabilities; human capacities, socio-cultural capabilities and protective capabilities (Nadel, 2007).

### **2.5.1 Economic capabilities**

Poverty of money is at times called the income poverty which is in two phases, namely extreme poverty and absolute poverty. Extreme poverty refers to the lack of income necessary to satisfy basic food needs, usually defined on the basis of minimum calorie requirements; often called absolute poverty (UNDP, 2000). Economic capabilities enable people to earn an income, to consume and have assets which are a key to food security, material well-being and social status. In essence these aspects are often raised by poor people, along with secure access to productive financial and physical resources that is the land, farming implements and animals, forests and fishing waters, credit and decent employment (Nadel, 2007).

Lack of income necessary to satisfy essential non-food needs, such as clothing, energy and shelter as well food needs is also referred to as relative poverty UNPD (2000). This definition suggests that poverty of money is the sum of absolute and relative poverty. Absolute poverty can be eradicated while relative poverty can only be alleviated, the fact being that what is minimally accepted today may vary from time to time due to the level of development, perceptions and expectations of what is minimally accepted (United Nation Economic Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP, 2000). It is observed that the most prevalent means of measuring poverty have been and continue to be those related to money.

Measures, such as poverty lines and Gini-coefficients are used to measure absolute and relative poverty in terms of incomes and affordability. These measures are prevalent because they are relatively easy to make and quantify. Different writers seem to suggest that the lack of money is more of a symptom of poverty rather than its cause and that in most cases, the poor are not without an income; what they lack is the ability to accumulate assets, which is a key ingredient for the creation of wealth and breaking the cycle of poverty. This type of poverty manifests itself through the lack of income

necessary to satisfy essential basic food needs, non-food needs, such as clothing, energy and shelter.

### **2.5.2 Human capabilities**

Poverty of access or human poverty measures, deprivation in long term, healthy life, knowledge and a decent standard of living constitutes poverty (Zimbabwe Humanitarian Development (ZHD) 2000). According to this report Zimbabwe's human poverty stood at 28.8% in 2001. OECD (2010) concurs with the ZHD report when it states that human capabilities are based on health, education, nutrition, clean water and shelter. Human poverty measures are; deprivation in a long and healthy life, as measured by the percentage of people not expected to survive the age of 40 years; deprivation in knowledge regarding adult literacy; deprivation in economic provision from private and public income (ZHD, 20001). It can also be measured by the percentage of people lacking access to health services or the percentage of people lacking access to safe water and the percentage of children who are moderately and severely under weight (ZHD, 2001).

Disease and illiteracy are barriers to reproductive work and thus to economic and other capabilities for poverty reduction. Literacy facilitates communication, which is crucial in social participation. Education, especially for girls, is considered the single most effective means for defeating poverty and some of its major causal factors, for example illnesses; in particular AIDS and excessive fertility (Nadel, 2007). Poverty of access does not focus on what people do or do not have but on what they can or cannot do (UNDP,2000).More so poor children often drop out of school earlier due to financial constraints.

Poor education also contributes to entrenchment of the cycle of poverty (UN ESCAP, 2000). This idea points out that the quality level of education determines the level of poverty at any given time. This implies that the quality of education that a community receives can perpetuate or reduce poverty, for example children born in areas where there are no educational facilities tend to fall into poverty.

### **2.5.3 Political capabilities**

Human capacities include human rights, a voice and some public influence over public policies and political priorities (Nadel, 2007). According to World Bank (2007) to be in poverty means being in a state of powerlessness, lack of representation and freedom. Nadel (2007) supports the World Bank's contention by further elaborating that powerlessness aggravates other dimensions of poverty. Of importance to note is that the poor often suffer from diseases associated with poor sanitation, lack of clean water, overcrowding and living and working in poorly ventilated environments. These conditions that the poor always find themselves in can be attributed to the fact that they have no voice and no power to influence decisions on issues that affect them. The politically weak have neither voice in political reforms nor secure access to resources required to rise out of poverty (Nadel, 2007).

Most donors and many governments have enshrined participation in the rhetoric of official policies and project designs, the extent to which this has been translated into robust and replicable development practice has been limited (Eyben & Ladbury, 1997; Soussan, 2000). Indeed, Shepherd (1998) suggests that thinking about participation has remained at a very idealistic and ideological level. It has lacked analytical tools, practical methods and an adequate theoretical framework. So, it has degenerated into a kind of propaganda words to convince audiences that agencies, NGOs and governments have recognized the necessity of involving people in development activities

This suggests that the poor have a greater possibility to influence decision-making under conditions of good governance that encourages participation, inclusiveness, consensus-orientedness, responsive to the needs of the population, efficiency, transparent and accountability. Deprivation of basic political freedoms or human rights is a major aspect of poverty. This includes arbitrary, unjust and even violent action by the police or other public authorities that is a serious concern for the poor people (Nadel, 2007). The poor often lack access to information that they can use to advance their cases when dealing with other actors in the community.

Depriving the rural communities, information renders them poor in terms of any developments that are local, national and global. Even when information is available, it is often in media and other forms that are either not accessible to or understandable by the poor. Poverty of power is prevalent in Zimbabwe in that media is censored and the partisan. Mangwe communities rely on DSTV and pirate stations because ZTV reception is nonexistent. The communities are more abreast about South African and Botswana issues, and are blank on the happenings in their district. Failure to access adequate information in the Mangwe area can perpetuate the prevalence of poverty of power and increase exposure to disaster risks.

#### **2.5.4 Socio-cultural capabilities**

Socio-cultural capabilities are the ability to be a valued member of a community (Nadel, 2007). These being: social status, dignity and other cultural conditions for belonging to a society which are highly valued by the poor themselves. Participatory poverty assessment indicates that geographic and social isolation is the main meaning of poverty for the people in many local societies; other dimensions are seen as contributing factors.

#### **2.5.5 Protective capabilities**

Protective capabilities enable people to withstand economic shocks, natural disasters and conflicts (Nadel, 2007). This refers to resilience. Resilience refers to the capacity of a system, community or society potentially exposed hazards to adapt, by resisting or changing in order to reach and maintain an acceptable level of functioning and structure (UN-ISDR, 2003). In addition to playing a role in promoting an ability to resist and recover from natural hazard effects, these variables may influence hazard adjustment adoption.

While perception of a threat remains a pertinent precursor, the key factors are action-outcome expectations and self-efficacy judgments. Self-efficacy also determines the amount of effort and perseverance invested in risk reduction behaviours. This behaviour is more likely to be sustained if supported by the social and structural environment (Tobin, 1999). A community with weak protective capabilities is susceptible to all forms of poverty. This infers that a person or a community that has a deficiency in any of the

core dimensions of poverty is considered to be in poverty. Figure 2.1 summarizes the five core dimensions of poverty.

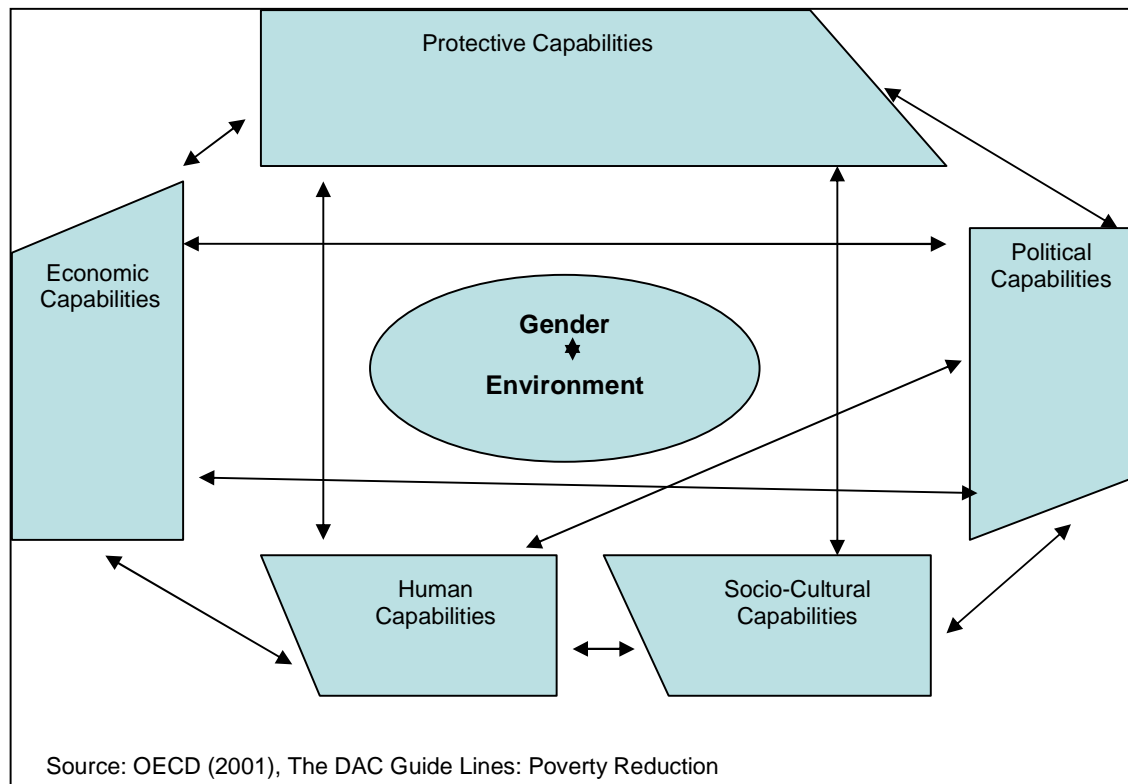


Figure 2.1: Core dimensions of poverty

## 2. 6 Factors That Promote the Growth of Poverty

Poverty in most countries is linked with one or more of the following; the environmental forces; economic forces; political forces; religious forces; attitude/cultural forces (Mudaugwu, 2007).

### 2.6.1 Struggles over control and ownership of land

The 2003 Poverty Assessment Study Survey II showed a substantial increase in poverty in Zimbabwe; between 1990 and 2003, the poverty rate rose from 25% to 63% (IFAD, 2001). In Zimbabwe, like many developing countries, poverty is attributed to the struggles over control and ownership of land (Mutubuki, 2003). At Independence in 1980, whites who constituted three percent of the population controlled 51% of the

country's farming land (44% of Zimbabwe's total land area), with about 75% of prime agricultural land under the Large Scale Commercial Farming (LSCF) sector (Weiner *et al.*, 1985) and hence inaccessible to the black majority.

The fact that the black communities remained mainly with marginal land, their access to reproductive resources was compromised. With time the land could no longer provide the food and resources to support the communities (Miller, 1999). Nkum (1998) concurs with Miller's assertion pointing out that poverty persists because of limited and inequitable access to productive resources, such as land, water, improved inputs and technologies and microfinance, as well as vulnerability to drought and other natural disasters.

Land utilization in the black occupied areas suffered a number of setbacks, such as population increase that put pressure on the land, thereby increasing poverty levels. This increased the demand for land, hence the inception of the Agrarian reform that brought rising poverty and social decline in its wake. The government's land reforms dismantled the existing system of land distribution and severely damaged the commercial farming sector, which was an important source of exports and foreign exchange, and which provided employment for about 400 000 people in rural areas (Mutubuki, 2003).

(Shah, 2001) concurs with Mutubuki and refers to it as bad government policy that exacerbated the spread of poverty. This suggests that in many instances communities suffer because of the policies that they neither created nor implemented. The political uncertainties and impasse in 2008 negatively impacted efforts to implement and deliver interventions on poverty reduction and compounded the difficulties in raising resources towards supporting development in Zimbabwe (UNDP, 2009). It is against this backdrop that the United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development and the World Food summit put a lot of emphasis on the need to link poverty reduction with land structural reforms (DSE, 2001).

### **2.6.2 Lack of education**

Many a times political decisions do affect the education system, as was the case of the land reform programme which led to the economic collapse of the country. This saw the decline in human resources that made it more difficult for the country to recover from the ongoing crisis, and also slowed down the delivery of educational services (IFAD, 2001).

Education is many things to man, a visa to success, a passport to the unknown, a catalyst to greater heights (Ojo & Vincent, 2000). This means that it is a tool that, empowers, develops, and enlightens mankind; hence the opposite is true in its absence.

Low levels of literacy and skills conspire to keep people in the poverty trap, preventing them from claiming their basic rights or from embarking on new activities to earn income or build assets (Krupa, 2002/2003). Without education most people have difficulties in finding income generating work (Gama, 2002). This infers that low levels of education can limit one's access good income to attain basic necessities: food, shelter, clothing and acceptable levels of health and education.

### **2.6.3 Prescribed economic policies**

Poverty in most developing countries can also be attributed to economic structural adjustment programmes prescribed by financial institutions, like the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund. The well remembered policy in the history of Zimbabwe is the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) of 1991 to 1995. This policy required the Government of Zimbabwe to open its economy and compete with others with more powerful and established industrialized nations. In order to attract investment, the country had to enter a spiralling race to the bottom to see who could provide lower standards, reduced wages and cheaper resources (Shah, 2001).

As it happened, neither the market reforms, nor the different measures that were meant to offset their effects on the most vulnerable, went according to plan. At the same time as parts of the Zimbabwean private sector displayed worrying signs of deindustrialization, and the public debt spiralled upwards, the standard of living of most Zimbabweans was also plummeting to levels not seen in 25 years (Shah, 2001). The initial economic shock treatment undertaken with ESAP's launch in the early 1990s hit the business sector and ordinary Zimbabweans very hard, and the impact of these measures was greatly exacerbated by the severe drought of the early 1990s (Saunders, 1996).

In 1992, after two consecutive poor rainy seasons, the economy contracted by at least 7.5%, with all sectors in Zimbabwe's agriculture-based productive sector affected. At the same time, price control relaxation saw inflation explode and consumer demand shrink,



by as much as 30% (Mayunga, 2009). One result of ESAP was a sharp decline in average real wages. It was the beginning of a trend that would see, by the mid 1990s, average real earnings fall to the lowest levels since the early 1970s. ESAP brought the Zimbabwean working class to the brink of widespread destitution. The structural adjustment programme (SAPS) embarked on by the Government of Zimbabwe from 1991 to 1995 saw a lot of people being retrenched from both the public and private sectors leading to a rise in unemployment levels (Maphosa, 2004).

Bongo (2003) in support of Maphosa's view points out that in the absence of protection mechanisms for the poor and marginalized against the free market mechanism, the vulnerability of the disenfranchised communities was greatly increased. More people were forced to migrate to neighbouring countries in search of employment. In the rural areas, the majority population was often forced to depend on government and NGO food aid (Marongwe, 2009). By the end of the drought in November 1992, more than half the population of the country was receiving some form of drought relief assistance from government. These prescribed policies increased poverty and inequality for most people as it formed a backbone to what we today call globalization (Shah, 2001). The historic unequal rules of trade still persist hence the perpetuation of poverty in developing countries.

#### **2.6.4 Economic causes of poverty**

Poverty in Zimbabwe is also attributed to rapid decline in the economy (UNDP, 2003). The current poverty situation has been shaped by the unstable macro-economic conditions prevailing in the country. The management of the foreign exchange rate resulted in an over-valued exchange rate. Two foreign exchange rates were operating in the country, the official rate and the parallel/black market rate. The value of the Zimbabwe dollar depreciated from USD1 to ZWD55 to USD1 to ZWD150 000 by June 2007 (CSO 2006). Inability to access forex, either for purposes of converting Zimbabwe Dollar incomes into savings or as a direct source of income has meant that rural households had been exposed more to the impoverishing conditions that prevailed in the country.

Steep levels of inflation contributed to worsening conditions of living for the poor. Thus for instance, year on year inflation was estimated at around 502% by June 2006 and

was estimated at over 4 500% by June 2007 (CSO 2006). Generally, this situation forced many to sink into deep poverty which became more pronounced among the newly resettled farmers who were starting a new life (Mayunga, 2009). This economic crisis and the collapse of public services in 2008 contributed to a significant rise in poverty and unemployment and the general deterioration of the humanitarian situation in the country (UNDP, 2001). The economic crisis in the decades prevented substantial capital investment, and slowed the emergence of new enterprises. Agricultural production in general has suffered as a result of weak support services, lack of credit, and acute shortages of essential inputs such as seeds, fertilizer and fuel. In drier areas water scarcity is a major challenge for farmers (IFAD, 2001). This crisis was also worsened by bad governance, globalisations, political instability and poor international relations (Padare, 2000).

### **2.6.5 Environmental causes of poverty**

Environmental degradation, disasters, economic and demographic trends promote the growth of poverty (Cobert, 2004). Drought is one of the hazards that exacerbate poverty. It exacerbated an already difficult situation and made it harder for farmers in dry areas to raise their productivity (IFAD, 2001). These phenomena worsened the food insecurity both for urban and rural populations; hence Zimbabwe became a net importer of food products and many millions of people are now dependent on food aid (PASS). The strained relationship between Zimbabwe and large parts of the international community also restricted donor engagement in the country (IFAD, 2001).

Between 1959 and 2002, the country had experienced over 15 droughts, averaging a drought year every two to three years (Richardson, 2005) The frequency of droughts has been intense in the post 2000 period and a combination of this and other factors (for example disruptions and distortions associated with FTLRP) has seen food aid emerging as a strong intervention aimed at fighting poverty. At the same time, the loss of cattle during drought years (as was the case in the 1991/92) led to loss of draught power, creating conditions that deepen further poverty among households. Cattle populations experienced dips at the midst of severe droughts in the years 1982-84 and 1991-92. A combination of droughts and de-stocking by displaced LSCF farmers in the post 2000 period have contributed to declining cattle populations.

Thus the impact of droughts and the ongoing economic recession has produced shocks that have undermined livelihoods of households. (MASDAR, 2006), citing the findings of the World Food Programme (WFP) in 2005-06, noted that more 'than half of the surveyed households had sold assets to buy food (in October 2005 and prior to food assistance) and (in March 2006) 12% of the households had sold assets to pay for food and five percent had disposed of assets to pay for health in the previous three months. This clearly indicates that droughts force households to dispose off their assets, further entrenching poverty.

#### **2.6.6 Globalization**

There are two fundamental and interrelated globalisation trends sweeping the developing countries at present: globalisation of economies and globalisation of information (UN ESCAP, 2000). Despite the increasing interconnectedness promised by globalization are global decisions, policies, and practices which influence poverty. These are typically influenced, driven or formulated by the rich and powerful such as multinational corporations, institutions and influential people. In the face of such enormous external influence, the governments of poor nations and their people are often powerless (Shah, 2010).

These trends not only change the economies of the countries, but also their environments, cultures and societies. These trends affect the rural poor adversely as they widen the gap between the rich and the poor in society (Soussan *et al.*, 2000).. The capital and access to information and the ability to translate that information into economic, political and social gain is a benefit of globalization. However, the poor do not have capital and are often unable to access information, they are likely to be further impoverished and marginalized. As a result, in the global context, a few get wealthy while the majority struggle (Shah, 2010).

#### **2.6. Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency (HIV/AIDS)**

Poverty assists the spread of HIV/ AIDS and this pushes people into poverty or it makes it harder for them to escape from it. AIDS causes premature death and means that international, national, and personal development goals and aspirations are not achievable (Barnett & Whiteside, 2006). This suggests that when a parent dies, the child

will fail to go school and when teachers succumb to the pandemic there is no school. In essence HIV and AIDS affects the human capital stocks, increases child mortality in the next generation and could maintain infection rates.

According to Barnett and Whiteside (2006), HIV/AIDS slows economic growth, an important ingredient for the creation of wealth, government revenue, employment opportunities, and improve material well-being. This implies that the more the number of infected people the less the development. The impact of HIV/AIDS has fuelled the emergency of support organizations that manage the consequences of ineffective government policy and capability (Marais, 2000). Subjecting people to economic and re-engineering in such a manner that they are left with little or no option of pursuing sustainable socio-economic strategies render them socio-economically vulnerable. People in this state can end up engaging in risky behaviours, sexually or otherwise, irrespective of their level of awareness concerning the possibility of negative consequences of taking such risk (Padare, 2006).

This suggests that the vulnerable members of the community may end up engaging in risk-coping mechanisms such as prostitution which can expose them to HIV and AIDS infection. In most areas of Southern Africa the impact of the HIV/ AIDS pandemic has eroded the asset base of rural households, depleted their labour force and restricted their ability to earn cash from farming and non fauna activities (Practical Action, 2008). It suggests a strong relation between poverty and HIV and AIDS infection. Poverty may also contribute to the spread of HIV and AIDS. AIDS is compounding poverty and is now reversing or impeding development in many countries and should therefore be addressed in an integrated manner (ZHD, 2003).

## **2.7 Poverty Indicators**

Poverty can be identified through a variety of indicators which reflect its extent and nature namely:

- Living below USD1.00 per day
- Rapid economic and agricultural decline; compounded by recurrent unemployment
- Hunger, poor nutrition and food shortages

- Reliance on remittances and emergency aid
- Decline of life expectancy lack of health facilities (Matinhire, *et al.*, 2003)
- Poor infrastructure
- Declining educational standards
- Inadequate housing
- Lack of clean drinking water and sanitation.

UNICEF released alarming data showing 78% of Zimbabweans living in “*absolute poverty*”, with more than half Zimbabwe's estimated 13.5 million people living under the food poverty line, and with some 3.5 million children chronically going hungry (VOA News, 2010). There has been an increase of nine percent compared to the 2002 statistics. According to (ZHDR, 2003), (69%) of the Zimbabwean population were living below the food poverty line by 2002 and the proportion of the population below the Total Consumption Poverty Line, was at 74% in 1995 and estimated at 80% in 2002. The poverty trends are consistent with macroeconomic poverty indicators such as Real Gross Domestic Product growth rate, which declined from 3.7% in 1990 to 14% in 2002 (UNDP, 2003).

Recent trends indicate that poverty is on the increase in both rural and urban areas and is more pronounced in female-headed households (Padare, 2000). Figure 2.2 summarizes development indicators in the year 2005.

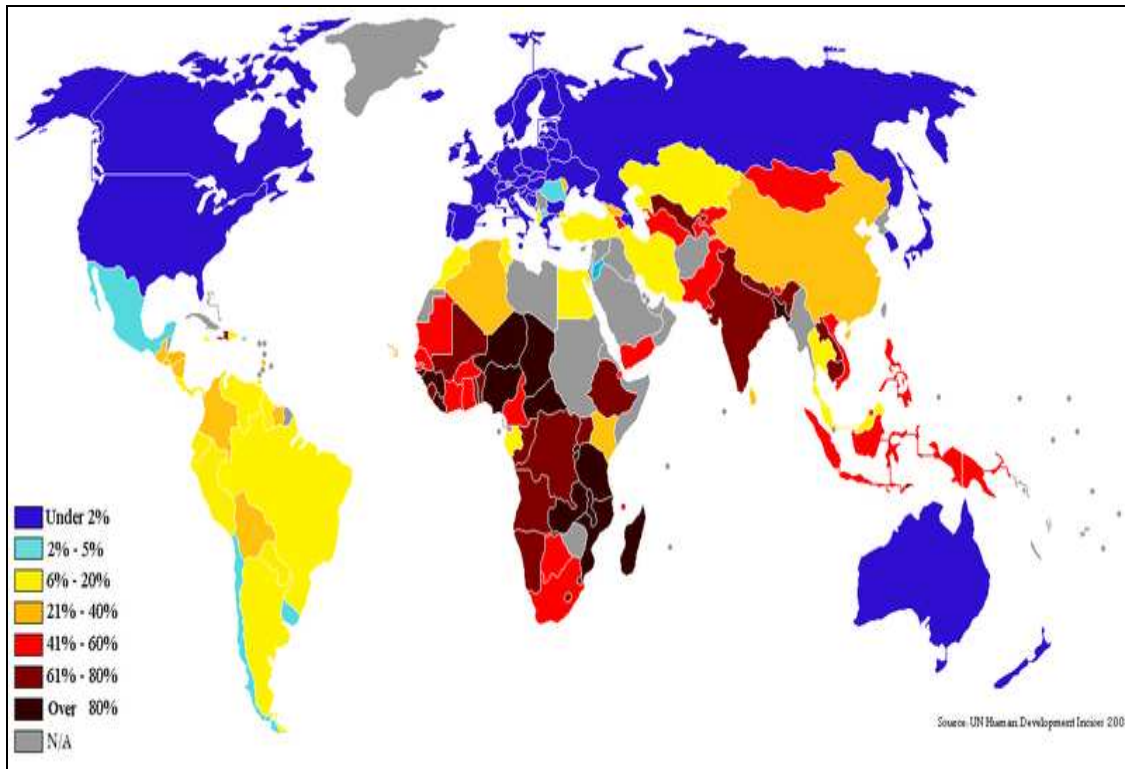


Figure 2.2: Poverty levels (Source: UN Millennium Development Indices, 2009)

## 2.8 The Sustainable Livelihoods Framework

The framework encourages users to take a broad and systematic view of the factors that cause poverty, whether these are shocks and adverse trends, poorly functioning institutions and policies or a basic lack of assets and to investigate the relations between them (DFID, 2004). The other reason being that it does not take a sectoral view of poverty, but tries to reconcile the contribution made by all the sectors to building up the stocks of assets upon which people draw to sustain their livelihoods (Krantz, 2001). This infers that sustainable livelihoods are holistic in that it recognizes the dynamism of livelihoods and the forces that influence them. Livelihood activities are sets of actions through which households gain their means of survival (Soussan *et al.*, 2000). These are divided into two categories:

- Production activities that produce goods and services which contribute to income (the value of goods that are actually or potentially tradable).

Reproductive activities which are sometimes called household maintenance, such as: childcare, cooking and cleaning which are not tradable, but never the less essential for the well-being of household members and reproduction of the conditions through which a family survives.

## **2.9 Disaster Risk Reduction**

Disaster Risk reduction (DRR) measures are designed to protect livelihoods and assets of the individual and communities from the impact of hazards, through mitigation, preparedness and advocacy (Concern, 2005). Poverty is a major factor in increasing disaster risk, by increasing vulnerability to disasters and reducing existing coping capacities hence the need to incorporate it with risk reduction. Another common patch of common ground is that the poor suffer from the disasters (ADRC, 2002). The DFID (2004) concurs with ADRC's assertion and further elaborate that risk reduction efforts can promote poverty reduction by helping people to avoid the impoverishing effects of disaster. This implies that poverty reduction can help reduce disaster risk, but this requires an in-built proactive focus on addressing such risk rather than seeing it as just another constraint to work within. Well articulated poverty reduction programmes can successfully reduce disaster risks, and increase the community's capacity and resilience, a very important ingredient in managing disasters. The DFID model will be discussed in the light of risk reduction.

## **2.10 Department for International Development (DFID) Model in the light of Sustainable Livelihood**

The guiding assumption of this model is that people pursue a range of livelihood outcomes by which they hope to improve or increase their livelihood assets and to reduce their vulnerability (Nadel, 2007). This assumption suggests that a livelihood that a given community has, determines its vulnerability level. The DFID model consists of five interrelated factors which are; the vulnerability context, livelihoods assets possessed, transforming structures and processes which influence negatively and

positively the livelihood strategies available to people and livelihood outcomes resulting from their interaction (DFID, 2001). The five factors constitute the actual building blocks for livelihoods. In a recent extension to the DFID SL framework, political capital has been added. The livelihood strategies applied for achieving livelihood outcomes evolve in interaction with a context of vulnerability and transforming institutions (DFID, 1999). The actual framework has been considered, from the beginning, as one of many possible ways to conceive a livelihood framework. DFID attaches therefore more importance to the underpinning principles of a poverty focused and livelihood-oriented development.

The framework starts with the vulnerability context in which people live their lives and the livelihoods assets that they possess. It then looks at how transforming structures and processes generate livelihood strategies that lead to livelihood outcomes. Twigg (2001:9). The DFID model is summarized by the diagram in Figure 2.3.

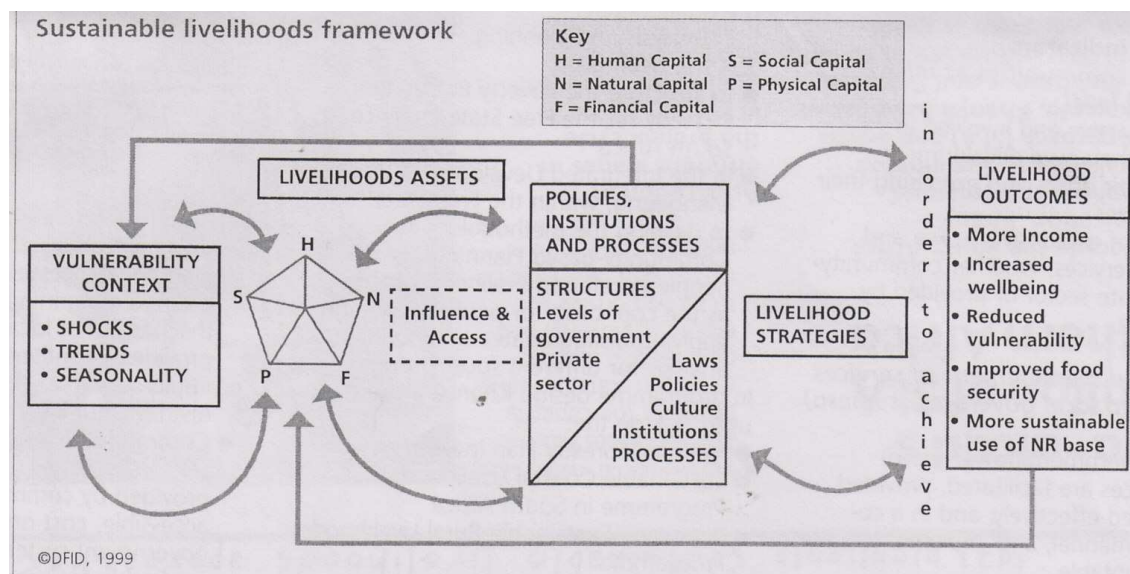


Figure 2.3: Sustainable livelihoods framework

### 2.10.1 The Vulnerability Context

Vulnerability is characterised as insecurity in the well-being of individuals, households, and communities in the face of changes in their external environment (Serrat, 2008). People move in and out of poverty and the concept of vulnerability captures the processes of the change better than poverty changes. In this instance the vulnerability context of livelihoods refers to shocks, trends and seasonality with their potential impact



on people's livelihoods (DFID, 1997). Soussan *et al.* (2010) agree with the DFID definition and refers to the vulnerability context as the trends of change and variability in those factors that affect livelihoods, and the structural processes that can materially disrupt different aspects of the livelihood process. In essence shocks can be sudden changes in human health, natural environment, economic environment, conflict, crop/livestock health conditions.

Trends take the following forms; resource trends, (including conflict), national/international economic trends, trends in governance (including politics), technological trends (Soussan, *et al.*, 2010). Seasonality can be of prices, production, health and employment opportunities. Some are more sensitive to their influence, whilst others are better able to absorb their impact or respond to the opportunities they may offer (Soussan, *et al.*, 2000). They also point out that the character of these external forces represents the vulnerability context within which the livelihood systems of different households develop, whilst the ability of households to cope is their resilience in the light of these vulnerabilities.

Vulnerabilities may be caused by limitations that an individual or group faces due to one of a long list of variables including geography, education, class, religion ethnicity, occupation and health status (Oxfam, 2003). Collin (1986) concurs with the Oxfam definition of vulnerability, defining it as the capacity to be physically or emotionally wounded or hurt. This infers that vulnerability is susceptibility to physical and emotional harm or injury and that it emerges when human beings as individuals or as a social unit has to face harmful threats or shock with an inadequate capacity to respond ineffectively. The external environment in which people live bears the responsibility of hardships that face the poorest communities, hence their vulnerability to any form of hazard. This thinking is also applicable to Mangwe District.

### **2.10.2 Livelihoods**

A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living (Osman-Elasha, B Abdellatti, H, B., Goutbi, N., Siegfried, S, 2005). Livelihoods include all of the activities that people derive their food and income from, including different kinds of employment, agricultural and livestock production and business activities (Oxfam, 2003). Twig (2001) concurs

with the Oxfam's definition and also adds another dimension of strengths/capacities in the form of livelihood assets.

A livelihood is said to be sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base (Chambers & Conway, 1992). Livelihood assets are not only natural/biological, that is land, water, common property resources, flora and fauna, but also social, that is community, family, social networks, participation, empowerment, human (that is knowledge, creation by skills) and physical (namely roads, markets, clinics, schools, bridges) (Elasha *et al.*, 2005).

All writers agree that assets are stocks of different types of capital that can be used directly or indirectly to generate livelihoods. More so they can give rise to a flow of output, possibly becoming depleted as a consequence or may be accumulated as a surplus to be invested in future productive activities. The occurrence of a disaster leads to unsustainable livelihoods. However, communities can mitigate, prepare and prevent disasters by drawing upon and combining five types of capital. Carney (1999) suggests that there are five dominant forms of livelihood assets arranged in a pentagon:

- **Natural capital**

Natural capital is the term used for the natural resource stocks from which resource flows and services (for example nutrient cycling, erosion protection) useful for livelihoods are derived (DFID,1997). It further points out that there is a wide variation in the resources that make up natural capital, from intangible public goods such as the atmosphere and biodiversity to divisible assets used directly for production (trees, land, etcetera).

The productivity of these resources may be degraded or improved by human management. Land is very vital capital, in that it can sustain income growth and offer the best potential for pulling the poorest and the land constrained households out of poverty (Jaynet *et al.*, 2001). This suggests that natural capital is essential in sustaining all forms of life including human life, hence the need to maintain it at acceptable levels for the benefit of the present and future generations.

- **Financial capital**

Financial capital denotes the financial resources that people use to achieve their livelihood objectives (DFID, 1997). Two main sources of financial capital are: available stocks, which can be held in several forms such as cash, bank deposits, liquid assets such as livestock and jewellery or resources obtained through credit-providing institutions; and regular inflows of money, including earned income, pensions, other transfers from the state and remittances. In this essence it does not include financial assets only, but should include disposable assets and livestock, which in other senses may be considered as natural capital. It includes income levels, variability over time and distribution within the society of financial savings, access to credit and debt levels.

Economic capital is an important determinant of community resilience (Mayunga, 2009). Buckle (2001) concurs with this thinking and suggests that a more stable and growing economy generally enhances resilience, while an unhealthy or declining economy is an indicator of increasing vulnerability. Financial capital can be measured through household income, property value, employment and investment (Mayunga, 2009).

- **Physical capital**

Physical capital is created by economic production, such as basic infrastructure and producer goods needed to support livelihoods (DFID, 1997). Producer goods refer to the tools and equipment that people use to function more productively. Infrastructure consists of changes to the physical environment that help people to meet their basic needs and to be more productive. The following components of infrastructure are usually essential for sustainable livelihoods: affordable transport; secure shelter and buildings; adequate water supply and sanitation; clean, affordable energy; and access to information (communications) (DFID, 1997). In general, lack of physical infrastructure or critical facilities may impact negatively on the community's capacity to cope with disasters and the opposite is true if the physical and/or critical facilities are available.

- **Human capital**

Human capital constitutes the quantity and quality of labour available. Human capital enables the people to pursue different livelihood strategies and achieve their livelihood strategies (DFID, 1997.)

- **Social capital**

Social capital constitutes any assets such as rights or claims that are derived from membership of a group (DFID, 1997). These include the ability to call on friends or kin for help in times of need, support from trade or professional associations (for example farmers' associations and political claims on chiefs or politicians to provide assistance.

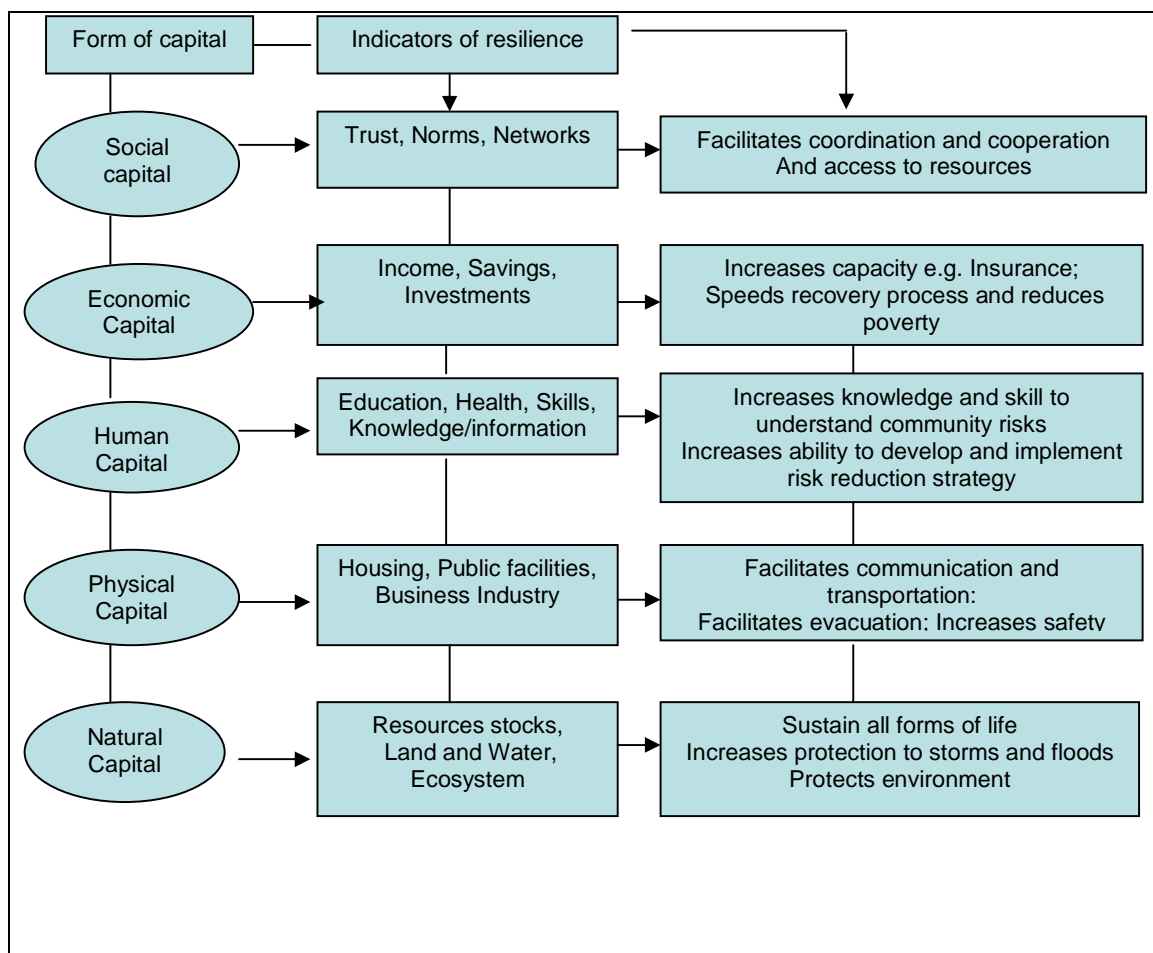


Figure 2.4: Major forms of capital

(Source: Mayunga, 2009)

*“People’s accesses to the five asset types (which together represent the total livelihood) are conditioned by pre-existing vulnerabilities”* Oxfam (2003:15). This infers that the vulnerability context of a community can have a negative impact on livelihoods, while the opposite is true with livelihood assets on the vulnerability context. Figure 2.4 summarizes how five major forms of capital can contribute to reduce vulnerability and increase community resilience. The aspects Human capital and Social capital are of interest to this study, hence their in-depth discussion.

### **2.10.3 Human Capital**

Human capital constitutes the quantity and quality of labour available. Human capital represents the skills, knowledge, ability to labour and good health that together enable people to pursue different livelihood strategies, and achieve their livelihood objectives (DFID, 1997; Goodwin, 2007). At household level, therefore, it is determined by household size, but also by education, skills and health of the household members. This implies that the quality and amount of labour that is available is dependent human capital possessed by a community and vary according to its size, skill levels, leadership potential, health status and so forth.

In essence these differ from community to community, hence the need to treat communities differently. There is need to analyse the human capital of communities before the role out of any project. Human capital can be inherited or acquired through education and training. Mangwe lacks in human assets in that its skilled and knowledgeable people have either migrated to Botswana or South Africa in search of jobs (Maphosa, 2004). Since the community is transient, communities have no time to share knowledge; a very important component of capacity development.

### **2.10.4 Social Capital**

Social capital is taken to mean the social structure, trust, norms and social networks that facilitate collective action (Green & Haines, 2002). According to George (1997) it is the social resources upon which people draw in pursuit of their livelihood objectives. It is also referred to as the measure of community intangibles (Goodwin, 2007; Robert, 2006). All the writers agree that these include stock of trust, networks, cultural pursuits, mutual understanding, linkages, shared values and local wellbeing.

Social capital is developed through: networks and connectedness, membership of more formalized groups and relationships of trust. Reciprocity and exchanges that facilitate co-operation reduce transaction costs and may provide the basis for informal safety nets amongst the poor. The social capital determines the community's ability to absorb shocks. The most resilient communities are those that work toward a common goal (Davidson, 2006). This means that a community that lacks the social capital, has no cohesion, cannot be organised to maintain its environment or its economy and will not attract outside intervention. The opposite is true for a community which has it.

Coping enables communities to manage the available resources during normal, abnormal and unusual situations such as the times of a disaster. Coping includes defence mechanisms, active ways of solving problems and methods for handling stress (Murphy & Moniarty, 1976). In the event of a disaster, the community mobilizes resources at various levels to cope with the disaster, by avoiding the risks that may lead to loss of life. Avoiding the risk means taking mitigatory measures to enhance recovery and avoid loss. These social support systems include rights and obligations between members of the same household (husbands and wives, children and parents), with the extended family and with other wider groups with a shared identity such as clan, tribe and caste (Wisner *et al.*, 2007). All human beings are resilient in one way or the other that differ on certain levels. A community's social capital is strong when its members are actively involved in public affairs, public meetings, are informally sociable and have trust, while one without these is deemed to be weak and more vulnerable to disaster risks.

#### **2.10.5 Transforming structures and processes**

Transforming Structures and Processes are the institutions, organizations, policies and legislation that shape livelihoods (Twig, 2001). These operate at all levels, from the household to the international arena and in all spheres, from the most private to the most public. Transforming structures are the organizations, both private and public, who set and implement policy and legislation, deliver services, purchase, trade and perform all manner of other functions that affect livelihoods (DFID, 1997). DFID also points out that, transforming processes determine the way in which structures and individuals operate and interact. These transforming processes include macro, sectoral, redistributive and regulatory policies, international agreements, domestic legislation, markets, culture,

societal norms and beliefs, and power relations associated with age, gender, caste or class (DFID, 1997). All writers agree that transforming structures and processes determine access to five different types of capital, livelihood strategies, and decision makers; terms of exchange between types of capital; economic and other returns from livelihood strategies. Livelihoods are also influenced in a positive and negative way by formal and informal policies, institution and process (The Oxfam, 2003).

#### **2.10.6 Livelihood strategies**

Operating within the vulnerability context, using their livelihood assets and under the considerable influence of transforming structures and processes, poor people choose and implement livelihood strategies (Twig, 2001). According to George (1997), livelihood strategies are the range and combination of activities and choices that people make/undertake in order to achieve their livelihood goals (including productive activities, investment strategies, reproductive choices and so forth). This is a dynamic process in which people combine activities to meet their various needs at different times (DFID, 1997).

#### **2.10.7 Livelihood outcomes**

Livelihood outcomes are the achievements or outputs of livelihood strategies (George, 1997). It is hard to weigh up the relative value of increased well-being as opposed to increased income, but this is the type of decisions that people must make every day when deciding which strategies to adopt (DFID, 1997). There is a close relationship between livelihood outcomes and livelihood assets, the two being linked by livelihood strategies.

### **2.11 Application of Livelihoods Approaches**

The success of the livelihoods approach depends solely on its suitability and its applicability to the affected community's situation, hence the need to involve communities in every stage of the project. Drawing on the Chambers definition as well, DFID (Britain's Department for International Development), there are many ways of applying livelihoods approaches and there is not one single approach. Ashley and

Carney (1999) suggest six underlying principles that have to be observed if the sustainable livelihoods approach is to be a success.

### **2.11.1 People-centred**

The main emphasis of this principle is that sustainable poverty elimination will be achieved only if external support focuses on what matters to people, understands the differences between groups of people and works with them in a way that is congruent with their current livelihood strategies, social environment and ability to adapt (Ashley & Carney, 1999). This can be through the analysis of people's livelihoods and how these have been changing over time; fully involving people and respecting their views; focusing on the impact of different policy and institutional arrangements upon people/households and upon the dimensions of poverty they define rather than on resources or overall output *per se* (George, 1997).

This principle also stresses the importance of influencing policies and institutional arrangements so they promote the agenda of the poor. A key step is political participation by poor people themselves; works to support people to achieve their own livelihood goals, though taking into account considerations regarding sustainability. This principle suggests that communities must be allowed to suggest solutions to problems bedeviling them, by involving them in all the stages of the project circle, respecting their views and empowering them through advocacy. The poor people must be key actors in identifying and addressing livelihood priorities.

### **2.11.2 Holistic**

The livelihoods framework is not intended to be an exact model of the way the world is, nor does it mean to suggest that stakeholders themselves necessarily adopt a systemic approach to problem solving (George, 1997). Rather, it aspires to provide a way of thinking about livelihoods that are manageable and that help improve development effectiveness. This principle calls for realization that SL approaches are non-sectoral and applicable across geographical areas and social groups; recognises multiple influences on people, and seeks to understand the relationships between these influences and their joint impact upon livelihoods; recognises multiple actors (from the private sector to



national level ministries, from community-based organisations to newly emerging decentralised government bodies); conducted in partnership: with both the public and the private sector; acknowledges the multiple livelihood strategies that people adopt to secure their livelihoods and seeks to achieve multiple livelihood outcomes, to be determined and negotiated by people themselves (George, 1997). This suggests that SL approaches are fully aware of the multiplicity of influences that shape individuals and communities, hence the need to involve all stakeholders in addressing them. In essence this principle calls for the cross pollination of ideas of stakeholders and communities to achieve multiple livelihood outcomes.

### **2.11.3 The unit of analysis**

The unit of analysis in livelihoods investigation is likely to be an identifiable social group (George, 1997). He goes on to highlight that it is critical not to assume homogeneity in populations or within households themselves. This suggests that households and the general population should not be evaluated individually as social divisions. These social divisions may include those relating to class, caste, age, ethnic origin, gender. They can only be defined and agreed through an iterative process of participatory enquiry at community level.

### **2.11.4 Building on strengths**

The livelihood focused development efforts start with an analysis of strengths rather than needs as per its principle (George, 1997). The key objective will be to remove the constraints to the realisation of potential. This infers that identifying community strengths rather than needs helps build their confidence which is an essential ingredient for the achievement of own objectives.

### **2.11.5 Macro-micro links**

Development activity tends to focus on either the macro or the micro level (George, 1997). However, livelihoods approach attempts to bridge the gap between the macro and micro level, emphasising the importance of macro level policy and institutions to the livelihood options of communities and individuals. Poverty elimination is an enormous challenge that will only be overcome by working at multiple levels, ensuring that micro

level activity informs the development of policy and an effective enabling environment, and those macro level structures and processes support people to build upon their own strengths (Ashley & Carney, 1999).. This suggests that the poverty reduction programmes be addressed at multiple level structures and processes to increase community resilience.

#### **2.11.6 Dynamic**

External support must recognise the dynamic nature of livelihood strategies, respond flexibly to changes in people's situation, and develop longer-term commitments (Ashley & Carney, 1999). There is need for players in the poverty reduction to understand and learn from change so that it can support positive patterns of change and help mitigate negative patterns. It explicitly recognises the effects on livelihoods of external shocks and more predictable, but not necessarily less damaging, trends. It calls for ongoing investigation and an effort to uncover the nature of complex, two-way cause and effect relationships and iterative chains of events (George, 1997). This suggests that flexibility to changes in people's situations is a very important strategy when it comes to poverty reduction.

#### **2.11.7 Sustainability**

SL approaches must be underpinned by a commitment to poverty eradication (George, 1997). Although they can, in theory, be applied to the work with any stakeholder group, activities should be designed to maximise livelihood benefits for the poor. George further suggests four key dimensions to sustainability, namely economic, institutional, social and environmental sustainability. This indicates that sustainability in a community can only be measured by the community's resilience in the face of external shocks and stresses; ability to stand on its own without external support; ability to maintain long-term productivity of natural resources and not compromise livelihoods of the coming generations. In essence, the successful implementation of SL programmes depends on the promotion of stakeholder participation. The underlying principles infer that development programmes that are worth implementing are those that are people centred, enhance community resilience and allow communities to fully participate in all stages of the project cycle.

## **2.12 Weaknesses of the *Department for International Development (DFID)* Model**

Since its emergence in 1998, the DFID framework has been used for planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluation of a number of development projects, but few research projects have so far been using it. Despite the success stories scored by the model (Eyhorn, 2007) found the following substantial shortcomings in the theoretical base and the practical application of the livelihood framework developed by DFID:

- It does not encourage a holistic understanding of the complexity and diversity of livelihood from an actor's perspective, hereafter referred to as the 'inner realities' of a livelihood system.
- It does not shed much light on the process of decision-making leading to specific livelihood strategies.
- The DFID framework does not offer an explicit platform for dealing with crucial elements of decision-making, such as people's individual orientations and collective worldviews or their experience and emotional attachments.
- Current areas of concern also include power relations and gender issues.

## **2.13 Formulating Development Interventions That Contribute To Sustainable Development**

The success of development initiatives that can greatly contribute to sustainable development, hinges on the choice of paths taken by the implementing organization. Nadel (2007) suggests the following five paths that organizations can adopt:

- The first step is to formulate and promote poverty oriented policies, which develop the poor in all spheres (pro-poor growth) and favourable labour markets.

- The second strategy is to improve services to the poor, by initiating pro-poor institutional change, for example increased organisational efficiency and effectiveness of public and private service providers, and political participation.
- Assisting directly in the strategy development of households for example for diversification, empowerment enhanced coping capacities, and favouring gender balance. This no doubt can improve coping capacities of poor people, and enhance their capabilities to pursue more sustainable livelihood strategies, such as negotiations skills, education, and crop insurance.
- Promoting income access opportunities by increasing income, enhancing status and so forth. This move can facilitate access to existing opportunities for people constrained in their access to opportunities such as, access to credit systems, markets, new technologies and so forth.
- Reducing vulnerability through, mitigation or preventing risks and reducing threats. This will be achieved through reducing exposure to risks by tackling them directly and thus reducing poor people's vulnerabilities. For example vulnerabilities resulting from natural hazards such as floods, or caused by seasonal price fluctuations.

In actual development practice, an engagement in one of the five options may call for complementary support in one or several fields of the other five options. For example access to micro-credit might first require establishing adequate lending rules on the side of the banks, supplemented by empowering small farmers to handle credits and, in addition to that, changing re-financing policies of the national bank of the country. The success of these approaches depends on proper and effective targeting and beneficiary selection criteria. Figure 2.5 summarizes the paths to be followed when implementing SL projects.

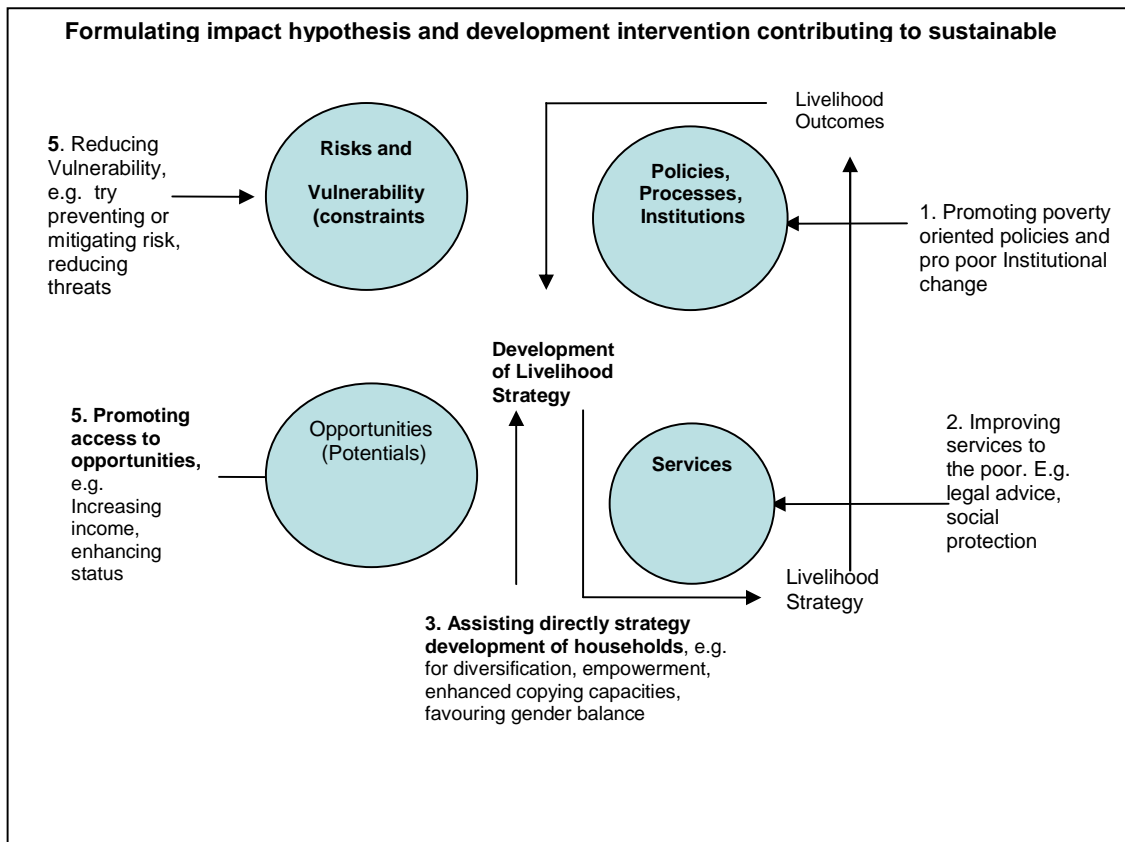


Figure 2.5: Paths to be followed when implementing SL projects

(Source: Nadel, 2007)

## 2.14 Case Studies of Disaster Risk Reduction Initiatives

Since the adoption of the Hyogo Framework, the main goal of hazard planning and disaster risk reduction has slightly shifted to focusing more on building community resilience rather than only reducing vulnerability (Mayunga, 2009). Based on the premise of the Hyogo framework developing countries, NGOs and UN Agencies have taken steps to reduce disaster risk and build community resilience. The sample case studies are from regions and countries where such initiatives have been successfully implemented.

### 2.14.1 Case studies from Asia

- **Bangladesh**

*Risk reduction boosts livelihood security in disaster-prone district: supporting communities affected by river erosion in Bangladesh*

Natural hazards, vulnerability and people's suffering are a part of life in Gaibandha, one of Bangladesh's most disaster-prone districts. In remote northern Gaibandha, located at the confluence of the two major rivers of Tista and Brahmaputra, riverbank erosion leads to permanent loss of land for cultivation and shelter. People often have to live in areas with minimal or no basic services such as safe water, sanitation, health and education.

The district's remoteness and the complexity of its problems result in social marginalization, child labour, exploitation, child marriage, early pregnancies and human rights violations. Ill health, malnutrition and mortality rates are high among women and children. Men migrate to other areas in search of employment, leaving women and children at home more vulnerable. In 2004, practical Action Bangladesh initiated a five-year alternative risk reduction and management project to address disaster and development issues, particularly among disadvantaged communities living on the edge of mighty rivers. The project also seeks to develop a sustainable model for replication in other parts of the country.

The project has increased the earning capacity of over 20 000 households and developed innovative technologies in areas such as disaster warning, rapid evacuation, housing and sustaining livelihoods. The beneficiaries now have a range of mechanisms to cope with disaster risk and poverty in a sustainable manner. Their average income has risen and men's migration has reduced significantly (ISDR, 2008).

- **India**

*Reducing risk in poor urban areas to protect shelters, hard-won assets and livelihoods*

In two low-income migrant worker neighbourhoods of New Delhi, the socio-economic status of the residents makes them highly vulnerable to frequent fires. This is due to the nature of their housing materials, and their inability to live in less vulnerable areas. In the hot summer season fires destroy their shelters and assets, locking them into a cycle of poverty. To help minimize and manage risks in the two neighbourhoods, a three-year project was initiated in April 1997 by to help the residents design and commission a community fire post. The fire post provided better fire safety to the entire community. The project helped the residents protect their shelters, their assets and savings and, in some cases, their livelihoods. Their reduced vulnerability helped them to gradually increase their savings and convert their temporary squatter houses into permanent units (ISDR, 2008).

- **Indonesia**

*Reducing flood impacts on community health and livelihoods: a water well rehabilitation project: Community Association for Disaster Management*

Flood is a recurrent hazard in the southern part of Belu District in the Indonesian province of East Nusa Tenggara 13. Following a major flood in March-April 2006, the Community Association for Disaster Management (locally known as PMPB) carried out a post-disaster assessment. The assessment showed that the affected communities were completely unaware of flood resilience measures.

The area has great agricultural potential, but is hampered by people's inability to meet their basic needs, by lack of access to markets, fluctuation of market prices and by lack of clean water. These factors, combined with flood impact, result in marginalization of women, poor health and an endemic poverty cycle. In this context, a simple, feasible and convincing entry point had to be identified to not only reduce flood risk, but also to help break the poverty cycle as a stronger

incentive for community participation. PMPB identified water well rehabilitation as the place to start.

The participatory process of developing, commissioning and maintaining water wells weaned the villagers off fatalistic perceptions of disasters and helped them address their vulnerability and economic conditions, which were linked to lack of clean water (ISDR, 2008).

- **Nepal**

*The shallow tube well: a tool for fighting drought and poverty: Practical Action - Nepal (In partnership with MADE/Nepal)*

In some parts of the Chitwan District in southern Nepal, drought-prone communities face two major disaster risks: not enough water and too much water. Owing to poverty, they are compelled to live at the confluence of two rivers where they are extremely vulnerable to flood and water inundation. Meanwhile, their agriculture is still primarily dependant on seasonal rainfall, meaning hot and dry summers cause massive crop losses through drought. Few coping strategies have been available. In good seasons, when rain was enough for summer crops to be grown, food was stored for the inevitable monsoon floods. In poor seasons, wage labouring was the only option available.

In March 2007, Practical Action launched an initiative to increase communities' social and economic capacity to respond to and cope with drought, through more resilient livelihood options. The initiative focused on establishing shallow tube wells. A shallow tube well is a tube or pipe vertically set into the ground at a depth of six to 18 meters, which suction-lifts water from shallow aquifers. The shallow tube wells have enabled the communities to reduce their vulnerability to drought while increasing their incomes, making them more resilient to other disasters (ISDR, 2008).



- **Pakistan**

*Integrating disaster risk reduction into post-disaster livelihood rehabilitation: The Concern Worldwide Pakistan Programme (CWPP) Concern Worldwide - Pakistan20 (In partnership with HAASHAR)*

Poverty and the associated lack of preparedness for disasters contributed to major loss of life, integrating disaster risk reduction into post-disaster livelihood rehabilitation; severe damage to property and trauma in a northern Pakistan village of Mansehra District. It was one of the areas most affected by the 2005 South Asia earthquake. The earthquake depleted human resources and destroyed property and essential infrastructure, increasing dependency, reinforcing chronic poverty among the poorest, and temporarily forcing others into poverty. Limited capacity to cope with future disasters needed to be addressed. In January 2007, Concern Worldwide initiated a livelihood rehabilitation project into which disaster risk reduction was integrated. The project, still under way, has helped restore people's lives to normal and restart their businesses, as well as reducing their vulnerabilities. Their resilience to disasters has increased, as has the sustainability of their livelihoods (ISDR, 2008).

#### **2.14.2 Case studies from South America,**

##### **Bolivia**

*Developing vulnerable communities' emergency preparedness in drought-prone southern Bolivia: International in Bolivia*

Unlike other regions of the Central American state of Bolivia, the Chaco, in the southern part of the country, is a flat, drought-prone territory of scrubland and thorny trees. Until recently, its rural communities were not prepared for emergency situations, resulting in the loss of livelihood assets such as homes, livestock and crops during disasters. Such losses aggravated poverty and, in some cases, triggered migration. The poorest people were most affected.

To cope with the impact of disasters on their livelihoods, the communities would seek assistance from municipal governments and local organisations, in addition to inter-family solidarity and networks that were often their first survival mechanisms. In the light of this situation, Care International in Bolivia implemented a 14-month initiative to develop community emergency preparedness with a risk management approach, targeting 5 500 community members and involving 500 people including municipal and school officials. Although the initiative was not a development project, it helped reduce poverty by minimizing disaster impact on the vulnerable communities' economic, social and natural capital (ISDR, 2008).

#### **2.14.2.2 El Salvador**

*The National Network for Disaster Risk Reduction in Central America National network for DRR helps curb poverty Oxfam America (In partnership with the National Network for DRR)*

Poverty is widespread in the Central American country of El Salvador. A 2005 USAID report states that “El Salvador still suffers from poverty, with approximately 49 per cent of the rural population living below the poverty line”, adding that “61 per cent of the rural population has no access to water piped into the home”. This population continues to be at high risk from disasters. A loss of crops or a damaged home is enough to push a family into extreme poverty – a lack of resilience prevents real recovery.

After hurricane Mitch devastated Central America in 1998, the regional governments, civil society organisations NGOs and international NGOs came together to address disaster vulnerabilities. A Regional Network for Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) was established, along with national networks for DRR in Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and El Salvador. With support from partners including Oxfam America, the El Salvador national network had successfully advocated for government mitigation projects, as well as other prevention and preparedness efforts. A Law for Civil Protection and Disaster Prevention and Mitigation was also adopted in 2005.

The El Salvador national network has contributed to a shift in the political discourse, from a sole focus on emergency response to growing emphasis on prevention and mitigation. This has helped protect the population from the devastating effects of disasters and the burden of recovery that trap them in a cycle of poverty (ISDR, 2008).

### **2.14.2.3 Honduras**

#### *Reducing vulnerability and poverty through disaster mitigation: Central American Mitigation Initiative (CAMI)*

Poverty has reduced community resilience in Honduras, Ecuador and Guatemala to such an extent that poor households and communities are unable to cope with even the smallest shock, let alone a disaster. In turn, such reduced community resilience to disaster has further aggravated poverty.

To help break this cycle, the international NGO World Vision initiated a project called the Central American Mitigation Initiative (CAMI) in 1998 in Honduras to help integrate emergency response and disaster risk reduction into development. The project has reduced vulnerabilities, and addressed the causes of disaster and poverty through work on mitigation and livelihoods. World Vision expanded the project to Ecuador and Nicaragua in 2003, renaming it the Community Emergency Response/Disaster Mitigation Project (CERDM).

The second phase of the CERDM project began in 2007 and would extend its activities to Colombia and Guatemala. Efforts are being made to secure funding to implement it in all 14 countries of the Latin American/Caribbean Region. So far, the CAMI project has established viable mitigation programmes in 291 communities across three countries - Honduras, Ecuador and Nicaragua. Community teams have been recognized by government offices as viable partners in disaster response.

The communities demonstrated their ability to respond to disasters, and municipal authorities have incorporated community risk management into their development plans. The project, which is replicable, helps communities identify

their risks and vulnerabilities, then find alternatives to reduce them through wealth creation activities (ISDR, 2008).

### **2.14.3 Cases studies from Africa**

#### **2.14.3.1 Kenya**

*Disaster preparedness poised to help reduce poverty in drought-prone area: Community-based rock rainwater harvesting and storage (German Agro Action, January, 2011)*

Poor communities in Kitui District, eastern Kenya, have no choice but to try to survive in their dry and drought-prone areas, where they are burdened by chronic malnutrition and lack of resources. The current increase in drought frequency and severity has triggered a downward spiral in disaster vulnerability and poverty. In this context, a 'Community-Based Rock Rainwater Harvesting and Storage' project was initiated in October 2006 by Welthungerhilfe to increase the capacity of the most vulnerable communities to withstand recurring droughts.

The project focused on drought preparedness through sustainable access to water, improving health. The 14-month project was implemented in close collaboration with other initiatives aiming to reduce poverty. Access to clean drinking water was the top priority in the targeted areas, and solving this particular problem was seen as a way to address many other problems. Drought preparedness focusing on access to and availability of drinking water was the best way to begin enabling and supporting poverty reduction (ISDR, 2008).

#### **2.14.3.2 Liberia**

*Reducing flood risk through a job creation scheme: Mercy Corps*

Heavy rains occur regularly in the West African state of Liberia, yet drainage systems have not been maintained for decades due to factors including lack of funds, years of neglect and misrule and the civil war. As a result, flooding has triggered recurrent disasters in both rural and urban settings. Cleaning the drains was not a priority for government officials or citizens, since nobody had the

required resources. However, after the international NGO Mercy Corps raised the possibility of cash-for-work options, government officials embraced the idea.

In September 2006, a one-year project was launched in five counties to clear and rehabilitate drainage systems. This significantly increased the flow of rainwater and reduced the risk of localized flooding and related health risks. The project also addressed local needs, including providing clean water through water well rehabilitation and improving market access by clearing roads and constructing small bridges. In addition, the work involved contributed to short-term employment through the creation of cash-for work jobs (ISDR, 2008).

### **2.14.3.3 Malawi**

#### *Building Disaster Resilient Communities: Drought mitigation Initiative*

Many poor families in Phalombe District, southern Malawi, are dependent on rain-fed agriculture for their basic nutritional intake, and financial assets are either non-existent or very limited. In times of drought, they are forced to sell their assets to purchase food. This depletes their asset base which then needs to be replenished. Another coping strategy employed is migration of male family members, for example, to Mozambique. This exposes the men to risks such as HIV/AIDS and exacerbates drought impact on those left behind.

In January 2007, the Evangelical Lutheran Development Service (ELDS) initiated a community based pilot drought mitigation project targeting some 100 poor rural families in the district. The project, which is part of Christian Aid's ongoing global project 'Building Disaster Resilient Communities', tackles the water supply problem by channelling mountain spring water for irrigation, and providing better access to drinking water. The project has directly improved the food security of the poor families throughout the year and particularly in times of drought. By addressing the key problem of asset depletion among poor families in times of drought, the project directly intervenes in the food budget and ensures that families have a stable nutritional intake throughout the year.

While the project was initially designed as a drought mitigation initiative, it has become clear that the risk reduction work directly contributes to poverty reduction by ensuring that the families' productive assets are protected and continue to generate income during crises (ISDR, 2008).

#### **2.14.3.4 Zambia**

##### *Providing nutrition curbs poverty of access*

Providing nutrition curbs poverty of access. In Zambia in 2006, Practical Action Southern Africa, in partnership with Development Aid from People to People (DAPP) implemented the Food Security Initiative for the communities affected by HIV and AIDS. The main objective of the initiative was to enhance household food and nutrition security of beneficiaries of Zambia's Kabwe and Kapiri-Mposhi districts. The other aim of the initiative was to reduce dependency on food aid through increased food production and income earning opportunities.

Beneficiaries received training in conservation farming and inputs to kick start the project during the first six months. As a result, the seasonal period of food deficit has been reduced by 50% for the 2 000 families targeted by the project. Two thousand PLWHA and their families are now producing a large proportion of their own food. Food access from own production has increased to a minimum of eight months for ground nuts, Soya beans, cow peas, sweet potatoes and cassava, whilst garden produce is available all the year round (Nyathi, 2009).

#### **2.14.3.5 Mozambique**

##### *Protecting livelihoods with local warning and response systems*

*InWEnt17 (Capacity Building International): in partnership with the National Disaster Management Institute of Mozambique (INGC18).*

Mozambique is one of the poorest countries in the world and one of the most frequently and worst affected by natural hazards. Most of its people depend on subsistence farming that is highly vulnerable to floods, cyclones and droughts.

Moreover, poor housing, lack of education, shortage of health services and poor communication and transport facilities make the population particularly vulnerable. In 2000, the heaviest rains in 50 years, combined with four cyclones, led to an unprecedented flood disaster that left some 800 people dead and some 4.5 million affected. This disaster, as well as others in the following years, reinforced the already existing cycle of poverty, and eroded development gains.

No warning system was in place, and it is only recently that efforts were made to develop systematic coping mechanisms and strategies. In June 2007, a programme was launched by the country's National Disaster Management Institute (INGC) to help build disaster-resilient communities, as part of its National Master Plan for Disaster Risk Management and Reduction. The programme sought to reduce community vulnerabilities through mechanisms such as local disaster management committees and local warning and response systems. It was expected that by November 2008, the programme would have supported some 60 000 community members living in high-risk areas (ISDR, 2008).

#### **2.14.4 Lessons learnt and achievements**

The twelve projects improved the lives of beneficiaries in a number of ways, thereby meeting the objectives of the Hyogo Framework and the Millennium Development Goals.

- The Bangladesh project increased the earning capacity of over 20 000 households and developed innovative technologies in areas such as disaster warning, rapid evacuation, housing and sustaining livelihoods. The beneficiaries acquired a range of mechanisms to cope with disaster risk and poverty in a sustainable manner, reduction in men's migration due rise in income.
- In Bolivia the projects helped reduce poverty by minimizing disaster impact on the vulnerable communities' economic, social and natural capital.

- The El Salvador national network project has contributed to a shift in the political discourse, from a sole focus on emergency response to growing emphasis on prevention and mitigation. This has helped protect the population from the devastating effects of disasters and the burden of recovery that trap them in a cycle of poverty.
- In Honduras the communities demonstrated their ability to respond to disasters, and municipal authorities have incorporated community risk management into their development plans. The project developed in the communities the ability to identify their risks and vulnerabilities, and then find alternatives to reduce them through wealth creation activities.
- The Indian project helped the residents protect their shelters, their assets and savings and, in some cases, their livelihoods. Their reduced vulnerability helped them to gradually increase their savings and convert their temporary squatter houses into permanent units.
- In Indonesia the participatory process of developing, commissioning and maintaining water wells weaned the villagers off fatalistic perceptions of disasters and helped them address their vulnerability and economic conditions, which were linked to lack of clean water.
- The Liberian project also addressed local needs, including providing clean water through water well rehabilitation and improving market access by clearing roads and constructing small bridges. In addition, the work involved contributed to short-term employment through the creation of cash-for work jobs.
- In Malawi the project was initially designed as a drought mitigation initiative, it has become clear that the risk reduction work directly contributes to poverty reduction by ensuring that the families' productive assets are protected and continue to generate income during crises.
- In Nepal the shallow tube wells project have enabled the communities to reduce their vulnerability to drought while increasing their incomes, making them more resilient to other disasters.



- In Pakistan the post disaster livelihood rehabilitation project, has helped restore people's lives to normal and restart their businesses, as well as reducing their vulnerabilities. Their resilience to disasters has increased, as has the sustainability of their livelihoods.

In general terms all the implemented projects increased the communities' capacities, provided shelter, safe drinking water, and protected productive assets, created jobs, increased incomes and access to food. With reference to (MDG1), Eradication of Poverty and Hunger, the projects have seen an increase in income and diversification of income sources, particularly for the socially-excluded group.

## **2.15 Targeting**

Targeting is a very critical component in all development efforts that can lead to project failure if not done well. For targeting to be effective it is to be based on principles of humanity, neutrality and impartiality and enhance accountability (Sphere, 2004). Targeting is restricting the coverage of an intervention to those people who are perceived to be most at risk, in order to maximise the benefit of intervention whilst minimising the cost (Jaspers & Young 1992).

According to Sharp (1998), targeting is a process of defining, identifying and reaching the intended recipients of aid. The term, process, implies that it is a continuous management activity. Jaspers and Young (1992) are of the opinion that targeting is done to maximise the benefit of intervention while minimising the cost. This infers that targeting is meant to define, identify and reach those considered to be the neediest in the community. For targeting to be judged as perfect it would include all the needy (zero exclusion error) and only the needy (zero inclusion error).

## **2.16 Community Resilience in the Event of Disasters**

The intimate connections between disaster recovery and the resilience of affected communities have become common features of disaster risk reduction programmes. Increasing attention is now paid to the capacity of disaster-affected communities to 'bounce back' or to recover with little or no external assistance following a disaster, hence the need for a disaster risk reduction culture that emphasizes resilience rather than just need or vulnerability.

Disasters represent not only a physical event but also the social influences that are interwoven with the event (Ronan *et al.*, 2005). All human beings possess some level of resilience regardless of their social status in the society. Resilience is the capacity of a system, a community or society potentially exposed to hazards to adapt, by resisting or changing in order to maintain an acceptable level of functioning and structure UNISDR (2005).

Community and individual resilience is determined by the degree to which the social system is capable of organising itself to learning from the past disasters for better future protection and to improve risk reduction measures (Manyena, 2006). Ronan *et al.*, (2005) concur with Manyena's definition, when they suggest that the way people prepare for, respond to and cope with natural, technological or mass violence is linked to how well a community can bounce back after a major disaster. According to Glicken (2004), resilience involves ensuring that those community members have the resources, capabilities necessary to utilize these physical and economic resources in a manner that minimizes disruption and facilitates growth. These definitions infer that resiliency is the process of adapting well in the face of adversity, trauma, tragedy, threats or other significant sources of stress. The sense of community, coping style, self efficacy and social support can be used to predict community resilience to hazard effects.

### **2.16.1 Self efficacy in times of disasters**

According to Bandura (1995), self-efficacy refers to the belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations. In other words, self-efficacy is a person's belief in his or her ability to succeed in a particular situation. Benight (1999) describes this concept as the perception of one's

capability for managing stressful or threatening environmental demand while, Bandura (1994) holds the notion that beliefs determine how people think, behave and feel. Self-efficacy is a central factor in the self-regulation process. Definitions of the theory suggest that people with high self-efficacy are those who believe they can perform well are more likely to view difficult tasks as something to be mastered rather than something to be avoided.

#### **2.16.2 Sense of community in times of need**

These are feelings of belonging and attachment for people and places which encourage involvement in community response following a disaster, and increases access to, and utilization of social networks. Individuals who perceive themselves as having no investment in their community may develop a level of detachment which, following a natural disaster, may trigger feelings of isolation, encourage learned helplessness and heighten vulnerability (Bacharach & Zautra, 1985; Bishop, *et al.*, 2000).

#### **2.16.3 Coping style for survival in the event of a disaster**

Coping capacity refers to the means by which people or organizations use available resources and abilities to face adverse consequences that would lead to disaster (UN-ISDR, 2003). The coping style provides insight into the degree of community fragmentation and, consequently, the level of support likely to exist for collective intervention or mitigation strategies. It influences how people respond to hazard effects. The style can be in the following dimensions suggested by (Bacharach & Zanitra, 1985; Bandura, 1997; Bishop, *et al.*, 2000; Lyons, 1991; Yates, *et al.*, 1999), namely problem-focused coping and emotions-focused. Problem-focused coping entails engaging in activities that confront the problem, while emotions-focused dimension engages in activities that suppress or deny emotional reactions without attempting to tackle the problem.

#### **2.16.4 Resilience and preparedness**

Communities that are vulnerable to hazard occurrence are at risk from a variety of consequences of that hazard. These consequences include physical risk to persons and property as well as social and economic risks. Measures taken to reduce vulnerability have to be referred by different terms, including hazard adjustment, hazard mitigation or

risk reduction, emergency preparedness or readiness (Ronan *et al.*, 2005). To achieve this, resilience is needed.

Resilience refers to the capacity of a system, community or society potentially exposed to hazards to adapt, by resisting or changing in order to reach and maintain an acceptable level of functioning and structure (UN-ISDR, 2003). In addition to playing a role in promoting an ability to resist and recover from natural hazard effects, these variables may influence hazard adjustment adoption. While perception of a threat remains a pertinent precursor, the key factors are action-outcome expectations and self-efficacy judgments.

Self efficacy also determines the amount of effort and perseverance invested in risk reduction behaviours. This behaviour is more likely to be sustained if supported by the social and structural environment (Tobin, 1999). The social and structural environment in this case refers to the community development process, hence the need to marry it with resilience and preparedness to enhance its effectiveness.

#### **2.16.5 Resilience and Development**

The more the people get involved in community activities that engender a sense of community efficacy and problem solving; the greater will be their resilience to adversity. While this issue is required, this observation opens up the possibility of hazard mitigation strategies being linked to community development activities with specific hazard education and reduction initiatives (Bishop B, Paton D, Syme G, and Nancarrow B, 2000).

#### **2.17 Fighting Poverty and Risk Reduction Strategies**

The elimination of poverty is a key concern for all those interested in the development of poor countries and now provides the main justification for promoting economic growth and development (Dollar & Kray, 2001). Poverty reduction work in Zimbabwe is governed by several international frameworks such as the Millennium declaration, Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the International Development goals to which the country is a signatory (UNDP, 2000). Through the Millennium Declaration and

the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) the world is addressing the many dimensions of human development, such as halving by 2015 the proportion of people living in extreme poverty. The MDGs are

:

- MDG 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
- MDG 2: Achieve universal primary education
- MDG 3: Promote gender equality and empower women
- MDG 4: Reduce child mortality
- MDG 5: Improve maternal health
- MDG 6: Combat HIV and AIDS, malaria and other diseases
- MDG 7: Ensure environmental sustainability
- MDG 8: Develop global partnership for development (UNDP, 2000).

Developing countries are working to create their own national poverty eradication strategies based on local needs and priorities. The UNDP advocates for the development of nationally-owned solutions and helps to make them effective through ensuring a greater voice for poor people, expanding access to productive assets and economic opportunities, and linking poverty programmes with countries' international economic and financial policies (UNDP, 2000). At the same time, UNDP contributes to efforts at reforming trade, debt relief and investment arrangements to better support national poverty reduction and make globalisation work for poor people.

### **2.17.1 Fighting poverty**

Many writers have suggested a variety of meanings to the term fighting poverty. According to Nadel, 2007 fighting poverty means:

- Empowering the disadvantaged and enhancing their capacity to mitigate disparities and stop the advance of impoverishment.
- Building on the capacities, experiences, and potentials of the disadvantaged.
- Establishing priorities in favour of the poor and disadvantaged, and in so doing defending their point of view and respecting their point of view.
- Fostering organizations operating in the interest of the poor.

- Working at all levels on national as well as multilateral-towards a change in the structures and framework conditions leading to the discrimination, impoverishment and exclusion of individual and social groups.
- Encouraging effective poverty-reduction policies.
- Advocating for the, poor in the defence of their rights and in the denunciation of the misuse of power.
- Confronting the conflicts that may emerge in aligning ourselves with the poor and disadvantaged and helping to deal with them peacefully in the interest of the poor.
- Utilizing disasters, crises and conflicts as an additional opportunity to shake up and bring about a new arrangement in the scope for action.

The World Bank, (2007) suggests three poverty strategies, which are; reformatory programmes on macroeconomic management, incentive programmes to promote competitiveness of the market and initiating poverty reduction programmes. Poverty reduction efforts in Zimbabwe are funded by UNDP, DANIDA, SIDA, DFID and USAID through UN agencies, international and national NGOs.

### **2.17.2 Reducing the poverty of money**

Poverty of money can be reduced by improving economic capabilities to the poor to enable them to acquire assets; enhance their food security, material well-being and social status. This can be achieved by providing credit facilities to the poor as was the case in Bangladesh's "The Grameen Bank Case - micro credit". Micro credit has proved to be an effective tool for alleviating poverty (The Virtual Library of Micro credit, 1997).

The Grameen Bank targeted the poorest of the poor, with a particular emphasis on women, who received 95% of the bank loans. Women were described as a suitable clientele because they had less access to traditional credit lines and salaries: they were more likely to be credit constrained and they had limited share of power in household decision-making. Lending to women also generates considerable effects, including

empowerment of a marginalised segment of society (Yunus & Jolis, 1998). According to Yunus (2004), women represented less than one percent of borrowers from commercial banks.

The culture of the Grameen Bank reinforces access and resilience of communities. Nkum (1998) concurs with the concept of provision of credit to the poor as a way of reducing poverty amongst this group. However, this concept is not applicable in Zimbabwe due to the fact that creditors need collateral, which the poor usually do not have. Consequently they stand to lose out in these schemes, hence the perpetuation of their poverty. This also becomes a major constraint for micro-enterprises of the poor. The formal sector credit institutions have found the poor unbankable, several community- and trade-based savings and credit groups have proven that not only are they bankable, but that they are much more likely to repay their loans than upper-income groups (UN ESCAP, 2000).

Reducing livelihood vulnerability to natural hazards is the key to both eradicating income poverty and improving equity, and to improving food security and reducing hunger. Reducing disaster impacts on the macro-economy will promote growth, fiscal stability and state (UN-ISDR, 2005)

### **2.17.3 Reducing the poverty of access**

This type of poverty can be reduced by increasing human capacities through the provision of health facilities, education, nutrition and shelter. Education is a number one factor in fostering the means to eradicate poverty (Mutubuki, 2003). Fafunwa (in Ukeje, 1979) is of the opinion that African reconstruction, rebirth and development can only become a reality when the African is prepared to place more emphasis on technical education. This infers that skills acquired from vocational colleges need to have to produce skilled personnel that will be self-reliant and enterprising.

In Zimbabwe in 2007, Practical Action Southern Africa, and other International non-governmental organizations provided shelter assistance and constructed 372 houses for vulnerable families in Sakubva in Mutare, Mbare in Harare and St. Mary's in Chitungwiza. The beneficiary households worked in turn on the construction of each other's buildings, supported by a qualified builder. The vulnerable groups took the lead in

the construction of their own homes, with technical training and material support from Practical Action Southern Africa.

The organization's approach was towards working with the beneficiary groups as the key resources for training and labour in addressing the shortage of suitable housing stock in their communities. The initiative's aim was to equip the community members with on the job building skills, which they would be able to provide as a service within their community, at a fee. A total 25 youths were trained in basic construction under the Mutare project (Dongozi, 2008). This project increased human capabilities based on shelter and education. With the acquired skill they could earn an income.

#### **2.17.4 Reducing the poverty of power**

Reducing the poverty of power can be achieved by observing human rights, granting political freedom and participation to all people without fear or favour. Community empowerment is critical in reducing poverty. Empowerment means enhancing the capacity of the poor people to influence the state institutions that affect their lives, by strengthening their participation in political processes and local decision making (World Development, 2000/2001).

Keiffer (1984) and Patson and Bishop (1996) bring another perception of community empowerment strategies based on community participation, enhancing perceived control, facilitating community identification of problems, and developing strategies to solve or contain problems in ways consistent with the needs, systems and values of a specific community. To sustain empowerment, a consensus approach to decision is recommended. Participation in identifying shared problem, identifying and implementing solutions to them facilitates the development of problem-focused coping, a sense of community and commitment to action. In essence participation removes the political barriers – legal and social barriers against particular groups, and building the assets of the poor people to enable them to engage effectively in markets.

Experience has shown that whenever the poor have been organized, united and in possession of technical and managerial skills, they can improve their own conditions and break the cycle of poverty (UN ESCAP, 2000). This suggests that the poor have the



capability to resist stronger groups; ability to influence decision-making and build equitable partnerships with governments and other actors in society when they have been organized. These coalitions can strengthen the bargaining positions of the poor and also assist them in building beneficial partnerships. Governmental and Non-Governmental Organizations that assist the urban poor in acquiring such skills help to empower them.

One of the key components of power and wealth creation is access to information and knowledge and the ability to use that information or knowledge for economic or social gain. Programmes and initiatives that seek to provide information to the poor in easily understood media and forms can greatly contribute to their empowerment. A free flow of information also contributes to transparency in decision-making. The Zimbabwean government has tried to empower its people through programmes such as; education with production, land redistribution exercise, and so forth (Mayunga, 2009). This information of targeting beneficiaries is to be understandable if it is to benefit the groups and communities.

#### **2.17.5 Capacity-building/protective capabilities**

Capacity building comes in handy in alleviating all forms of poverty that are continually affecting the communities. Capacity building entails removing barriers that restrict their access to finance, housing, infrastructure, education and other services (UNESCAP 2000). This infers that capacity building encourages communities to organize themselves and to acquire skills and information to enable them to enter into equitable partnerships with other actors in society. In Pakistan a Pak-Swiss Malakand Fruit and Vegetable Development Project, which aimed at undertaking a sustainable management plan to respond to the growing threats, was established. It aimed at improving the supply and maintaining the quality seeds and fruit plants (Swiss Development Corporation, 2000).

It was to become Pakistan's first certified fruit plant production project. The plan focused on the production of true type, high-yielding, disease- and virus-free fruit and vegetable seeds. As of today, the results from the development initiative are promising. The results show that for a price increase of only two percent to ten percent for locally produced high

quality seeds. There was a 20% to 30% increase in yields (Asmatullah, 2000). The capacity of the community to develop high quality seeds suitable for the country was enhanced.

It is of paramount importance for government institutions to create an environment that encourages all stakeholders to learn from one another approaches and techniques that address specific issues. The UNICEF Manual (2002), concurs with this idea of capacity building, by further elaborating that capacity is achieved through strengthening and protecting a community's abilities to take control of its destiny and manage and direct its own development. Capacity building strengthens and protects what the community does, be it setting its goals and directing its own development.

It needs not to be emphasized that that capacity building should promote community participation. Community participation is the community's active involvement in matters affecting them and deciding on the actions to be taken. For example (Bongo, 2003) points out that in the spirit of enhancing community participation and ownership, the government of Kenya has developed a community based surveillance questionnaire that collects information on the movement of pastoralists and the length of time and distance to fetch water supplies. This early warning system forms part of a wider natural resource base and drought management programme that supports building institutional capacity for contingency planning.

#### **2.17.6 Do it yourself approach**

Do it yourself: this approach is mostly used by a Zimbabwean local NGO named Organisation of Rural Associations for Progress (ORAP). This approach is based on the philosophy that revolves around the concept of "zenzele" do it yourself (ORAP, January 2007). This concept espouses that all development is centred on a human being who has to be empowered through mass consciousness to self-determination. This concept suggests that community initiated projects tend to be sustainable because they are community owned. The approach is opposed to the traditional top down approach in which donors prescribe projects for communities, such as drilling bore holes and establishing nutrition gardens.

### **2.17.7 Protective capabilities**

Protective capabilities help people to withstand economic shocks, natural disasters and conflicts, hence the establishment of a resilient community. A community that takes intentional action to enhance the personal and collective capacity of its citizens and institutions to respond to and to influence the course of social and economic change is resilient (The Community Resilience Manual, 2000).

There is need to spearhead projects that increase the resilience of the communities. One example of improving human capacities is the rural infrastructure development in the village of Islampur, which was funded by The World Bank and the Government of Pakistan. Community participation was a pre-requisite for the success of the initiative. A drainage system and a network of solid roads were achieved. In addition, various water schemes were undertaken (water taps and tanks) to provide the residents with drinking water. Donors provided a large part of the investments required to undertake these initiatives, a principle for community members was to contribute a sum of money - no matter how small - to build local infrastructure and to take responsibility for its operation and maintenance. Local representatives confirm that although this approach was not initially well-received by the community, it is now part of community's policy for future development initiatives (Dir Area Support Project, 1999).

### **2.17.8 Socio-cultural capabilities**

Socio cultural capabilities can be improved through programmes that promote dignity, social status and enhance the value of membership of a society. These can be Community Based Organizations (CBOs) and Village Based Organization (VBOs) such as Stokvel in South and burial societies in Zimbabwe. Stokvel refers to voluntary groups of people where individual members choose to belong. These groups are always formed on the basis of trust between members, friendship and a strong sense of mutual responsibility. The members of such groups agree upon the group's purpose, its rules and its outcomes.

## **2.18 Recent Studies of Poverty Reduction in Zimbabwe**

A study carried out by Marongwe (2009) on the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP) and poverty, concluded that land acquisition, tenure and poverty eradication

should go beyond land itself. The effects of the problem manifest themselves on the economy, the environment, the geo-politics and education in general. Ethical, moral and international legal consideration should form the basis poverty reduction (Marongwe, 2009). The political uncertainties and impasse in 2008 negatively impacted efforts to implement and deliver interventions on poverty reduction and compounded the difficulties in raising resources towards supporting development in Zimbabwe.

Another study carried out in Mangwe's district found out that the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAPS) embarked on by the Government of Zimbabwe from 1991 to 1995 saw a lot of people being retrenched from both the public and private sectors leading to a rise in unemployment levels (Maphosa, 2004). This forced people to migrate to neighbouring countries in search of food and employment. The study further found that 52% of migration from the district to neighbouring countries is for economic reasons, as they do so in search of job opportunities.

Another research by Tshuma (2008) established that beneficiaries were free to participate in the activities done by organizations. However, not so many were taking part in most activities except conservation farming and fertilizer distribution. It also established that minimal participation in most activities minimizes the chances of NGOs meeting their major goals. The study further observed that many organizations put a lot of effort in disaster risk reduction and poverty reduction, but are limited by some factors that come into play.

These factors are climatic change, unstable socio-economic and political environment. There is therefore need for the government and interested parties to fully address these factors in order to achieve poverty reduction and reduce disaster risk. The study highlighted the need for the organization to educate the beneficiaries on the importance of participating in the programmes for development of their skills and capabilities.

## **2.19 Conclusion**

Works by other researchers in Zimbabwe and globally agree that poverty is multidimensional and that amid plenty it is the world's greatest challenge. It is a major

factor in increasing disasters as it increases vulnerability and reduces the community's coping capacity. Furthermore it is the state of the majority of the people; it is both relative and dynamic.

The core dimensions of poverty are; economic capabilities, human capabilities, socio-cultural, political capabilities, and protective capabilities. Poverty is influenced by political forces, inadequate education, prescribed economic policies, economic forces, globalization and the HIV and AIDS. These dimensions make the working, living and social environments of the poor extremely insecure and severely limit the options available to them to improve their lives, hence the need for poverty reduction programmes. Poverty and vulnerability go hand in hand but do not completely overlap.

In policy terms, this means that poverty reduction can help reduce disaster risk, but this requires an in-built proactive focus on addressing such a risk rather than seeing it as just another constraint to work within. Risk Reduction efforts can promote poverty reduction by helping people to avoid the impoverishing effects of disaster (DFID, 2004). In order for the poverty reduction programmes to succeed, they should be: people-centred; responsive and participatory; multi-level; conducted in partnership; sustainable; dynamic and must be underpinned by a commitment to poverty eradication.

Poverty can be reduced through:; empowerment; capacity building; establishing priorities in favour of the poor and disadvantaged; advocacy; knowledge development; utilizing disasters, crises and conflicts as an additional opportunity to shake up and bring about a new arrangement in the scope for action. It is also observed that all human beings possess some form of resilience. They do not wait to be assisted when faced by shocks, but they take the initiative to survive. Poverty risk reduction efforts should enhance community resilience if it is to be a success. Despite the benefits of development, it should be noted that at social level some development paths can generate cultural norms that promote social isolation or political exclusion (Bongo, 2003). Equitable economic growth is necessary for sustained poverty reduction. The poor in Zimbabwe should not only benefit equitably from economic growth, but they should be afforded the opportunity to actively contribute to its generation.

## **Chapter 3**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.0 Introduction**

The previous chapter dealt with the literature review. This chapter discusses the research design, composition of the population from which samples of respondents were randomly selected. It goes on to examine the research instruments used to gather data and how the data was collected, presented and analysed. The research instruments, namely the questionnaire and the interview are briefly examined. The data collecting techniques, data presentation and analysis procedures are discussed. A literature study, supplemented by an empirical investigation, was also used.

#### **3.1 Research Approach and Design**

An extensive literature study was done and followed by the designing of the questionnaires. The research team visited three wards to familiarise with the area. A number of community members were interviewed just to get the feel of what they had to say about NGOs' developmental projects in relation to disaster risk reduction in their respective localities.

#### **3.2 Literature Study**

Poverty reduction was looked at globally and locally. Poverty reduction efforts and risk reduction strategies were also reviewed. An overview of the available literature on poverty reduction and risk reduction was performed. Both local and international sources were used for the literature study. These sources included books, journals, relevant documents and research work from other institutions of higher learning.

### **3.3 Empirical Investigation**

The empirical investigation was based on the findings of the literature study. The questionnaires were used to explore the impact of poverty reduction programmes on reducing disaster risk in Mangwe. Factors that reflect resilience on project beneficiaries were taken note of.

### **3.4 Research Design**

The term, design, denotes plan (Darvil, 2002). This then denotes a research plan. Design in its simple form implies putting together various components of research study to enhance its validity. The study was evaluated using qualitative methods to analyse and address objectives of the study. Qualitative research seeks out the 'why', not the 'how' of its topic through the analysis of unstructured information – things like interview transcripts, emails, notes, feedback forms, photos and videos. It does not just rely on statistics or numbers, which are the domain of quantitative researchers. Qualitative research is used to gain insight into people's attitudes, behaviours, value systems, concerns, motivations, aspirations, culture or lifestyles (Ereaut, 2007). It is used to deepen the understanding of complex social and human factors in ways that could not be understood with numbers (Krelin, 1999).

Leedy (1993:142) also points out that qualitative approach relies on direct observation as well as the summary of different documents and facts, participatory observation unstructured interviewing. This implies that its main goal is to get an understanding of social or human problem from multiple perspectives. It is conducted in a natural setting and involves a process of building a complex and holistic picture of the phenomenon of interest (Mason, 1996; Van der Merwe, 1996:291). The qualitative research design provides various methods of data collection such as interviews, observations, interaction with community members, use of secondary information, reports, official documents as well as the print media.

#### **3.4.1 Population**

Mangwe district has a population of 78 162, male population of 36 056 (46.12%) and female population of 42 110 (53.88%). There are 563 households headed by children less than 19 years old, 1 162 households headed by elderly, 75 years and above (CSO,

Zimbabwe Census 2002). The study was restricted to three wards out of the eighteen. A group of individuals or items that share one or more characteristics from which data can be gathered and analyzed was chosen.

Chikoko and Mhloyi (1995:73) defined population as, “*a well defined group of human beings or other entities*”. With this definition in mind one can conclude that it is a group of human beings that the researcher has a specific interest in. Best and Kahn (1993:3) defined a population as, “*any group of individuals that have one or more characteristics in common that are of interest to the research*”. Ary *et al.* (1996) suggest the target and accessible population.

In this regard the target population is the actual population whom the researcher would prefer to generalise but which is rarely available, while the accessible population is the one that the researcher has access to. The researcher selected the sample of his study from the target population. For the purpose of this study the target population was the eighteen wards of Mangwe. Owing to the large numbers the researcher had to define the target population by eliminating other elements through random sampling of four wards.

#### **3.4.2 Sampling procedures**

The study was mainly interested in getting the community's perceptions on poverty reduction project and disaster risks. The sample of 200 was big enough to ascertain most of the community's perceptions in the area of study. The sample was studied in order to understand the population from which it was drawn. The sample chosen is a small portion of the total set of persons which together, comprise the subject of this study (Seaberg, 1988: 240). In other words a sample is a subject of the total population, which exhibits the characteristics of the population that it represents.

Frankel and Wallen (1996:91) point out that sampling, “*is a process of selecting individuals who will participate in a study observed or questioned*”. The sample of the targeted population was chosen through random sampling method. This method gives everyone in the target population an equal chance of being selected. Every element had an equal probability of inclusion and there was independent selection, which meant that choosing one element first had no influence on other elements that were chosen. Chikoko and Mhloyi (1995:72) state that through the use of random sampling, bias and subjectivity can be avoided and hence the finding generalised. This method was used



due to the fact that it was very simple to apply and the analysis of the data will be reasonably easier than that of a stratified sampling method. The sample size was limited by the time and resources available to conduct the research.

### **3.4.3 Data collection**

Data collection entailed visiting sampled areas to gather views from all categories of respondents about how they perceived the impact of poverty reduction programmes on reducing disaster risk from the year 2002 to 2009. The data required for the research included the demographic details of heads of households; NGO's operating procedures, strengths and weaknesses, and the community's receptions on poverty reduction programmes. A well designed questionnaire was used to solicit all data to be used in the study.

### **3.4.5 Data collection tools**

Two types of data collection tools were used in this research, namely the semi-structured questionnaire and interview. The semi structured questionnaire was used to collect the data. Three research assistants collected data after receiving training on how to administer the questionnaire. In order to minimize bias, interviewers were advised not to put forth their opinions, perceptions and feelings to the interviewees. The questionnaire and the interview were the main tools for gathering data.

### **3.4.6 Questionnaire**

A questionnaire was used to gather data for the study. Chikoko and Mhloyi (1995:96) define a questionnaire as, "*a document containing questions designed to solicit information appropriate for analysis*". Oppenheim (1992:100) concurs with Chikoko and Mhloyi by stating it as, "any data collection instrument-encompassing checklist, attitude scale, and projective techniques rating scale". It can be used to gather information that can be converted into quantitative and qualitative data.

### **3.4.7 Interviews**

The interviews were used to cover up the weaknesses of the questionnaire in that they provided each respondent with a chance to talk rather than write. An interview is a conversation between two or more people (the interviewer and the interviewee) where questions are asked by the interviewer to obtain information from the interviewee

(Wikipedia, 2010). In this instance the interviewer has a face to face confrontation with a respondent or a group of respondents.

Its advantage is that a great deal of information needed in a scientific research can be gathered from respondents, by asking direct questions and the respondents can yield much information. The interview helps the researcher to follow up, lead and thus obtain more data and clarity. The use of this tool helps the interviewer develop rapport and secure relationships with subjects and obtain certain types of information, which subjects might have been reluctant to put in writing.

#### **3.4.8 Data Collection Procedures**

Households were visited in the four wards. Research assistants were introduced to community leaders and the purpose of their presence explained. Sampled households were interviewed following a questionnaire.

#### **3.4.9 Data presentation and analysis**

Quantitative and qualitative data collected was analysed to make it intelligible and interpretable. The purpose of data analysis is to reduce data to an intelligible and interpretable form so that the relations of research problems can be studied tested and conclusions drawn (De Vos *et al.*, 2005).

The questionnaires were coded according to themes contained in specific texts, which included beliefs, experiences and opinions that the respondents would be trying to communicate. Coding is used to transform the information into numerical data that can be analysed by means of statistical methodology (Chikobvu & Venter, 2009). Coding data is the formal representation of analytical thinking. The responses were assigned numbers and then handed over to the statistician for data entry, processing and analysis. Part of the questionnaire, that is open ended questions were manually analysed. Tables and graphs where appropriate, were employed in presentation of results.

#### **3.4.10 Validity and reliability of the study**

There is debate on using validity and reliability, when using qualitative research method. Some scholars say that validity and reliability should be ignored because they are aligned with quantitative research methods and that there are no agreed standards of

validation (The British Psychological Society, 2007). Other scholars argue that validity and reliability are critical to represent reality and truth for qualitative research (Trochim, 2006; The British Psychological Society, 2007). Triangulation was used to validate the research. Data obtained by the research was compared with the information obtained from the literature review.

### **3.5 Ethical Considerations**

The research considered key ethical issues such as freedom of respondents to participate or not in the study. The objectives of the research would be clearly spelt out to them. The respondents were not be coerced to participate in the study. In order to maintain the privacy of respondents, identification was not being required. The interviews were done in the languages best understood by the respondents.

### **3.6 Chapter Summary**

This chapter focused on the research methodology, which included the research design. The population, the sample, the research instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis were defined. The examination and analysis of procedures were dealt with and the choice of the method of analysis was based on the potential to yield relevant and valid results within the limited time available to the researcher. The next chapter focuses on data presentation, analysis and interpretation of the research findings.

## Chapter 4

### RESEARCH FINDINGS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 4.1 Introduction

The report from the respondents is compiled in this chapter, taking into consideration the perceptions of development project beneficiaries and non beneficiaries. A total of 150 questionnaires were administered to the respondents in the three wards and 100% were analysed. This high percentage was attributed to the fact that the questionnaires were administered by research assistants through interviews. Comparisons were also done to show the influence of development projects on the economic and social well-being of the respondents and on disaster risk reduction in the district.

#### 4.2 Background Information about the Respondents

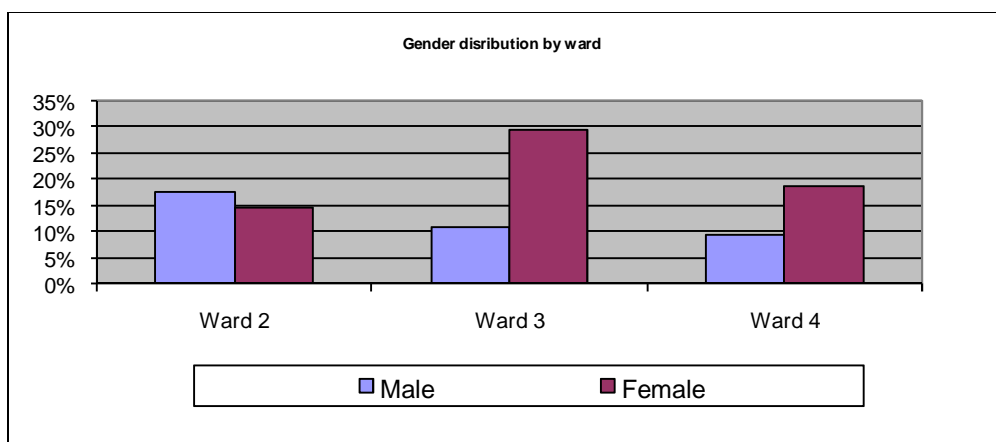


Figure 4.1: Gender distribution by ward

The respondents comprised of both males and females who were either project beneficiaries or non project beneficiaries. It is evident from Figure 4.1 that the majority of respondents that participated in the study, were women, 63% while 37% were men. As illustrated in the figure above, ward 3 had the highest number of respondents, followed by ward 2 and ward 4 respectively. This suggests that development projects are not shared evenly among wards probably due political influences on targeting.

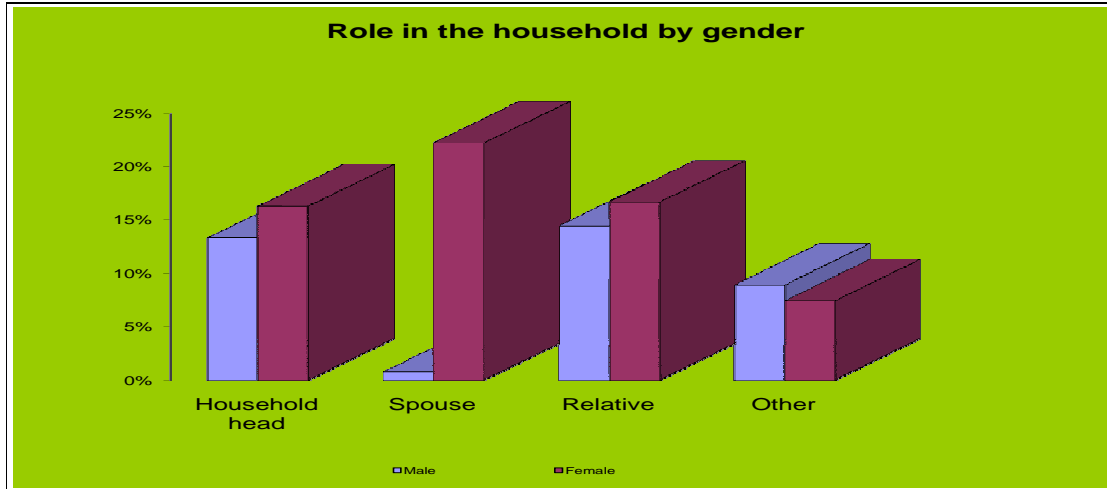


Figure 4.2: Role in the household by gender

From Figure 4.2 it is evident that (30% of the respondents that participated in the study were heads of households. Seventeen percent of these were female and 13% were male. The role of the head of households usually goes hand in hand with decision-making and providing for the family needs. The observation that women made up the majority of the heads of households suggests that women play a key role in the everyday running of families, despite a barrage of responsibilities on their shoulders. Twenty three percent of the respondents were spouses, while 31% were relatives and 16% were either a visitor or casual workers especially at homes with relatives in the Diaspora. Most women have assumed decision making roles in the household because their male counterparts have migrated to neighbouring countries in search of employment (Maphosa, 2003). The increase in the number of women in decision-making positions could be attributed to the influence of development projects that advocate and promote women empowerment.

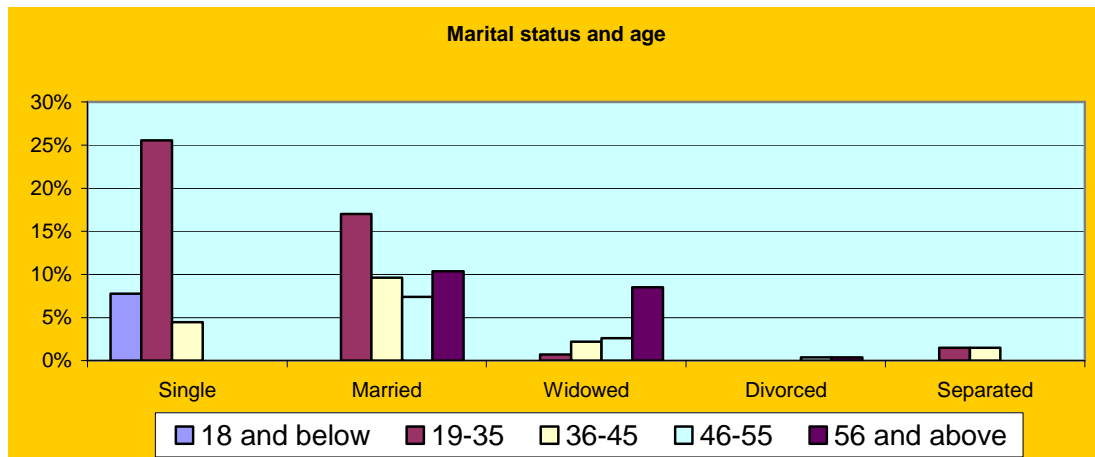


Figure 4.3: Marital status and age

Figure 4.3 graphically presents the marital status and age of the respondents. Forty four percent of the respondents that participated in the study were married; 17% of the married were aged between 19 and 35 years, while ten percent were aged between 36 and 45 years; seven percent were aged 46 to 55 years and ten percent were aged 56 and above. Thirty eight percent of the respondents were single. Three percent were on separation and 1% of the respondents were divorced. These results indicate that the divorce and separation rate in the area under study is low and well contained by communities.

This may be attributed to the existence of strong social networks that help keep families together as a unit. Fourteen percent of the respondents were widowed; the high number of widows in the area under study can be attributed to the impact of HIV and AIDS pandemic, given that the population in the area is mobile. AIDS causes premature death and means that international, national, and personal development goals and aspirations are not achievable (Barnett & Whiteside, 2006). In most of southern Africa, the HIV and AIDS pandemic has eroded the asset base of rural households, depleted their labour force and restricted their ability to earn cash from farming and non fauna activities (Practical Action, 2008).

The pandemic is subjecting people to economic and re-engineering in such a manner that they are left with little or no option of pursuing sustainable socio-economic strategies render them socio-economic vulnerable. Basing on this assumption it is evident that

these communities are vulnerable, in terms of food security and can no longer do manual work in the fields (Practical Action, 2008). This suggests that these conditions can compel households to heavily depend on remittances or humanitarian assistance from well-wishers which however cannot meet all their everyday needs.

Since the majority of respondents were women who carried the burden of providing in all the family needs, despite the fact that they were not employed, they had to develop some coping mechanisms in order to meet the needs of their families. The pressure could end up forcing them to adopt negative coping mechanism such as prostitution; thus making them more susceptible to HIV and AIDS, regardless of their level of awareness concerning the possibility of negative consequences of taking such a risk (Padare, 2006).

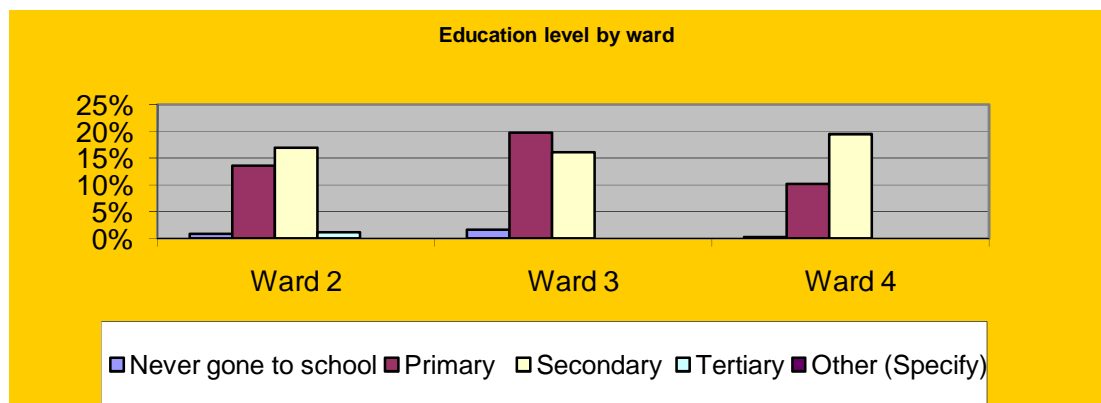


Figure 4.4: Education level by ward

It is evident from Figure 4.4 that the majority of the respondents' level of education falls within the primary school category. The education levels exhibited by respondent show the value that the communities attach to education. Only one percent of the respondents in the area under study had a tertiary qualification, and that was a worrisome indicator, since poor education levels also contributed to the entrenchment of the cycle of poverty.

They had forgotten the widely held belief that education is many things to man, a visa to success, a passport to the unknown, and a catalyst to greater heights (Ojo & Vincent, 2000). Low levels of literacy and skills conspire to keep people in the poverty trap, preventing them from claiming their basic rights or from embarking on new activities to

earn income or build assets (UN). These low levels of education no doubt conspired against the human capabilities, socio-cultural capabilities, and economic capabilities of Mangwe district thereby increasing and perpetuating disaster risks.

### **4.3 Main Source of Income**

Multiple sources of income do exist in the area under study. It is evident from Figure 4.5, that 24% of the respondents heavily depended on remittances from friends and relatives especially those in South Africa and Botswana. This concurs with Maphosa's assertion that remittances play a very important role in keeping and maintaining the families in Mangwe district (Maphosa, 2003). Remittances represent the second largest source of external funding for developing countries, and are recognized by governments and international organizations as important tools for reducing household poverty and enhancing local development (IOM, 2010). Remittances help to improve the economic situation of receiving households and are sometimes the only or prime source of income (UN-INSTRAW, 2005). In addition, remittances act as a social security and safety net for those left behind and for returning migrants. They are used to meet the nutritional, educational and health care needs of household members, especially children and they are an important factor in alleviating poverty and thus, for furthering development (Datta *et al.*, 2006). Since women are the majority in the area under study, this suggests that they play a central role as recipients and managers of remittances.

Twenty three percent of the respondents lived on petty trading activities such as buying and selling any commodity that was mostly in demand, for example sugar, vegetables oil, clothing and foot ware. The business acumen of the respondent whose main source of income was entrepreneurship was very low. That was due to lack of entrepreneurial skills, lack of capital and lack of formalization of their business ventures. More so to investing in small enterprises, their business ventures might be hindered by limited access to credit or land ownership, low financial literacy due to educational gaps, limited experience in running a business and investments in saturated markets (UN-INSTRAW, 2005).

Seventeen percent of the employed respondents were from ward 4 which is home to Plumtree town residents. Fifteen percent of the respondents had no income and three



percent depended on pension which was less than USD50.00. The bulk of these were former civil servants and war veterans. Eighteen percent of the respondents survived by providing casual labour to other community members and Batswana villages along Zimbabwe Botswana border line. In general it might be assumed that since the majority of the respondents did not have a regular source of income the whole district was vulnerable to shocks, especially when their other sources were affected by a variety of factors over which they had no control. Figure 4.5 below summarizes the main sources of income.

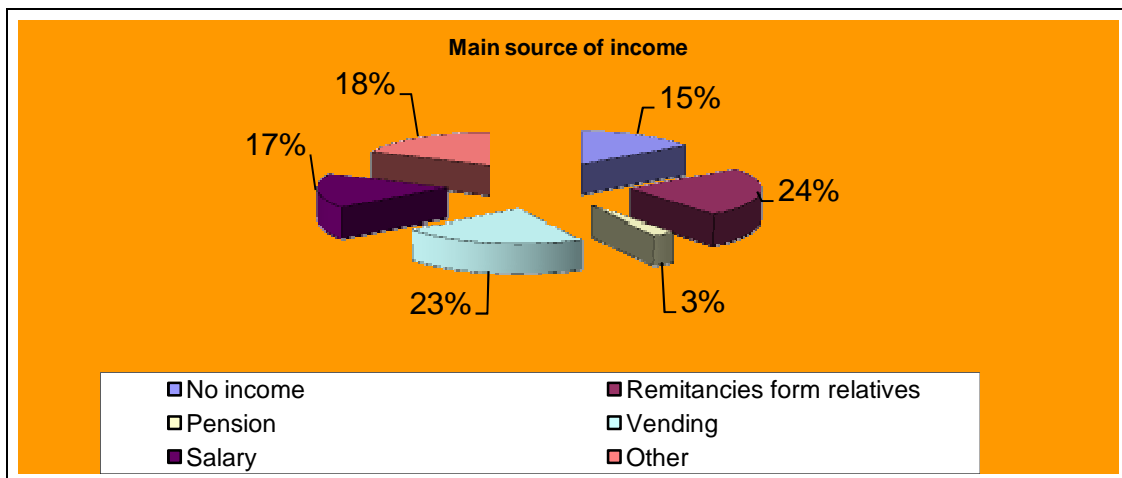


Figure 4.5: Main source of income

TABLE 4.1: EDUCATION LEVELS BY INCOME LEVEL

Level of Education	Income levels				
	\$1-\$50	\$51-\$100	\$101- \$150	\$150 – \$ 500	> \$501
Never gone to school	3%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Primary	32%	8%	1%	2%	0%
Secondary	32%	11%	5%	3%	1%
Tertiary	0%	0%	0%	1%	0%
Other (Specify)	0%	0%	0%	1%	0%
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>67%</b>	<b>19%</b>	<b>6%</b>	<b>7%</b>	<b>1%</b>

Figure 4.1 indicates that 67% of the respondents' income ranged between US\$1.00 and US\$50 per month. Of these three percent never went to school, while, 32% went up to primary level, and 32% up to secondary. Levels of education strongly determine the

income levels as illustrated in Table 4.1. Those that never went to school had low incomes ranging between \$1.00 and \$50.00. This means that they were living on less than US\$2.00 per day, and this limited the respondents' access to most basic needs thereby compromising their well-being. Basic needs in this case refer to food, clothing, accommodation, domestic water, fuel, education, transport, job opportunities and leisure (Ardington, 1989). Failure to access basic needs compromises the community's quality of life. The low income levels are indicative of low salaries in the employment world which may be a contributing factor why more people are still food insecure and vulnerable to drought in the district.

Nineteen percent of the respondents that went to primary and secondary school earned between US\$51.00 to US\$100.00. This group mostly consisted of pensioners and civil servants. Six percent of the respondents earned between US\$151.00 - US\$500.00 per month. Of these one percent did primary education and five percent had secondary education. Seven percent of the respondents had an income ranging from \$151.00 - \$500.00. Two percent had primary education, three percent had secondary education and one percent had tertiary level education. Only one percent of the respondents had an income that was above US\$500.00 per month.

The findings suggest that the education levels increases the proportion of people's income levels. However, it should be noted that lack of money is more of a symptom of poverty rather than its cause, and in most cases the poor are not without income, what they lack is the ability to accumulate assets, which is a key ingredient to the creation of wealth and breaking the poverty cycle (UNESCAP, 2001). Figure 4.6 summarizes income level by ward. Access to income can help reduce poverty and minimize disaster risks and their impact.

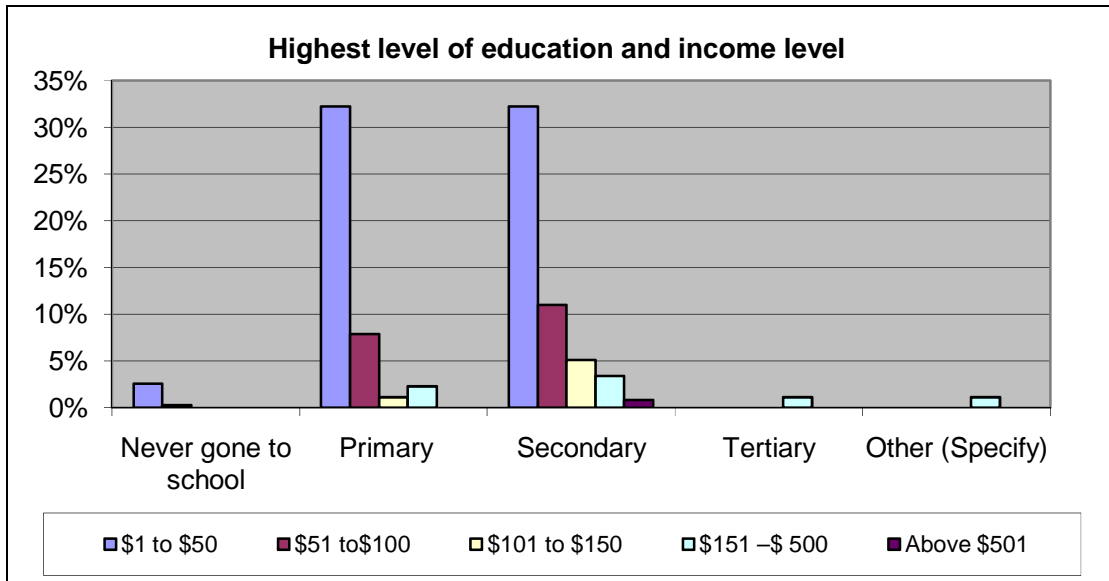


Figure 4.6: Highest level of education and income level

#### 4.4 Ownership of Assets

Eighty six percent of the respondents claimed ownership of pieces of land. Of these 55% were female and 31% male. Despite being culturally marginalized, when it came to the ownership of land it was interesting to note that that had changed and women were finding their way into the property rights. Fourteen percent of the respondents did not own any pieces of land. Eight percent were female while six percent were male. Non land owners were mostly town dwellers residing in ward 4 or those that were still staying with parents and relatives.

Land is very vital capital, in that it can sustain income growth and offer the best potential for pulling the poorest and the land constrained households out of poverty (Jaynet *et al.*, 2001). This suggests that ownership of land can be a powerful tool in the fight against poverty and disaster risks. Figure 4.6 summarizes land ownership by gender.

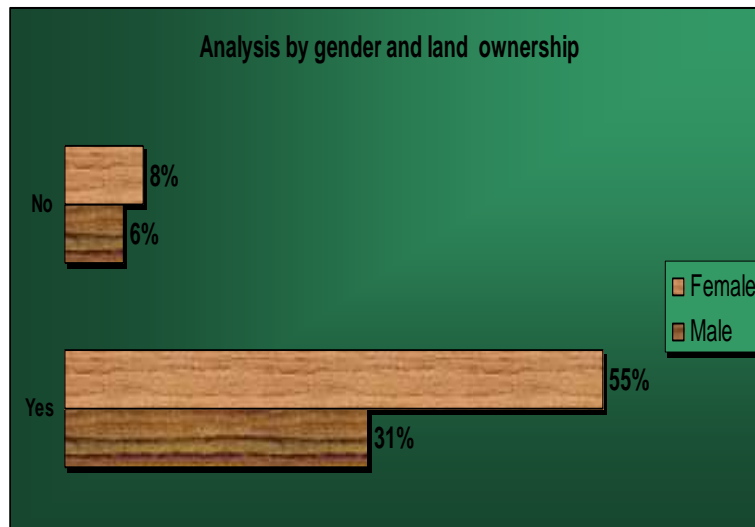


Figure 4.7: Analysis by gender and land ownership

Ownership of land is very important to the indigenous people of any given country (Jaynet *et al.*, 2001). Thirteen percent of the respondents that owned land portions that were less than 200m<sup>2</sup> were from ward 4, while, 29% of the respondents from wards 2 and 3 owned land portions that were between 1 and 2 acres. Three to four acre portions of land were owned by 28% of the respondents, and of these only one percent was from ward 4. Sixteen percent of the respondents from wards 2 and 3 owned pieces of land that were five acres and above. There is an imbalance in the distribution and ownership of land.

This suggests that the size of the land owned by a household determines the quantity of food it produces. NGOs are not greatly involved advocating for the equal distribution of land. They are busy with livelihood programmes which tend to yield very limited results because of the size of the land on which projects are done. Failure to address the land issue renders all disaster risk reduction efforts ineffective, hence the perpetuation of vulnerability of communities. Figure 4.8 summarizes the size of land owned by respondents by ward.

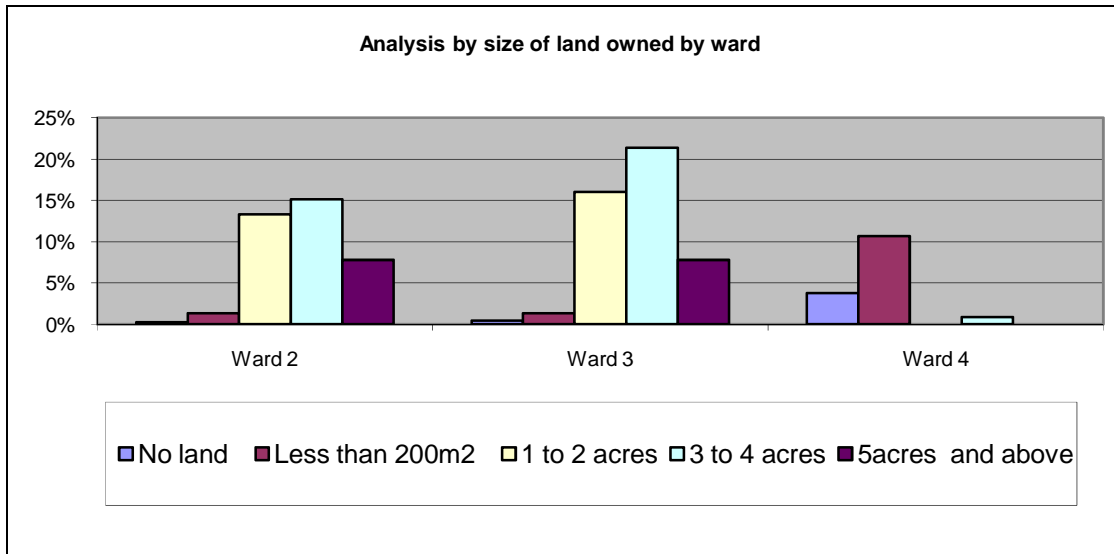


Figure 4.8: Analysis by size of land owned by ward

Fifty eight percent of the respondents dwell in houses made from bricks and asbestos. This makes this type of accommodation the most popular in all wards, with ward 4 topping the list, followed by ward 3 and ward 2 respectively. Thirty one percent of the respondents from wards 2 and 3 used houses that were made of mud and thatch, bricks and thatch, and bricks and asbestos. Most structures in ward 2 and 3 were constructed from mud, bricks and thatch. In terms of accommodation, respondents had access to shelter especially in rural wards. Figure 4.9 summarizes the type of accommodation in ward 2, 3 and 4.

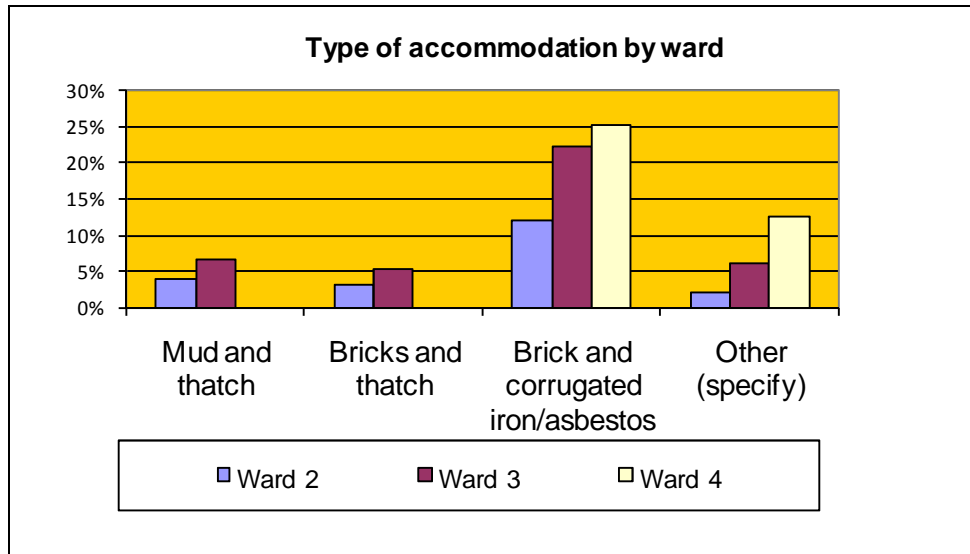


Figure 4.9: Type of accommodation by ward

Sixty eight percent of the households were not electrified while 32% were electrified. Most respondents with electrified homes used electricity as their main source of power. Paraffin and charcoal were used by four percent while, 25% used electricity for cooking purposes. The main source of cooking energy was firewood and was used by 71% of the households in the area under study. The majority of the women also used paraffin for lighting purposes. The use of firewood by 71% of the respondents suggested a high rate of deforestation that could result in serious environmental degradation.

Constant cutting down of trees can result in the depletion of the surrounding forests. Deforestation can have a negative impact on the natural and physical environment, thereby negatively affecting the present and future generations of humans, animals and plants, thus increasing their risk to hazards like drought, floods, desertification and so forth. There appeared to be efforts being made to find alternative sources of cooking energy. Finding new sources of energy other than firewood could help reduce disaster risks associated with environmental degradation due to deforestation. Figure 4.10 summarizes electrification as main source of cooking energy.

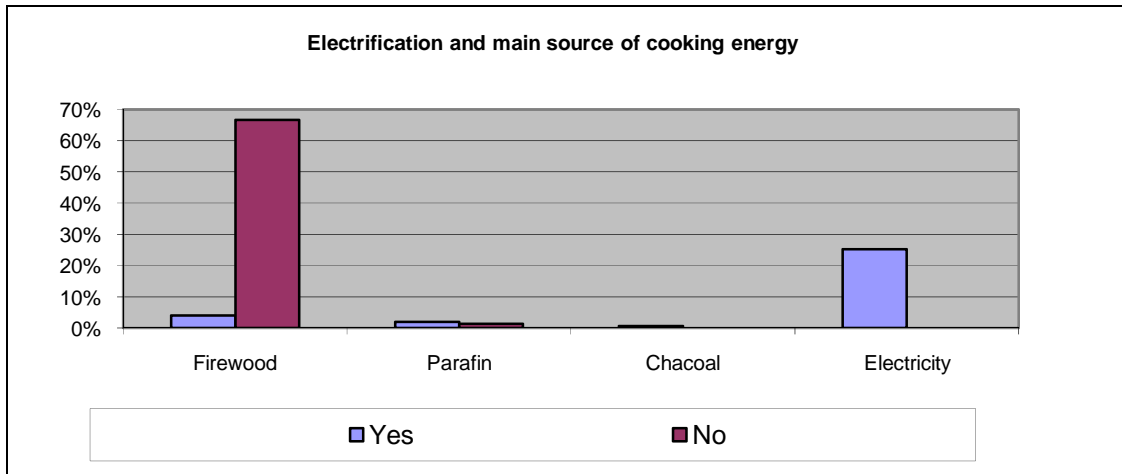


Figure 4.10: Electrification and main source of cooking energy

#### 4.5 Access to Basic Needs

Fifty five percent of the respondents that participated in the study usually had two meals per day, while 17% of the respondents usually had one meal per day. This could be seen as an effective coping strategy employed to reduce food intake so that it could last longer. The number of meals indicated the level of vulnerability of a community. It was also clear from the observations and responses that such people had meals just to fill their stomachs, and did not have the luxury to take into consideration the concept of a balanced diet.

Consumption of an imbalanced diet can have negative repercussions on the communities. For example malnutrition can lead to the rise of malnutrition related cases such as pellagra; kwashiorkor and so on. Only one percent of the respondents could afford more than three meals a day. The number of meals that a household had was strongly linked with the income levels it received. The level of income of a household strongly determined the household's or the community's ability to acquire sufficient resources to satisfy a socially acceptable, minimum standard of living. The area under study still remained food insecure despite a large number of projects having been implemented. Disaster risks still lingered in the area. Figure 4.11 summarizes the number of meals eaten by respondents per day.

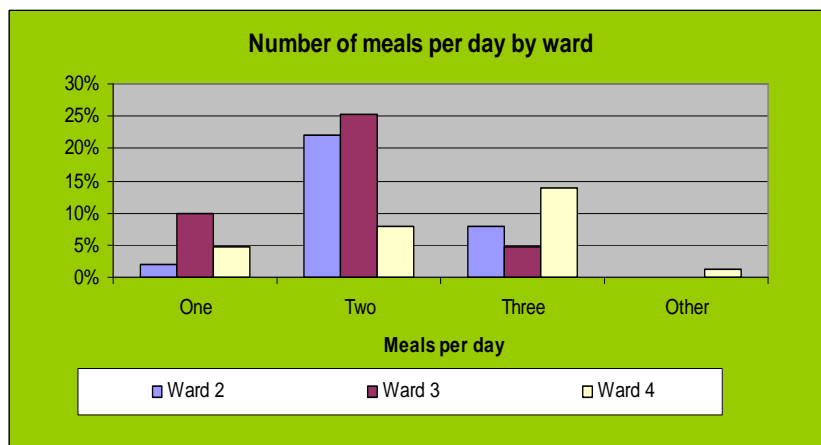


Figure 4.11: Numbers of meals per day

The toilet facility that was predominantly being used in the area under study was the pit latrine. Forty three percent of the respondents in the area under study used pit latrines. The use of pit latrine toilets promotes hygiene and does not require running water. The bush system which dominated Mangwe during the colonial era was still used by 26% of interviewed households. Communities that still used the bush are far from reaching the acceptable standard of a decent life in the area of sanitation.

Using the bush as a toilet is unhygienic and it increases the risk of contracting of vector borne diseases by both users and non users, hence the need to speedily address the problem.

Nineteen percent of the respondents especially from ward 4 used flush toilets in the house or communal at a communal place. The observation of this particular community showed that a lot of households especially in ward 4 were putting flush toilets in their homes and moving away from the communal toilet system as a way of improving on their personal hygiene. Figure 4.12 summarizes type of toilet facilities in the area under study.



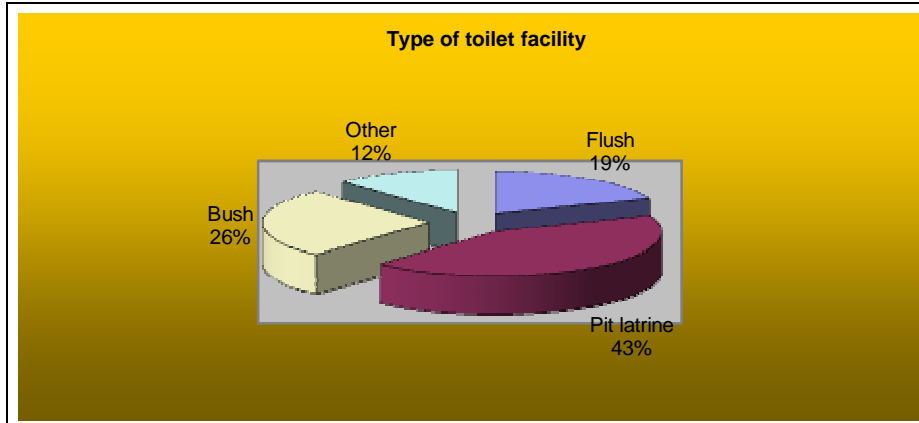


Figure 4.12: Main water source and time taken to reach it

The predominant source of water used was the borehole which was used by 43% of the households. Of the households 19% had tap water in the house while the communal tap was used by 13%. The river or dam provided 13% with water, while the well was used by 12% and the pool by one percent. The use of boreholes and taps by 75% of the households guaranteed the safety of the water. However, the safety of the water from the dams, wells and rivers was not assured. Water problems were experienced in those communities, especially wards 2 and 3 when rivers, boreholes, dams and well water levels went down or boreholes broke down.

Forty three percent of borehole users took five to 30 minutes to reach the boreholes. In most cases people travelled long distances to the nearest borehole. Nineteen percent had water in the house and had no hassles of getting water. They could have small vegetable gardens in the backyard to supplement family diet. Thirteen percent of respondents that collected water from the river or dam travelled 30 minutes and more to get the commodity. Most wells are nearer to homesteads and only one percent of well users travelled more than 30 minutes to fetch water.

A general observation was that 43% of the respondents travelled less than 10 minutes to collect the water while 57% walked for more than 20 minutes to access water. This suggested that water sources were still far from people. The minimum distance from the household to the nearest water point was 500 metres (The Sphere Project, 2004). There is need to move them closer to people so as to reduce the distances travelled by the most vulnerable members of the community such as the elderly, the physically challenged, women and children. Such distances could expose them to gender based

violence, such as assault, rape, kidnapping, to be precise. Violence of this nature could expose victims to physical injury, post traumatic stress disorders and HIV and AIDS infection. Figure 4.13 summarizes the main sources of water and time taken to reach it.

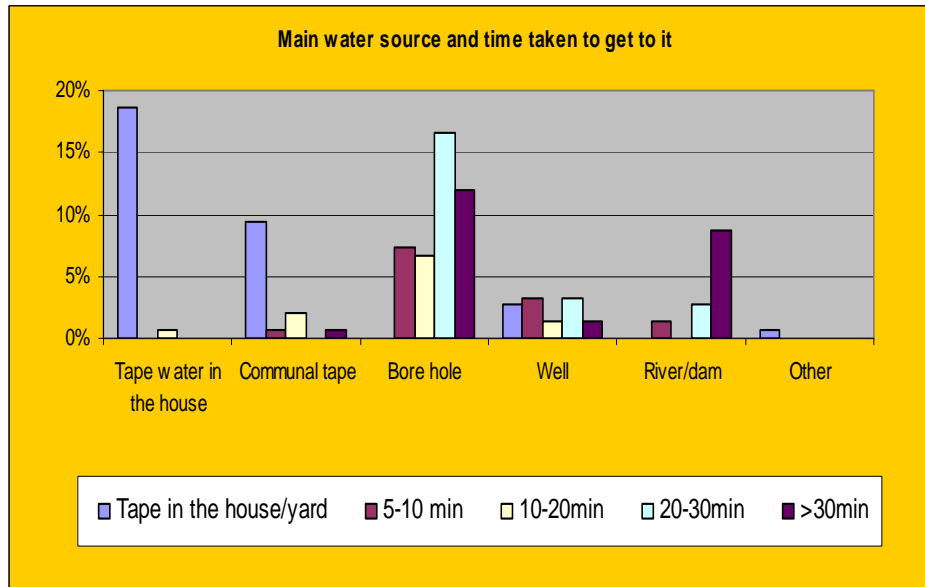


Figure 4.13: Main water source and time taken to reach it

#### 4.6 Awareness Levels

Sixty three percent of the respondents from all the wards had once benefited from humanitarian assistance programmes. Thirty one percent of these were from ward 3, 25% were from ward 2 and seven percent from ward 4. Most humanitarian initiatives were targeted at rural wards because poverty is believed to be more pronounced in rural areas where the country's poorest live.

Thirty seven percent of the respondents that had never benefited from the humanitarian assistance projects were largely from ward 4. Since NGOs were there to complement government effort, giving humanitarian assistance to 63% of the population showed the level of food insecurity in the district. To reduce the risks associated with food insecurity millions of people became dependent on food aid. The fact that the district had always been targeted for humanitarian assistance suggested that its resilience had died a natural death and ushered the community into a dependency syndrome.

The main recipients of the humanitarian assistance highlighted that humanitarian assistance was given after a severe drought. During the fifteen droughts that Zimbabwe had experienced food aid emerged as a strong intervention aimed at fighting poverty (Richardson, 2005). It should also be noted that humanitarian assistance *per se* is bad as it helps prevent the sale of productive assets by the vulnerable households thereby protecting them from poverty and also reducing inequality. Providing humanitarian assistance is another way of reducing disaster risks (MASDAR, 2006). Figure 4.14 gives humanitarian assistance by ward.

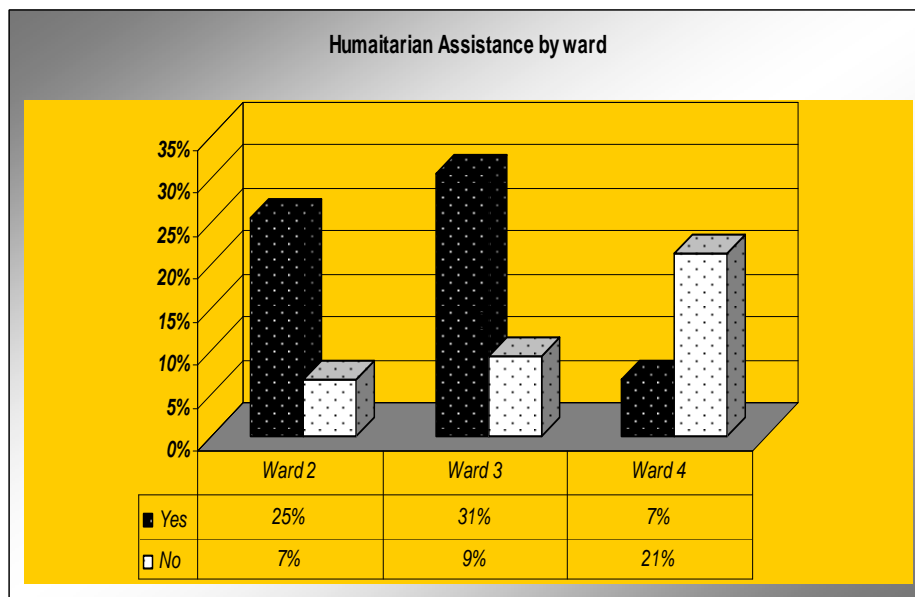


Figure 4.14: Humanitarian assistances by ward.

Community members were aware of the major sources of information in the area under study. There was a strong information dissemination system in place in the area under study. Forty three percent of the respondents said they used community meetings to relay important information in their communities. Thirty three percent of the respondents used educational institutions to disseminate information. Seventeen percent of the respondent used text messages, posters, read and passed on letters. In the case of passed-on letters, the kraal head wrote a letter which would be circulated through the village until it found its way back to him in a short space of time. The radio and televisions were not popular because of poor reception or no transmission. Figure 4.15 summarizes the main sources of information used by beneficiaries.

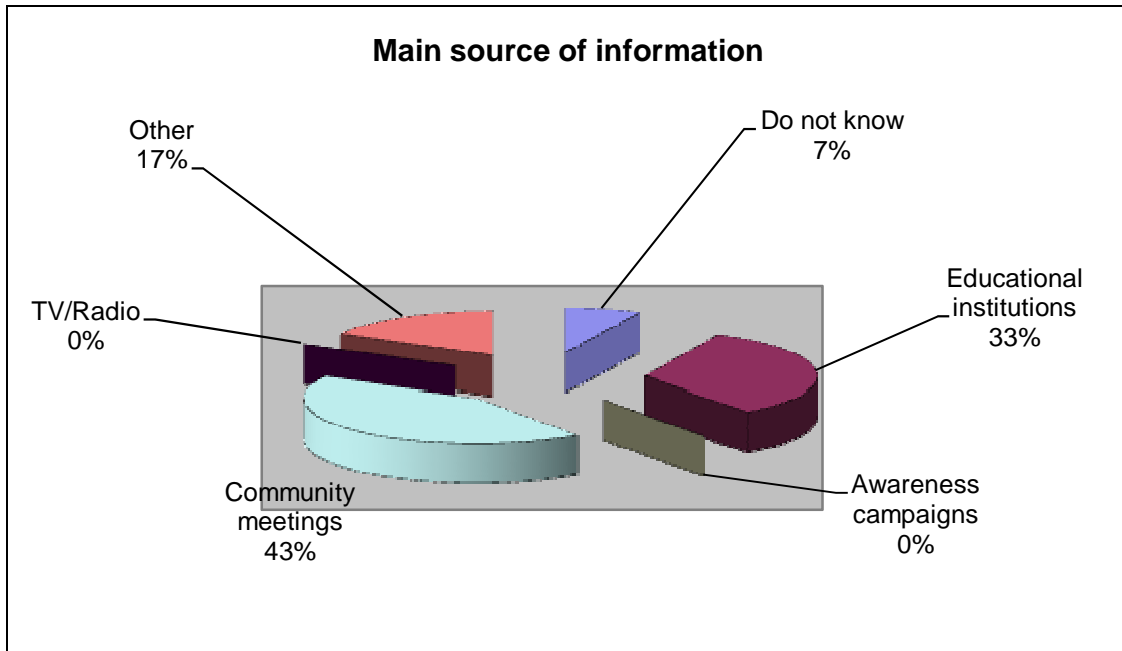


Figure 4.15: Main source of information

#### 4.7 Common Hazards

Drought is the most common and well remembered hazard amongst the hazards listed in Figure 4.16, as highlighted by 95% of the respondents in the area under study. Since drought was one of the high frequency hazards it triggered immediate food crises for both humans and livestock. The food insecurity for rural and urban population, worsened, resulting in the country being the net importer of food to feed its inhabitants.

Drought is one of the hazards that exacerbate poverty, by making it harder for farmers to raise their productivity (IFAD, 2001). Drought can also have longer-term 'ratchet' effects which impede recovery in interim periods, especially when combined with other pressures such as HIV/AIDS, poor governance and conflict (UN-ISDR, 2005).

Two percent of the respondents identified fire as a common hazard. Fire was said to have destroyed the pastures on the farms where they usually took their livestock for feeding during droughts. One percent identified a severe weather phenomenon. This was a cold spell that swept across the ward and killed their livestock in 1995. The occurrences of hazards and impact they had on the populace of the area under study,

clearly indicated how far the development programme had progressed in reducing disaster risks. Figure 4.16 summarizes common hazards in Mangwe.

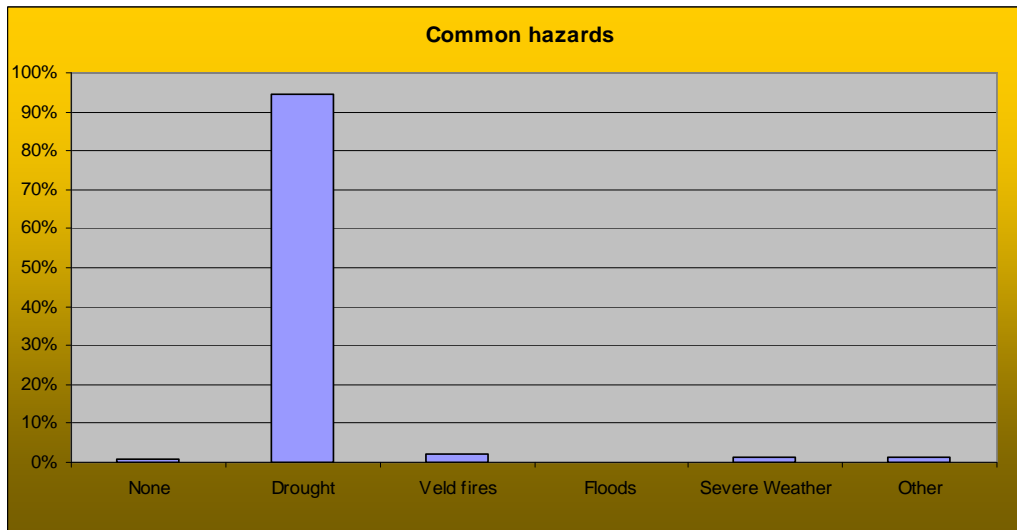


Figure 4.16: Common hazards

Drought has caused a notable destruction of assets as stated by the respondents in Figure 4.17. Forty two percent of the respondents lost livestock like cattle, donkeys, sheep, goats and poultry.

Loss of livestock, especially cattle is always remembered because of the value attached to them. The importance of livestock and especially cattle in the social and cultural lives of the African communities cannot be overestimated (Dreyer, 2007). They are a symbol of wealth and prestige. More so cattle have an indispensable role as sacrificial animals and maintenance of good social relations while contracting a marriage or lease-lending agreements (Coertze, 1986). The cattle are considered as, “the god with wet nose” and also regarded as the bank of a black person. The loss of cattle meant the loss of draught power, creating conditions that deepened further poverty amongst households. The loss of livestock reflects the level preparedness for the hazard droughts. If the communities had knowledge they would have reduced their herds, stockpiled stock feed, to reduce the risk of losing their livestock.

Thirty three percent of the respondents lost crops and this further compromised their food security situation. In order to address the food security issue, new coping mechanisms had to be developed. In 2005-06 WFP noted that more than half of the surveyed households had sold their assets to buy food to pay for health (MASDAR, 2006). The loss of assets indicated the extent to which the development projects had influenced disaster risk reduction levels in the area under study.

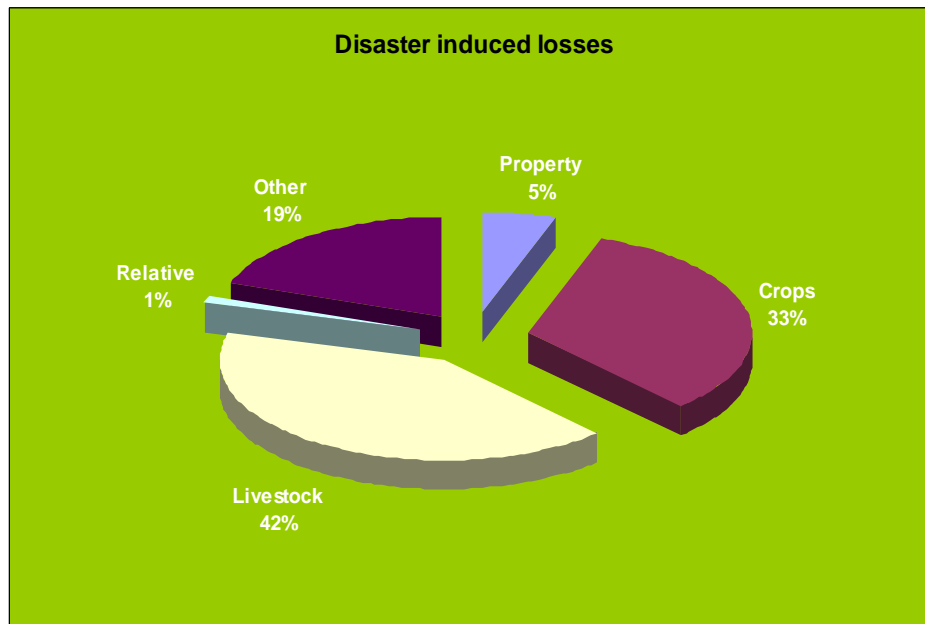


Figure 4.17: Disaster induced losses

When a disaster struck, a community had to be resilient enough to cope and withstand new changing or unexpected events or situation by using material, cultural, and social or knowledge resources (Hoffman, 2005). Communities respond and manage the same hardships in different ways, hence the diversity of responses.

Table 4.2 shows that ninety seven respondents indicated that they had never benefited from any development project because such projects targeted very few people. Non project beneficiaries managed the hazard in a number of ways. Of the non beneficiaries 24 took no initiative, but waited for humanitarian assistance, while 13 engaged themselves in buying and selling. Seven of them planted drought tolerant crops to minimize losses. Forty households benefited once, while ten had benefited more than twice. Only three households had benefited more than three times. It is interesting to note that those who have benefited more than three times never waited for any

humanitarian aid but engaged in buying and selling or relied on remittances from relatives. Targeting the same group of people more than twice indicated the ineffectiveness of the targeting and selection criteria used by the implementers of the development projects, hence the need to revise the criteria.

TABLE 4.2: BENEFIT FREQUENCY AND MANAGEMENT OF THE DISASTER

Benefit frequency	Managing the disaster						Total
	None	Waited for aid	Buying and selling	Formed buying groups	Planted drought tolerant crops	Other (Specify)	
None	7	24	13	1	7	45	<b>97</b>
Once	1	11	7	1	1	19	<b>40</b>
Twice	1	3	1	0	1	4	<b>10</b>
> three times	0	0	1	0	0	2	<b>3</b>
<b>Grand Total</b>	9	38	22	2	9	70	<b>150</b>

The fact that 47 of the respondents took no initiative to help themselves and only waited for humanitarian aid suggested the development of a dependency syndrome amongst communities. A dependency syndrome is an attitude and belief that a group cannot solve its own problems without outside help (Burttle, 2007). Over dependency on humanitarian aid can destroy community resiliency and increase disaster risks, hence the need to guard against it. Twenty two respondents engaged in buying and selling activities to earn a living.

This is a very positive development towards self-sustainability, a very powerful tool in the fight against poverty. Nine respondents planted drought tolerant crops to minimize the impact of the drought on crops. Seventy respondents managed the disaster by receiving remittances from relatives in the diaspora, receiving help from religious groups, selling assets like livestock; migrating to neighbouring countries, namely Botswana and South Africa in search of jobs. Some erected gardens along the river banks and planted vegetables for resale, while some villagers moved livestock to farms which had grazing to save their livestock. The ability to plant drought tolerant crops and to move livestock to better pastures could be attributed to the success of developmental projects in the disaster risk reduction effort

## 4.8 Disaster Preparedness and Resilience

Eighty percent of the respondents indicated that that they were not prepared in case of a disaster. Preparedness is process of ensuring that an organization has:

- (1) Complied with the preventive measures.
- (2) Is in a state of readiness to contain the effects of a forecasted disastrous event to minimize loss of life, injury, and damage to property.
- (3) Can provide rescue, relief, rehabilitation and other services in the aftermath of the disaster.
- (4) Has the capability and resources to continue to sustain its essential functions without being overwhelmed by the demand placed on them (Business Dictioneary, 2010)

Lack of preparedness made them more vulnerable and more susceptible to any disasters and that was a serious cause for concern. Eighteen percent were of the opinion that they were a little prepared for the disasters. An insignificant number representing one percent of the respondents claimed that they were very prepared for any hazard. The low percentage in terms of preparedness calls for radical changes in the project identification and implementation approaches to avert and minimize risks posed by hazards. Figure 4.18 summarizes the findings on the state of preparedness.

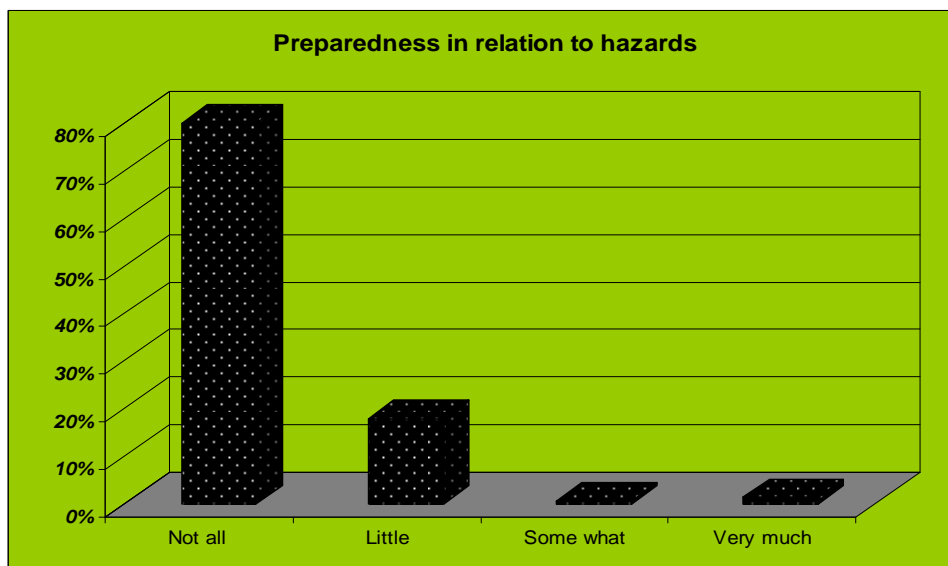


Figure 4.18: Preparedness in relation to hazards



The respondents suggested the following to be done in order to reduce risks posed by hazards:

- Constructing more dams, and the drilling of more boreholes in order to improve water supply.
- Stockpiling stock feed for livestock.
- Availing credit facilities to small business to promote business growth and engaging in extensive income generating projects.
- Preserving food during time of plenty, using traditional ways and lobbying for investments that will result in job creation.

#### **4.8.1 Developmental projects implemented to minimize the impact of hazards**

The respondents observed that a number of livelihood projects were implemented by the government in partnership with the NGOs in their community to reduce poverty levels:

- Animal husbandry projects specializing in large and small livestock projects especially cattle and poultry were implemented.
- Nutrition gardens were established especially for People living With HIV and AIDS (PLWHAS) in the area under study.
- Market gardening had become the main source of income in the areas with access to water. In some dry areas especially ward 2 and 3 water conservation techniques such as the drip Irrigation technology was greatly used in the production of vegetables. Drip Irrigation is a water-saving technique of surface irrigation through pipes made of plastics. It delivers the water drop by drop to plants through tiny holes, and prevents water logging of soils (OCED, 2001).
- Conservation farming.

- A grinding mill project had been set up in ward 3. The main objective of the project was to generate income for its members.

The main objective of these projects was to strengthen livelihoods thereby increasing the capital resource base of Mangwe community to reduce the impact of the shocks and to enhance rapid recovery from shocks. Those projects could also help prevent or decrease the shocks, and reduce vulnerability.

If vulnerability is the key component of both the sustainable livelihoods approach to poverty reduction and disaster risk reduction, then all activities which seek to strengthen livelihoods, increase resilience and reduce the vulnerability of poor people are risk reduction measures (UN-ISDR, 2005).

#### **4.9 Project Impact Evaluation**

Ninety three percent of respondents were of the opinion that development projects were very important to the communities in that they enhance knowledge development, individual and community resilience. They were also of the opinion that projects provided a reliable source of income which could be used to reduce poverty levels. However, 7% were of the opinion that they were of no importance at all due to the fact that they made people lazy to think, and failed to develop survival skills. Their argument was that if those projects were of any help all households that had been benefiting since the 1980s would be in a position to cope with hazards that continue to bedevil the area under study.

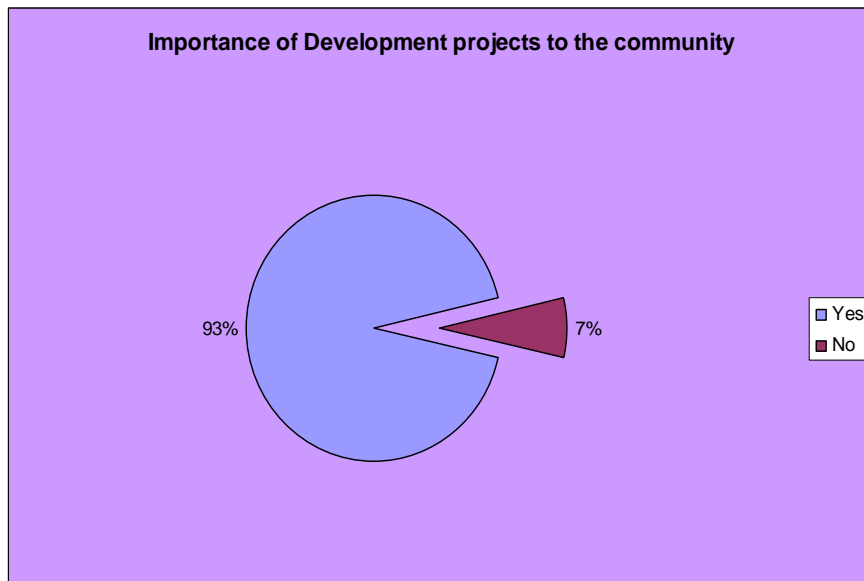


Figure 4.19: Importance of development projects to the community

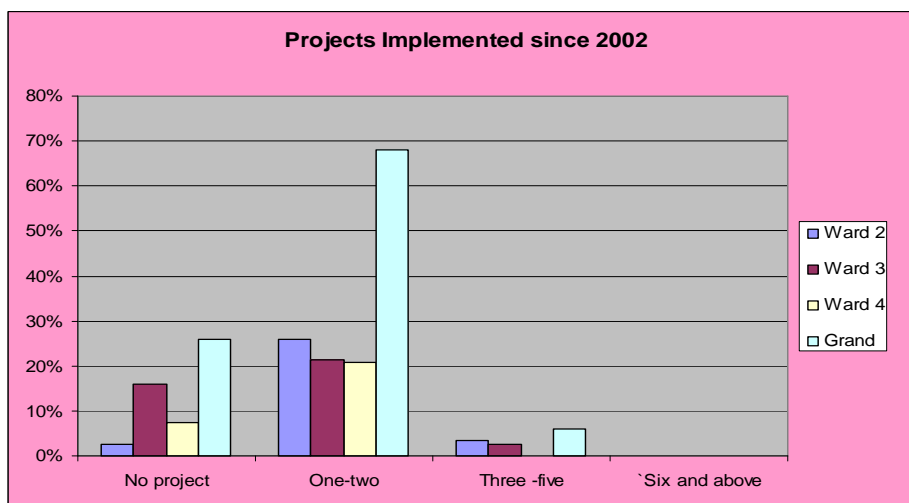


Figure4.20: Projects implemented since 2002

It is evident from Figure 4.20 that more than one project had been implemented in all wards since 2002. The projects were mainly concentrated on ward 2 and 3. More than three projects had been implemented only in ward 2 and 3. Generally ward 4 had not been targeted for development projects because it was an urban ward. Twenty six percent highlighted that no projects had been implemented in their areas.

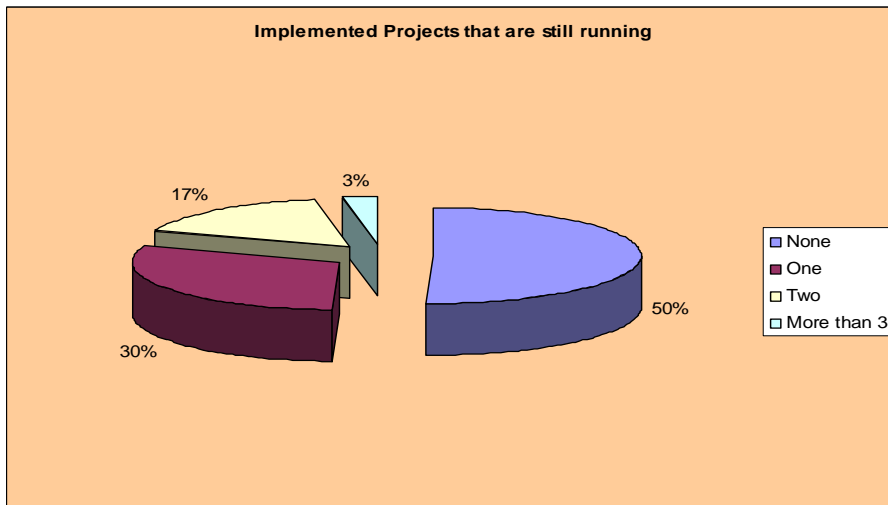


Figure 4.21: Implemented projects that are still running

According to Figure 4.21, 50% of the respondents revealed that projects in their communities had died a natural death, while 30% of the respondents were of the opinion that only one of the projects that had been implemented in their communities, was still running. Seventeen percent stated that at least two projects were still running, while three percent indicated that more than one project was still running.

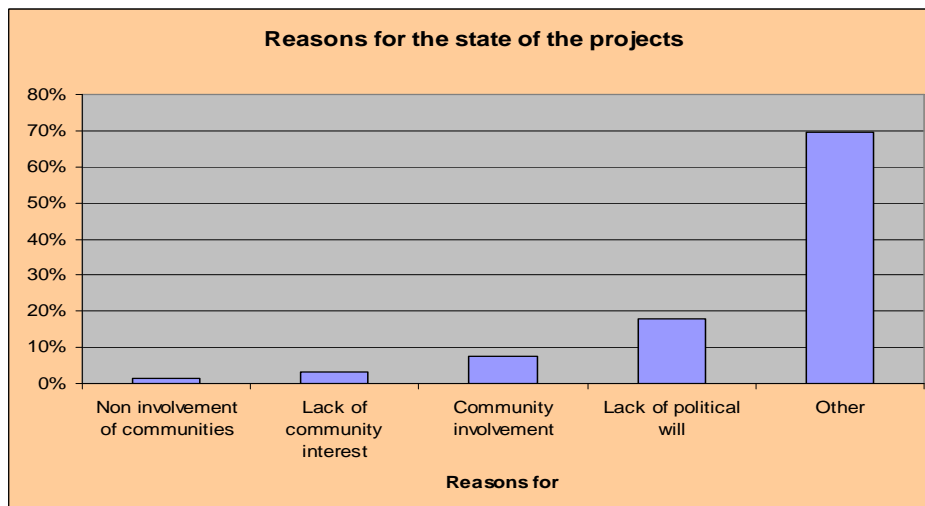


Figure 4.22: Reasons for the state of the project

Various reasons for the state of the projects were given as can be seen in Figure 4.22. Seventy percent of the respondents highlighted that projects were in that state because:

- Favouritism was rife during the beneficiary selection exercise, coupled with the lack of financial support, equipment and other necessities for running the projects.
- There was no follow up by donors to monitor the progress of the projects.
- There was inconsistent financial support for the project; and ignorance on the part of the community was also cited as the contributing factor.

Eighteen percent were of the opinion that lack of political will contributed to the demise of the projects. Three percent of the respondents were of the opinion that projects remained in the same state because people had no interest in them, while one percent attributed it to non involvement of communities in the choosing of the projects. The reasons given by eight percent of the respondents who were of the opinion that projects were still running, attributed it to active community involvement in all stages of the project which fostered a sense of belonging and project ownership. Those who were of the opinion that no projects were running, attributed that to lack of community interest, non involvement of communities and lack of political will.

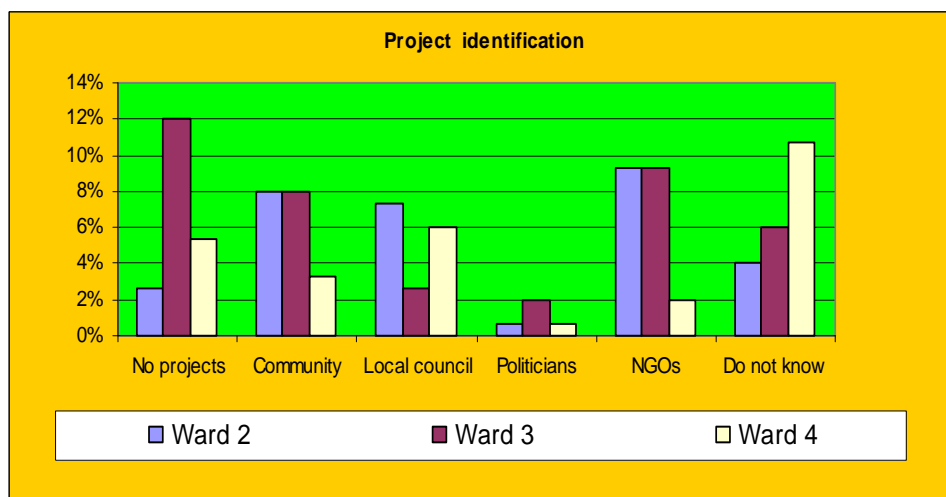


Figure 4.23: Project identification

The respondents expressed varying views in Figure 4.23 on who chose the projects that were implemented in their communities. Twenty one percent professed ignorance, while

another 21% were of the opinion that NGOs were responsible for choosing projects in their community. Nineteen percent of the respondents were of the opinion that the community members chose the projects that were implemented in their communities and 16% pointed out that the local council was the one that identified projects for communities. Diverse responses suggested that there was no clarity on who chose the projects for the communities. It appeared that all projects were prescribed to the communities by the local council, politicians and NGOs.

The danger of choosing projects for communities is that such projects will not focus on what matters to the people. There is need to fully involve people and respect their views and focus on the dimension of poverty they define rather than on resources or overall output *per se* (George, 1997).

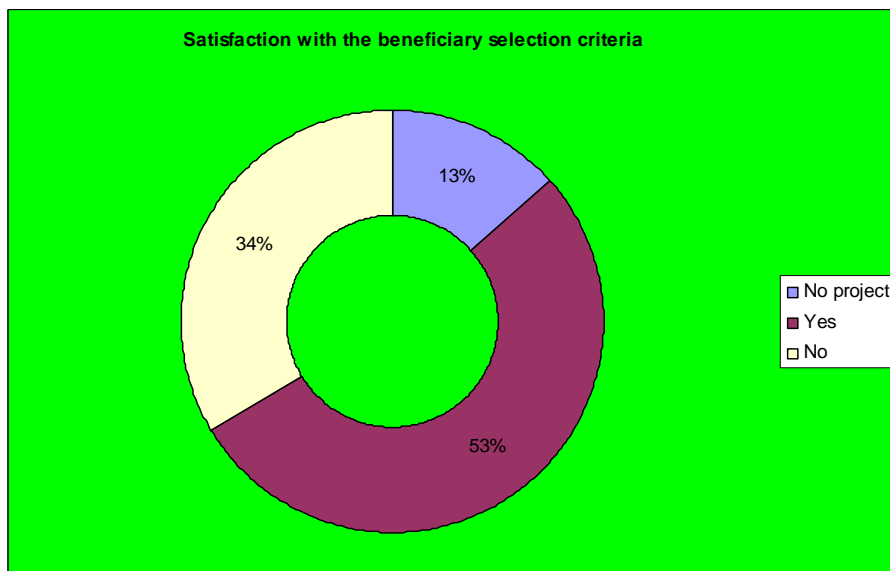


Figure 4.24: Satisfaction with the beneficiary selection criteria

Fifty three percent of the respondents expressed satisfaction with the beneficiary selection criteria while 34% expressed dissatisfaction. Thirteen percent could not comment since there were no projects in place in their respective areas. The reasons for satisfaction were that everyone was invited and given a chance to join and the most vulnerable members of the communities were targeted, meaning it was specific, thus it achieved its objectives. Those who expressed dissatisfaction were of the opinion that:

- Favouritism was rife during the beneficiary selection and registration process.
- Being a project beneficiary subjects beneficiaries to stigmatization.
- Projects were hijacked and manipulated by the, " powerful" that is the politicians.
- The fact that most project members pulled out of projects indicated that something was wrong with it and it did not motivate anyone to be part of it.

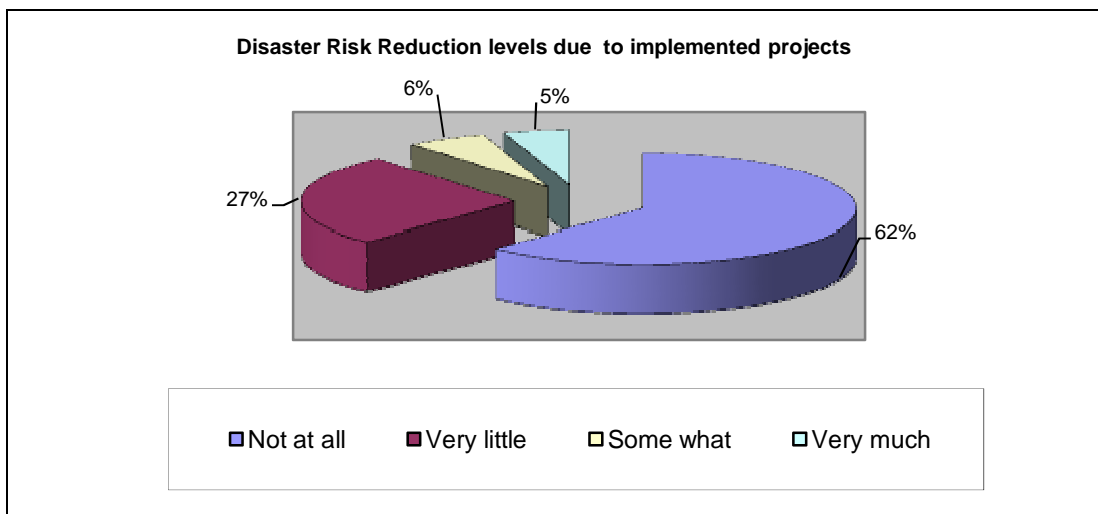


Figure 4.25: Disaster Risk Reduction levels due to implemented projects

Despite the fact that development projects had been in place since independence, responses from 62% of the respondents professed that those projects had done nothing to reduce the disaster risks. Twenty seven percent were of the opinion that such projects had done little to reduce disaster risks. Six percent and five percent were of the opinion that they had somewhat, and very much, reduced disaster risks respectively. It is clear from the responses that no significant reduction of disaster risks had been observed; hence the communities in the area under study still remained susceptible to disaster.

TABLE 4.3: CONTRIBUTION OF DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS TOWARDS SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROWTH

Title	Number of responses	Percentage of responses
No project at all	36	24%
Yes	66	44%
No	48	32
<b>Total</b>	<b>150</b>	100

In Table 4.3, 66 respondents stated that development projects had brought about socio-economic changes to some members of the community. They were in the form of constructed preschools, dams, boreholes and increased ownership of assets such as livestock. The other notable economic change was increased vegetable production and establishment of grinding mills for income generation purposes. Income generated from projects was used to meet the day to day needs of some households in the area under study. Forty eight respondents were of the opinion that no socio-economic changes had been observed as a result of the implemented development projects. Their argument was based on the observation that a high number of people in their communities were still susceptible to hazards and that no significant level of resilience had been built. The other reason was that the projects' life spans were short and some projects were still new with no benefits having been realised to date. The other 36 could not comment since no projects had been implemented in their communities.

TABLE 4.4: CONTRIBUTION OF DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS TOWARDS PERSONAL GROWTH

Title	Number of responses	Percentage of responses
None	102	68%
Little	30	20%
Somewhat	11	7%
Very much	7	5%
<b>Total</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>100%</b>

Respondents highlighted different views concerning the contribution of the development projects to their personal growth as can be seen in Table 4.4. One hundred and two respondents were of the opinion that projects had done nothing to enhance their personal growth, because they were still under the slavery yoke of poverty and still susceptible to any type of hazard. That represented 68% of the respondents. The finding indicated that despite the numbers of players in the field of development, more still needed to be done to address disaster risk that communities lived with, day in and day out.

Thirty respondents had seen little contribution to their personal growth while 11 respondents highlighted that the development project's contributions to their personal growth was somewhat. That represented 20% of the respondents. Seven respondents were of the opinion that they had benefited a lot from development projects. Despite the majority of respondents' view that those projects had not contributed anything to their



personal growth, getting 48 to observe the positive contribution was a notable achievement, thanks to development projects. That is; a positive milestone towards disaster risk reduction in the area under study.

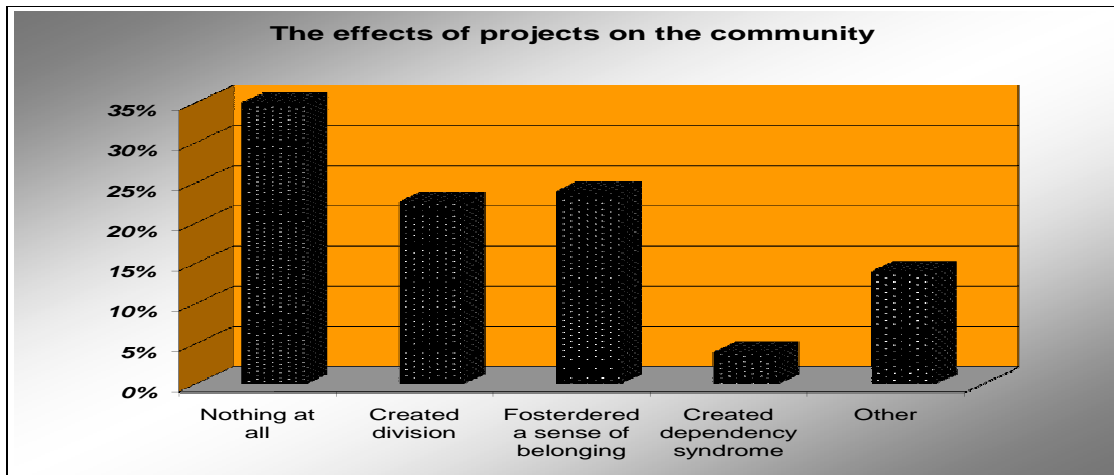


Figure 4.26: The effects of projects on the community

Figure 4.26 indicates that 35% of the respondents were of the opinion that the projects had no impact, and had not affected the communities in any way. However, 24% saw the positive contribution of projects to the community, because they fostered a sense of belonging, meaning that their activities engendered a sense of community efficacy and problem-solving that gave rise to resilience. Despite the highlighted positive contributions 23% lamented the divisions in the community as a result of these projects. More so those divisions were blamed for tearing apart the social fibre and social networks that bound people together before, during and after disasters.

If those divisions went unchecked they resembled a time bomb, hence the contention that such divisions triggered feelings of isolation, encouraged learned helplessness and heightened vulnerability (Bishop *et al.*, 2000). Summing up the entire negatives it would appear that the projects had done more harm than good to their communities, creating division and a dependency syndrome. They do not promote disaster risk reduction in any way.

The beneficiaries received livestock from the development projects, such as cattle, goats and poultry. Those who did not have any livestock were now proud owners of herds of cattle. The implemented projects created sources of income to project beneficiaries. The

projects had also developed the community's conservation farming techniques, which had improved their grain production and enhanced food security amongst project beneficiaries. Notable infrastructural developments, such as a pre-school and boreholes had been realized.

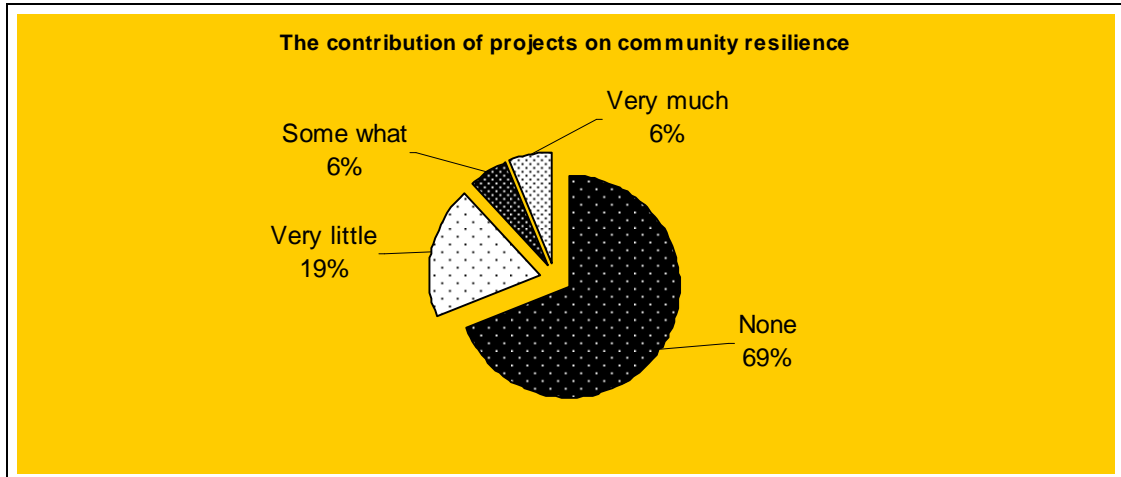


Figure 4.27: Contribution of development programmes on community resilience

It is clear from Figure 4.27 that 69% of the respondents were of the opinion that development programmes had contributed nothing that built or enhanced community resilience. Their argument was that their communities were still susceptible to hazards year in and year out, despite the fact that those projects had been ongoing since the 1980s. Nineteen percent highlighted that the projects had done little to enhance community resilience. Six percent were of the opinion that the contribution was somewhat while the another six percent were quick to point out that the development projects had contributed much to the enhancement and development of community resilience in that it encouraged community members to be actively involved in public affairs and public meetings without fear.

Collective action to reduce risk by households and communities provided entry points for women (and other marginalised social groups) to organise for other purposes too, providing a catalyst for economic and social empowerment (UN-ISDR, 2005). Furthermore these programmes had also empowered women by encouraging communities to give women decision-making positions, hence the reduction of male dominance on development issues. All development projects were mainstream gender issues. Projects encouraged communities to work together towards a common goal,

hence the notion that the most resilient communities were those that worked towards a common goal (Davidson, 2006).

#### **4.7.14 Issues pertaining to development from the beneficiaries**

Respondents highlighted the following projects be done so as to reduce disaster risks in the district.

- Provision of water resources to communities for human consumption, livestock and other income generating ventures to help reduce poverty.
- Government to provide loans for people who want to do income generating projects.
- Providing youths with lifelong skills through training; such as welding, carpentry, brick moulding, garment making, poultry, and so forth.
- Transparency should be ensured and maintained if the programmes are to be a success.

#### **4.10 Conclusion**

This chapter analysed the perceptions of project beneficiaries and non beneficiaries who participated in the study in Mangwe district. A total of 150 questionnaires were administered by research assistants at household level, collected and analysed. Comparisons were done to show the influence of development programmes on the economic, social and well-being of the respondents. Despite, positives identified in some areas of Mangwe, the findings indicated that poverty was still prevalent despite the yearly implementation of developmental and disaster risk reduction initiatives in the district.

Resilience has yet to be achieved as the majority of the community members heavily depend on humanitarian assistance during droughts. Most beneficiaries are in informal employment, with an income way below the poverty datum line, fitting well into all the dimensions of poverty. No initiatives are done to promote upcoming entrepreneurs and

diversification development programmes. Prevailing socio-economic, socio-political conditions and the HIV and AIDS pandemic pose as the greatest challenges for Governments and NGOs in their fight against poverty and disaster risk reduction.

## **Chapter 5**

### **SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 Summary**

The previous chapter presented, discussed and interpreted research findings. This chapter summarizes the research findings, draws conclusions and makes recommendations. The study sought to assess and evaluate the impact of poverty reduction programmes in reducing disaster risks in Mangwe. The descriptive survey was the most appropriate as it captured the respondents' perceptions and attitudes. Data was gathered by research assistants from a sample of 150 households which were randomly sampled. The questionnaire and the interview were the main tools of collecting data from the respondents. The questionnaires were coded and cleaned according to themes in specific contexts and analysed. Open-ended questions were manually analysed. The study results were presented in graphs and table forms where appropriate.

#### **5.2 Conclusions Drawn From the Research**

From the analysis in the previous chapter it can be concluded that:

- Most women have taken over decision-making roles in the household due to the fact that their male counterparts have migrated to neighbouring countries in search of employment and have been empowered through involvement with development NGOs most of which promote gender equity.
- The high number of widowed people in the area under study can be attributed to the impact of the HIV and AIDS pandemic, since the population in the area is very mobile.
- The low levels of education from primary, secondary and tertiary level conspire against the human, socio-cultural capabilities and economic capabilities of Mangwe district.

- Remittances are the major source of income that plays a very important role in keeping and maintaining the families in Mangwe district. This indicates willingness by the Diaspora's to contribute to the development of their communities as well as a capacity for self organization.
- Despite the fact that the majority of the inhabitants of Mangwe own pieces of land ranging between 200m<sup>2</sup> and 5 acres, their agricultural output cannot sustain the families in the district because it is too small.
- The majority of the inhabitants of Mangwe have access to shelter, though more is still to be done to construct standard houses. More so, the provision of borehole and taped water to three quarters of Mangwe district guarantees safety of water to those who use it.
- Significant gains have been made to improve and maintain personal hygiene through the construction of flush toilets and pit latrines; however, more toilets have to be constructed to end the use of the bush as toilets.
- Firewood is the main source of energy for most households in Mangwe; if this goes unchecked serious environmental degradation will result, thus making inhabitants vulnerable to hazards prone to their surroundings.
- Despite the stabilization of the economy most households are food insecure as reflected by the number of meals each household usually have per day. This is further exacerbated by low income levels that force an average family to live by less than \$1.50 per day.
- Mangwe residents are aware of their main sources of information and they utilize them to disseminate information.
- Drought is the most common hazard in the district, which has led to the loss of livestock, crops and other valuable assets. Humanitarian assistance has been the only way to respond to drought. Providing humanitarian assistance over and over again makes recipients lazy and gives birth to dependency syndrome among the people that utilize it. Dependency syndrome destroys resilience, which is a very strong weapon in the fight against disaster.

- Disaster risks posed by hazards can be reduced through infrastructural development, engaging in income generating projects and skills/ knowledge development.
- Despite all the massive disaster risk reduction and development initiatives, substantial gains have not been realized as communities are still vulnerable to hazards. These initiatives have not contributed that much to the personal growth of most members of the community and community resilience has not been fully realized. Furthermore, the level of preparedness in the whole district is a recipe for disaster and a time bomb.
- Most NGOs' development initiatives focus on food security as the only mode of poverty reduction and the same wards were repeatedly targeted for such projects.
- Development projects are considered to be very important in all communities because they enhance knowledge development and community resilience. Nominal socio-economic changes at community level have been observed thanks to disaster risk reduction efforts in the district.
- Despite the general satisfaction on the beneficiary selection criteria expressed by respondents, issues such as; favouritism and stigmatization causes dissatisfaction which leads to the pulling out of beneficiaries from the projects. Irregularities in the beneficiary registration process, poor project management, lack of commitment to the project, and the non involvement of beneficiaries in the identification of the project hinder the success of most projects.
- There is no clear-cut way of choosing project beneficiaries as reflected by responses given by the respondents.
- Projects have a double impact on the communities. On the negative side they have promoted division amongst community members, while on the positive side they have enhanced social networks and also fostered a sense of belonging at community level cascading up to the district level.

- Achieving poverty reduction and disaster risk reduction remains a substantial challenge that needs to be cautiously tackled if the war against it is to be won.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

In the light of conclusions made it is recommended that:

- There is need for transparency, trustworthiness and openness among all stakeholders in the targeting and selection of project beneficiaries, hence the need to adhere to Development and Humanitarian Operational Standards.
- A multi sectoral approach and teamwork are needed if disaster risk reduction is to be achieved in Mangwe district. Efforts should also be made to incorporate Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) in the school curriculum to create awareness and disaster preparedness in Mangwe district.
- The government should continue to educate and expand access to basic education to Mangwe residents. The government and other players in the development field should embark on rigorous campaigns, promotions for educational programmes and construct more secondary schools and tertiary institutions, to reduce poverty of access.
- The Government of Zimbabwe should educate and give basic entrepreneurial skills to community members who are involved in petty trading, on issues like business management, book keeping, budgeting, investment and financial management. This will create employment and also increase income levels of members of the community.
- Since remittances are the main source of income, there is need to establish banking facilities to encourage community members to receive money from their relatives through formal channels while at the same time encouraging saving. The establishment of such facilities will reduce the cost and the risks of sending and receiving money through informal means, hence the need to extend the Home-Link facility to the rural areas. This arrangement could also be used to access credit facilities. The idea of community banking can be pursued.



- There is need to create an environment conducive for entrepreneurship and small business generation. Partnerships should be forged involving the community, the government, NGOs, international donors and other development agencies for the provision of entrepreneurial and business management programmes
- There is need for financial institutions to provide financial support for productive investment for those with the interest of setting up businesses, since initiating small-scale businesses requires start-up capital.
- There is need for the government and other players in development to speedily address the issues of sanitation, and put to an end the use of the bush as a toilet in order to meet the minimum sanitation standards. All interested parties need to be involved in the construction of standard toilets if community hygiene is to be enhanced
- There is need for NGOs in the disaster risk reduction and poverty reduction field to diversify projects, such as education, governance, human rights, water, sanitation, health and infrastructure development rather than concentrate on agricultural related project that focus on food security. More so there is need to provide projects that increase resilience and desist from those that foster a dependency syndrome. There is also need to evenly spread projects in all wards so as to avoid over subscribing the same wards.
- There is need for the residents to be given title deeds to the land that they own so that they can use it as collateral to access credit facilities for the purpose of business development.
- Since firewood is the most used source of energy there is need to invest in the development of other sources; to embark on an intensive re-forestation project to curb deforestation which can result in the desertification of the district.
- There is need to set up a coding system so as to control and monitor NGOs developmental initiatives in order to balance developmental projects in the district and to avoid duplication of effort and double dipping. Efforts should be made to

document all poverty reduction initiatives and to commit more resources to the documentation of development and disaster reduction related issues.

- There is need to establish Local Development Associations (LDAs) to identify and document needs of their communities. These needs will give direction to the type of project to be chosen for the community. They can also advise and provide a link between the communities and the government and NGOs. Involving community members in the identification of projects helps create a sense of project ownership. In the event of a donor pulling out, projects initiated in this way tend to survive longer.

#### **5.4 Possible Research Areas**

- ❖ Impact of humanitarian initiatives on the resilience of marginalized communities in Zimbabwe.
- ❖ The development impact of remittances.
- ❖ Women in Developmental projects, challenges and opportunities in their communities.
- ❖ The history of humanitarian aid in Zimbabwe.
- ❖ The link between migration and HIV/AIDS.

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## APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF THE FREE STATE  
UNIVERSITEIT VAN DIE VRYSTAAT  
YUNIVESITHI YA FREISTATA



**Disaster Management Training and Education Centre for Africa (DiMTEC)**  
Faculty of Natural and Agricultural Sciences

31 March 2010

### To whom it may concern:

Please accept the University of Free State, DiMTEC students who are administering questionnaires in your community. This is part of their studies and the information obtained will be used for academic purposes only.

Kindly contact me should you require any further information.

### Kind Regards

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'A. Jordaan', followed by a horizontal line.

Mr Andries Jordaan  
Director: DiMTEC



**APPENDIX B**

**Name of Interviewer** .....

Ref: NO

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**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS ONLY**

I am a student at the University of the Free State in Bloemfontein doing research on the impact of poverty reduction programmes. I have designed this questionnaire in order to complete my research project which is part of the University requirement. The information collected will be used for academic purposes only, no identification is requested from you and your responses will be treated with all the confidentiality they deserve. The questionnaire is aimed at determining the impact of poverty reduction programmes in reducing and preventing disaster risks in your community. You are therefore requested to answer all the questions as truthfully as possible. Indicate your choice with a "tick" in the boxes provided. You are also expected to add your comments in the spaces provided.

**A BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

**Question 1**

Ward Number .....

**Question 2**

Gender of the respondent

1	Male	
2	Female	

**Question 3**

What is your main role in the household?

1	Head of the household	
2	Spouse	
3	Relative	
4	Other (specify	

**Question 4**

Age in years

1	18 and below	
2	19 – 35	
3	36 – 45	
4	46 – 55	
5	56 and above	

**Question 5**

What is your marital status?

1	Single	
2	Married	
3	Widowed	

4	Divorced	
5	Separated	
6	Other (Specify)	

**Question 6**

Highest level of Education

1	Never gone to school	
2	Primary	
3	Secondary	
4	Tertiary	
5	Other (Specify)	

**Question 7**

What is your main source of income?

1.	No income	
2	Remittances from relatives	
3	Pension	
4	Vending (Buying and selling)	
5	Salary	
6	Other (Specify)	

**Question 8**

What is your main livelihood source?

1.	Subsistence farming	
2	Petty business (buying and selling)	
3	Fishing	
4	Brick moulding	
5	Mopane worms harvesting	
6	Other (Specify)	

**Question 9**

How much is your total income per month in US Dollars?

1	0 to 50	
2	51 to 100	
3	101 to 150	
4	151 – 500	
5	Above 501	

**Question 10**

Does your household own a piece of land?

1	Yes	
2	No	

**Question 11**

Specify the size of land

1	No land	
2	Less than 200m <sup>2</sup>	
3	1 to 2 acres	
4	3 to 4 acres	
5	5acres and above	

**Question 12**

Please indicate the type of accommodation you are using.

1	Mud and thatch	
2	Bricks and thatch	
3	Brick and corrugated iron/asbestos	
4	Plastic shacks	
5	Other (specify)	

**Question 13**

Is your house or homestead electrified?

1	Yes	
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2	No	
---	----	--

**Question 14**

What is your main source of cooking energy?

1	Fire wood	
2	Paraffin	
3	Gas	
4	Charcoal	
5	Electricity	
6	Other( Specify)	

**Question 15**

How many meals does your family usually have per day?

1	One	
2	Two	
3	Three	
4	Other( Specify)	

**Question 16**

What kind of toilet do you use?

1	Flash	
2	Pit latrine/bucket	
3	Bush	
4	Other( Specify)	

**Question 17**

What is your main source of water?

1	Tape water in house	
2	Communal tape	
3	Bore hole	
4	Well	
5	River/dam	
6	Other (Specify)	

**Question 18**

How much time do you take to get to the water point?

1	Tape in the house/yard	
2	Between 5 and 10minutes	
3	Between10 and 20minutes	

4	Between 20 and 30minutes	
5	More than 30 minutes	

**(B) INFORMATION ON DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS**

**Question 19**

Have you ever received humanitarian aid in the past five years?

1	Yes	
2	No	

If “Yes” Explain what had happened

.....

**Question 20**

What is your main source of information?

1	Do not know	
2	Educational institutions	
3	Awareness programmes	
4	Community meetings	
5	Television and radio broadcast	
6	Other (specify)	

**Question 21**

Which hazard is very common in your area which puts your community at risk?

1	None	
2	Drought	
3	Veld fires	

4	Floods	
5	Severe weather	
6	Other (specify)	

**Question 22**

What did you lose as a result of a disaster that occurred in your area?

1	Property	
2	Crops	
3	Livestock	
4	Relative	
5	Other (specify)	

**Question 23**

How did you deal with the disaster?

1	None	
2	Waited for Government and NGO aid	
3	Engaged in buying and selling	
4	Formed groups to buy in commodities in bulk	
5	Planted drought tolerant crops	
6	Other (Specify)	

**Question 24**

How would you rate your state of preparedness in relation to hazard?

1	Not all	
2	Little	
3	Some what	
4	Very much	

**Question 25**

Suggest ways of reducing the risks posed by these hazards

1	
---	--

2	
3	
4	
5	

**Question 26**

Identify developmental projects if any that have been implemented in your community to minimize the impact of the hazards.

1	
2	
3	
4	

**Question 27**

Do you think developmental projects are important to your community?

1	Yes	
2	No	

Give reasons for your answer

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**Question 28**

How many times have you benefited from development projects?

1	Not at all	
2	Once	
3	Twice	
4	More than three times	

**Question 29**



How many projects have been implemented in your ward between 2002 and present?

1	No project	
2	One to two	
3	Three to five	
4	Six and above	

**Question 30**

Of the projects implemented between 2002 and present that you know, how many are still running effectively?

1	None	
2	One	
3	Two	
4	More than three	

**Question 31**

What could be the main possible reason for the state of these projects?

1	Non involvement of communities in design and identification of projects	
2	Lack of community interest	
3	Community involvement	
4	Lack of political will	
5	Other (Specify)	

**Question 32**

Who chose the project that was implemented in your community?

1	No projects	
2	Community	
3	Local council	
4	Politicians	
5	Non Governmental Organizations	
6	Do not know	

**Question 33**

Are you satisfied with the project beneficiary selection criteria?

1	No project	
2	Yes	
3	No	

Give reasons for your answer

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**Question 34**

How have the programmes reduced disaster risks in your community?

1	Not all	
2	Very little	
3	Some what	
4	Very much	

**Question 35**

Has there been any positive change in the socioeconomic situation of your community as a result of projects implemented?

1	No project at all	
2	Yes	
3	No	

Give reasons for your answer

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**Question 36**

How have the implemented projects affected your community?

1	Nothing at all	
2	Have created division in the communities	
3	Fostered a sense of belonging	
4	Created dependency syndrome	

**Question 37**

List benefits if any that you got from a development project as a community.

1	
2	
3	
4	

**Question 38**

How would you rank the contribution of poverty reduction projects towards your personal growth?

1	2	3	4
None	Little	Somewhat	Very much

**Question 39**

What is the contribution of development programmes to the resilience of your community?

1	None	
2	Little	
3	Some what	
4	Very much	

**Question 40**

What other issues pertaining to development projects would you like to elaborate on?

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**Thank you for sparing your time to complete this questionnaire!!**

