The role of civil society organizations in disaster response and relief. A case of Tokwe-Mukosi.

BY

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Dedications

To my parents (Mr. and Mrs. Zhou) Siyabonga and Trish.
Acknowledgements

Special thanks goes to my God Almighty who was with me all the times. My sincere gratitude goes to Mr. Chibanda for the guidance, assistance and support, thank you sir. To Midlands Aids Service Organisation thank you for allowing me to be part of your organisation. I would also like to thank my family for the unwavering support both financially and socially, to my brothers and sisters only God knows how thankful I am. To my friends (the intellectuals) you have been a source of inspiration and finally to Midlands State University thank you for your support in this journey of academics.
Abstract

The research set out to assess the roles of civil society organizations in disaster response and relief in regards with the Tokwe-Mukosi flood disasters. The research used both primary and secondary sources to collect data. Qualitative data collection methods were applied through the use of interviews and questionnaires. The key findings of the study is that civil society organizations failed to provide adequate response and relief services to the victims of Tokwe-Mukosi flood disasters. Gaps identified in the response stage include poor dissemination of early warning messages as well as poor relocation of victims from the transit camps to Chingwizi holding camp. In the relief stage the research indentified failures in, the provision of clean water, health services, food and nutrition, also the education services were very poor. The research established that the civil society organizations had challenges in sourcing resources from the donor community and hence the inadequate response and relief at Chingwizi. The researcher recommends that, future response and relief services should be supported by vibrant preparedness plans such as timely and targeted early warning messages, strong financial resource base and coordination amongst stakeholders in disaster response and relief.
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<tr>
<td>CPA</td>
<td>Civil Protection Act</td>
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<td>CPU</td>
<td>Civil Protection Unit</td>
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<td>CSO</td>
<td>Civil Society Organisations</td>
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<td>DCP</td>
<td>Department of Civil Protection</td>
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<td>IOM</td>
<td>International Organisation on Migration</td>
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<td>NCPCC</td>
<td>National Civil Protection Coordinating Committee</td>
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<td>NFI</td>
<td>Non Food Items</td>
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<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non Governmental Organisation</td>
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<td>PPCC</td>
<td>Provincial Protection Coordinating Committee</td>
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<tr>
<td>SIRDC</td>
<td>Scientific Institute for Research and Development Cooperation</td>
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<td>UNDP</td>
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<td>UNOCHA</td>
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<td>WHO</td>
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0.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the study was to assess the role of Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) in disaster response and relief with the regards to the Tokwe-Mukosi flood. Heavy rains and mudslide in the late January and early February as well as the partial collapse of the Tokwe-Mukosi Dam wall resulted in flooding in the Tokwe area. Tokwe-Mukosi is in the semi arid Southern Masvingo region in Chivi district.

Recent years has seen an increase of natural hazards regionally and globally as a result of climate change. Bongo (2014) agrees as he argues that, there is convincing evidence that the frequency and magnitude of disasters is increasing. Due to the increase of natural hazards, civil society organizations have become an important sector in complementing governments in disaster response and relief.

CSOs are important in disaster response and relief in Zimbabwe because they have the capacity to mobilize resources necessary for disaster response and relief more quickly than the government. Adequate resources in disaster response and relief ensures that damage to property, livestock and crops is minimized and also that lives are saved. Bongo (2014), argues that disasters and hazards greatly reverse the gains of development, and ignoring disaster response and relief in development projects is self-defeating.

The CSOs have also been commendated for using the bottom up approach in their dealings with disasters victims. The bottom up approach enables direct contact between the humanitarian service providers and the victims, as a result victims are equipped on how to respond when such a disaster strikes again thereby reducing risk for victims. The study further explored the ability of different CSO to work together in order to provide adequate relief and response services. It need to be noted that good coordination, dialogue and information sharing amongst CSOs during a disaster is important so as to avoid problems
associated with duplication, wastage of resources and competition. Such kind of networking between organizations working together towards the same goal will not only serve to increase individual efforts but will help in ensuring accountability and transparency in response.

The research therefore seeks to assess the adequacy of the services provided to disaster victim by CSOs in particular looking at the recent Tokwe-Mukosi flood disasters. Particular attention being placed on the indicators of disaster response and relief that is health, water and sanitation, education and shelter. As proper and adequate response saves life, livestock, property and the environment.

0.2 Background

Zimbabwe has experienced a number of disasters since independence, according to Prevention Web Report (2012) between 1980 and 2010, Zimbabwe has documented at least 35 natural disasters, which resulted in 6,448 deaths, averaging 208 deaths from disasters annually and of the 35 natural disasters, 6 were drought occurrences, 7 were floods, 2 were storms, and 20 were epidemic occurrences. Following independence the government of Zimbabwe put in place supporting legislation so as to establish a national emergency management system.

The Civil Protection Act of 1989 was designed by the government so as to channel the actions of both public and private response services. The Department of Civil Protection has been the main body tasked with the responsibility of setting up emergency management plans according to UNISDR (2005).

The overall role of the Department of Civil Protection (DCP) is to mobilize resources so as to prepare and respond to major emergencies and disasters in the country. The government of Zimbabwe through the DCP and the United Nations-Humanitarian Coordinator coordinates
the strategic response with the involvement and collaboration of all humanitarian actors from the government, UN and NGO community, and the private sector if possible.

In case of a disaster alert, just as the case with the Tokwe-Mukosi declaration the department of civil protection through its national, provincial and district level teams conduct joint assessments with partners that is, the CSOs, with the aim to assess situations of affected communities. Information gathered is then used as a basis for planning for a coordinated, effective and efficient disaster response and relief.

Civil society organisations, just like in the past played an important role in complimenting government efforts in providing response and relief efforts to the victims of Tokwe-Mukosi. CSOs undertook impact and vulnerability assessments and these were used by both the government and the CSOs to plan for adequate response and relief. CSOs were also in the forefront of evacuating the victims from the disaster zone to the temporary holding camps and later to Chingwizi holding camp. In addition, CSOs assisted with food and Non Food Items (NFI) such as blankets, tents, health kits and water. Some of the organisations that provided response and relief to the Tokwe-Mukosi flood victims include Zimbabwe Red Cross, Christian Care, World Vision, International Organisation on Migration, Action FAIM, just to mention a few.

0.3 Conceptual Framework

Mostly during disasters humanitarian agencies, that is CSOs are called upon to deal with immediate response and recovery. Usually it is the highest office that is the president or in some cases the prime minister who declares a national disaster and calls upon for humanitarian assistance.
0.3.1 Disaster

UNDP (2003) defines disaster as a sudden adverse or unfortunate extreme event which causes great damage to human beings as well as plants and animals. The report goes on to state that, disasters occur rapidly, instantaneously and indiscriminately, these extreme events either natural or man induced exceed the tolerable magnitude within or beyond certain time limits, make adjustment difficult, result in catastrophic losses of property and income and life is paralyzed.

0.3.2 Disaster Response

Disaster response is the sum total of activities taken in the face of a disaster. Disaster response commences as soon as a warning of a coming threat is relayed. It involves issuing out of early warnings and evacuation of victims from the disaster zone to safety.

0.3.3 Disaster Relief

Entails the provision of assistance during and immediately after a disaster so as to preserve life and provide victims with basic life subsistence needs. Relief is the provision of assistance or intervention during or immediately after a disaster to meet the life preservation and basic subsistence needs of those people affected according to ISDR (2007)

Disaster management cycle

Figure 1: Disaster Management Cycle
0.3.4 The roles of civil society.

CSOs serve three important roles in disaster response and relief. First, CSOs can help with Communication between government and local communities. Second, the current trend for the donor community to send funds for disaster response and relief through CSOs rather than directly through national governments has made it necessary that governments effectively integrate CSOs into all the levels of the national structure. Thirdly, CSOs significantly assist in promoting community awareness and preparedness.

0.3.5Vulnerable groups

In order to increase the coping mechanisms of disaster victims, it is vital to acknowledge the differences in vulnerabilities, needs and capabilities of the affected population, looking on factors such as age, disability, gender and HIV/AIDS status.

0.3.6 Sphere’ standards

CSOs are committed to ensure that people affected by disasters have access to the minimum standards in five key sectors that is water and sanitation, food security, nutrition, shelter. Relief can be of an immediate, short term or protracted duration. Usually response and relief goes hand in hand.

0.3.7 Aims of Response/Relief

The overall aim is to ensure the survival of as many victims as possible as well as ensuring to keep victims in the possible best health. In addition relief seeks to re-establish self – sufficiency and essential services as quickly as possible to all victims.

0.3.8 Disaster Response/Relief Activities

- Warnings must be issued to all stakeholders concerned, it should be noted that the mode of communication should penetrate the periphery. Warnings can be issued through various modes of communication for example print and electronic media.
Evacuation involves moving of victims from disaster zones to safer areas.

Provision of basic needs, that is water and sanitation, food, shelter, health and education services.

Relocation to permanent settlement.

0.4 Statement of the problem
The research seeks to examine the role played by Civil Society in disaster response and relief. In particular the research focused on the role played by CSOs in disaster response and relief in Tokwe-Mukosi considering the fact that the floods swept away livestock, crops, property and above all their homes. Looking at the Tokwe area one realises that with the loss of crops, property and livestock the victims were left with no forms of livelihood or entitlements whatsoever, hence the need for effective response and relief during disasters so as to re-establish sufficiency as fast as possible.

0.5 Objectives
1. To assess the importance of CSOs in providing response and relief to disaster victims in Zimbabwe

2. To examine the roles of CSOs in disaster response and relief in Tokwe-Mukosi

3. To examine the challenges and offer recommendations on how CSOs could improve on disaster response and relief in Zimbabwe.

0.5 Research questions
1. What is the importance of CSOs in disaster response and relief in Zimbabwe?

2. What were the roles of CSOs in providing disaster response and relief in Tokwe-Mukosi?
3. What challenges were faced by CSOs in providing disaster response and relief in Chingwizi?

4. Was there any cooperation and coordination amongst the humanitarian agencies in Tokwe-Mukosi?

0.6 Theoretical framework

0.6.1 Sustainability Theory

According to UNISDR (2005) sustainability 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. Klein (2003) agrees with the above statements as he points out that sustainability means the amount of disturbance a system can absorb and still remain within the same state. To this regard CSOs should respond to disasters in ways that minimize social disruption but at the same time mitigating the effects of future disasters.

The study was guided by the sustainability theory, this theory helped the researcher to analyse the effectiveness of the relief services provided to the Tokwe-Mukosi flood victims. In assessing the roles of CSOs in disaster response the researcher was using the three pillars of sustainable development that is economic development, social equity and environmental protection.

Disasters cause communities to deviate from their sustainable development paths, in the case of Tokwe-Mukosi floods the victims lost livestock, crops and homes were swept away and also schools were destroyed. The Tokwe-Mukosi floods led to loss of entitlements as well as means of production. Thus the theory will helped the researcher to analyse the importance of
CSOs in promoting human development, economic growth, social equity as well as environmental protection.

The response and relief efforts however, need to be environmental friendly as sustainable development must meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Poor relief services at Chingwizi, led to environmental degradation as large populations were concentrated on a small piece of land thereby damaging the biodiversity. Shortage of toilets also led to land and air pollution.

Relief assistance alone cannot strengthen the capacity of poor Tokwe-Mukosi victims to cope with the loses they incurred. Instead, Tokwe-Mukosi victims have to gain access to the long-term entitlements and capacities sustains them at the same time reducing the need for relief aid. Thus long term and better targeted relief assistance to the Tokwe victims is an important, tool if sustainability is to be achieved in the long run. There is also a need to introduce new strategic policies and interventions so as to address future disasters at Tokwe.

0.7 Research Methodology

The research used qualitative approach. Qualitative design was chosen in this research mainly because the researcher sorts to obtain an in-depth understanding of the kind of response and relief rendered to the Tokwe-Mukosi victims. According to Mounton(1996) qualitative research seeks to gain first hand and holistic understanding of a phenomenon using flexible methods such as interviews and discussions.

Qualitative research was chosen because it is largely descriptive, interpretive and explanatory in nature, qualitative looks further than precise numerical evidence for example in this research the design proved to be important as the researcher managed to get descriptions, feelings, and comments that cannot be established using quantitative methods.
0.8 Methods for data collection

0.8.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires were used to collect data from selected respondents. Law (2003) states that a questionnaire is a written list of questions, either given or posted to respondents who fill in themselves. He goes on to state that in a questionnaire information is gathered directly from people through a series of many questions. The questionnaires were used to determine if the relief efforts at Chingwizi were adequate or not. Open ended questions were used to obtain information from the Tokwe-Mukosi flood victims. Questionnaires were important in this research because they were issued to many respondents thus making it possible to save time for both the researcher and the respondents. According to Kotari(2003), structured questionnaires are important in that the results or the responses are easy to interpret and analyse.

0.8.2 Interviews

An interview is a face-to-face confrontation between the interviewer and the respondent as according to Leady (1980). In this research, interviews were used to collect data from the victims of the disaster. More so, interviews were used where one prefers them instead of questionnaires especially when the respondents were illiterate. Unstructured interviews were preferred in this research because they form a smooth flow of conservation where the interviewer has no predetermined questions.

Bell (1999) states that, the major advantage of an interview is its adaptability. She goes on to say that the way in which a response is made, that is the tone, voice, facial expression and hesitation can provide information that a written response would conceal. Thus interviews were used in this particular research because they provided rich material and filled in flesh on the bones left by questionnaire responses, they complemented questionnaires so as to get
the true picture of the relief services rendered to the Tokwe victims. Although, as according to Cohen(1976) interviewing is an activity requiring careful preparation, much patience and considerable practice, interviews helped the researcher interpret meanings from facial expression and attach subjective conclusion.

0.8.3Desktop

This research methodology encompassed the use of online research, information was accessed through the internet, reading journals online, on line books as well as published articles by different scholars on the roles of CSOs in disaster response and relief in Zimbabwe, in Chingwizi holding camp to be particular.

0.8.4 Sampling

According to Miller (2007), sampling refers to the selection of participants for a research. The rationale behind sampling in this research, was that, studying the entire population was going to be very expensive and costly thus a small group(sample) within the entire population was be selected. It should be noted, however, that the researcher ensured that the sample was selected in a way that represented the intended population meaning that the sample showed relevant characteristics in the same way as in the entire population. Thus the findings can be properly applied to the population as a whole.

0.8.5 Target population

The researcher made use of 20 households which is 100 respondents of the Tokwe-Mukosi flood disasters. Kendall (2014) argues that qualitative researchers are more concerned with the level of depth of information than the number of participants about whom they are getting the information. Thus, the research was conducted on 20 households of the victims of Tokwe floods.
0.8.6 Purposive Sampling

Purposive sampling is a type of non-probability sampling where the sites that are assessed are defined by the assessment Team and based on the purpose of the assessment according to Humanitarian response(2014). A purposive sampling procedure was used so as to identify only those people who were directly affected by the Tokwe-Mukosi floods were assessed. The aim was to target people who were directly involved in the flood disaster and to extract their views on disasters and their characterization.

0.9 Literature review

The profile of (CSOs) in the world has increased dramatically over the past years. International and local NGOs have moved to the centre stage within international, national and local efforts to eradicate poverty, and are now seen as an important element of ‘civil society’. However, the mushrooming of CSOs has attracted debate amongst scholars. Bennett (1995) points out that there are also current debates about NGOs in connection with the provision of international humanitarian relief in wars and natural disasters.

Natural disasters, particularly related to climate change, are fast becoming a leading cause for displacements although conceptual, and normative institutional frameworks to provide human rights protection to the environmentally displaced are not yet in place according to the Brookings Education Report (2014). Many people have been displaced by natural disasters but these people do not fit into the definition of refugees under the refugee convention of 1951. However, there is a growing need from states to establish frameworks for these people’s needs, vulnerabilities, and states have to provide for such people. CSOs globally have to be in the forefront of advocating for such institutional frameworks to be established.

In addition, the United Nations Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre report cites a figure of 26, 5 million drought affected persons in 2008, but no overall estimates for those displaced
by slow on-set disaster according to the UNOCHA and IDMC (2009). This therefore means that CSOs have not been doing their role of being the voice of the voiceless if one considers the magnitude of people who were displaced droughts in 2008 alone. Much has to be done by CSOs in campaigning for the plight of displaced persons because of climate change.

According to Burkle, Lyznck and James unfortunately, the response to humanitarian crisis and large-scale natural disasters worldwide have shown consistent failures in coordination, intervention and documentation of impact outcomes. The report further points out that the response to the Haitian earthquake of 2010 catalyzed the international community to address these shortcomings and requirements for greater accountability, stringent quality performance oversights, documentation and reporting, and a recognized process leading to professionalization of the humanitarian community.

During and after a catastrophic event vulnerable persons include women, children, the elderly, people with disabilities and pregnant women. According to, Uscher-Pines et al (2007) a review for thirty seven- national pandemic preparedness plans for Europe, Asia, and the Pacific Rim, the Middle East, Africa and the Americas revealed that, none of the plans suggested any systematic attempt to indentify disadvantaged groups. It is the disadvantaged groups that are worst affected by disaster and hence there is need to prioritize these groups to reduce their vulnerabilities. This should be the role of both the governments and CSOs.

Furthermore, Hall (2007) argues that, the disadvantaged suffers large death tolls as illustrated by Hurricane Katrina, in which over 1,800 individuals died because they were unable to evacuate the city. The aftermath of Hurricane Katrina shows the failed emergency response from both the U.S government and the CSOs. In terms of legal literature the fate of the disadvantaged persons has received little attention. It is therefore prudent for governments
and CSOs to consider the disadvantaged in disaster preparedness plans so as to ensure effective response as well as reducing the loss of lives.

Mendelson and Glenn points out that, CSOs have been continuously attacked for repeated organisational failings, corruption, unaccountability and working too closely within the interests of the West. Robinson (1992) shares the same view with the above as he states that, the American policy of covertly funding the Contras in Nicaragua during the early 1980s was, for instance, closely tied to the National Endowment for Democracy’s programme of funding CSOs with friendly world-views. Corruption and lack of accountability by CSOs has led to unsustainable relief efforts in most cases. Jalali(2002) claims that, if CSOs can create ‘social capital (cooperation and trust) for effective disaster relief… by raising issue in the public arena and demanding public action’, attention needs to be given to exactly how this takes place.

Relief aid that comes to Africa is seen as the foreign policy of the West. It is believed that donor countries in most cases use relief aid to promote their own business-related and national intentional interests. Under such instances food aid is not likely, to reduce the impacts of disasters to victims as in most cases CSOs and government tend to clash hence the failure of response.

Furthermore, Van Rooy(1998) argues that, the selection of local CSOs as ‘partners’ of the international community is often guided by highly limited understandings of the disaster-affected community. CSOs in Africa just pump in resources for disaster response and relief without actually getting into the ground to understand the disaster affected communities. It is in this regards that, communities in Africa fail to be resilient to disasters.

As Carroll (1992) points out that, service delivery is perhaps the most directly observable, visible role as NGOs attempt to provide goods and services that are wanted, needed or
otherwise unavailable. However, Gilman (2010) does not share the same view with Carrol as he states that, with the increase of humanitarian actors, the relief system has met a series of challenges, including the need to both increase resources towards humanitarian ends and to improve operational effectiveness and efficiency. It need, to be noted that Zimbabwe alone has hundreds of national and international humanitarian organizations. However, these humanitarian organizations have failed to provide effective and efficient response to disasters. The recent Tokwe-Mukosi flood disaster gives ample evidences of failures of civil society organizations to provide relief.

Much criticism can be spaced at the humanitarian system of Zimbabwe for failing to meet the fundamental necessities of affected populations in a timely manner. The humanitarian community responded late for the Tokwe–Mukosi flood disasters. It need to be noted that the quality of the response was very poor, with shortages of health material, food, toilets, water and inadequate material for the education system. All these shortages are practical examples to show that CSOs fail to mobilise resources for effective response and relief services.

In Zimbabwe, CSOs have also been criticised on the issue of distribution of aid meant for disasters. Disaster response and relief receives limited funding from the donor community. Walker and Pepper (2007) states that for instance, the Zimbabwe (2004) flash floods received only 14% of needed funds. In Zimbabwe disasters does not attract enough funding for instance the 2014 floods that affected most provinces less attention came from the CSOs. For example the organization that were providing relief at Chingwizi pulled out before the victims were resettled permanently due to lack of resources. Also in 2013, CSOs only provided emergency response to the Mberengwa West hailstorm victims as a result of inadequate resources no relief was given to the victims.
Lofredo (1995) argues that CSOs have deviated from their traditional roles of sourcing scarce resources for the benefit of the needy to sourcing resources for their own benefit. CSOs have been critiqued for poor targeting. The arguments are that, governments, UN agencies and NGOs are not giving relief aid to disaster victims instead they use donations meant for relief services for their own personal use. After years of providing response and relief services on disasters CSOs organisations have not succeeded in reducing the impacts of disasters. Conclusions can therefore be drawn that, CSOs are opportunists. When disasters strikes CSOs see opportunities to access donor funds. CSOs should be more vibrant in promoting, adoption and empowering disaster management institutions in Zimbabwe. Lofredo concludes that, CSOs in some cases are the result of the ‘supply’ of resources from outside, which have led in many cases to the highly uncomplimentary view of NGOs as vehicles for unscrupulous individuals to ‘get rich quick’.

Johnson-Lans (2005) clearly put it that, NGOs are criticised for lacking appropriate evaluation strategies of their programmes, particularly when it is performed by donor agencies that might not be sensitive to the needs of the locals. Monitoring is very crucial in the sense that it enables organisations to see if they are following their objectives, also evaluation is an important tool to see mistakes and to correct them in the future. The absence of monitoring and evaluation of project by a number of NGOs means that there are high chances of not seeing their mistakes and hence they remain unnoticed and uncorrected. Bendell (2006) adds that, questions about the effectiveness of NGOs in providing services in general, development assistance in particular, mean that they are no longer seen as magic bullets for international development.

Cernea(1988) sees CSOs’ main contribution as one of strengthening local organizational capacity, and he notes that the NGO priority on first organizing the people embodies a philosophy that recognizes the centrality of people in development policies and action
programs and the importance of self-organization. However, in Zimbabwe it’s a different case, the situation in Zimbabwe is clearly explained by Tendler (1982) who points out that, many of the NGOs are often top-down rather than participatory in their decision making, that villagers are marginally (if at all) involved in NGO project design; that local elites often influence or control NGO programs. The situation at Chingwizi is a practical example.
1.0 CHAPTER ONE

1.1 DISASTER RESPONSE AND RELIEF AND THE ROLE PLAYED BY CIVIL SOCIETY IN DISASTER RESPONSE AND RELIEF IN ZIMBABWE.

The chapter is first going to outline the different mechanism that has been put in place by the Zimbabwean government in order to manage disasters. Mechanisms such as legislature and under legislature special attention will be directed on the Civil Protection Act (CPA) No5 of 1989, National Civil Protection Fund (NCPF) and policy and legislation review. Also the institutional capacity of Zimbabwe in regards to disaster response and relief will be described much emphasis being placed on Zimbabwe National Water Authority (ZINWA). The second aspect under this chapter will be the different roles played by CSOs in disaster response and relief, attention being paid on provision of early warnings to communities, impacts and vulnerability assessments, evacuations, coordination, provision of relief that is food, water, shelter, health services sanitation and the coping strategies. The last aspect will be the causes of the Tokwe-Mukosi flood disasters and their effects to the Tokwe community.

Zimbabwe is one of the countries in the SADC region and the world at large that is exposed to a number of hazards both natural and man-made. Due to the increases in frequency and intensity of natural disasters the government of Zimbabwe has introduced a number of mechanisms so as prepare to for disaster response and relief. The Reliefweb (2014) points out that institutional and technical capacity exist to reduce the risk and impact of flood-induced disasters.

1.2 Legislative framework and policy planning documents

According to Chikoto and Sadiq (2012), following independence, the Government of Zimbabwe put in place supporting legislation to establish a sophisticated national emergency
management system. The Civil Protection Act of 1989 was designed by the government of Zimbabwe so as to direct the actions of both public and private response services. This is supported by the UNISDR (2004) report which states that, the Civil Protection Act, developed in 1989, has since guided disaster response and relief in Zimbabwe. The report adds that the above Act also defines procedures for declaring a State of Disaster/National Disaster. This in most cases is the responsibility of the President or the Prime minister. The Act also stipulates guidelines for action and calls for maximum utilization of resources towards relief in case of an emergency.

The UNISDR (2005) states that, the Department of Civil Protection (DCP) is a national organ which is housed under the ministry of Local Government, Public Works and National Housing. The Department was established so as carry out the overall coordination of all relevant disaster management stakeholders. However, the DCP is assisted by sub committees. InterWorks (1998) report concurs with the statement of sub committees as it postulates that, to assist in the planning process, the (DCP) appoints its own civil protection officers at both the provincial and district levels to mediate between these levels of government and the national government. The Government of Zimbabwe through DCP and the United Nations-Humanitarian Coordinator (UN-HC) coordinates the strategic response with the involvement and collaboration of all humanitarian actors from the Government, UN and NGO community, and the private sector if possible.

In the case of an alert or a disaster break out, the Department of Civil Protection through its national, provincial and district level teams conducts joint assessment with partners the major reason being to identify the situations existing in the affected areas and measure the extent of harm caused by the identified hazard to people, livelihoods and infrastructure. This information will therefore allow establishment of a coordinated, effective and efficient response to the disaster if need be, and the early planning of recovery measures.
1.2.1 National Civil Protection Fund

In order to prepare for emergencies such as floods, droughts, road accidents just to mention a few a National Civil Protection fund was established (NCPF). The UNISDR(2005) report points out that, in terms of funding the Department of Civil Protection (DCP) administers the NCPF which receives money from the central government. According to the same report the funds are applied to development and promotion of civil protection activities throughout the country. It is this NCPF that is used by the CPU to respond to emergencies.

1.2.2 Policy and Legislation Review

The country has engaged in a process to review its legislation since 1995 in an effort to strengthen disaster risk reduction according to the UNISDR (2005) report. During the reviewing process all relevant stakeholders were consulted and participated. The process led into a bill for consideration by the parliament. The same report outlines the major priorities of the bill and they are as follows;

- Repeal the current CPA to be replaced by the emergency Preparedness and Disaster Management,
- Establishment of an Emergency Preparedness and disaster Management Authority whose major functions include developing a risk reduction strategy in order to minimize vulnerability to both natural and man-made or technological hazards,
- Establishment of an integrated early warning system for emergencies and disasters,
- Integration of disaster risk reduction into all developmental initiatives,
- Establishment of a funding mechanism for disaster reduction at both local and national level,
- Capacitating of local authority to manage emergencies and disasters at local level,
Standardised training for emergency service. The draft bill for amending the CPA was developed in such a way that it conforms with the international standards that is the Hyogo Framework of Action.

1.2.3 Institutional Capacity

The UNISDR stipulates that the Meteorological Service Department and Civil Protection closely monitors the weather and is mandated to regularly give updates and warning information of any threatening events through the pre-set channels of communication. In addition the Meteorological department is supposed to give predictions of forecasts through public weather forecasts for the benefit of the population at large. The department supports search and rescue activities under disaster management help.

The Zimbabwean government through the Meteorological Department is able to predict more heavy rainfall across the country, particularly in the north. As a result, a number of flood-prone areas has been indentified and they include communities along the Save, Zambezi and possibly the Limpopo River, these are more vulnerable to severe flooding during the peak of the rainy season. This department is also responsible for warnings about the risk of backflows of water into the Muzarabani area from the Cahora Bassa Dam in Mozambique, causing further harm. The civil protection authorities has indentified areas that are most vulnerable to flooding during rainy seasons and these are, Centenary and Guruve (includes Muzarabani) in Mashonaland Central Province; Kariba in Mashonaland West Province; Chipinge in Manicaland Province; Chiredzi in Masvingo Province; Beitbridge in Matabeleland South Province; Tsholotsho and Hwange in Matabeleland North Province; and Mvuma in Midlands Province. The above mentioned areas have disadvantages of being remote, difficult to access and suffer from poor communication, making emergency
operations difficult. They are also highly exposed to food insecurity, being classically drought-prone areas.

The Zimbabwe National Water Authority (ZINWA) is another institution that also deals with disaster response and relief. ZINWA is one important partner on flood early warning system. The other major role of this institution is to monitor river flows and the state of hydrology for the whole country.

Furthermore, the UNISDR (2005) articulates that, the government of Zimbabwe engages existing institutions for the execution of scientific research work that is in line with disaster risk reduction. The report gives an example of the technical support for scientific research that can be obtained from the University of Zimbabwe from the Scientific Institute of Research and Development Cooperation (SIRDC) of which both of these are parastatals. These two are responsible for studying soil samples that are collected from communities that are vulnerable to flood disasters and for developing sustainable construction materials. These institutions are also responsible for giving recommendations to policy makers on whether such areas are suitable for settlement by people or not.

1.3 Civil society and disaster Response and Relief in Zimbabwe.

Mbohwa (2006) points out that when disasters strike, relief organizations respond by delivering aid to those in need. He goes on to say that their supply chains must be both fast and agile, responding to sudden-onset of disasters.

According to the Academia education (2014) report, international organisations are involved in disaster response in Zimbabwe, but have to request prior permission from the National Civil Protection Coordinating Committee (NCPCC) or the Provincial Civil Protection Planning Committee (PCPPC). The report goes on to state that, the CPU will consider the
request and may invite the agency to help respond to the disaster. In this regard, the UN established their Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) within Zimbabwe in early 2006. OCHA is now responsible for coordinating the disaster response of humanitarian organisations, working alongside the CPU and the government.

In addition, UNOCHA (2008) in Zimbabwe, the international humanitarian community supported the Government at the district, provincial and capital levels through the IASC Country Team, which is chaired by the UN Resident/Humanitarian Coordinator, and composed of the UN humanitarian agencies, the IFRC and three NGO representatives. The report goes further to state that, the ICRC contributes to the IASC Country Team’s efforts in the quality of standing invitee. The report also maintains that, IASC Country Team is supported by the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), which remains in close contact with the Government’s Civil Protection Unit (CPU) on the flood situation, as well as operational response issues. The CPU is the major Government central point in emergencies, and unites all important Government entities together so as to ensure a coordinated response. According to the same report, humanitarian coordination is further conducted at the technical level through sectoral working groups, in which humanitarian partners and donors work together to ensure an efficient and effective response to the floods. The report identifies the sectoral working groups active in the response to floods include: water, sanitation and hygiene; education; agriculture; nutrition; health; as well as shelter and Non Food Items (NFIs).

OCHA (2007) points out that, severe flooding affected Eastern Zimbabwe, particularly the Tongogara refugee camp in the Chipinge District and in December 2007 the government of Zimbabwe declared the floods as a state of disaster. The report goes on to state that as a result of these floods it is said that at least 27 people died, 600 homes damaged as well as, roads and
communications equipment destroyed. The CPU with the help from OCHA was able to coordinate the response to the floods.

However, there were some government departments that were heavily involved on the mentioned floods and they include the Meteorological Services Department and the Zimbabwe National Water Authority. As a result of the displacement of people the IOM was also a part and parcel of the relief effort. NGOs involved include the ICRC, local Red Cross, WFP and Christian Care.

The Zimbabwe Red Cross Society (ZRCS) operates countrywide, the district offices usually deal with issues of food distribution and communities support whilst the provincial offices are there to provide support to their respective districts and as such they deal with issues of procurement of goods and resource mobilization from the National Executive Council (NEC) as according to Mbohwa (2006). In Zimbabwe ZRCS has been conducting projects mostly within the health sector ever since 1988 and the chief programme elements in this sector include, the integrated HIV/AIDS programmes, home-based care, counselling, provision of clothes and the provision of HIV drugs. However, there are other projects conducted by ZRCS that are outside the health sector for example the organisation also provides funding for disaster management programmes putting much importance on preparedness measures both in communities and within the Society itself in order to allow a quick and better response in case of disasters such as drought and floods.

The ZRCS programmes have been formulated with a focus of reducing the suffering of the most vulnerable communities through the implementation of community-based health and care, water and sanitation, disaster preparedness, food security and livelihoods projects. This is in line with International Federation Red Cross (IFRC) programming strategy as outlined in
the Ouagadougou Declaration (2000). The need for charitable services is on the rise following the social and economic crisis that is affecting Zimbabwe at the moment.

In addition, ZRCS is a gender sensitive organisation and its programmes are implemented on a gender sensitive manner. A practical example of this is its Home Based Care (HBC) programme where nearly ten percent of care facilitators are male and plans are underway to increase male involvement to at least 50 percent. Zimbabwe Red Cross Society now has its own home based-care project in which 105 out of 900 facilitators are male. Efforts have been made to ensure gender aggregation when planning and reporting, in order to ensure equity between men and women and gender sensitivity in programme development.

The IFRC report (2007) points out that, other activities undertaken by ZRCS include complementary food-for-work programmes, provision of shelter (tents) and clothes wherever there is need. The report continues to state that ZRCS also supports the integrated food security programme by reinforcing self reliance and coping mechanisms with a vision of enabling self-sustenance of communities particularly households through provision of agricultural inputs like seed and fertilizers and sometimes, draught power to enable tilling of the land for farming purposes.

According to the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society (2014) the organisation responded to flooding in Masvingo, Muzarabani, Gokwe and Tsholotsho in this year. The report goes on to state that Zimbabwe Red Cross Society has responded by providing 150 family tents and 6000 tarpaulins for temporary shelter, mosquito nets, drilling 3 boreholes for safe water, setting up a temporary clinic for health care, availing temporary toilets, giving blankets and kitchen sets, food relief and psycho-social support as well as volunteers who assist in coordinating the response and helping with shelter construction among other needs to the victims of the
Tokwe-Mukosi floods. However, more need to be done in terms of relief considering the number of people who were affected.

The World Food Programme (WFP) is one of the globe’s largest charitable aid organization and the United Nations’ largest leading edge in terms of response and relief. The major aim of the organisation is to provide the right amount of food to intended people in the right place and also at the perfect time. WFP is not only concerned about distributing food, sometimes the organisation carries out exceptional operations such as improving local transport infrastructure, rebuilding roads, bridges and railways. Mbohwa (2006) articulates that the WFP operations in Zimbabwe are part of a global and regional network that has to be capable of delivering critical emergency supplies, materials, vehicles and technical assistance to any place in the world within a short timeframe. According to the (WFP) (2006) the operations addresses natural disasters due to poor harvests, drought and cyclones and manmade disasters caused by political and economic upheaval since year 2000.

The WFP (2002) report stated that at least 5 million people were at risk of starvation and in the year 2000 and the organisation launched an international appeal for food aid. The same paper articulates that, WFP coordinated the international food response, targeting 558 000 people in 19 districts in the most severely affected areas providing 117 000 tonnes of food and as a result by June 2002 $30 million in aid had been pledged by donors, which was around 50% of what WFP stated was needed. However, the only challenge was that of the distribution of aid commodities as they were slow to arrive in Zimbabwe.

In addition, according to WPF (1986) the WFP logistics teams are also responsible for monitoring stock levels and replenishing stocks. The report continues to state that WPF through its logistical team establishes the need areas and the level of food requirements through relevant ministries of the government of Zimbabwe as the starting point. Once all
stakeholders come to an understanding on the validity of the vulnerable community and the specific needs for that area, the WFP logistics team takes over the responsibility of distribution and monitoring. Monitoring is usually done during distribution and it also involves post distribution monitoring. This enables evaluation and assessment of the extent to which relief distribution objectives are met. One advantage of monitoring is that it encourages a smooth flow of the distribution process and fair allocation of relief.

The World Food Programme Headquarters in Rome for example sent their officer to the country to assess the effects of the Cyclone Eline in the year 2000 so as to identify possible WFP intervention in the Zimbabwe situation. A diagnosis of whether food assistance was needed in the immediate, medium and long term so as to determine the different factors that were influencing people’s food insecurity in the affected areas. In the very immediate term, (the initial 2-4 week period), food and money donations from a cross section of Zimbabwean society were seen to be generous. After the assessments WFP did not consider giving food aid in the immediate term. However, the organisation noted that, it was important to determine the percentage of crop damage and livestock loss due to the flood and the cyclone. In addition, the disturbances to peoples’ other coping mechanisms had to be analysed.

In most African countries disease outbreaks such , cholera, dysentery, are on the increase due to the increase of natural hazards such as floods and these outbreaks gives a serious challenge to the general preparedness of a state. In Zimbabwe the World Health organisation (WHO) directs and co-ordinates health issues and activities. Within the United Nations system, WHO provides leadership on global health matters, shaping health research agenda, articulating evidence-based policy options, providing technical support for member countries and monitoring and assessing health trends and this enables collective defence against transnational health threats according to WHO(2010).
The report prepared by WHO (2010) points out that WHO provides updates of information on disease outbreaks and how to contain them. Focus is given to humanitarian emergencies and disasters globally. The report also states that, there are activities to ensure rational use of medicine and polio eradication, and equitable distribution of and access to medicines covering all areas of health and diseases worldwide. In Recent years WHO activities have been much emphasised on addressing health issues, prevention of child maltreatment, homicides and suicides; and tuberculosis and HIV/AIDS prevention in Africa states the same report.

The United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) is a fundamental member organization of the United Nations(UN). According to Mbohwa (2006) UNICEF is mandated by the United Nations General Assembly to advocate for the protection of children’s rights, to help meet their basic needs and expand their opportunities to reach their full potential. UNICEF(2008) states that, to achieve this mandate, among other goals UNICEF seeks to: Mobilise political will and material resources to help countries, particularly developing countries to ensure a “first call for children” and build the capacity of the countries to form appropriate policies and deliver services for children and their families; Respond in emergencies to protect the rights of children in coordination with United Nations partners and humanitarian agencies, UNICEF makes unique facilities for rapid response available to its partners to relieve the suffering of children and for those who provide their care.

In Zimbabwe for example, as according to Mbohwa(2006) UNICEF works with the Ministry of Health and Child Welfare, using their personnel facilities such as clinics and hospitals during immunization programmes and with the Ministry of Education, Sports and Culture during children feeding schemes. It also rents storage space (warehouses), hires local transport contractors to transport aid to the different regions of the country and for example
during Cyclone Eline, UNICEF worked with the Civil Protection Unit and the Air Force of Zimbabwe to bring aid to those affected according to UNICEF (2003).

UNICEF also particularly supports the development of a inclusive nutrition strategy that integrates and mainstreams nutrition into the MOHCW and other sectors as well as the designation and implementation nutrition coordination instruments, by 2013. Other major contributions to the nutrition response involve the continued support and increase of the coverage of treatment of delicate malnutrition through the provision of supplies, training and equipment.

The UN Disaster Management Team in the year 2000 carried out a rapid assessment in the Manicaland Province. From the assessment it was gathered that an estimate of about 500 000 people were affected by the floods and cyclone and 96 000 of them required urgent help in food, shelter, health, water and sanitation, agriculture, education and communications and transport. Also it was noted that, about 20 000 people had been displaced and were homeless. The UN mission to Manicaland meant to obtain first hand information on the extent of the damage that was caused by the cyclone as well as to show solidarity with the people of Zimbabwe at a time of their greatest need.

The Disaster Management Team (DMT) of the UN dedicated itself to co-ordinating the donor activities so as to avoid doubling of activities by donors interested in helping the affected people. In doing so, the UN worked closely with government and National Civil Protection Department, the Provincial Civil Protection and the Districts Civil Protection. The Disaster management Team held meetings to brief donors each and every week and was always in constant dialogue with donors and government. Some NGOs used to be invited to donor meetings so as to present their own assessments.
International organization for migration (IOM) has led response of shelter and hygiene non food item distribution with NGOs partners, among them the Zimbabwe Red Cross Society, CARE, Christian Care, World Vision and MSF. WFP has largely been responsible for facilitating food distributions to affected communities particularly those falling under the regular Seasonal Targeted Assistance (STA) program as some locations that have been affected are already beneficiaries of food assistance. According to IFRC, IOM has supported the Tokwe Mukosi victims with 707 Tarpaulins, 200 NFI kits, 200 Aqua Tabs3, 400 blankets, 400 mosquito nets as per the report support translates to about 300 families.

1.4 Causes of the Tokwe-Mukosi floods
Persistent heavy rains pounded across the country causing flooding, hailstorms and landslides. This caused the water levels to rise earlier than anticipated as a result unusual rainfall this year, thereby affecting communities who were not expecting to be moved this year. According to the Reliefweb(2014), heavy rains received in the northern and central parts of the country in the month of January caused several incidences of flash flooding in the country and have caused river levels to rise above alert or safe level. Action aid(2014) agrees with the above statement as the report alludes that, heavy rains and mudslides in late January and early February 2014 as well as the partial collapse of the Tokwe-Mukosi Dam wall had resulted in flooding the report goes on to point out that Tokwe-Mukosi is in the semi-arid southern Masvingo region (Chivi District) but the area has received double (850mm) than normal rains this year. As result of the floods the President declared a state of disaster in Tokwe-Mukosi and the government has requested local, regional and international support.

1.5 Effects of the floods to the people
The Tokwe Mukosi floods led to loss of lives and property livestock and crops. The research established that, six people, died as a result of the floods. The floods also caused massive
financial losses and created a difficult humanitarian crisis that has left 20 000 people either homeless or hungry and 40 000 more facing similar fate. The Tokwe people were marooned by water, their home were washed away and they were forced to relocate to look for alternative shelter. The government of Zimbabwe through the CPU responded by moving people to a transitional camp that is Chingwizi camp. However, problems at the camp site were reported such as shortages of tents leading to some people sleeping on the open space. Also According to the Herald(2014) the tents not were not big enough to carter for the family members and their belongings and the belongings of lesser value were kept outside while valuable property that could be damaged by rains was is stored inside.

More so, the Tokwe-Mukosi victims lost their forms of livelihood and economic entitlements. The floods swept away crops and livestock leaving people with no forms of livelihood. Rural communities in Zimbabwe depend on agriculture for their economy thus the sweeping away of crops and livestock meant that the victims were left with nothing of economic significance.

Another, problem was that of shortage of proper amenities such as toilets and safe water in the temporary camp. Shortages of proper amenities, poor hygiene and overcrowding at the camp led to outbreaks of diseases such dysentery, cholera and scabies at the camp. Food shortages was also the order of the day at the camp to such an extent that women ended up engaging into promiscuity behaviours so as to get extra ration
2.0 CHAPTER TWO

2.1 CIVIL SOCIETY AND DISASTER RESPONSE AND RELIEF IN TOKWE-MUKOSI

Chapter overview

This chapter presents data collected from the field through individual questionnaires, key informants interviews and desktop research. The data collected looked into the nature of response and relief services rendered by the CSOs to the victims of Tokwe-Mukosi. Special attention being paid on indicators of response and relief that is food and nutrition, shelter, health and sanitation as well as water. Aspects such as the early warning systems, evacuations and the plight of vulnerable groups was also looked into.

The Zimbabwean government through its CPU, together with CSOs and private and public companies provided humanitarian assistance to the Tokwe-Mukosi victims. The assistance ranged from food, water, education material, tents, medicine, sanitary wear just to mention a few. The CSOs that intervened include but not limited to, Red Cross, IOM, UNICEF, Christian Care and Oxfarm.

2.2 Disaster response

2.2.1 Emergency response (early warnings and evacuations)

The Meteorological Department issued out early warning messages about increased rainfall to be expected throughout the whole country. However, research findings indicate that, the early warning messages did not penetrate the Tokwe-Mukosi communities. The messages were relayed using electronic media of which most people at Tokwe do not own radios or TV sets and a few who do, lack the culture of listening to news and weather forecasts.
In terms of evacuations research found out that the transportation of victims especially from transit camps to Chingwizi holding camp was very slow. With an estimated relocation of at least two families and forty livestock per day. This slowness resulted to overcrowding in transit camps such as Zunga with more than hundred families waiting to be relocated. Damage of property and loss of livestock during relocation was another challenge for the victims.

Research also provided that, the relocation process came with its own package of problems. Property and livestock was lost during the relocation process. Moyo 64 stated that, "I lost three of my cows during the relocation process and now I am left with nothing the rain season is fast approaching I don’t know how I am going to farm this year". Many of the Chingwizi dwellers shared similar stories of property damages and livestock lose. CSOs such IOM helped with transportation services.

In addition, during the evacuation and the relocation process, priority was not given to the vulnerable groups that is, the children, women, aged and the sick. Pregnant women, children, the aged and HIV/AIDS patients in some transit camps spent two to three nights in open space waiting to be relocated. Such situations were worse for HIV patients as they had lost their medication in the floods and were in urgent need of medication but they had to wait till they were relocated to Chingwizi before they could access drugs.
2.3 Disaster Relief

2.3.1 The state of Relief at Chingwizi Camp

Figure 2: Relief activities at Chingwizi holding camp

Source: Research findings 2014

The research indicates that response and relief and in the Tokwe Mukosi disaster was not effective. The following findings from Chingwizi Camp site supports this claim.

2.3.2 Shelter and living conditions

The Chingwizi camp was a very serious situation, with over 3000 household residing on a small area. As a result of overcrowding there was the outbreak of diseases like dysentry and diarrhoea. It need to be noted that, such diseases can easily spread when people are overcrowded. According to the Report by Swradioafrica(2014) the situation at Chingwizi was very serious with excessive overcrowding and people suffering. Due overcrowding research indicates that approximately 100 cases of dysentery were recorded everyday at Chingwizi camp and these outbreaks were attributed to the overcrowding state of the camp. People and
their livestock were all housed in the small Chingwizi camp and upon arrival one could not miss the stale atmosphere at the camp. One woman who refused to be named complained that, “the atmosphere at the camp is not different to that of a prison cell”. Her argument was that there was no fresh air and also the absence of freedom due to the presents of the police.

The living conditions in the Chingwizi camp were not conducive for the victims, NGOs such as Red Cross donated tents but they were not enough. Each household was allocated one tent and this one tent was used for both storage and accommodation. In the allocation of tents the CSOs did not consider the number of family members of a household, a household with ten members was given a single tent just like a household with two members. Thus there was unfairness in the allocation of tents. Another challenge of the tents was that they were too small.

The tents which were donated per family were inadequate so much that families ended up leaving some of their less valuable property in the open space so as to create room for more valuable property and accommodation. Mr Johnson Moyo 33 pointed out that,

“some of our property is outside we could not all eight fit in this one small tent thus we left other items outside so as to create some room but still as you can there is barely any space. Here we are living like ants in a hole”.

At the camp there were many who shared the same plight just like Mr Moyo and some who were even worse for example with ten family members. Shortages of tents also led to moral decadency.

In a typical Zimbabwean culture it is taboo for parents and children to share the same room at night, however at Chingwizi the situation was more serious than that, as children, parents and grandparents all shared the single tents. It’s also not ethical in the Zimbabwean tradition for a
father-in-law and a daughter-in-law to share the same room at night. Situations like these undermine social development as the saying goes, “a community without culture is dead”. Many victims complained about the lack of respect of the living conditions at camp. An old lady who preferred only to be called MaDube complained that,

“before the floods we were living like normal human beings but now we are more of animals, we had our homes though poor we were living happily with respect and dignity. We used to have our separate rooms, for our children, parents and the grandparents”.

Such challenges were the order of the day at Chingwizi holding camp. Many older pupils at the camp left the tents at night so as to allow their parents to enjoy their marital rights.

An older women aged 65 who refused to give her name stated that,

“children who are old enough to understand marital rights are seen loitering outside at night so as to allow their parents to enjoy their conjugal rights, however, this does not work for every one as some couples have young children who cannot be sent out at night thus these children end up being exposed to sexual activities whilst they are still young”.

Many parents complained that their children, because of sleeping arrangements as stated above have been left vulnerable to sexual abuse especially the girl child. As girls wonder outside at night they fall victims of sexual abuse as indicated by the rise of sexually transmitted infections in camp. According to Bulawayo24.com(2014) People at Chingwizi are falling victim to the most common types of STIs, especially syphilis and gonorrhea and all the cases are being handled at the local temporary clinic. Most parents feared that their children have acquired HIV/AIDS as the number of STIs recorded signify that sexual activities were being done without protection. Their argument was that STIs are better
because are curable unlike HIV which is a life-long disease. Another challenge that was faced by the Tokwe-Mukosi victims especially the girl child was the unwanted pregnancy.

2.3.3 Education

The school going children were the most affected by the disaster both primary and secondary especially those who will be sitting for grade seven and o’level examination. There was infrastructure inadequacy at the temporary school, shortages of chairs, desks and the tents which were used classrooms were not enough as many students were learning under trees or in the open space. NGOs such as Plan International and Save children donated text books, furniture and exercise books however these were not enough. A form four pupil narrated that, “I wake up before dawn so as to secure a desk and a chair, some even go in the middle of the night”, he said. Children at Chingwizi camp were not only affected by shortages of material but rather the environment in its self was not conducive for learning, many students complained that, noise was a big challenge in the camp as radios were always on full blast even at night making it impossible for students to study.

In the education sector another challenge identified was that of shortage of teachers. The teacher – pupil ratio was very high at Chingwizi. Teachers were not willing to relocate to Chingwizi given the living conditions there. Research found out that there was only an estimate of hundred teachers at Chingwizi for both primary and secondary schools and of the teachers present it is believe that five left the camp site.

The school environment was simply not appealing to pupils, many of whom ended up deciding to move and seek for substitute ways of life. In most instances the pupils were hungry at school had no proper classroom and at home the environment was almost the same as that of school with no shelter, no decent meal and could hardly have a refreshing night sleep. Thus due to these challenges many dropped out of school to look for greener pastures.
Boys sort employment while most girls took refuge in marriage. It is estimated that more than 400 school pupils dropped out of school at Chingwizi.

2.3.4 Water and sanitation

ZINWA, DDF, Action Faim and Care International, UNICEF are some of the NGOs that responded with portable water to the victims. Water was a major problem at Chingwizi the villagers spent hours queuing for water. Water shortages were a major blow especially to women, it was difficult situation for women with young children as they needed a lot of water to wash napkins. Water shortages led to outbreaks of diseases such as diarrhoea and dysentery at the camp and scabies for babies

![Figure 3: victims at Chingwizi queuing for water. Source: News day 2014](image)

2.3.5 Shortage of toilets

Shortage of toilets was another challenge at Chingwizi. More than 300 toilets were built at the camp however these could not match with the 60 000 Chigwizi dwellers. The few toilets that were established were not deep enough roughly estimated to be two to three meters deep such that they filled quickly. Another problem was that of distance, research established that some toilets were established far away from tents. It was then a challenge for women and children
as they were afraid to walk to toilet at night and as a result ended up opting to use the bush to relieve themselves.

It need to be noted also that, due to the pressure exacted on the toilets, they became so filthy, such that, the Chingwizi dwellers ended up preferring to use the bush than toilets. The combination of the bush and filthy toilets led to air pollution and outbreaks of diseases in the camp.

### 2.3.6 Food and nutrition

CSOs such as WFP, Plan International, and Caritas offered food relief services to the Tokwe-Mukos flood victims. However, food shortages has been the order of the day since Chingwizi camp was established. Research indicate that, at Chingwizi each family was allocated 500g dried beans, 2kg flour, 2kg sugar, 2 litres cooking oil, 500g salt, and a kg of kapenta. These food ration were expected to last for a whole week. The challenge came to households with many family members, for example a family with ten members, the food could not sustain such a family for a week.

Food shortages at the camp led to promiscuity behaviors and outbreak of Sexually transmitted diseases such as Syphilis and Gonorrhea. Research established that, some women and young girls were exchanging sex for food. It need to be noted that, some women volunteered to exchange food for sex, however not all, some were forced by guardians especially girls living with extended family members. Aid workers and government officials were accused of taking advantage of food shortages to demand sex from women in exchange of food.

Food at Chingwizi was not diversified; the meals were the same everyday as the victims were given the same ration that is cereal, beans, cooking oil and kapenta. Thus food at the camp lacked nutritional value and victims on Anti-Retroviral Treatment were the worst affected. Sarah 33 stated that,
“we are not getting a variety of food here its either sadza with beans or no sadza at all. Before we came here we used to eat a variety, vegetables both fresh and dried, fish, fruits like mangoes, groundnuts and maize but here at Chingwizi our health is compromised. Some people are even defaulting as they cannot take ARVs on empty stomachs”.

Research found out that it was difficult for victims on ART, many of whom had not disclosed their status for fear of being victimised

Food shortages also contributed to high school drop out for both primary and secondary pupils. Primary children interviewed pointed out that it was difficult to travel 3kms to school and to concentrate at school whilst hungry. Secondary pupils stated that, it was better go and find work at the nearby sugarcane farm than to go to school hungry.

Malnutrition issues were inevitable at Chingwizi given the quantity and quality of food relief that the victims received. Most dwellers at Chingwizi had resorted to having one meal a day so as to preserve the little food they were given however, young children were the most affected as they could not afford to live by one meal a day. Chingwizi dwellers interviewed expressed that young children were succumbing to malnutrition, kwashiorkor and stunted growth as a result of food shortages.

2.3.7 Health

National Health Care Trust, ZRCS and WHO are some the CSOs that provided health facilities to the Tokwe-Mukosi victims. These CSOs helped with the provision medical supplies, equipment diarrheal kits. However, these provisions were not enough as research established that, there were shortages of ARVs and toilet disinfects. The temporary clinic was overwhelmed by patients for example everyday more than three malaria patients were treated, STI infections were also very high with estimates of over a hundred cases in three months and
diarrheal infections were also high due to the unhygienic conditions in the camp. Medication shortages led to loss of life in the camp.

Lack of livestock drugs was also a Challenge at chingwizi. Chingwizi dwellers complained that their goat and cattle were dying every day due shortage of drugs. Research found out that goats were mainly affected by lump skin where as cattle lacked dipping drugs. The research also established that, an average of four cattle died every day in the camp due to shortages in livestock medication. These loses worsened the situation as the villagers had already incurred livestock losses due to the floods.

2.3.8 Vulnerable groups and security

Research identified children, women, aged, disabled, pregnant women, and people living with HIV as the vulnerable groups of the camp. Women and girls were victims of sexual abuse in the camp, people on ART and the disabled and children were not given supplementary feeding. To women the reproductive role burden was increases due to lack of proper amenities in the camp. The aged, pregnant women, and disabled could not go to nearby farms to look or work because of their situation.

Security was a lacked at the camp, research found out that, some villagers were attacked by other villagers on the allegations that they had agreed to be relocated without compensation. Also the natural curse followed the villagers to Chingwizi camp, research established that, a violent storm swept the camp, uprooting the camp tents and injuring 209 dwellers of which 116 were males and 93 were females. Also villagers complained that the toilet and bathrooms did not provide adequate security as they were mainly built by rugs that could be easily blown by wind leaving villagers exposed.

Violence in the camp, Chingwizi dwellers alleged that, due to inhuman condition in the camp some villagers were resorting to violence to air out their disapproval. The researcher found
out that, when the government proposed to transfer the mobile clinic from the camp to the permanent resettlements some villagers became violent to the extent of burning vehicles belonging to the state police. It is said that the police retaliated by beating up villagers who were suspected to be the perpetrators. However innocent people were caught up in the fight, also the violence was not health for young children who were still trying to forget the shocks of the floods.

### 2.3.9 Psycho-Social support

The Tokwe-Mukosi floods left the victims in shock and also traumatized and in urgent need of counseling and psychosocial support. Women, child headed families, and the old were the ones who needed counseling most. The need for community psychosocial support was a very urgent need the shock of the floods, displacement as well as the relocation to a new settlement in an unfriendly environment. Organisations such as BHASO were offering psychosocial support services however, these services were not fruitful because the environment was so stressful.

For children, recreational activities were established as a way of psychosocial support, three playing grounds for netball, soccer and volley ball were created by ZRCS. Children could been seen playing different games in the playgrounds, however, not all many could be seen trailing their mothers with faces displaying hunger. The playgrounds were a noble idea but it was difficult to play with an empty stomach.

Lack of spiritual counseling was also a challenge at Chingwizi, some of the interviewed villagers complained that, there were no churches in the camp to go to, “Spiritual comfort is important in hard times as it provides peace of mind”, this was stated by most female victims in the camp.
2.4 Factors which led to poor disaster response and relief for Tokwe-Mukosi flood victims

2.4.1 Poor preparedness planning

Poor preparedness planning led to ineffective response and relief services. Both the government and the CSOs organizations were caught ill prepared by the floods. The meteorological department had warned about the possibility of excessive rains fall however, the government and its partners the CSOs put on deaf ears. The early warning system, to the victims were poorly issued out, if they were ever issued at all. If the villagers could have known the danger they were in they could have migrated to higher grounds way before the floods taking with them their belongings, that is property, crops and their livestock. However, villagers knew nothing about the eminent threat that was fast approaching them, the floods themselves were the only warning that the villagers got.

Because of poor early warnings the victims escaped with nothing, all their possessions in the form of property, food, clothes, and livestock were swept away by the floods. It then became difficult for the CSOs organizations to provide relief service to over 20 000 victims who had barely nothing to start up with at the holding camp.

2.4.2 Late response by CSOs

It took a long time after the declaration by the President of Tokwe-Mukosi as a national disaster before CSOs organizations intervened. CSOs took their time to respond to the outcry of Tokwe-Mukosi floods. According to the Herald(2014) Out of the 90 NGOs registered under the National Association of Non-Governmental Organisations in Masvingo, only the Red Cross, Christian Care, Bhaso and Masvingo United Residents and Ratepayers’ Association had extended help to people at Chingwizi holding camp in April. Basing on the
report by herald it can be noted that CSOs’s response to the disaster was very slow with with only five organizations being active when the disaster had struck two months before.

2.4.3 Villagers’ reluctance to leave their property

Research found out that some villagers despite being warned to move from risk areas could not do so as they stated that, they could not leave their livestock which was the source of their lives. Villagers who agreed to be relocated from the dam basin before 5 February did not incur losses that were incurred by those who were later evacuated after the floods. Thus it can be noted that, reluctance by villager led to poor response.

2.4.4 Inadequate resources

Most of the CSOs that responded to the Tokwe-Mukosi disasters lacked adequate resources. Without enough transport it was difficult to relocate victims from the disaster zone to Chingwizi holding camp, leading to victims spending more than three days spent in open spaces in transit camps waiting to be relocated. Shortages in transport also led to property damage and livestock loss, livestock and property was being overloaded such that property was damaged some being lost on the way, livestock died of suffocation due to overloading. The rationale behind overloading was to speed up the relocation exercise.

The Chingwizi camp was inadequately equipped, the research found gaps in food and nutrition, water and sanitation, health, shelter and education. There shortages in food rations, lack of medicine, toilets, tents for shelter, water, education material for school going pupils. For response to be effective there is need for adequate resources.

The absence of contingency funding by the government also led to poor response and relief by both the government and the CSOs. It was difficult for the government to source funds to respond to the disaster as the country is currently suffering economically. There is need to allocate budget for disasters, not to wait to source funds when disaster has struck.
2.5 Effects of poor response and relief

2.5.1 Loss of life, livestock, property and crops

Poor response led to loss of life, livestock, property and crops. Livestock, property, and crops were swept away by floods as the victims were evacuated late. However, some villagers had managed to grab a few items, but these were also lost during relocation. At the relocation camp people died due to unhygienic condition, which led to outbreaks of diseases such as diarrhea and dysentery. Research also found out that, shortage of shelter and blankets caused pneumonia which led to death of one villager, other deaths were associated to diarrhea.

Loss of economic entitlements, it need to noted that property of villagers was damaged some lost during the relocation stage. At the camp cattle and goats died in numbers as a result of lump skin and lack livestock vaccination. Research found out that, due to food shortages some villagers were slaughtering goats so as to supplement food. It is important to note that livestock make up economic basis of most of the villagers. Thus to lose livestock is just the same as losing economic entitlements.

2.5.2 Contraction of diseases

Food shortages at the camp led to promiscuity behaviors, child marriages and sex for food amongst the villagers. There was the contraction curable diseases such as syphilis and gonorrhea and non curable diseases like HIV/AIDS by the villagers.

2.5.3 Disruption of the future for children

The temporary school established at the holding camp, lacked material such as furniture and text books, some pupils even learned in the open without shelter. Combined with food shortages more than 400 pupils dropped out of school. These school dropouts led to unwanted teenage pregnancy early child marriages. The future of these children is disrupted as education key to attainment to success.
2.6 Challenges

Research found out that most of the CSOs that were providing response and relief were facing financial constraints. The reasons for underfunding of most of the NGOs was associated with the general global financial crisis. According to UNICEF report (2014) the organization was only given 12% funds to respond to the disaster. Thus, UNICEF failed to provide effective response and relief to Tokwe-Mukosi flood victims. Unmet needs of children included, psychosocial support, safe learning space and good nutrition. The same report states that, adequate funds were necessary to support needs of women and children in water and sanitation, to address protection needs and limit disease spread.

In addition, some CSOs scaled down relief operations at Chingwizi due to lack of funds. Examples of CSOs that scaled down include Action firm, Zimbabwe Peace Project, Youth NGO forum just to mention a few. There are some organizations like Oxfam that completely pulled out before the victims were resettled on permanent plots. It need to be noted that pulling out of such organizations compromised the health and sanitation of the victims since Oxfam was the leading organization on provision of health and sanitation response in the camp.

Shortage of funds, scaling down and pulling out of CSOs led to food shortages, lack of tents, lack of educational materials and unhygienic conditions in the camp. However, not all NGOs left Chingwizi a few remained assisting with the little they had these include WFP, Plan International and FAO.

Political deadlock between the government and the CSOs was another challenge which was faced by CSOs. Research found out that, the state was too involved in the operations of the civil society. NGOs complained that, their principles strictly state that, they (NGOs) should
be apolitical and that NGO activities should be free from state intervention. Some speculations pointed out that, some NGOs pulled out due to uncontrolled political prying.

However, the researcher established that some CSOs organisation were not genuine humanitarian organisation. It is believed that most CSOs are interested in the politics of the country, the argument is that, when Tokwe-Mukosi was declared a national disaster only a handful organisation responded on the onset to worsen the matter, these organisations pulled out before the victims were settled permanently and when the villagers were in dire need of relief. It is said that the latest divisions within the MDC is understood to have caused the donor community to reduce funding to local NGOs. Speculations are that the donor community in the past years has been pumping funds in Zimbabwe in a way to foster regime through the MDC but with the in fights within the MDC the western donor community has lost hope, hence funds to the local NGOs are reduced.

Corruption was identified as another challenge that was faced by CSOs. The research findings documented that, money and other donations were being misused by the government official who were responsible for overseeing and distribution relief services. Allegations were that government officials were taking donations pledged for victims for their personal use. For example research established that, relief resources were used by government to exchange for sex. However, government dismissed these allegations saying that there was transparency in the handling of all donations, stating that donations were open for inspection by stakeholders.

Research findings shows that CSOs failed to provide effective and adequate response and relief services to the victims of Tokwe-Mukosi flood disasters. CSOs failed to give early warnings to people who were living in the Tokwe-Mukosi dam basin. Gaps were also noted in water, sanitation, shelter, health and education. In education, there were shortages in furniture, textbooks and also teacher-to-pupil ratio was very high. The failures in the
education system were elaborated by high school dropout in both primary and secondary education. In the health, medicine was a challenge, there were shortage of ARVs, long queues to the mobile clinic were seen, also medical practitioners were few to attend to patients hence the long queues.

Poor living condition, in the form of shelter due to lack of tents led to diseases such as pneumonia as villagers were affected by cold. Shortages of tents also led to moral decay, as parents and shared the same tent in some instances even in-laws also shared the same tent. Diarrhea and dysentery were a result of shortages of toilets and toilets disinfectants. Toilets established were few and those few filled up easily as they were just a meter deep. Scabies in small children were a result of water shortages.

A critical look on the discussions above indicates that, response and relief services that were offered to the victims of Tokwe-Mukosi flood disasters were ineffective. Gaps were noted in the following sectors education, health water and sanitation, education, security and living conditions. The environment was also affected as large numbers were concentrated on a small piece of land, air pollution as pollution of the river.
3.0 CHAPTER THREE

3.1 STRATEGIES TO ENHANCE CIVIL SOCIETY’S ROLE IN DISASTER RESPONSE AND RELIEF IN TOKWE-MUKOSI

Chapter overview

This chapter suggests strategies which can be adopted by CSOs to enhance their roles in disaster response and relief. Managing the whole disaster management cycle is the basis for an effective disaster response and relief. Civil Society Organisations need to adopt an integrated approach when dealing with disasters. There is need for CSOs to establish disaster management structures that covers 3 stages of disaster of disaster cycle that is the pre-disaster phase, response and relief and lastly the recovery and rehabilitation phase.

There is need for emphasis on disaster prevention rather than response by CSOs

Disaster prevention is concerned with policies and programmes that are aimed at preventing the occurrence of disasters. Civil Society Organisations need to advocate for the formation of vibrant policy framework to cope with disasters especially in low lying areas such as Muzarambani and Tokwe-Mukosi. For a meaningful disaster response and relief to take place there should be a standard institutional framework. Institutional encourages coordination between and amongst relevant stakeholders. Coordination need to be both horizontal and vertical.

Hazards and vulnerability assessments are also important in disaster management

Hazards assessments will help CSOs to identify particular hazards that are prominent in certain communities. After identifying popular it becomes easier for CSOs to give timely early warning messages to the communities at risk. It is also prudent for CSOs to do vulnerability assessments as these helps CSOs to properly target only the affected individuals during response and relief.
Disaster mitigation measures should be centered on poverty reduction

Civil Society Organisations need to ensure that disaster mitigation activities are centered around poverty reduction because it is poverty which leads to vulnerability to a number of hazards. In most rural areas the poor are the ones who are mostly affected by natural disasters because their economies is not diversified and is largely agriculture which is easily affected by hazards such as floods and drought.

Civil Society Organisations should be prepared for disasters

Disaster precautionary measures need to be taken prior to an eminent threat. Preparedness involves improving the response to the effects of a disaster by organizing the delivery of timely and effective rescue and relief assistance. Disaster preparedness includes the designing and regular testing of warning systems, plans for evacuations and other measures to be taken during a disaster alert period so as to minimize potential loss of life and property damage.

Planning for disasters response and relief

It is important to plan for disaster response and relief. Planning includes the working out of agreements between people, NGOs, UN agencies and the government as to who would provide certain services during disaster response and relief. Proper planning before a disaster ensures effective coordination and guarantees efficient disaster response and relief. Government and CSOs must assign specific tasks and responsibility of disaster response to key stakeholders on the basis of specialty. There is also a necessity to plan how people are going to be evacuated from the disaster zone to safety. CSOs have to put in place measures for the transportation of people.
Early warning systems

Early warning must reflect a coordinated response between the government, UN agencies, NGOs, CSOs and the community at risk. CSOs has to make sure that there is appropriate information system so as to stimulate information exchange within the agencies in the face of an emergency situation. Early warnings need to be crafted in such a way that they are understood by everyone within the community at risk.

Strong resource base

An effective disaster response and relief depends on the resource base of the CSOs. CSOs that are into disaster management need to make sure that a portion of the national budget is designated to disaster management. There is also need for contingency funding for aspect such as medicine, and fuel that cannot be easily stock piled. Apart from contingency funds there is need for additional funding for public campaigns as the form of a disaster can change during response and relief.

Strengthen resource generation

Civil Society Organisations require to strengthen resource generation through their own projects instead of relying on donors. Due to dependency on donor funds CSOs sometimes fail to meet their obligations because of lack of funds as they are some times underfunded. It is important for CSO to have their own income generating projects as a way of eliminating dependency syndrome.

Improving the coordination of humanitarian CSOs

CSO must establish mechanisms that allows for NGO, INGO, UN agencies and the affected communities to work together complementing each other in providing response and relief.
Ensure accountability in relief distribution

There is need for proper use disaster response donations, misappropriation of donations undermines response and relief. Donations for disaster response should only be given to the victims of the disaster.

Avoid intervention to the politics of the state

Humanitarian organization should be apolitical, as middling with the politic may lead to the expulsion of the organizations.

Priority to women and children during response and relief

Research has established that that women and children are the most vulnerable groups during disasters, thus CSOs have to give priority to women and children during disaster response and relief.

Adherence to spheres standards

CSOs need to adhere to the minimum standards in food relief as as households vary in family members.

Conclusion

A critical look on the research findings shows that, the response and relief services offered to the victims of the Tokwe-Mukosi flood disasters were inadequate and poor. Gaps were noted in the following sectors education, health, water and sanitation, education just to mention a few. The Chingwizi was characterized by unhygienic condition, water and food shortages were the order of the day. Women with babies on their back were seen queuing for water and food rations. Long queues were also seen going to the mobile clinic.
3.2 CONCLUSIONS

Civil society organisations in Zimbabwe play an important role in complementing
government efforts in disaster response and relief. Organisations such ZRCS, Christian Care,
BHASO, IOM, BHSO, Oxfam just to mention a few complemented the government by
providing response and relief assistance to the victims of Tokwe-Mukosi floods. Response
and relief aspects ranged from evacuation, provision of both food and non food items such as
tents for shelter, clothes, portable water and health service. Also a temporary school was
established for children as well playgrounds.

However, the response and relief efforts were not adequate, in Chingwizi there were food
shortages leading to malnutrition for children and promiscuity behaviors for female adults as
villagers sort way to complement the inadequate food supplies. Health in the camp was also
compromised as the camp lacked adequate toilets and the few could not compete with the
population in the camp hence they filled up quickly. Leaving the villagers with one option, to
use the bush, however this led to land and air pollution.

In addition, poor relief efforts in the education sector led to school dropouts for both primary
and secondary pupils. The temporary school was established some 3km away from the camp
and the environment was also not conducive for learning. Pupils could not travel 3kms to and
from school hungry so they dropped out of school. Idleness in the camp forced children to
engage in sexual activities leading child marriages and unwanted pregnancy.

All in all, the CSOs complemented government efforts in providing response and relief for
the Tokwe-Mukosi flood victims however, both the response and relief efforts were poor.
Gaps were identified in education, health, food and nutrition, security, hygiene and the
living conditions. For disaster response and relief to be meaningful CSOs have to emphasise
disaster preparedness instead on relying on response.
Reference List


World Food Programme, (2006). Food Aid and Wor, Rome: WFP Publication
APPENDIX 1: Questionnaire guide for humanitarian officials who were providing humanitarian assistance in Chingwizi

My name is Doreen Zhou (R112465W), doing BA in Development Studies Honours Degree at Midlands State University (MSU). As per the requirement of my degree programme, am carrying out a research on the roles of Civil Society Organisations in disaster response and relief. A case of Tokwe-Mukosi. This questionnaires was designed to come up with data that will be used for that purpose and information provided will be used for academic purposes only. Your cooperation in this is greatly appreciated.

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*Please answer where appropriate. Provide evidence where possible.*

What is the mandate of your organisation

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Can you give a brief history of your organisation

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What are your motives for the provision of response and relief services to flood victims?

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How many beneficiaries did you assist and what assistance were you providing?

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What is your relationship with the government and other humanitarian organisations

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What are your sources of finance?

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What challenges are you facing in delivering relief services?

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What course of action are you undertaking to overcome the mentioned challenges?

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General comments about the roles of CSOs in disaster response and relief?

Thank you
APPENDIX 2: Interview guide for the victims of Tokwe-Mukosi flood disasters

1. What do you understand by the terms response and relief?

2. How do you rate the response and relief services that are provided to you in terms of quality?

3. If they are poor what do you think are the causes of the poor relief services in Chingwizi?

4. What do you think are the effects of poor disaster response and relief to the flood victims?

5. What are the environmental implications of poor disaster response and relief?

6. Can you suggest strategies that can be adopted by CSOs so as to improve disaster response and relief?

7. Do you have any comments?