IMPACT OF DONOR FUNDING ON LIVELIHOODS OF VULNERABLE RURAL COMMUNITIES IN SOUTHERN PROVINCE OF ZAMBIA

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Approval of The Thesis

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Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Business

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Abstract

IMPACT OF DONOR FUNDING ON LIVELIHOODS OF VULNERABLE RURAL COMMUNITIES IN SOUTHERN PROVINCE OF ZAMBIA

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Globally, over 700 million people, half in sub-Saharan Africa, lived in extreme poverty. Zambia is one of the countries in sub-Saharan Africa that consistently received support towards poverty reduction. A key question was why livelihoods continued to deteriorate. The aim of this study therefore, was to evaluate donor funding contribution to sustainable livelihoods in vulnerable rural communities. The objectives of the study was to assess the influence of donor funding on livelihood and its outcomes, motives of the key players, adequacy of the delivery models and potential to change or improve the delivery system.

The study employed a mixed method approach and involved 337 respondents. The study tools included literature review, one-on-one interviews using close-ended questionnaire and focused group discussions using open-ended questionnaire. The qualitative and qualitative data was analyzed using Nvivo version 14 and SPSS version 26 / Microsoft excel / statistical calculations respectively.

The study established an inverse relationship between improved livelihoods and donor funding where donor funding increased against deteriorated livelihoods and increased poverty ($Cov_{x,y}$ = 401.58; of 0.3558). This defeated the perception that donor funding improved livelihoods of vulnerable rural communities. The correlation between experienced livelihood change and donor motives was very weak but positive (7115.75 and 0.0745 respectively), thus accepted the null hypothesis that motives of donors influenced support to rural communities.

Overall, donors were strategic and always took measures to ensure longer-term control of the aid business. The T-test on the donor motives and decision factors was 2.69 at 4 degrees of freedom against the T value of 2.064, thus rejected the null hypothesis that donor motives influenced support to rural communities. The donor and community motives motivation had low divergence (p-value of 0.0000 at 5% significant level) and therefore rejected the null hypothesis that donors and vulnerable communities had similar motives towards donor funding.

The experienced change and the way the donor funds were delivered established significant correlation ($t=0.042$, $p<0.05$) on a 2 tailed test and confirmed the dependence of community experienced livelihood change on delivery channel of donor funding.

The quadratic regression analysis and T-Test (0.03) of the applied model and funding conditions indicated a positive relationship, thus upholding the null hypothesis of positive relationship between the variables.

, the study established limited impact of donor funding on vulnerable rural communities because of insensitivity to local demands, rigidity, limited coordination, competitive tendencies and support fragmentation. Despite limited livelihood change, donor funding remained an important support towards rural livelihood improvement in developing countries like Zambia that highly depended on external resources. However, desperate need for external support had the potential to propel corruption, over-dependency and mismanagement of national resources (Moyo, 2009). In this regard, donors needed to strengthen their partnerships and relationships to ensure accountability.

The complexity and interconnectedness of the livelihood outcomes demanded holistic support and minimized divergence between donor and interests. There was a clear need for a

paradigm shift to a more efficient aid delivery system that recognize local resources and other capacities with focus on sustainable development.

The study recommended for further research looking into comparative assessment of short-term and long-term donor funded projects (Mwebia & Yusuf, 2022); the sustainability of donor funded projects beyond donor financing and consequences of loose partnerships and relationships in effective delivery of donor funding.

Keywords*:* Donor, Impact, Livelihood, Motivation, Model, Vulnerability

Declaration

I declare that this thesis has been composed solely by myself and that it has not been submitted, in whole or in part, in any previous application for a degree. Except where stated otherwise by reference or acknowledgment, the work presented is entirely my own.

AI acknowledgement

I acknowledge that I have not used any AI tools to create, proofread or produce any text or ideas related to any draft or final versions of the thesis.

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I confirm that I retain the intellectual property and copyright of the thesis submitted. I also allow Unicaf University in Zambia to produce and disseminate the contributions of the thesis in all media forms known or to come as per the Creative Commons BY Licence (CC BY).

Dedication

I dedicate my work to my wife and children who encouraged me to deliver my study. I also dedicate this piece of work to my late parents whose words were always of encouragement.

Acknowledgments

I sincerely appreciate the UNICAF University for the partial scholarship offered to me towards the fulfilment of this study. My association with the UNICAF University began with the Nicosia University from where I got the partial scholarship and obtained my Master of Business accreditation. I thank my supervisor Shiferaw Mikitu (Phd) for guiding me through the PhD dissertation process. Gratitude is given to my wife, Claudina Mumbi Muleba, my daughter Chungu Muleba and my two sons Michael Jr. Muleba and Mwape Muleba for their support. I owe them a great deal.

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I thank the farming communities of Magoye and Choongo areas of Mazabuka and Monze districts for their unquestionable willingness to be part of the study. Last but not the least, I thank the Ministry of Agriculture and Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries in Mazabuka and Monze districts for providing gatekeeper services and taking part as key informants. The Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries and the Ministry of Community Development and Social Services for being available and for provision of vital information.

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List of Abbreviations

AAA	Accra Agenda for Africa
AFD	Agence Française De Développment
AGRA	Alliance for Green Revolution in Africa
AI	Artificial Intelligence
AIDS	Acquired Immune Disease Syndrome
AML	Anti- Money Laundering
ANOVA	Analysis Of Variance
AWARE	Accelerate Water and Agriculture Resource Efficiency
BBFM	Beneficiary Broker Funding Model
BBFM	Big Better Funding Model
BC	Before Christ
BINDES	Brazilian Development Bank
BMZ	German Federal Ministry for Economic Corporation and Development
BOZ	Bank of Zambia
CBO	Community Based Organization
CEDRE	Conference for Economic Development and Reform through Enterprises
CFT	Counter Terrorist Financing
CGIAR	Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research
CIDA	Canadian International Development Assistance
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
COVID	Corona Virus Disease
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility

DAF	Development Aid Fund
DAPP	Development Assistance from People to People
DFID	Department for International Development
EC	European Commission
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
EU	European Union
FDG	Focused Group Discussion
FINNIDA	Finish International Development Assistance
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEF	Global Environmental Fund
GHI	Global Hunger Index
GRID	Global Report of Internal Displacement
HDI	Human Development Index
HIA	Health Impact Assessment
HIV	Human Immune Virus
IATI	International Aid Transparency Initiative
IDA	International Development Association
IE	Impact Evaluation
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IISD	International Institute for Sustainable Development
IITA	International Institute of Tropical Agriculture
IMF	International Monetary Fund
ITA	International Trade Administration

IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Nature
JICA	Japan International Corporation Assistance
KfW	Kreditanstalt für Wiederaufbau
LCMS	Living Conditions Monitoring Survey
LGBTQ	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Queer/Questioning
LNFM	Local Nationalizer Funding Model
LNGO	Local Non-Governmental Organization
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MCA	Millennium Challenge Account
MCC	Millennium Challenge Corporation
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MFM	Market-maker Funding Model
MMFM	Member Motivator Funding Model
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NCCS	National Centre for Charitable Statistics
NEP	National Environment Policy
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa’s Development
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
OCHA	Office of the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
ODA	Organization Development Assistance
OECD	Organization for Economic Corporation and Development
PEPFAR	President’s Emergency Plan for Relief
PIFM	Policy Innovator Funding Model

PLD	Persons Living with Disabilities
PMMM	Performance Measurement and Management Model
PPFM	Public Provider Funding Model
REDD	Reducing Emission from Deforestation and Degradation
RfP	Request for Proposal
RRFM	Resource Recycler Funding Model
SADC	Southern Africa Development Community
SEA	Strategic Environmental Assessment
SIA	Social Impact Assessment
SIDA	Swedish International Development Assistance
TB	Tuberculosis
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNDG	United Nations Development Group
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNEP	United Nations Environmental Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UREC	Unicaf Research Ethics Committee
USAID	United States Assistance for International Development
VPAM	Venture Philanthropy Assessment Model
WB	World Bank

WBG	World Bank Group
WFP	World Food Programme
WWF	World-Wide Fund for Nature
ZAMSTAT	Zambia Statistics
ZOCS	Zambia Open Community Schools

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

Philanthropy was one of the oldest sectors providing support to the vulnerable communities. The underdeveloped and countries continued to depend on philanthropic services for humanitarian and developmental goals. However, the sector came under scrutiny as to whether it served the needs of the poor in the developing world.

This research on the Impact of Donor Funding on Livelihoods of Vulnerable Rural Communities was conducted in Magoye and Monze districts of the Southern Province of Zambia. The selection of Zambia for the study was influenced by its high dependence on external assistance. Historically, the average donor inflows to Zambia from 1960 to 2022 was 575.7 million United States Dollars with the minimum value of 0.91 million Dollars in 1961 and maximum 2,030.67 million United States Dollars in 1995. In comparison, the World average was 1,147.12 million United States Dollars based on data from 130 countries. Over a decade, the donor contribution to Zambia's national budget was at 40-60 percent (WB, 2022). The donor support came through a combination of Official Development Assistance, bilateral grants and loans provided mainly to government. Other donor provisions were through project-based support and charitable giving mainly to non-state actors. The persistent donor inflows over the years were regardless of the abundant natural resource endowment in mining, tourism, agriculture, aquaculture and youthful population.

In Zambia, Southern Province was among the highest donor funded regions apart from Central, Eastern and Western Provinces. Livelihoods in the study areas mainly depended on agriculture (pastoral and arable farming) as a major source of food, nutrition, income and health security. Due to vulnerability status, the research areas persistently received donor funding to

achieve major livelihood outcomes such as food security, income and nutrition security, health, education, environment and climate change resilience.

Recognizing the agricultural dependent livelihoods, this research focused on donor funding to vulnerable rural communities. The study focused on assessing donor funding impact on poverty reduction, household food and income security, education and economic resilience. The goal of the study was to evaluate donor aid contribution to sustainable livelihoods. The study purposes were to explore the motives of donors, intermediary agents and recipient rural communities; to assess effectiveness of donor aid delivery models in supporting sustainable livelihoods in rural communities; and to contribute to the body of knowledge on effective philanthropic support mechanism for rural development. The assessments utilized the beneficiary lens, taking stock of the beneficiary perceptions in appreciating livelihood improvement due to donor funding. To ensure relevance, reliability and validity, the main respondents of this research were agricultural cooperative farmers that engaged in donor funded projects and programmes for the past 10 years.

This Chapter provided the background, purpose, aim and objectives of the study. The chapter provided the scope, limitations and delimitations of the study. The chapter also provided the statement of the problem, nature of the study and significance of the study. It concluded with the research questions and hypotheses before elaborating the dissertation structure.

1.1 Research scope, limitations and delimitations

The scope of this study covered the rural communities in Choongo and Magoye wards of Monze and Mazabuka districts of Southern Province of Zambia. The study targeted 327 individuals and support institutions that took part in donor funded agricultural projects in the period of 10 years (2012 – 2023). The study focused on assessing the community and donor motivations, community status (poverty level, perceptions and experiences) and fund provision

decision factors (delivery channel, community involvement and funding model and conditions). Others were the donor funding provided to realize sustained livelihood improvement within the within the context of the geographical area, project and development sector funded. The other consideration was targeting agricultural cooperative members with 10 year experience of donor funding. With the goal to evaluate donor aid contribution to sustainable livelihoods, data for this mixed method (qualitative and quantitative) research was delivered through interviews and focused group discussions. The field survey took two months, undertaken with the help of the trained enumerators.

This study had limited access to a complete donor inflows to agricultural projects in the region and the agricultural sector. This limitation was amplified by the lack of central information depository and collaboration between donors. This study did not cover in-depth other livelihood sectors like health, education and other social sectors. The researcher faced limited access to financial resources due to lack of sponsorship for field survey. While the community respondents were readily available, the institutional respondents (key informants) were constrained by the permission acquisition procedures from their institutions. The number of key informants was also affected by the limited number of institutions supporting the study sector.

To adequately respond to the research demands, the research boundaries included assessing the impact of donor funding measured through livelihood outcomes. The objectives were at three levels that included assessing whether donor funding reduced poverty and/or improved livelihoods, influence of donor and community motives and sufficiency of the delivery models. The study had fixed time in terms of assessment period (10 years period) and time assessment in a given specific geographical location (Magoye and Choongo). The research applied the mixed

method convergent research design utilizing qualitative and quantitative approaches with data collected through interviews and focused group discussions.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The problem was that millions of dollar support from donors (WB 2023; ZAMSTAT, 2022; OECD, 2022, Moyo, 2009) were provided but livelihood improvement of rural communities (Arsalan, 2019, Waheed, 2020; Ferreira, 2021) were either static, low or absent, putting to question the real motive and adequacy of the delivery model applied (Nost et al, 2018; OECD, 2022).

1.3 Research aim, objectives, questions and hypothesis

The aim of this study was to evaluate donor aid contribution to sustainable livelihoods of the rural poor community. The specific objectives were:

1) To assess whether donor funding reduced poverty and improved livelihoods of rural communities.
2) To assess the extent to which donor motives, including hidden motives, influenced provision of donor aid.
3) To assess the extent to which donor motives synchronized with the community motives.
4) To assess the adequacy or sufficiency of the delivery models.

The research questions included the following:

1) What influence did donor aid had on livelihoods of vulnerable people?
2) What was the level of knowledge on donor motives that drove provision of donor aid??
3) To what extent were donor motivations in line with the community motivations?
4) How did the delivery channels and models help in taking resources to rural vulnerable communities?

The hypotheses of the study were:

1) Null hypothesis (Ho): Donor aid resulted in attributable change in livelihoods of vulnerable rural communities; Alternative hypothesis (Ha): donor aid did not result in attributable change in livelihoods of vulnerable rural communities.
2) Null hypothesis (Ho): Motives of donors influenced support to rural communities; Alternative hypothesis (Ha): Motives of donors did not influence their support to rural communities.
3) Null Hypothesis (Ho): Donors and vulnerable communities had similar motivations towards donor aid; Alternative hypothesis (Ha): Donor motives and vulnerable community motives were not the same.
4) Null Hypothesis (Ho): Aid delivery model sufficiently influenced creation of livelihood change in rural communities; Alternative hypothesis (Ha): The delivery model did not significantly create livelihood change in rural communities.

1.4 Nature of the study

In this study a mixed method approach (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017) was applied to investigate the impact of donor funding in vulnerable rural communities of Zambia. Looking at the complexity of the topic, the researcher took a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches as no single research design was capable of bringing out conclusive results (Babin & Zikmund, 2015). The process therefore involved exploratory enquiry and descriptive procedures utilizing focus group discussions. The process also applied analytical and predictive methodologies embedded in qualitative close-ended questioning.

The exploratory approach was recommended to gain insights on the phenomena (Ward, 2012), help clarify ambiguous situations, discover new ideas and develop hypotheses for detailed research (Babin & Zikmund, 2015). Key methodologies and techniques included literature review,

field surveys and focused group discussions. The exploratory study was followed by the descriptive research to describe the funding phenomena as it existed. Elements of descriptive research was chosen based on its usefulness in identifying and obtaining information from experience and helped in generating quantitative data through statistical techniques (Ward, 2012). Babin and Zikmund (2015) and Copper and Schindler (2011) argued that descriptive research, combined with predictive approaches, helped in describing characteristic variables such as demographics (population, gender, groups, organizations and environmental characteristics) and interactive associations among different variables.

Apart from triangulation of quantitative data, focused group discussion was applied to get a deeper understanding on the motivations for funding, people experiences of change and efficacy of donor aid. Application of the focused group discussions helped in the generation of descriptive understanding of statistical measurements of pre and post-funding periods (Copper & Schindler, 2011). Continuing on the descriptive methods was the analytical process that helped in explaining how everything happened. Analytical approach was chosen to measure causality in the funding regime (Ward, 2012). This research also employed predictive approaches to know whether phenomena players, especially rural communities, expected specific livelihood performance changes following the implementation of uniquely targeted initiatives in their areas.

Scholars defined research process in different ways: as systematic inquiry to inform managerial decision-making (Blumberg et al., 2014); scientific method in searching for the truth (Babin & Zikmund, 2015); and collection and analysis of data to increase understanding on a particular issue (Fischler, 2017). In the above narratives, deductive, inductive and combination of them (mixed method approach) explained the best process in data collection, analysis and interpretation (White & Rayner, 2014). Therefore, the process undertaken in this study was Mixed

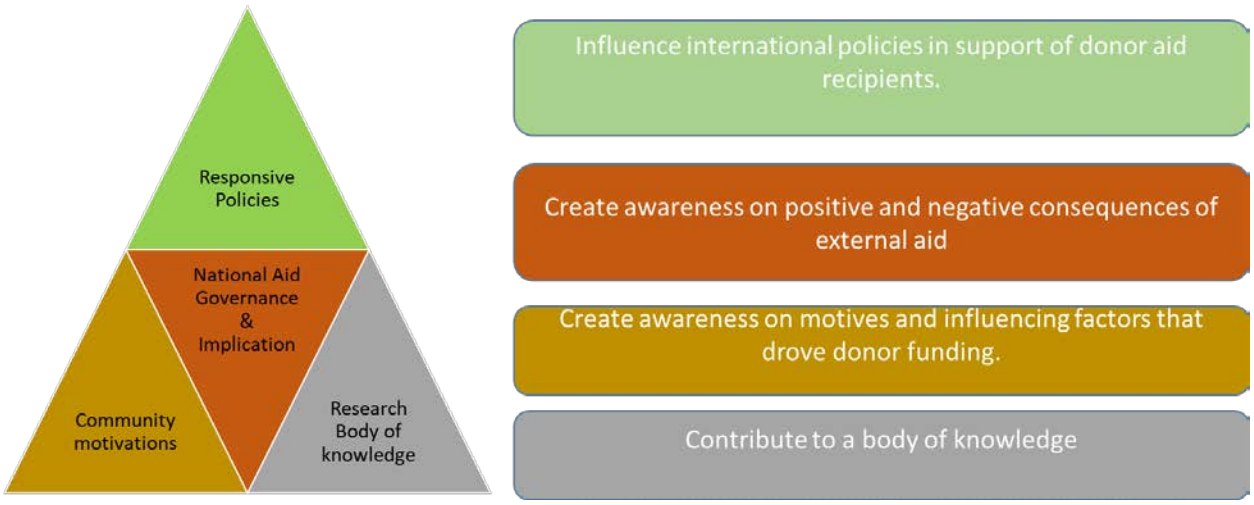
Method Approach (MMA) to achieve the best results. This approach was also used by Kuria and Wanyoike (2016) when they studied *Factors that Influenced Sustainability of Donor Funded Projects in Nakuru County in Kenya*. Cooper and Schindler (2011) also underscored the advantages of Mixed Method Approaches (MMA) in addressing the weaknesses amenable from single study approach in achieving greater insights.

1.5 Significance of the study

The significance of this study echoed its importance to the philanthropic industry, international and national policy emancipation and its contribution to the body of knowledge. Figure 1.5 illustrated in general terms, the significance of this study in ensuring responsive policies and their implications in the governance of the industry philanthropic systems at implication. It also highlighted its contribution to the academic body of knowledge, providing input to the future research.

Fig 1.1

Significance Of The Study



Note: Fig 1.1 illustrated the significance of the study as pyramid with community awareness (Brown) and Body of knowledge (Grey) at the base and expected to influence the national aid governance (Red) and ultimately encourage international policy response (Green). Source: Field data.

In the last century, the philanthropic industry had grown both in number of players and size of funding. Among the donors included the primary donors that might be families or individuals. Others were foundations, bilateral and multilateral donors. The sector also diversified in the models of funding. Found in the market were trade-for-development, grant provision, in-kind donations and other support systems. In its diversity, the philanthropic industry would benefit from this study through harmonized approach to funding and management. The study would also encourage complementarity, discourage competitive tendencies and fragmentation. This study would open spaces for donor community internal dialogue and collaboration. It would also urge in-depth understanding of the community perspectives of donor funding and shape new paradigm for sustainable outcomes.

At policy level, the study would influence international and national policies guiding management of sector. The study offered greater potential to influence policy decisions and strengthen the existing policies aimed at ensuring accountability and transparency. At international level, the study would influence the review of the existing international agreements such as the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (PDAE, 2005), Accra Agenda for Action (AAA, 2008), Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2005) and the nongovernmental agreement on International Aid Transparency Initiative (IATI, 2008). These international agreements were reached to achieve effectiveness, efficiency, accountability, predictability and transparency in foreign aid support system. In addition, this study would guide the delivery of multilateral and bilateral funding, including World Bank funds and other large-scale projects with wider community impact. At country level, the study would provide critical information for local policy decisions. Background information that drive understanding of the donor motivation and choice of projects would help in repositioning country and community development priorities. This study would also help in clarifying the different external projects within the contexts of trade for development, humanitarian support and trade based funding initiatives. In essence, this study would provide vital information towards analysis of the positive benefits and negative consequences of donor funding. Positive benefits of the donor aid included human development, economic development and environmental management. The negative consequences of donor aid were highly exhibited in economic and social degeneration and increased negative vices such as corruption, poor governance, increased ‘hidden’ debt and misdirection of donor resources. Guarding against the negative vices of donor funding would help the recipient countries to provide control measures in the process of maximizing the positive pointers of donor funding. Good donor funding international and national policies would directly

benefit the rural communities as primary beneficiaries of donor funding. This study would build knowledge in the beneficiary populations and sharp their choices of development projects and conditions associated to those projects. Not having full knowledge of reasons behind the provision of donor funding, including hidden motives, would be detrimental to attaining lasting change. This study would benefit the policy arena through provision of adequate knowledge on issues of donor funding motivations and associated support conditions. The situation where beneficiaries accepted anything that was given to them did not entail total appreciation but a show of desperation.

The study would contribute to the academic body of knowledge by providing empirical discourse on the controversial contribution of donor funding to livelihood improvement and poverty reduction. The study also was expected to provide knowledge on the critical underlying factors in the delivery of donor aid such as the motivations of both donors and communities. The study would also establish the point of convergence which was important in understanding the success factors for mutual partnership. The study benefitted the academic world through identification and recommendation of research gaps, especially amidst scarce public information on the philanthropic industry (Paula, 2018). The newly identified research gaps in this study complemented gaps earlier identified by other scholars. Greenall et al. (2017) identified inadequacy and inappropriateness of donor funding affected sustainable change in the community. Yator (2012) studied the extent to which donor funding disrupted indigenous economic development systems. This study would also contribute to the body of knowledge on the ever drifting industry sector. The donor keep changing goal posts to themes like climate change, social justice, localization, digital transformation. The process also ended up in increased competition for scarce resources and project mentality trap focused on short-term donor driven interventions whose main goals eluded the community needs.

1.6 Dissertation Structure

The structure of this dissertation flowed from Executive Summary through Chapter one to Chapter five. Chapter one provided the background, purpose, aim and objectives of the study. It provided the statement of the problem, nature of the study, philosophy of the study and significance of the study. It concluded with the research questions and hypotheses. Chapter two provided the theoretical framework and conceptual framework informed by the explored literature related to this research study. Chapter three highlighted the research methodology, approach and design of the study. This chapter also provided the population and sampling approach; research instruments and tools. It also highlighted the study variables and assessment procedures and ended with the ethical assurances considered in data collection. Chapter four provided the practical steps undertaken to ensure trustworthiness, reliability and validity of data before presenting the actual findings and its evaluation. Therefore, the chapter began with introduction, trustworthiness of qualitative data and reliability and validity of quantitative data. The findings were presented with quotations of respondent voices to give legitimacy to the information. The chapter ended with an evaluation of the findings to help in drawing conclusions. Chapter five discussed the implications, practical recommendation, future research recommendations and conclusions of the study.

CHAPTER TWO: RELATED LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

Foreign aid, also known as donor aid, was defined as a flow of funds or charitable support and services from donor countries and organizations to developing countries, countries in transition or poor communities (Hanza, 2018). There were various donor aid characterizations. Among the most common characteristic was the type of support such as development aid, humanitarian aid and military aid. Within the donations provided were also systems of aid that included food relief, financial grants, loans, market and trade development aid, services provision and in-kind donations.

In this study, focus was on development aid provided to the poor rural communities. The development aid to rural communities included different channels such as input subsidies, food relief, financial matching grants, financial and input loans, market and trade development support, services (extension/technical) provision and in-kind donations. Considering that the studied rural communities relied on agriculture for survival, deliberate consideration of the study was on agricultural farmers that received donor funding in the past 10 years as a group, cooperative or individuals. This chapter provided the theoretical framework and conceptual framework informed by the explored literature related to this research study.

2.1 Contextual Locus

In the current global development, philanthropy became one of the major pathways used to mitigate economic, social and political injustices. Donors provided millions of dollars to improve lives in the developing world (World Bank (WB), 2023; Zambia Statistics (ZAMSTAT), 2022; Organization for Economic Corporation and Development (OECD), 2022)). The data on the donor cash inflows to Zambia was not very accurate due to various delivery channels and sources.

Paula (2018) argued that public information on the philanthropic industry was scarce; neither governments nor private organizations collected and provided philanthropy data publicly. Though not exhaustively, the country received over US$245million between 2008 and 2017 (Table 2.1). Between 2010 and 2021, Zambia received $14 trillion in foreign aid towards food security (World Bank 2023).

Table 2.1

External Development Aid To Zambia (2008-2017)

Year	Source	Amount (US$)
2008, 2014	ODA contributed by United States (25%), European Union (10%), United Kingdom (9%), Global Fund (8%) and IDA (6%).	58.2 billion
2012	UN-Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)	4.5 million
2013, 2015	Finland contribution	69.9 million in ODA
2017	Official Development Assistance (ODA)[1]	58.2 million
2017	Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA)	54.5 million

Note: This table indicated the donor funding provision to Zambia in United States Dollars (US$) in the period 2008 to 2017 provided by the International Development Association (IDA), Oversee Development Assistance (ODA) countries, Global Fund and Finland. Source: Field data's compilation.

However, in the midst of high external aid provision to Zambia, the Zambia 2015 Living Conditions Monitoring Survey recorded 54.4 percent chronic extreme poverty with 40.8 percent of the population experiencing income inequalities. There was an imbalance between resource

[1] Contributors included United States (25%), European Union (10%), United Kingdom (9%), Global Fund (8%) and International Development Agency (6%)

provision and livelihood change. The report also posed a challenge in relating external aid impact on poverty reduction among the beneficiaries.

Apart from Zambia, other countries in the low and medium income countries, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, received donor funds for development. Waheed (2020) argued that Africa was a poverty capital of the world where corruption and poor governance favored a few at the expense of the majority population. To mitigate the challenge of inability to solve their own poverty dilemma, foreign governments and charitable organizations had taken the burden of funding developmental projects to Africa to improve the quality of life of the poor and marginalized. Scholars such as Yator (2012) and Cha and Ramesh (2017) recorded US$10 million and US$58.2 billion respectively given to underdeveloped countries by global institutions like the European Union, JICA, World Bank, SIDA, FINNIDA, USAID, GIZ/BMZ and IFAD. Finckenstein (2021) argued that, between 1993 and 2012, Lebanon received up to US$170 billion, a greater amount higher than the financial allocation towards implementation of the entire Marshall Plan for reconstruction of Europe. Other Philanthropy charities like Melinda & Bill Gates Foundation provided aid to profit and non-profit organizations to mitigate specific developmental challenges in the global south. History records earlier organizations such as Rockefeller Foundation's work on disease control and Christian Missionaries that supported basic education and health care dating back to pre-WWI and WWII (Markovits et al., 2019). In the recent years, other forms of aid like reparations, private capital flows and remittances from people in diaspora became significant and surpassed Overseas Development Assistance (ODA) provision to poor countries (William, 2024). The aid providers also shifted from the traditional donors such as ODA, IMF, World Bank and notable countries like Japan, United States and other OECD and Nordic countries to China. China offered infrastructural loans to underdeveloped and emerging economies

in East Asia, Africa and South America as part of its massive Belt and Road Initiative (William, 2024).

2.2 Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

2.2.1 Theoretical Framework of the Study

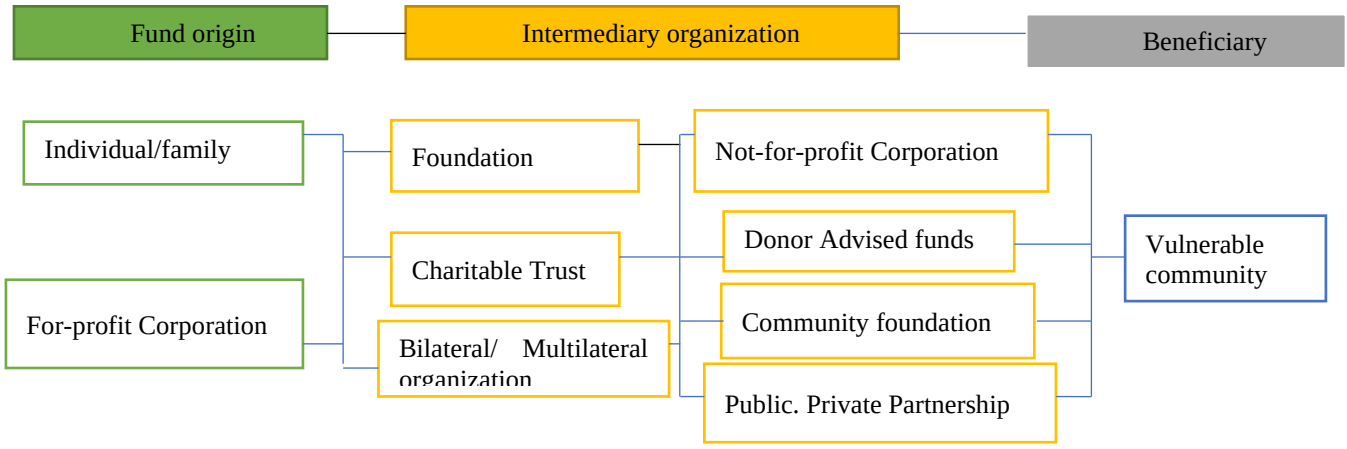
The philanthropic industry had grown from humble giving to a multi-million industry. It started as a simple process of assisting vulnerable people with food, clothing, blankets and shelter. For African communities, this gesture made communities survive hard times especially in the post times of drought, floods and famine.

Globally, World War I and II offloaded widows, orphans and other victims that needed help. Continued geopolitical tensions, natural and man-made disasters, climate change, disease epidemics plus politically engineered economic recessions increased demand for help over the years. These global challenges necessitated growth of the philanthropic response (Yator, 2012; Cha & Ramesh, 2017; Shende, 2017). The donor community correspondingly grew from individuals to families, charitable organizations, foundations, non-profit and for-profit organizations, bilateral and multilateral institutions. Global giving grew, gained visibility and created the needed change in the lives of people around the world (Paula, 2018). The growth of the philanthropic industry came with specialization, sophistication and professionalism among service providers. Foreign governments and charitable organizations took the burden of funding developmental projects in the impoverished regi0ons of the world (Waheed, 2020). The diversity in donor aid provision brought about stiffer competition and unfavorable conditions for those targeted for support with demand for good governance, accountability and social and cultural change from supported communities.

Though the scope of the philanthropic support had been unprecedented, concerns in the society concentrated on the limited change among the participating vulnerable people. In line with this challenge, one was left with no option but to question whether donor aid provision was altruistic or a populalist gesture or was just business hidden in ulterior motives. This question could not be answered without first assessing the role played by every player in the supply chain. In this regard, the Theoretical Framework of this study was premised on the donor aid supply chain as depicted in Figure 2.1.

Fig 2.1

Aid Supply Chain.



Note: Figure 2.1 illustrated the aid supply chain from the donor fund origin (Green) through Intermediary organizations (Orange) to Beneficiaries (Grey). The donors included individual, family and not-for profit organizations. Intermediary institutions comprised all institutions in the delivery channel. The last category were the beneficiaries. Source: Field data's compilation.

Based on the donor aid supply chain, the resources originated from individuals, families and for-profit corporations. These primary donors provided funds to first level intermediary organizations (Foundations, Charitable Trusts and Bilateral/Multilateral organizations) who at this

stage could be considered as intermediary beneficiaries. Under acceptable conditions, the primary donors also provided funds directly to the beneficiary communities especially in the humanitarian aid programmes.

The first level intermediary organizations might provide aid directly to communities. However, their principle channel of aid delivery was through second level intermediary organizations (Not-For-Profit Organizations, Donor Advisory Fund, Community Foundations and Public-Private-Partnerships). This group of players in the donor aid supply chain were considered beneficiaries because they received aid from the first level beneficiaries.

The second level intermediary organizations took the last mile and provided support to communities. A donor was defined as a person who donated or gave away something to another person, presumably for free. Therefore, in the eyes of the beneficiary community, the second level intermediary organization that provided them support played a role of a donor. In this regard, the intermediary level in the donor aid supply chain took a mixed role of beneficiary and donor. In addition to the aforementioned organizations, the Government of Canada (2020) argued that hired companies, private consultants, private contractors, joint venture participants, consortium partners and community organizations were part of the intermediary actors. Their role in the donor aid business was mainly advisory and other short-term and part-time service provision.

The intermediary organizations also played a double role of beneficiary and donor. Based on this double role, provision of support to vulnerable communities drifted between building internal business capacity (endowment) to managing donor funds and responding to community needs (social concern). Ramakrishina (2018) argued that intermediary organizations worked towards balancing their beneficiary and donor roles. On beneficiary role side, the intermediary organizations made decisions for aid allocation to vulnerable communities based on their long-

term partnership with the donor, meeting national and international regulatory policies and ensuring harmony with their affiliations and memberships to regional bodies like EU member states, Commonwealth member states, regional groupings like Southern African Development Community (SADC) and trade relations like the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA). Also, important was the desire to increase the organizational endowment and taking advantage of the tax incentives given by various governments.

The last group in the supply chain were beneficiary communities. By and large, these were on the receiving end of the donor aid supply chain. There decisions to participate and their partnership position was usually low and highly defined by their level of vulnerability. However, for all that donors provided, the final impact was at this group of participants. It therefore followed that the all essence of philanthropic work must be measured at this level. In this respect, the theoretical framework of this study considered variables that assessed the donor aid resource flow along the supply chain, role played by each player, the aid delivery model applied and the experienced change from the perspectives of the targeted community.

From the above scenarios, the theoretical framework of this study was informed by the Resource Dependency Theory. The Resource Dependency Theory was backed by Benevolence theory developed by John Winthrop in 1630, also called charity or *Caritas* in Latin; Human Potential Maximization Theory; the Social reform theory or Catalyst for change theory and the Civic empowerment theory. The Benevolence theory indicated that human societies were connected to one another and were bound to share their accumulations. The Benevolence theory helped in the assessment of donor motives and donor aid effect on community variables.

The Human Potential Maximization Theory **(**also called Gospel of Wealth**)** was founded by Benjamin Franklin and Andrew Carnegie in 1886. This theory promoted the concept of

opportunity creation for individuals with potential to progress. This theory helped in the analysis of donor funding delivery model, frequently applied model and community readiness variables.

The Social reform theory or Catalyst for change theory propounded by the Peterson Commission in 1970 argued that rather than responding to requests of others, donor aid should actively identify and solve public problems through experimentation and innovative use of venture capital. This theory helped in the analysis and assessment of donor fund provision conditions, active donor fund agencies and donor aid effect on community variables.

The Civic Empowerment Theory by Jane Addams in 1886 promoted exploitation of local solutions and resources to avoid dependency on external resources. This theory helped in the analysis and assessment of the community preferred donor fund supply channel, experienced donor fund project, community motives and experienced change variables.

Other theories included the dependency theory and the sustainable livelihoods framework. The dependency theory indicated the behavioral and developed attitude towards reliance on external support as opposed to finding local solutions. Driven by high level of vulnerability and desperation, rural communities perceived external support as a means to an end and would give up their dignity even when they did not know the motives hidden in the giving.

Sustainable livelihoods framework provided a structure for holistic poverty alleviation action. It identified five key assets critical for building rural livelihoods – human capital, natural capital, financial capital, social capital and physical capital and located these in their social and political contexts. This framework would help in the assessment of donor aid contribution to the development and livelihood capital assets. This theory would help in the analysis and understanding the donor funding contribution to livelihood change. This theory would contribute

to evaluating variables such as the change experienced by the community, the donor aid effect on community and donor provision conditions.

2.2.1.1 Philanthropic evolution

The field of philanthropy, called Science of generosity by Pendley (2012) and what the Researcher called 'Industry of Giving', was a huge industry with high levels of diversity and extent. The sector was not just about giving money but included volunteering time, offering skills and provision of in-kind donations. It followed that a philanthropist was someone who donated their money, experience, time, talent or skills to help others live a better life. Though this definition identified an individual, modern day philanthropic industry went beyond to many institutions including the United Nations agencies, multilateral and bilateral corporations, national programmes, international and national private sector companies, individual charitable organizations, volunteers and families. All these institutions played their part at different levels of philanthropic value chain.

Human beings and primates had a history of giving, inherited and based on their family set-up. The Women's Philanthropy Institute's (WPI, 2018) study of philanthropic behavior established that the behavior of giving was inherited from parents and argued that affluent individuals and families gave surplus income and unwanted possessions to charity.

In the African culture, everyone in a village communally shared what they had to uplift each other. In this spirit, the village communities shared their gathered forest products and game and shared their joy and sorrow as a family. Though common assets dwindled over time due to urbanization and industrialization, the Africans did not abandon their giving habits. The National Philanthropic Trust (NPT, 2021) argued that 86 percent of affluent households maintained or increased their giving habits. The African Philanthropy Network (APN, 2019) estimated Africa's philanthropy at US$2.8 billion per year with the potential to reach USD7 billion to support health

and education sectors. In the developed world, families continued with the habit of giving through family foundations. Notable names included Warren Buffet, Henry Ford, Bill and Melinda Gates, and many more.

The structure and scope of foreign aid was also traced to the pre-World War I and World War II (September 1, 1939 to September 2, 1945). Markovits et al. (2019) argued that Rockefeller Foundation supported endemic disease control while Christian Missionaries supported basic education and health care during the pre WWI and WWII. In the same era, the European powers provided aid to facilitate extraction of wealth and trade in the global south and not for develop (Markovits et al., 2019). As the World War II approached the end, the international community founded international organizations such as International Monetary Fund and World Bank in July 1944 and subsequently the United Nations System in 1945. Following the signing of the Economic Recovery Act of 1948 by President Truman of the United States of America, the Marshal Plan of 1948 was developed to support rehabilitation of western and European infrastructure damaged during the World Wars. To counter the Western Bloc, the Soviet Union developed the Molotov Plan (1947) to drive bilateral trade agreements, economic alliances and rebuild their allied Eastern European countries affected politically and economically (Markovits et al., 2019). Post-World War II also ignited the Christian philanthropy, formation of charitable organizations, family foundations and later pushed corporate institutions to give through social responsibility programmes.

Though the philanthropy industry became clearer and received prominence around the 19th Century, the industry of giving (Philanthropy) had a root in the period Before Christ (BC) as recorded in Deuteronomy 14:22 (the first Book of Moses in the Holy Bible). The Book of Deuteronomy recorded command given to Christians to give 10% of their income or seasonal

harvest as tithe. This command demanded early Christians to give donations from their earnings to the church. As a result, upon registration as a member of a given church, the church leadership resumed the right to receive 10% from a Congregant's income at source or through timely remittances. This was done without informed knowledge for the use of donated money but the Christian's just believed that the money was for evangelism and common good. This practice of donation in churches was amplified by the pretext that '*blessed is the hand that giveth'* (Acts 20: 25). Acts 20: 35 emphasized the notion of giving, stating that it was better to give than to receive while 2 Corinthians 9:7 talked of how God cherished the giver.

On a positive note, tithe fund grew some denominations to international acclaim while in some the controllers of the funds accumulated immeasurable wealth without being censured by church members because there was no agenda for the funds in the first place, except that of meeting their membership obligations. These behavior in churches signaled the first lack of accountability and transparency and a recipe for corruption and misapplication of communal resources.

In some churches like the Catholic Church, philanthropy was well structured and the Vatican, the Global Headquarters or Nation of the Catholic Church, received funds across the World through systems like the Peter's Pence while at Archdiocesan level there was Seminarian Fund contributed by Female Christians and Pastoral Fund by Male Christians. To this separate funds, female and male congregants were asked to contribute US$6.50 and US$7.50 per annum respectively. According to 2020 *Annuario Pontificio* (Pontifical Yearbook), there were 1.329 billion Roman Catholics (16% of the World's total population) at the close of 2018. This meant that on average Christian contribution to Seminarian and Pastoral Fund amounted to US$9.303 billion annually. Before Henry VIII banned Peter's pence in the Catholic Church, it was a popular practice that commanded 'offering of the fruitful' (*Obolo di san Pietro* in Latin). Pope Pius IX

rekindled Peter's pence and expanded it to include donations, fees for services such as weddings, funerals, confirmations and special taxes levied during crusades (Posner, 2005: pp. 87-88). This moved the willingness to donate based on individual capacity and willingness to level of service charges guised under willful contribution and faith.

In studying the History of Modern Philanthropy, Gardner (2016) traced philanthropic evolution from 1500 to the present time. He observed that between 1500 and 1750, the philanthropic industry which emphasized giving to churches and charities changed the model of giving including the items involved such as people, goods, ideas and culture. John Gardner called the period between 1750-1890 as a period of upheaval that increased the number of refugees, widows and orphans that needed support in the midst of increased colonization. This shifted the philanthropic attention to providing a helping hand to survivors of war, political revolt, civil strife and armed conflicts.

With this increased demand for support, an opportunity rose for business leading to emergency of private and public sector support systems with a profit motive embedded in it. From time immemorial, private sector was not known for free donations but every coin gained was regarded as capital and/or profit. The public sector did this in a corrupt and fraudulent way. Mundell (2009) argued that Zimbabwe, South Africa and Uganda collectively were accused of diverting US$12.8 million in 2008 alone while Zimbabwe and Zambia mismanaged and/or diverted U$687 million Global Fund and US$10 million Social Cash Transfer in 2018 respectively, all these through corporate state institutions. This proved that the donor funding was amenable to misdirection and appropriation.

Gardener (2016) called the period 1890-1930 as a period of lasting change. Carnegie (1889, as cited in Gardner, 2016) referred to this period as the 'Gospel of Wealth' with emphasis on

redistribution of wealth from the rich to the poor as a moral obligation. The Carnegie theory of giving permeated through first and future generations. Although this sounded like a positive gesture from the wealthy individuals, the reality was opposite with much more wealth accumulated in the process and poor people of the world became poorer.

Other philanthropists saw the need to give as a means to survive and grow their businesses. Such included John D. Rockfeller, J.P Morgan, Napoleon Hill, Henry Clay Frick, Roswell Miller III, Henry Ford, Andrew W. Mellon and Samuel Gompers. Others were Alexander Graham Bell, Thomas Edison, Henry Bessemer, George Pullman, Jay Gould, Mansa Musa, Eugene V. Debs and Mark Twain. The individuals established foundations to drive their profit making agenda.

During the same era, other philanthropists and social welfare activists promulgated more inclusive, integrated and effective methods of giving. Unfortunately, this era's giving model were seen to be driven by Western Supremacy Ideologies and advancement of businesses. The industry of giving built individual and family businesses and gained those business owners immense political influence.

The global economic recession of 1930-1980 gave way to a more redefined philanthropy work and saw the emergency of social welfare support systems and industry level Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). It also called for more collaboration and professionalism in support of the vulnerable and affected communities like victims of war, widows and orphans. In meeting the challenge, the era saw entry of civil society organizations, human rights movements, community-based organizations and faith-based development organizations to address the needs of vulnerable communities.

Gardner (2016) argued that from 1980 into the 21st Century and beyond, the Industry of Giving became more organized, specialized, diversified and delivered in a more professional

manner. In addition, the industry diversified its beneficiary group from vulnerable groups (widows, women, orphans, elderly, religious entities) to include professional and specialized bodies like universities, research institutions, trusts and foundations. The work of Gardner (2016) showed that the philanthropic industry embraced mutual partnership where givers and receivers needed to coexist. The need for mutual partnership brought about the concept of 'call for proposals' where the recipient was made to respond to the development agenda of the donor. In a small way, the process also recognized preparation of 'fishing proposals' targeting any donor interested in giving support to an identified course. The fishing proposals targeted foundations, individuals and families, Charity organizations, volunteers, Donor-Advised Funds, corporations and inheritance funds (MarketWatch, 2021).

Over time, the growth of the Industry of Giving gave birth to various specialist institutions, among them Foundations, Charitable organizations and individual/family donors. Johnson (2018) estimated 250,000 foundations (154,271 in Europe, 91,850 in North America operating across 38 different countries and 3,879 from other regions of the world). The philanthropic sector recognized global leading foundations among them Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, the Ford Foundation, Novo Nordisk Foundation, Rockefeller Foundation, Lilly Endowment, J. Paul Getty Trust, Stichting INGKA Foundation, Open Society Foundations, Smithsonian Institute, Carnegie Foundation, Wellcome Trust, Azim Premji Foundation and Garfield Weston Foundation. These institutions received accolade in pioneering and driving the philanthropic sector.

The NPT (2021) in their Giving USA 2021 Annual Report argued that United States Foundations held high financial assets in Dollar terms as indicated in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2

Financial Assets In High Income Countries

Country	Assets (US$' billion)
United States	890.0
Netherlands	108.0
Germany	92.9
Switzerland	87.8
Italy	86.9
United Kingdom	84.2
France	29.6
Spain	29.0
Turkey	20.4
China	14.2

Note: Table 2.2 indicated the wealthy nations' financial assets in billions of United States Dollars (US$) in the year 2021 based on the Giving USA 2021 Annual Report, National Philanthropic Trust, 2021

Charitable organizations were not-for-profit institutions and operated as private or public entities. Their interests were vast and ranged from education, religious and any issues and activities addressing public good. They handled gifts or donations given for a particular cause. The private charities were funded through family, corporation, individual and other financial sources. The public charities received funding mainly from government, individuals and private organizations. Some examples of public charities included American Cancer Society and World-Wide Fund for Nature. Other specialist institutions included hospitals (e.g. Beit Cure), church organizations (like Catholic Relief Services), Institutes for Medical Research (Centre for Tropical Diseases; and agricultural institutes (International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA). In many states, the charitable organizations enjoyed income tax exemption as they were viewed to contribute to the aspirations of government and utilized resources that were already taxed.

The National Centre for Charitable Statistics (NCCS, 2019) estimated the number of charitable organizations in the United States of more than 1.54 million. NCCS (2019) also argued that, in 2012, the major source of funding for these organizations included program service

revenues, including government contracts and fees (73%), contributions, gifts and government grants (21%) and dues, special event income, rental income and net sales from goods (6%). This signified the resilience of the charitable organizations and the diversity of support that they could give. The number of charitable organizations was a testimony of the potential to mitigate major challenges in the global south if terms and conditions were favourable.

The NPT (2020) began tracking Donor Advised Funds (DAF) data in 2007. The study tracked a total of 1,087 Development Aid Fund (DAF) sponsors that included 62 National Charities, 630 Community Foundations and 395 Single-Issue Charities. The study defined the National Charities as organizations that were independent or were commercially affiliated, not regional but focused on the all country and worked in diverse disciplines. The Community Foundations were organizations that had a specific geographic or regional focus, managed by local communities and ran community priority projects. The Single-Issue Charities were organizations that supported a specific or particular cause and funded a specific institution that worked in the area of focus such as education, research or specialized humanitarian support services.

Individual volunteers played a significant role in philanthropic work. The study done by the NPT (2020) established that the largest source of charitable giving came from individuals (68.75% or US$324.10 billion) of US$471.44 billion total giving. For this level of individual giving to happen, someone had a spare time and extra resources. The NCCS (2019) argued that adults volunteered more, giving time valued at approximately US$195.0 billion. The adult age group also provided talent, participated in fundraising activities (selling items to raise money; food collection or distribution; collecting, making or distributing clothing, crafts or other goods; and mentoring youth).

Individuals usually worked through institutions including religious groups, sport, hobby, cultural or arts, educational or youth service, and civic, political, professional or international groups like Doctors-Without-Borders. WPI (2018) argued that behaviour of giving among individuals was linked to parents. NPT (2021) argued that affluent individuals and families maintained and or increased their donations based on surplus income and unwanted possessions. Chong and Gradstein (2006) argued that donor aid was adversely affected by recipient government inefficiency and income inequality.

Apart from joining formal groups, history had a number of individuals that formed institutions to deliver their donations. Notable ones included King Faisal Foundation established by the Saudi Arabia's Monarch King Faisal (1906-1975), the Barefoot College established in 1972 by Sanjit Bunker Roy and the Médecins Sans Frontieres (MSF) or Doctors Without Borders founded by the Asian Law Caucus. Much of such institutions formed by individuals drew strength from inheritance funds. According to NPT (2021), inheritance funds reached $41.91 billion in 2021.

The corporate giving, coined as Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), was one measure through which Non-state companies gave back to society. However, the CSR was not an obligation and was not regulated by law but was just a practice to show goodwill towards appreciating the contribution of society to business growth. The NPT (2021) argued that corporations only increased their grant portfolio when the stock market was up, when they had assured financial returns and when the economic security was assured. This signified the profit motives that surround the Corporate Social Responsibility generosity. Therefore, one could not be wrong to consider it as a persuasive initiative to attract popular customer recognition.

From the foregoing, it was clear that the Industry of Giving (philanthropy) was an old practice and started with the origin of the primates as they learned to share all they had with the family members. The industry evolved through the period of pre-civilization to the current modern society. Modern day philanthropists were many, diverse, specialized and support different causes. For example, in 2018, Buffet donated US$3.4 billion to foundations dedicated to women's rights, social justice and fighting poverty and also donated to Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation. However, it was not very clear whether donor funding could be considered as a donation or investment owing to the inherent gains it brought to the donor.

Table 2.3

Twelve influential philanthropists

Name (Years)	Personal worthy (B' US$)	Donation channel	Donation to Charity (B' US$)
Bill Gates (2022)	Over 135.80	Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation	Above 50
Warren Buffet (2022)	115.60	Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, Susan Thomson Buffet Foundation, Haward G. Buffet Foundation, Sherwood Foundation and Novo Foundation.	Above 46
Oprah Winfrey (2022)	2.60	Oprah Winfrey Charitable Foundations	Above 0.140
Michael Jordan	1.6	Charlotte Hornets	Above 0.15
Mark Zuckerberg and Chan Zuckerberg (2022)	117.58	Chan Zuckerberg Initiative	1.8
Diane Von Furstenberg	1.5	Diller-von Furstenberg Family Foundation	1.0
George Soros	23	Open society Foundation	In-kind and money
Michael Bloomberg (2022)	70	Alma Mater Johns Hopkins University	0.767
Jeff Bezos (2022)	188.4	Bezos Day One Fund	2

Note: Table 2.3 indicated the famous philanthropists in a state year, indicating their Personal worthy in billions of United States Dollars, their donation channels and charitable donations they made between 2018 and 2022, Source: Field data compilation from Literature.

Over centuries, the industry's evolution resulted in high level diversity, modernity, specialization and complexity. The size and approaches changed with increased footprint in terms of donor and recipient stakeholders, financial amounts and material volumes involved. Specialization became the key result of the industry evolution. What started as a response mechanism to support the victims of war, hunger and poverty, transformed itself into a high-income industry involving trillions of dollars. In the process, the vulnerable communities got relegated to passive recipients of aid as the Giving Institutions accumulated more assets, power

and international prominence. In the process the famous philanthropists earned big though their wealth came with a responsibility to give back, confirming that by focusing on giving back, making a difference and creating positive change, one created a cycle that brought abundance tenfold. The change in the industry became more supply-driven where recipients were asked to respond to a call to receive support, mostly in an area outside their priority need. The phenomena of *take it or leave it* took prominence and the recipients were left with no choice but to meet the conditions of the giver.

In the original giving process, the giver never departed from the needs of the receiver and they gave without conditions. In the modern philanthropy, stringent conditions were advanced, which ranged from recipient country democratic and accountability performance levels, bilateral relations and the level at which the recipient country accepted foreign social and cultural change demands like homosexuality, same sex marriages and other vices not accepted by local communities. Other conditions covered aid-for-trade, military alliances and bloc memberships like North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), Southern African Development Community (SADC) and Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA). In the circle of philanthropy evolution, focus had shifted from supporting the vulnerable communities to meet their developmental needs to meeting the needs of the donor. Professional careers such as Consultants, Chief Executive Officers, Grant application writers, Programme Directors, Corporate Social responsibility (to advance marketing goals) and Grant Marketing became prominent in the delivery of aid.

What started with material provision (food, clothing, blankets, shelter. plant materials and livestock) to vulnerable family members and victims of war, philanthropy grew into a multimillion industry. Yator (2012), Cha and Ramesh (2017) and Shende (2017) recorded a cumulative

US$58.845 billion given to underdeveloped countries by European Union, JICA, World Bank, Sida, Finnida, USAID, GIZ/BMZ and IFAD in 1996. Other Philanthropy charities like Melinda & Bill Gates Foundation provided aid to profit and non-profit organizations for development projects. The NPT (2020) reported that in 2019, the Donor Advised Fund accounted for approximately US$873,228 billion, stating that 69% out of the US$471.44 billion given to charity was donated by individuals. Therefore, what began from a simple helping hand in food, clothing and shelter grew to a multi-million-dollar industry.

2.2.1.2 Donor aid for rural livelihood improvement

The concept of performance measurement had been around for over 40 years (Pope, 2013). In these forty years, impact assessment theories and practices had evolved. Kornov (2015) argued that despite the effective evolution of impact assessment, the political (governance) and learning (reflection) theories in impact assessment did not change since 1999. As a result, impact assessment continued to be problematic (OECD, 2014) due to limited attention to linearity and causality factors.

Literature identified six universally accepted and applied impact assessment theories and practices (Zambian Guardian, 2021). Among these theories and practices included Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA), Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA), Policy Assessment, Social Impact Assessment (SIA), Health Impact Assessment (HIA) and Sustainability Assessment (Pope, 2013). Others identified in literature included the Causality analysis (Khagram et al., 2009 and Theory of Change (OECD 2014; Rogers, 2015).

Environmental Impact Assessment was a tool for decision making with environmental considerations (Iyer, 2020). Utilizing this tool, social, economic, cultural and other life aspects of humanity such as health, sanitation and pollution were assessed. Iyer (2020) argued that EIA originated from the United States of America's National Environment Policy (NEPA) developed

in 1969. Since then, the tool spread to other parts of the world and became the most important decision-making tool especially over environmental considerations in the United Nations and World Bank agencies. Many critics of the Environmental Impact Assessment, however, argued against EIA, stating that it was costly, time consuming and lacked consultative process (Srinivas, 2015). It was also observed that poor communities with limited capacity were not able to undertake EIA (Middle & Middle, 2010). Since EIA was adopted in many government investment policies, it became an exclusion factor for resource poor communities who wanted to invest in medium scale businesses. The exclusivity was associated to cost, technological complexity and time required to accomplish it.

Strategic Environmental Assessment was a study that appraised policies, plans and programmes prior to project implementation (Iyer, 2020). In this sense, SEA was quite linked to EIA since both assessed technology employed, identified impact and evaluated management capacities to control foreseeable and unforeseeable consequences.

Social Impact Assessment was a process aimed at assessing social change or consequences (intended and unintended, positive or negative) from policies, plans, developments and projects (International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD, 2020). It focused on people's way of life, political system, community dynamics and health aspects. Looking at the areas covered in this assessment, SIA was quite encompassing and was therefore an umbrella tool for assessing project or programme impacts. The other tool was Sustainability Assessment which was concerned with ensuring preservation, conservation and restoration of the earth and its ecosystems (Gibson, 2013, pp. 3-9). Importance of the sustainability assessment approach lied in its resolve to limit and control the adverse effects of industrialization and urbanization on the earthly resources and environment. In recognizing that project impact was not linear but faced many external influences,

sustainability assessment needed to assess external factors and provide guidance for decision making.

The Theory of Change (OECD 2014; Rogers, 2015) combined the above six impact assessment practices by assessing and understanding symbolic developmental change and related risks caused by a given intervention (United Nations Development Group (UNDG), 2020). The Theory of Change addressed the root causes of the problem and provided solutions to risks and developmental assumptions.

Causality analysis was neither an art nor science but was a process designed to dig into the root causes of the problem before a solution was provided. Khagram et al., (2009) argued that United States Agency for International Development (USAID), United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DFID), World Bank and United Nations Agencies shifted from theory of change to causality analysis in response to the demands of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (2005) and Accra Agenda for Action (2008). The causality assessment utilized the control group to compare the change in the intervened society. Lessons from the comparative analysis provided decision making pathway for solving the prevailing problem.

The choice of impact assessment tools was dependent on the type of investment such as social impact investment and venture philanthropy. For these two investment platforms, literature suggested two impact assessment models: Venture Philanthropy Assessment Model (VPAM) and Performance Measurement and Management Model (PMMM) (Glovando et al., 2021). The VPAM allowed for the assessment of the project life cycle process, It began from project contracting/ initiation to phase-in or phase-out activities, depending on the donor decision. Galvando et al. (2021) argued that VPAM model followed the developmental steps in the project life cycle, analyzing decisions made along the implementation chain.

The Performance Measurement and Management Model (PMMM) was wider in scope and borrowed from the SIA, SEA, EIA and policy assessment to evaluate social, economic, environmental impacts and financial investments made to respond to a given situation. In this regard, the PMMM took into consideration the internal and external conditions and provided guidance for decision making using strategies and frameworks such as balanced scorecards, objectives and key results (Teplica & Hurna, 2023)

The selected impact assessment model drove the choice of assessment tools. According to Teplica and Huma (2023), Galvando et al (2021), participatory social evaluation tools such as literature review, focus group discussion, interviews, case studies and observations were common tools used in impact assessments. Through literature review, over 35 impact studies had been evaluated, but no fixed or single approach or specific model was applied in assessing impact in all fields of study. In understanding the challenges associated with assessing impact at both programme and organizational level, O'Leary et al (2017) argued that many aid intermediaries struggled to measure impact of their programmes due to poor link between the programmes and organizational goals. O'Leary et al. (2017) further argued that the tendency was to measure the impact of the organization and not programme or project implementation processes. Glovando et al. (2021) argued that while the approach to impact assessment was well documented, limited impact assessment tools were applied. Kamenetzky and Hinrchs-Krapels (2020) argued that little was known about how public research funding agencies and research organizations implemented research impact assessments. In the narrative review and exploratory study of four international research funding and administrative organizations, Kamenetzky and Hinrchs-Krapels (2020) argued that there was a disconnect between the published research impact assessment frameworks, assessment tools and undocumented organizational practices, all due to lack of clarity on the

assessment models and procedures. Another interpretation of the situation came from Mettgenberg-Lemiere (2016) when he argued that different assessment models and approaches made comparison of impact assessment results in the same field difficult. These assertions indicated lack of clarity on the specific models and procedures used in donor funded projects, putting to question the generalizability of the internal impact assessments.

Notwithstanding, a number of approaches were undertaken by various researchers. In studying the impact generated by research grants in the United Kingdom, Gomes and Stavropoulou (2019) applied systematic literature review and assessed data using Payback Framework originally developed by Martin Buxton and Steve Hanney in 1996. The Payback Framework helped in measuring impact as a result of shared knowledge, envisaged sector-wide benefits, policy positions and broader economic benefits. Gomes & Stavropoulou (2019) further argued that there was limited empirical evidence on impact created by donor aid. Again, this argument could be disputed by the donor community based on limited clarity of the assessment tools and models.

Impact assessment helped the stakeholders to provide evidence of the change result on perceived social, economic, cultural, religious, political and environmental challenges that divided society between the poor and the rich (Ebrahim & Rangan, 2010). For impact to be assessed and accepted by all, stakeholders needed to participate in coming up with qualitative and quantitative study results. Literature indicated a number of impact models and practices, but each situation demanded a tailor-made procedure that had high potential for acceptable results (Khagram et al., 2009; OECD 2014; Rogers, 2015).

In the midst of impact attribution challenges, philanthropic institutions were under pressure to demonstrate their relevance based on the work they did and the change they created among the communities they supported (O'Leary et al., 2017). The tangible change was always expected at

the grassroot community. Unfortunately, many donors focused on organizations that exhibited financial returns and social, organizational, political and environmental benefits (Glovando et. al., 2021) and missed the cloud and the reason for their provision of humanitarian and developmental aid. Literature identified two key investment models that ensured financial returns and social, organizational, political and environmental benefits (Glovando et. al., 2021). These included social impact investment and venture philanthropy. The social impact investment ensured distribution of assets (financial) for measurable social and environmental change (Glovando et. al., 2021). Venture philanthropy promoted social, cultural and environmental support. OECD (2014) considered this as an entrepreneurial approach to philanthropy.

A show of impact was in itself easy but not convincing until all stakeholders identified themselves in the expressed change. In this regard, the question as to how such a change was measured and who measured it was of paramount importance. Amidst doubts expressed by many scholars and advocates of effective donor management, all stakeholders should be part to measuring the qualitative and quantitative results of donor aid as well as the decisions made to control the situation or amplify the successes.

In simple terms, impact was a show of results in addressing complex social problems such as poverty and inequality (Ebrahim & Rangan, 2010). To build convincing impact measurement, the logical flow (causality chain) of project results needed to be applied. This demanded for assessment of project inputs, outputs and outcomes before concluding on final life changing results or long term impact (Collins, 2020). Long-term sustainable change was also about the improvements made against the baseline (presumptive) information, assessed after implementation of some interventions.

The issue of impact measurement also found its foundation on accountability demands from aid providers, direct beneficiaries and other stakeholders. Considering the many donors making contributions towards lasting change (MarketWatch, 2021; Johnson, 2018), projects and the huge amounts of funds provided (Yijie, 2001), the global stakeholders had a genuine reason to question observed limited impact on the livelihoods of the global poor. Yijii (2001), Yator (2013), Cha and Ramesh (2017), Shende (2017), Ferreira (2021), Waheed (2020) and Gachui (2017) indicated dis-satisfactory performance levels of donor aid. However, positive perceptions were held that without interventions, most people could lose their opportunities to lead decent lives. These mixed reactions (Cha & Ramesh, 2017; Shende, 2017) between the researchers, donor fund providers, beneficiaries and other stakeholders indicated a lack of common or universally accepted performance measurement model.

Impact was the end point result of a given intervention (Collins, 2020). Logical flow from resource means to results (qualitative and quantitative) enabled justification of impact results (Mettgenberg-Lemiere, 2016). In a more practical sense, impact measurement focused on assessing the effects caused by the intervention. Synonymous to impact measurement was project/programme evaluation. However, there was a difference between impact assessment and evaluation. Impact assessment was a systematic process focused on assessing the positive and negative effects of the intervention (Kloza et al., 2021). Key areas of impact assessment included environmental, social and economic effects. Evaluation covered a broad range of issues such as design appropriateness, delivery effectiveness and efficiency and sustainability (OECD 2014). In evaluation assessment, the process involved weighing results logically from inputs applied and activities undertaken to outputs and outcome results. Outcomes were the qualitative effects of a given intervention on the community (Cook, 2022) while the outputs were immediate quantitative

and usually tangible results from activities after utilizing given resources. Inputs were resources applied in undertaking identified activities. In the case of donor aid, the actual grant provided for humanitarian or development aid such as funds, human resource and services, equipment, information etc. constituted inputs. The logical analysis of inputs and outputs gave pointers to expected outcomes and impact and provided means to mitigate risks. However, care needed to be taken to avoid wrong attribution of every success to the project because not every observed achievement might come from one particular intervention but several factors, direct and indirect.

2.2.1.3 Extent to which donor motives affected improvement of livelihoods

Literature recorded millions of dollars delivered to Sub-Saharan African countries (Cha & Ramesh, 2017) to help vulnerable communities recover from livelihood shocks. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the successor Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) provided the yardstick used to provide support across the economic sectors. Beyond that, the donor community provided support to survivors of climatic disasters and political insurgencies. The motivation to provide support to vulnerable communities was mixed and ranged from personal motivation, external influences, desire for business growth and political recognition. The need to give to rural communities was also dependent on the compassionate factors felt by the giver. The government performance and individual relative income influenced the willingness to provide foreign aid (Chong & Gradstein, 2006).

Individual and family donors had highly personal motivations that drove their decisions to support vulnerable people. Many wealth families, especially those that signed the Giving Pledge such as Warren Buffet and Bill Gates indicated lack of the next of kin to inherit their estates. In that case, personal wealth was donated to charity to mitigate the inheritance vacuum. Warren Buffet and Bill Gates and his former wife Melinda Gates emphasized their role in saving the planet,

organizations, the poor and the world. These two points indicated a mixture of desperation (one cannot carry wealth to the grave) and inner feeling for others (compassion). Another point was to drive a long-term legacy for years in the future. The third point was just about a mere feeling and concern for others, recognizing that helping another person in need was noble. Literature also recorded other factors such as a person who suffered or experienced a particular life challenge had a higher chance of giving support than one who had no such an experience. Chan (2019) argued that personal values, beliefs, faith and religion, and personal experience of feeling good influenced generosity. In the world where 689 million people (9.2% of the world) lived in extreme poverty (WB, 2021), any effort to address its key vulnerability drivers such as lack of access to health, education, employment and food security in a more practical sense was noble. Based on that, literature was not short of philanthropic institutions formed by people that faced a similar experience like drought, famine, war, imprisonment, abuse and violence.

There was also a category of donors who gave without any particular reason. In studying motivation factors among Muslims and Catholic philanthropists, Newberg (2012) argued that religion-driven philanthropists gave out of affinity, affection and human values. In this respect, the huge funding for Lutheran World Federation, World Vision, Catholic Relief Services, CARITAs and many more Faith-Based Organizations were based on religious beliefs and desire to change lives as well as adherence to the religious teachings. Newberg (2012) emphasised on the point of blind loyalty by arguing that Muslims followed the Prophet Mohammad's teaching of giving to the poor as an obligation to God (Qur'an 90:14-18) while Catholics were motivated by Jesus's teaching and second commandment recorded in Matthew 22:39 of '*loving your neighbour as you love yourself*'. Other Biblical teachings included Deuteronomy 14:22; Acts 20: 25; 2 Corinthians 9:7. In Christianity and Muslim religions, people tended to give to the people they knew, admired

and within the institution for the purpose of sustaining the religious entity and expectations of getting connected to the society elite and government social-service organizations.

Giving to the vulnerable communities was also driven by moral obligation to save the environment, ecosystems and the earth. In 2010, Warrens and Gates Foundation started a Giving Pledge campaign and Sadeh et al. (2017) analyzed 96 Giving Pledge letters and identified ten (10) motivation factors for giving: having no other needs for accumulated wealth; avoiding direct inheritance; personal benefits; impact; legacy; peer influenced; personal values; luck; and being blessed. Other factors included social status, tax relief and avoiding harm to heirs (Worth et al., 2019). In summary, the reasons advanced for pledging could be grouped under five categories: desire to make a difference; a wish to give back; a sense of personal satisfaction; desire to leave a legacy; and the desire to resolve long-standing global challenges like disease, poverty and destitution (Schmitz & McCollim, 2021).

In the face of the climate impact, desire to serve the planet and ecosystems drove funding from global institutions like the Wetlands International, World-Wide Fund for Nature, International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN), Nature Conservancy, etc. Considering the global position on such issues that impacted the population globally, donor aid provision was almost automatic to ensure communities adversely affected received help to prepare, mitigate adapt and build their resiliency.

The vulnerable communities sometimes faced life threatening challenges that demanded donor response. However, it was not every need in society that attracted donors but rather only issues that had popular concern, economically viable, strategically important and in an area easily accessible. For example, Democratic Republic of Congo was strategically important rare mineral source for possible exploitation and immense economic benefits. Kenya’s location and network

within the African continent offered opportunities to reach-out other African regions. Zambia was a peaceful country with welcoming rural communities and abundant mineral and tourism wealth. Furthermore, the depletion of the Amazon forest in Brazil was not an issue of Brazil alone but was for the entire world. Wildlife depletion across the world was a danger to ecosystem and therefore demanded a global action. Disease epidemics such as HIV/AIDS, COVID 19, Tuberculosis, Leprosy, Malaria, Measles, Polio, Mpox etc. that threatened the entire universe required global response for the survival of humankind. All these were reasons for providing donor resources for the common good.

Notwithstanding the individual and global concerns, aid provision also depended on the philanthropic institution's mission and goals and the particular cause under consideration. A donor might have individually exclusive motivation factors based on their operational environment, driven by the economic sector of interest and category of beneficiaries they wish to support such as Persons Living with Disabilities (PLDs), Marginalized communities, Traumatized Persons and the Middle Income Business Persons.

To some institutions, marginalization was an important factor in donor decision making. Marginalization was highly observed among institutions that targeted children, youth, women, the differently abled persons, emigrants/migrants and internally displaced persons. UNICEF (2021) argued that there were more than one billion children across the world who were multi-dimensionally poor and COVID 19 had the potential to add 100 million more children. UNICEF further argued that 356 million children lived in extreme poverty and lacked basic nutrition, education, health, shelter and sanitation. World Bank (2020) argued that 20% of all children below the age of five (5) in developing world lived in poverty and were at a brink of losing their lives.

Such a population cluster attracted uncompromising support from donors through global institution like Save the Children.

Youths were a key group for future certainty and their poor well-being compromised the future prospects of the global countries (Hamel & Nucci, 2019). The state of the youth (aged 15 - 24 years) needed timely and holistic support to fully exploit the political, economic, cultural and social prospects that lied in future. The 2020 World Youth Report (UN, 2020) on Social Entrepreneurship and Agenda 2030 indicated that more than 169 million youths had no jobs while 9% of the 1.2 billion global youth population lived in abject poverty. This represented one-fifth of the world's poorest people. The UN argued that Africa had 80 million youth (three quarters of the global total) that lived in extreme poverty and by 2030, Nigeria, Burundi, Sudan and Zambia would contribute five hundred thousand each. Looking to the future prospects, donors saw youth support as a sustainable measure.

Women suffered many challenges beyond gender inequality as more women than men lived in poverty (Gaines et al., 2020). According to the United States Census Bureau data, 21.4 million out of the 38.1 million people that lived in poverty in 2018 were women. Therefore, the dis-proportionality of women became a precursor for donor support.

Persons with disabilities included people with hearing, visual, cognitive, mobility, speech or neural dysfunction. Rafi (2021) argued that one in six people worldwide (i.e. over a billion people) had a disability and suffered economic exclusion. The World Bank Group (WBG, 2021) report on Disability Inclusion argued that one billion people or 15% of the world's population, were severely disabled or experienced some form of disability with higher numbers found in developing countries. Major challenges faced by disabled persons included limited access to

education, health and employment. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development clearly stated that tackling disability was a practical demonstration of respecting human rights.

Added to this were displaced indigenous populations, internally displaced persons and migrants. This group of global population had been growing with many African citizens crossing over to Europe and United States of America to seek better life. These groups of people needed support from the global wealthy people and was a genuine demand that attracted moral responsibility.

Responding to the above, Safe the Children and Plan International in Zambia focused on addressing marginalization among children, maternal health and education. Many other institutions focused on other forms of marginalization caused by geographical and economic exclusion, color and political disposition.

Another deciding factor for aid provision was poverty challenges well-articulated under the Millennium Development Goal (MDG1): Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger); Sustainable Development Goal (SDG1): End poverty in all its forms everywhere; Agenda 2030: Eradicating poverty in all its forms and dimensions including extreme poverty; and Agenda 2063: eradication of poverty within one generation and aid provision agenda. Globally there were more than 700 million people living in extreme poverty, measured as the number of people living on less than US$1.90 per day (UNICEF, 2021). Sub-Saharan Africa ranked highly on the global regions in extreme poverty. World Poverty Ranking (2017) placed Zambia at level 13 of the poorest countries in the world (Ministry of Foreign Affairs Finland (MFAF), 2017, as cited in the Zambia Living Conditions Monitoring Survey (LCMS), 2015). Furthermore, from 2018 to 2023, Zambia ranked 110th out of 125 countries with a Global Hunger Index (GHI) score of 28.5. These poverty and

livelihood vulnerability positions potentially influenced the flow of donor aid to the rural communities.

International relations were also key drivers of bilateral and multilateral funding. Ramakrishina (2018) argued that developed countries used foreign aid to improve relations, prevent (trade) destabilization and as a tool for consolidation of economic and political interests.

Literature also indicated that donors' motivation was not static but changed based on external influencing factors like politics, trade, economics and existing/potential conflicts. For example, in the interwar period (1992 -2001), donor aid was given to areas with economic development potential and nations that were not in conflict. Bandyopadhyay and Verman (2013) argued that in the 1960s aid was provided for development but after September 11 2001, focus shifted to reducing the risk of terrorism. In the post-War on Terror (14 September 2001 to 30 August 2021) and specifically in 2003 and 2004, the US government introduced the President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR) and Millennium Challenge Account (MCA) respectively.

Another aid influencing factor, especially in the post-2001 period was trade and colony status of the recipient country. The United Kingdom was inclined to supporting the Commonwealth Member States. In this regard, the colonial relationship remained a tool in aid allocation decision-making, because it helped the colonial masters to consolidate their power (Ramakrishina, 2018) and effectively drive their neo-colonialism agenda. Connected to divided blocks based on colonial legacy, aid provision decision-making was looked at from the past colonial relationships against the new emerging powers. Emerging powers like China and India had brought about a relationship drift with potential change in the behavior of a country that was once a colony. Literature and recent experiences exhibited an increased resistance from former

colonies popularly grouped under Anglophone, Francophone and Saxophone countries. This colonial identification also determined trade, military and other support systems.

Conflict had a double-edged position in the philanthropic support decision paradigm. On one hand, conflict propelled aid towards the vanquished and those that suffered directly or indirectly. On the other hand, conflict repelled any external support because the donor required peace and security to deliver aid support efficiently and effectively. In the absence of peace, aid resources might end up in wrong hands such as terrorists, bandits and other unintended people. With insecurity, identification of beneficiaries was always difficult. It was also observed that improper and ineffective aid delivery amplified armed conflict and promoted 'blood money' by tyrant leaders that thrived in corruption and deception.

Giving influence was also linked to economic, sociological and psychological variables (Pendley, 2012). Other variables included personal experience, desire to make a difference, solving a particular problem, personal recognition and benefit as well as consideration of giving as a good practice. Giving was also influenced by empathy, compassion, and emotions, personality traits (humility, agreeability, pro-social behaviour) and personal values, morals, and a sense of identity. Giving would also be due to strategic motives, promotion of trade interests, colonial or regional ties, colonial history and geographical location of the recipients. In Zambia, aid was directed to areas by government agencies in the spirit of balancing development across national regions. On the opposite side, donors had a propensity to direct aid to areas and sectors where they could gain quick wins. Desire for quick results was an influencing factor that drove aid to vulnerable rural communities under the understanding that such people would accept any help. Chan (2019) argued that people gave to institutions that created impact (foundations and charitable organizations) and

to popular causes such as poverty alleviation because 9.2% of the world population were in that category (WB, 2021).

Donor aid was also attracted by people facing social injustice and exclusion. Such people failed to access health, education, employment, food security and improved livelihood in general. In this regard, engaging in giving was a sure way of solving life challenges among these category of people in a more practical sense.

While the above factors towards aid giving were considered positive external response factors, Smith (2011) and Schmitz & McCollim (2021) argued that the aid institutions did not only give for good intentions but also had hidden motives. One such hidden motive was tax holiday enjoyed by philanthropic organizations that supported vulnerable people in the global south. Donating to a charity or not-for-profit organizations benefited society and provided tax benefits to donors. In India, Section 80G of the Income Tax Act allowed the donor organization to claim deductions on income tax returns or donations made to charity (Word Vision India, 2019). OECD (2022) conceded that a tax incentive lowered the price of giving.

Abdel-Baqui (2021) argued that many philanthropy institutions applied delivery mechanisms that robed decision making power, control and innovation from the aid beneficiaries. Private corporation applied Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) as a marketing tool (Theaker (2008, p. 153 as cited in Friedman, 1993, p. 249) as there was a thin line between morality and marketing goals especially when one looked at the decision-making process to give and those involved in making such decisions.

Within the aid funding arrangement, donors always balanced between their own institutional gain and the beneficiary community (Ramakrishina, 2018) ensuring that surplus areas cushioned the underdevelopment of poor countries. However, such balancing act considered other

decision factors like arms deal, UN Security Council membership, former colony status, trade deals and long-term strategic partnership as key decision factors. Other factors included were conditions set in the funding agreement. Put together, donors gave for strategic, political, commercial, economic and humanitarian reasons (Bandyopadhyay & Verman, 2013).

From literature, the key variables that influenced aid provision were diverse and included personal conviction and perceptions, institutional capacity growth and global proposition. The diversity in influencing or motivating factors made it difficult to know how much the philanthropists gambled with the developmental goals of vulnerable communities, and therefore made it difficult to know whether the intervention created change. In this regard, this literature review recognized the need to assess further the influencing factors for aid to flow without hidden motives.

2.2.1.4 Extent to which donor motives synchronized with beneficiary motives

Literature had a record of projects funded to solve livelihood shocks such as climate change disasters, disease outbreaks and other global challenges. In this regard the focus was on the population and did not matter whether the recipient community demanded it or not.

Notwithstanding the need to address global developmental demands, donors were also driven by interests not known by the recipient communities such as desire to grow business endowments, addressing the needs of former colonies and political recognition. There were emerging interests to capture resources from underdeveloped countries in the name of grants and trade deals.

The donors can be grouped into different categories depending on their motives for aid provision. Among the most prominent were religion or faith-based institutions like missionaries. Others were the relief focused organizations that provided grants to give relief to the affected

individuals while others focused on trade development. In all these categories, some intention in public domain were known but others were kept secret.

On the other side, the interest of the community was mainly very simple - to solve poverty challenges and vulnerability disposition. More simply put, vulnerable communities were interested in addressing their food security, income security and access to social amenities not fully provided by their governments. Anything else was usually reaching them by accident and by experimentation.

This study therefore attempted to assess the extent to which the donor motivation were in line with the community motivation. This was in the understanding that having a common purpose would build mutual partnership and drive the development agenda towards one goal.

Literature noted the interest of community aid recipients as good living conditions and elimination of poverty. However, the net result from the donor support was mixed as it was indicated to be negative (Gachui, 2017; Waheed, 2020) as well as positive (Karanja, 2013; Mundell, 2009; Yator 2012; Kuria & Wanyoike, 2016). Failure to see lasting change at community level created discontent and apprehension among stakeholders.

However, the question of harmonization between the donor motives and the community motives remained conspicuous except on high level life challenges like poverty, livelihood improvement. To this end, a new model with a wider application across donor aided projects and programmes was required. Such an approach would minimize the blending options and ensure reliability and replication of the support model. The developed model should also seek to employ the Balanced Interest Model suggested by Maizels and Nissanko in 1984 with potential to serve the interests of both donors and recipients as explored in the Recipients Needs Model and the Donor Interest Model.

2.2.1.5 Adequacy of the delivery models

Impact was the realized effect from implementation of a given intervention (Collins 2020; Cook, 2022). The assessed change from funding aid could only be qualified if it was socially, culturally and economically sustainable and that depended on the support model applied. Literature recorded a variety of support models ranging from grants, in-kind support and provision of marketable goods and services. These mechanisms were considered traditional especially that they were means through which aid was primarily provided. The secondary aid funding model followed the sophistication and specialization of the philanthropic industry and applied by not-for-profit and for-profit philanthropy players alike.

Grants were a major avenue used in philanthropy. This could be from government at local, state and federal levels as well as private and public foundations, public charities, community foundations and family foundations. This system carried a non-return guarantees of funds given out to the recipient under strict conditions of working within the agreed industry sector, location and project or programme. Grants were only open to charitable and non-profit registered organizations. Ibesevic (2020) argued that grants had the potential to initiate large scale societal impact projects, gave more credibility to the community and improved the local economy through returned investment or endowments. On the opposite side, Ibresevic (2020) warned that grant funds were restrictive and stifled local innovation and were always short term and temporal. By nature, grants are expected to be untied funds and spent at the discretion of the recipient. However, recent grants carry with them very stringent conditions to evade corruption and ensure accountability.

Provision of goods and services model was a means where aid was provided through items meant for sale. This system was applied by many organizations such as Development Aid from People to People (DAPP) and Oxfam. The two organizations appealed for second-hand clothes

which they sell in shops dotted across the world and used funds for charity work. Many non-profits also charged fees for some of their services. SOS International charged fees for school education and clinic services, Beit Cure charged fees for hospitalization while Museums charged entry fees etc. The income from those service charges were used for charitable causes and was usually untied funds applied freely by the fundraising institution.

In-kind donations included innovations such as provision of shelter to homeless people, food, medicine, clothing, safe homes for flood victims and other humanitarian relief. This system of giving was highly applied by Worldwide Fund for Nature (WWF), United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and many humanitarian agencies. Apart from material items, in-kind funding model involved institutions that offered services such as training and hospitalization for free.

Different models were applied by for-profit and not-for profit organizations. For-profit organizations applied business models while not-for-profits applied funding model. Foster et al. (2009) made a distinction between business model and funding model, arguing that a business model was about choices on the cost structure and value to be realized by the customer while a funding model focused only on the financing system, not on the programs and services offered to the beneficiary. In this regard, the two differed at the level of focus, value proposition, fund application and the beneficiary targeting. The business model focused on the customer or buyer of goods and services and the relationships built around quality product and service provision. The funding model on the other hand focused on a beneficiary as a social receiver of goods and services with no perceived reciprocal gain. In this regard, the funding model was a methodical and institutionalised approach (Ibresevic, 2020) used in building a reliable revenue base to support the organization's core programmes and services. In their social Innovation Review, Foster et al.

(2009) identified ten (10) funding models (see Table 2.3) but also were quick to state that not-for-profit organizations had no explicit funding models due to duo functions of charity service and institutional sustainability. Foster et al. (2009) further argued that not-for-profit institutions in the same field might not apply the same funding model as they were persistently subjected to different funders, different types of decision makers and various motivation factors that influenced their potential donors to give them aid.

Table 2.4

Not-for-Profit Funding Models

Funding Model	**Key applicator**
Heartfelt Connector, Beneficiary Builder and Member Motivator	Individuals
Big Better	One or few individuals, foundations
Public Provider, Policy Innovator and Beneficiary Broker	Governments
Resource Recycler	Corporate funders
Market Maker and Local Nationalizer	Mixed funders.

Note: Table 2.4 indicated the various funding models and the key applicators of the model. Source: Foster et. al. 2009. Ten Non-profit Funding Models. Stanford Social Innovation Review [Review of *Ten Non-profit Funding Models. Stanford Social Innovation Review*]. *Stanford Graduate School of Business*. https://www.ssireview.com.

The Heartfelt Connector Funding Model (HCFM) worked in the popular life challenges such as climate change, environment, health and medical research areas. The Cancer Trust are some of the examples that used the Heartfelt Connector Funding Model by supporting research and treatment of cancer patients. This funding model appreciated the felt needs of the community and the need to counter the challenge, based on the principle that if one was not infected, he/she

was affected because all belonged to one world. However, this model carried a humanitarian approach where the response was triggered by the emergency and urgency of the problem. In this regard, it was short-term though the propensity of some of them like cancer was longer term and continued to affect the population. In that respect, the Heartfelt Connector Funding Model had a strong potential for responding to the needs of the poor people in a more proactive ways.

Beneficiary Builder Funding Model (BBFM) relied on reimbursement of fees provided to beneficiaries and allowed the beneficiaries to showcase their work to donors. One example in Zambia was the DMI St Eugene University which offered subsidized university fees to students and in return received funds from donors. The Beit Cure Hospital also provided free medical services to children born with bone complications and in return used the services offered as mechanism to receive reimbursement and extra funding support. This model was mainly a type of mediator intervention where a service was provided for the poor people with limited capacity to meet the costs. It was also a kind of payment in-kind through service provision.

Member Motivator Funding Model (MMFM) was one where the non-profit organization received donations from their members to drive the development agenda. Some examples included Lions Club whose members were royal donors and fundraisers for the Clubs charity causes. Cooperatives and Unions were examples of institutions that utilized this model. In this model, the members got motivated to contribute to the cause of the institution.

Big Better Funding Model used big donors to bring a change in the environment. In this model, emphasis was in attracting big institutions to fund the community projects. Non-profits like Wetlands International and Worldwide Fund for Nature (WWF) applied Big Better Funding Model to attract huge funds for the conservation of wetlands and wildlife respectively. Contribution to this model was usually from few donors that wanted to see large scale lasting change. The

challenge with this model was that the big institutions had the potential to limit the voices of the recipient communities. The big organizations also had strong political influence which amplified the dominance of the decisions of the donors over the recipient community. Despite these negative positions, the model capitalized on the competitive and comparative advantages of the bigger institutions. The approach also capitalized on the readily available resources form bigger institutions to create impact in the resource constrained communities.

Public Provider Funding Model (PPFM) was a partnership between the non-profit and public sector (government) in providing essential services. This model was also called Public Private Partnership. Habitat for Humanity was one such non-profit organization that employed Public Provider Model (modelled around Public Private Partnership) to provide housing to vulnerable people. Water Aid International and Rural Water worked with government to foster access to clean water in urban and rural areas respectively. At times, governments outsourced their services to these institutions to help in service delivery. In this regard, the non-profits using this funding model tapped into government programmes and budgets to leverage funds for greater development. The model had strong potential to tap into private sector to leverage government resources. This model also had a great potential to sustain the intervention at community level owing to government and private sector resilience to provide services in a longer-term.

Policy Innovator Funding Model (PIFM) supported non-profits that engaged in innovative ideas to address social challenges in the community. The focus on this model was to review and promote progressive policies and build a conducive environment for growth. For example, the Accelerate Water and Agriculture Resource Efficiency (AWARE) project, implemented by Germany Development Agency in Zambia and Niras International (2020-2023) used this model to demonstrate efficient use of water in agriculture in the Lower Kafue Catchment Area of the Kafue

basin in Zambia. The work of the project brought about policy change in the use of surface and underground water resources applied in dairy and horticultural value chains. Utilizing the demonstrated technologies and innovations, the relevant government departments incorporated efficient water use in driving climate smart agriculture among smallholder farmers. Considering that appropriate policies were cornerstones of long-term change, the model assured sustainability. The downside of the model was time required to change policy due to government bureaucracy. For the recipient community, this model did not give direct benefits but indirectly influenced the results of other interventions.

Beneficiary Broker Funding Model (BBFM) provided services for marginalized individuals that would otherwise be excluded from services. One of the broker institutions found in Zambia was Rent-to-Own which operated as an intermediary institution to promote the technology. As a go-between, Rent-to-Own provided broker services between the manufacturer of treadle pumps and the beneficiary technology applicators (smallholder farmers). The other example was the Microfinance institutions that applied innovative money lending packages to increase access to financial services. One specific example was Vision Fund, a Microfinance subsidiary of World Vision. The organization received funding from KFW (Germany government) to promote financial inclusion, especially among women and rural farmers. Worldwide, there were many microfinance institutions that provided services to numerous categories of clients and enabled financial inclusion especially for marginalized communities. Major categories of the financial institutions included central banks, retail and commercial banks, internet banks, credit unions, savings and loan associations, investment banks and companies, brokerage firms, insurance companies and mortgage companies. The FinScope 2020 Survey findings indicated that financial inclusion increased to 69.4% from 59.3% in 2015 and attributed the increase to uptake

of mobile money services to 58.5% from 14.0% in 2015 (Bank of Zambia (BOZ, 2020). The downside of this model was that it mostly worked with affluent communities that had a business or with capacity to meet overheads and interests charged on the services offered. In this regard, it widened the gap between the poor and the rich unless deliberate incentives were built in the delivery mechanism.

Resource Recycler Funding Model (RRFM) was one where the non-profit institution received in-kind donations to provide charitable support. This model allowed the institutions to sell donated items and channel the money earned to priority areas. World Vision thrived on in-kind donations that they gave to beneficiary households looking after vulnerable children (orphans and disabled). Through this approach, World Vision sold the donated items and provided earned funds to support building or extending community infrastructure such as schools and clinics. Development Aid from People to People received cloth items which they sold to support environmental projects like reforestation. Oxfam received donated items which they sold in chain stores in Europe to raise funds for vulnerable communities in underdeveloped countries. In 2019, Oxfam raised a net income of £17.3m (Oxfam, 2019) from trading. This model promoted recycling of used materials and helped in keeping the environment clean. The main challenge with this model was limited capacity by recipient communities to access recycling machines and equipment due to high capital cost.

Market-maker Funding Model (MFM) operated in an industry where buying an item such as elephant tasks, wildlife skins and other endangered species would be illegal. For example, the Nature Conservancy looked after items that could easily be sold but due to market limitations and desire to conserve nature, the Nature Conservancy received paid fees to conserve the wildlife habitat and used the funds to build the tourism market. Through this mechanism, the net worth of

the Nature Conservancy reached $9billion (Nature Conservancy, 2019). The advantage of this model was that it thrived on rare products such as wildlife, museum artifacts and other public goods. The protection offered was the main product on the market. As for the community, the model was out of reach as it needed conservation and protection infrastructure that demanded high level of investment.

Local Nationalizer Funding Model (LNFM) was a model that built a network of local operators to work under one brand. The Zambia Open Community Schools (ZOCS) was one example that built a network of community schools that engaged in providing educational space to vulnerable children who could not access education in formal schools. This model took advantage of the comparative and competitive advantages found in each organization.

The choice of a particular model influenced the operational framework and subsequently determined lasting change from external aid. Among the unintended impact of the chosen funding model included recipient institutional changes, behavior and attitudes of recipients, dependency disposition, partnerships and relationships and actual positive and or negative impact of aid.

Internal impact on recipient communities considered institutional changes (Yator, 2012) based on the foreign aid conditions. Such conditions at times required re-engineering the recipient institutions to suit the accountability demands of the donor. Subsequently, the supported institutions changed their organizational structures and operational culture to ensure capacity and efficiency in the delivery of funded projects.

In some instances, the donors exerted pressure on the recipients to ensure change in behavior and attitudes of people involved in the project to suit the so-called partnership norms. Partnerships were chosen to avoid negative impact amplified by the complexity of the operating environment (Brandstetter et. al., 2006). In this respect, the institutions involved agreed to remain

committed to mutual objectives, trust and joint problem-solving measures (Borve et al., 2017). While recipients were regarded as beneficiaries of the project, their engagement were not at the same level with those delivering aid. However, the recipient beneficiaries played a critical role such as decision making, co-financing of activities, direct project activity implementation and ensuring long-term sustainability of the project. For that to happen, the individuals in partnership must be in tune with the values and principles of the donor.

Depending on how the donor aid was managed, institutions and individuals involved might entirely depend on external support and lose capacity to mobilize savings (Gachui, 2017). Dependency on external support might be built through the 'master' attitudes and behaviors of donors as they looked down at aid recipients as subservient to them. The aid recipients also accepted a subordinate position in fear of disturbing the good gesture of the donor. Donors were inconsistent and at times failed to honor their commitment, resulting in shifting focus, frustrations among partners and compromised project results. In the post-project period, many communities that enjoyed free handouts from the donor project failed to resume their usual life (Gotsadze et. al., 2019) as they wished to remain within the funding comfort zone.

External change or impact of aided projects was seen from assumed power relations, political power, economic change and long-term sustainability of organizations in the partnership. The recipient communities increased their influence among themselves and those outside the project operational area. As the community institutions utilized provided services and resources, their political capital and recognition correspondingly increased. Economically, the communities also increased their economic activities that translated into increased investments, business activities and income. As local investments increased, sustainability of the project stood a chance of success.

The internal and external postures of impact were from the positivistic context and brought out tangible impact results. However, the idealistic position where impact was negative was also true. In literature, negative impact from donor aided projects were highly documented but the challenge was to qualify and quantify the level of failure in order to develop a theory that contributed to the body of knowledge. On the opposite side, a number of scholars had recorded positive results from donor aided projects (Karanja, 2013, Mundell, 2009; Yator 2012; Kuria & Wanyoike, 2016). Among the areas positively influenced by external aid included social services provision, political engagement, education, economic inclusion and health. While few successful donor aided projects were recorded, there were overwhelming records of failed projects in Africa.

In studying the Enclave projects implemented by International Financial Institutions (World Bank, International Monetary Fund and Inter-American Development Bank), Waheed (2020) observed negative social impact on the community. Among the large-scale projects on the record of failed projects in Africa included France funded Office du Niger cotton and rice irrigation project in Mali (1932); the Norwegian government Lake Turkana fish processing plant in Kenya (1971); the World Bank, European Investment Bank and African Development Bank funded Lesotho Highlands Water Project (1986); and the Roll Back Malaria (1998-2010). Others were the World Bank Chad-Cameroon Oil Pipeline to the Atlantic Ocean (2003); the World Banks Sankofa Gas Project in Ghana (2015); and the International Donor Agencies funding to water development through installation of boreholes and wells (Ferreira, 2021).

The record of failed projects was quite astounding but the reasons behind failure were not clear (Ferreira, 2021). The International Finance Corporation (World Bank subsidiary) conceded that only half of its Africa projects succeeded, attributing failure to poor implementation and ineffective delivery. The failure of projects was beyond the financial and operational failures.

Philanthropy industry thrived on a mutual relationship between the giver and the receiver, delivery model applied and the political, social and economic operational environment.

In most cases, subsequent effects on climate change, environmental damage and socioeconomic losses fallowed. Failed projects led to unintended results especially environmental damage due to neglect and mismanaged surroundings. It also exhibited increased inequalities among the recipient communities.

Critical indications in the philanthropic industry pointed to a mixed position of minimal donor aid impact on the top-end and beneficiary over-dependence on foreign aid on the bottom-end. At global level there was a perception that external aid operated under a mutual agreement impacted positively on the vulnerable communities. Contrary to this global perception however, Gachui, (2017) observed negative impact amplified by disruption of local innovation and limited exploitation of locally available resources. Gachui, (2017) argued that the unexploited resources were later taken up and externalized by the foreign investors.

The global construct was that external aid, based on mutually agreed conditions, improved livelihoods of vulnerable communities. Contrary to this global construct, Gachui, (2017) argued that negative impact of external aid disrupted indigenous effort and solutions. In the short-term, vulnerable communities stopped their developmental effort and curtailed exploitation of their locally available resources. The unexploited resources were subsequently left in the hands of the foreign institutions who externalized them for their own benefit. In the long term, the ‘give and take’ process degenerated into a dependence syndrome among the vulnerable communities.

While local resources continued to be exploited by the external aid institutions and partners, the vulnerable communities degenerated into beggars and received aid believing it was a payback from externalized resources. In this regard, there was a need for a realization that despite

the lopsided relationship between the giver and the receiver, both players gave away something and received something in return. In respect of that symbiotic relationship between the giver and the receiver of aid was imperative. In the absence of mutuality in the relationship, all parties in the aid partnership became responsible for impact failure like it would be true to cerebrate success.

Literature recorded diverse funding models which depended on the source of funding, the decisions and purpose for the funds and beneficiary considerations (Foster et al., 2009). When these parameters were not clear, it was usually challenging to explicitly know what funding model to apply in offering charity work. Therefore, lack of clarity in the funding model (Foster et al., 2009) and duplicity of funding models posed a challenge in knowing the most effective model with potential to create uncompromised impact.

2.2.2 Conceptual framework

This research investigated the impact of donor funding on the livelihoods of vulnerable rural communities in Southern Province of Zambia. Impact was looked at in the context of poverty reduction outcomes and building resilience in the face of environmental, economic and climate change shocks. What was expected was a positive and sustained change in the livelihoods of the poor.

Donor funding was clarified, with more emphasis on ODA support due to limited data on Charitable giving, project-based support and NGO aid. In literature, donor funding, donor aid and foreign aid were distinctively defined. Donor funding was a broad category that included financial resources provided by a donor for various purposes. Donor aid was considered a subset of foreign aid, emphasizing the donor as a source of aid. Foreign aid was an overarching concept of assistance (Thapa, 2020). In this theory of aid provision, the common denominator was the relationship

(Stenehall, 2018) between aid type, the aid provider of aid and change influenced in the supported community. Based on this common concept, this research used the 3 concepts interchangeably.

Agriculture was the major livelihood in the studied area and was the main source of survival. Agriculture ensured income security, food security, health and education. As an economic sector, agriculture ensured resilience to environmental and climate change shocks in the community. Therefore, meaningful livelihood change in the community was seen in terms of farming outcomes including income security, food security and access to health and education.

In assessing the research phenomena, four research questions were identified: 1) What influence did donor aid had on livelihoods of vulnerable people? 2) What was the level of knowledge on donor motives that drove provision of donor aid? 3) To what extent were donor motivations in line with the community motivations? 4) How did the delivery channels and models help in taking resources to rural vulnerable communities?

2.2.2.1 Donor aid influence on livelihoods of vulnerable communities.

Philanthropic service had grown to address ever increasing global challenges in climate change, political upheavals, health, education, food security, disease epidemic, hunger and poverty. Donor organizations focused on different sectors that required different amounts of resources to effect change. The most common levels of funding included large scale and long-term projects and small level projects with short-term period. Within the donor group were primary donors (individual and family) and intermediaries (foundations, charitable organizations, non-governmental organizations, religious groups, bilateral and multilateral organizations, government agencies and fund brokers). Others were consultants that offered professional services in research, education, proposal design and implementation delivery support services. The beneficiaries were the primary target for which the donor aid was designed. All these groups of players in the donor

aid supply chain increased their footprint, size, sophistication and coverage. Understanding the research work done in the industry was critical to gain some insight on the past performance and operation of the sector.

Globally, education, health, environmental conservation, scientific research, social services and arts high proportion of funding (Funds for NGOs, 2023) though this depended on the perceived needs and challenges at a given time. From 2011 to 2016, Zambia received GBP59.2million quality of education and learning for boys and girls (DFID, 2013). The range of funded projects related to education included research, curriculum development, teacher training, education integration programmes and skills development. UNICEF funded '*Out-of-School Adolescents in Poor Areas Project in China*' (Yijie, 2001). In August 2001, Yijie (2001) assessed the impact of external funding on this project. The research utilized field surveys conducted in inner Mongolia and Hunan Province. One of the objectives of the study was to identify areas of improvement to enhance project impact. Yijie (2001) argued that the financial aid helped reintegrate the out-of-school adolescents into mainstream skills training and ultimately improved their livelihoods and recommended for continued support to the project community. Looking at the tools used in the survey, the research did not employ critical impact assessment models to make such a conclusion. The researcher did not also consider external factors that might have affected the final results of the project. This research did not follow the Evaluation procedure recommended by OECD but rather focused on the endpoint results. Therefore, the conclusions of this research might not be guaranteed and may not be generalized. Though prolonged operation of the project might have benefited the community, recommending it would increase the dependency syndrome criticized in research activities.

Philanthropy had increased over the years, from little items like food and cloth donations to milion dollars. Despite that positive record, the volume of aid attracted concerns on the impact of the funds given away to charitable causes. Raizer and Winkel (2005) conducted research on *'Donor Demands and Uses for Evidence of Research Impact – the Case of the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR)'*. The research utilized ex-post assessment model to illustrate impact of the donor aid to agricultural research. They argued that donor aid contributed to effective agricultural research and meeting the national development goals. They further argued that despite positive indication of success, research institutions like Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR) did not sustain support from the donors due to information gap between the donors (aid provider) and research institutions (aid recipient) in respect of the impact research institutions created. Revelation from this research indicated a very important aspect regarding information sharing. Impact measurement could be based on institutional sustainability (governance, accountability and structures), delivering social, cultural and economic benefits or maintaining relationships. Within the impact assessment system, objectives of the recipient needed to be in sync with the goals of the donor. Departure from the two interrelated objectives could cause challenges in disseminating impact information. In a nutshell, impact was relative and depended on who was measuring it and for what purpose.

One of the issues that attracted donor attention were advocacy and civil engagements. However, this sectors, like other sectors were not insulated from dwindling donor support. Parks (2008) researched on *'The rise and fall of donor funding for advocacy NGOs: understanding the impact'* and argued that NGOs in Asia faced challenges related to fluctuating positions and priorities amidst dwindling endowments. This left the NGOs with no choice but to re-align their priorities to suit the donor interests. In such a situation, the NGOs in Asia, like others in many

parts of the World, were made to respond to the demands of the donor and not the community despite expecting impact at community level. By heavily depending on donors for decision making and resources to implement projects, NGOs had lost their autonomy and influence. This research brought to the fore the point of undermined effectiveness of financial aid beneficiary organizations.

The philanthropic industry faced criticisms over mismanagement, misapplication, corruption and misdirection of funds. The record on above vices in donor aid funds were very high and involved huge sums of money. According to Mundell (2009), Yator (2012) and Busiinge (2010), AIDS NGOs and Ministry of Public Health mismanaged approximately US$170.33 million provided by Global Fund for Medical, HIV AIDS and disease control programmes. In a research on '*Mismanagement of donor aid'*, Mundell (2009) argued that aid mismanagement disadvantaged the poor and vulnerable communities and made impact elusive. This called for a change in the delivery of aid to the communities. In this research, it was observed that the donors provided resources which got mismanaged by the intermediary institutions due to corruption. The other challenge was limited anniversary accepted guidelines. Since most impact assessments were based on the institutional performance, individuals charged with the responsibility to deliver aid were not deterred from mismanaging public resources.

Ownership of local development required joint planning and implementation of the developmental projects. Lack of aid harmonization and fragmentation caused disjointed efforts and resulted in limited impact despite huge resources poured in one specific area. Mwega (2009) studied the '*Volatility and fragmentation of foreign aid'*, with a focus on health in Kenya. Mwega (2009) utilized a case study approach to assess aid effectiveness in Kenya and argued that using good economic and political governance as a benchmark for aid effectiveness compromised foreign aid results and drove the wheels of development backwards. Mwega (2009) further argued

that foreign aid was time inconsistent, lacked credibility and there was potential to change the donor aid delivery system towards one that advocated for budget support or one that focused on community ownership. The efforts towards improving aid effectiveness including harmonization of aid delivery system like the OECD Development Assistance Committee could not be over-emphasized. Other initiatives like market promotion (Cotonou agreement, African Growth and Opportunity Act) and political governance through African Union and New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) were important to ensure ownership of projects financed by foreign aid.

Like many other players in the philanthropic industry, non-profit organizations were challenged to show evidence of their work at grassroot level. Ebrahim and Ragan (2010), studied the '*The limit of non-profit Impact: A Contingency Framework for measuring Social Performance'*. The study involved literature review related to strategic philanthropy, non-profit management and international development. Ebrahim and Ragan (2010) argued that social organizations were under pressure to demonstrate impact and the donors (foundations, governments and international agencies) were better positioned than non-profit organizations to measure impacts. The question of who measured impact and whose perception was documented was a serious question that should be answered by research. Allowing donors to measure impact of their funds and activities at community level was tantamount to self-gratification. The process would be more of justifying why the donor gave funds rather than looking for evidenced change created by the resources provided in that community. In allowing the donors to undertake impact assessment, the voice of the grassroot beneficiaries would be reduced while the intermediary organizations would lose their influence. In addition, the donors were not grounded or familiar

with the operational dynamics in the community and would find themselves in a position of a tourist because rural communities always reserve certain information from a stranger.

Similar to the study by Ebrahim and Ragan (2010) was the study by Busiinge (2010) on '*The Impact of Donor Aided Projects Through NGOs on the Social and Economic Welfare of the rural poor: Rwenzori Sub region, Uganda*' and utilized a case study approach. Busiinge (2010) argued that there were mixed benefits (economic, social) but evident benefits were visible among workers and partner private sector players than the community. Busiinge (2010) further argued that targeted community members were pushed into abject poverty due to imposition of projects, dependency on donor resources, consumption mentality and limited project implementation periods. The arguments by Busiinge (2010) demanded for development of new and sustainable funding model that increased community ownership of funded projects and adherence to entrepreneurship principles.

Locally established institutions were the main drivers of aid funds in targeted communities. If such institutions were inefficient and lacked capacity, positive impact of donor aid could not be assured. Buffardi (2011) studied the '*Institutional Influence: The Role of International Donors in Shaping Development Goals, Implementation and Effectiveness*'. The research utilized oral interviews on foreign aid provided between 1980- 2006 and comparative case studies on policy and donor positions. Despite capturing the voices of bilateral and multilateral donors, the research left out the voices of industry players but just focused on funded projects. Among the projects surveyed included UN Millennium Development Goals (2000), GAVI Alliance (2000), Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria (2002), President's Emergency Fund for AIDS Relief (2003), Millennium Challenge Corporation (2004), and the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (2005). Buffardi (2011) argued that diverse bilateral, multilateral and private donor

organizations, different financing approaches and limited analysis of small charitable funded projects made comparative analysis and accuracy of the results challenging. Other factors that compromised impact and its assessment included lack of alignment of project across various donors, autonomy of institutions and donor tendency for top-down aid delivery mechanism. In summary, the results of this study agreed with many scholars' positions that external aid was top-down, did not consider long-term impact and was experimental in approach and such positions needed to change if project impact was to be obtained.

Similar to Buffardi's (2011) work, Shaker and Borden (2020) conducted research to '*Analyze Three Decades of Philanthropic Giving to U.S. Higher Education (1988–2018'*). The study explored the funding type, purpose and type of institutions in philanthropy. Shaker and Borden (2020) argued that all donor types donated more to a broad range of purposes that benefited all types of institutions. They further argued that funding was more from foundations rather than individuals, funding moved to capital or endowment purposes, larger funding went to public institutions and restricted purposes rather than private institutions and unrestricted purposes.

The work of Ebrahim and Ragan (2010) and Busiinge (2010) regarding the impact of institutions on donor aid effectiveness was amplified by Amato & Amato (2012) when they conducted research titled '*Retail Philanthropy: Firm Size, Industry, and Business Cycle'*. The aim of the research was to investigate the effects of firm size, profitability, industry affiliation, and the business cycle on retailer philanthropy. The research applied regression model and desk review to understand firm strategies, firm size and charitable contributions. Amato and Amato (2012) argued that there was a firm relationship between philanthropy and firm size; industry's retail profit; and the absence of business cycle and these determined the philanthropic approach and charitable aid delivery strategies. However, the study failed to fully justify the extent to which firm size and

profitability influenced charitable contribution. Nevertheless, practice showed that bigger organizations gave more while smaller organizations gave small grants but consistently. The researchers further argued that large and small charitable organizations engaged in charitable contributions to improve their endowment portfolio, gained from tax exemptions and improved their reputation and networks.

Intrinsic utilization of donor funds demanded for transparency and accountability at all levels of the donor fund supply chain. Yator (2012) conducted a research on the '*Utilization of Donor Funding and its Effects on Economic Development of the Intended Beneficiaries'* to examine the use of donor funds by NGOs and asses its effects on beneficiaries. The study utilized the descriptive research design and participative research approaches. Yator (2012) argued that there was under-utilization of funds leading to frequent demands for no-cost extensions and return of funds back to the donor. Developmental projects depended on funds and if funds were underutilized, it meant that beneficiaries did not receive the intended services and goods, but in the meantime intermediary organizations and their staff benefited in the process (Busiinge, 2010). This resonated into lack of regulation and policies at the level of donors and intermediaries to the extent that the donor organizations and their intermediary partners did what they wished to and left beneficiaries helpless as they could not claim their benefactor rights.

External influences affected the impact of the donor funded projects. Mujungu (2015) studied the '*Socioeconomic impacts of donor funded projects on beneficiaries – the case of Babati cluster in World Vision Tanzania*'. The researcher employed field surveys utilizing questionnaires and case studies to describe the situation and reviewed the past and targeted aid delivery agencies and direct beneficiaries. The researcher argued that donor funded projects had positive (livelihood improvement) and negative (dependency syndrome, lack of creativity and low participation in

development initiatives) results but failed to categorically bring out empirical data on the impacts of externally driven projects on local livelihoods. The other challenge in this study was lack of involvement of aid providers, posing a challenge of biased conclusions. In line with Gillis (2017) and the Portland Communications (2017), the study argued that lack of consultation in decision making process were major reasons for lack of long-term impact of external aided projects. Like in studies by Gillis (2017) and the Portland Communications (2017), this research failed to quantify measure in the impact of donor aid on recipient communities.

One major complaint from donor aided projects was the issue of project sustainability advanced in the light of short-term interventions and experimental nature of many projects. Kuria and Wanyoike (2016) conducted '*Assessment of factors influencing sustainability of donor funded projects in Nakuru County, Kenya*'. The study assessed the level of funding, monitoring and evaluation and stakeholder involvement using a descriptive research design. Kuria and Wanyoike (2016) argued that stakeholders and beneficiaries were not adequately involved in monitoring and evaluation of project activities though their involvement was crucial for the sustainability of the donor aided projects. They further argued for involvement of communities and beneficiaries at all levels of project design and implementation to ensure long-term sustainability.

While there were a lot of players in the philanthropic industry, many faced difficulties to source funds for their work. Gillis (2017) conducted a research on '*Philanthropic issue funds: Impact Opportunities for Donors and Non-Profits'*. The researcher utilized in-depth profiling and online (web and phone) data collection. The researcher argued that grant through portfolio approach, rather than giving to an individual organization and issue-based funding were approaches with high potential of aid impact. The researcher advocated for consideration of other funding models like Independent Single-Issue Fund; Issue-Focused Sub-Fund; Rapid Response

Fund and Impact Investment Fund. While the alternative aid delivery models were identified, these solutions did not receive any consent from the grassroot donor aid recipients. By missing the critical voices (vulnerable communities), the results and perceptions provided potentially skewed towards aid providers positions and there was potential for further research to assess the position of beneficiaries on this issue. More potential for further work included actual impact created by external funding and close examination in direct involvement of grassroot communities, smaller and culturally responsive organizations of donor aid projects.

Good funding models potentially had higher donor aid impact. Portland Communications (2017) conducted research for Carnegie Medal of philanthropy on *Philanthropists and Effective Giving*. The research employed social media assessment, online and in-depth interviews with the wealthiest individuals and professionals working in the philanthropy sector. Portland Communications (2017) argued that philanthropists were independent entities and made their own decisions on grant provision. Like Gillis's study (2017), this study left out the voices of the grassroot donor aid recipients and such omissions had the potential to misrepresent research outcomes. In such studies, it was not good to assume that grant providers knew what their grant recipients wanted. It was such lack of consultation that diluted the perceived long-term impact of external aid. This research also failed to detail the impact measurement of donor aid but just made conclusions based on donor positions and perceptions.

Beneficiaries were the main reason why philanthropic business thrived. Without someone in need of help, the philanthropy service could not be established. In this regard, knowing where they are and means to reach them was crucial. Greenall, et al (2017) studied systems for '*Reaching Vulnerable Populations: Lessons from Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria*'. The researchers argued that reaching out to vulnerable populations was hampered by gender

related, human rights related, cultural, financial, political and social barriers as well as unrealistic plans and exclusive dependence on donors for logistical support. For positive impact, communities must be involved and collection of data must be consistent to support change of cause should interventions fail.

Another sector heavily supported by donors was the social protection sector because vulnerability heavily embedded in social welfare issues. Cha and Ramesh (2017) researched on '*Provision for Protection: Review of Social Protection in Zambia and Namibia*' to understand the situation of national social protection policies and programme implementation within Zambia and how Zambia's policies and practices compare to Namibia. The study also assessed opportunities that existed to improve social protection policies and practices in Zambia. The study utilized desk review and field survey targeting stakeholders including social fund beneficiaries. Cha and Ramesh (2017) argued that mere transfer of survival resources to needy and vulnerable individuals did not address the structural causes of poverty and the social support system should consider provision of cash and asset transfer alongside other risk mitigation measures. They further argued that providing cash or asset transfer to vulnerable communities without addressing the root cause of the problem was not sustainable. The solution to managing vulnerability lied in multidimensional approach that empowered individuals to apply their energies in resolving their faced challenges. In other words, handouts to the vulnerable communities could not address the root causes of poor people's vulnerability and therefore, new strategy as opposed to handouts must be devised.

Philanthropy did not work in a vacuum, it depended on funds from individuals, families and organizations. The known traditional donors were those from the western developed countries. However, Nost et al (2018) challenged this notion as they studied the '*Beyond giving: Study of*

local philanthropy in Zambia'. The objective of the study was to assess the potential of local philanthropy and conditions for it to happen. The study used mixed-method approach and participatory methodologies to gather information. The researchers argued that so much local philanthropy occurred within the family, community and the church, and strategies to enhance local philanthropy worked around building endowment using local institutions. The researchers further argued that, with clear objectives, there was great potential to increase local philanthropy and that giving was not a thoughtless action but a premeditated act based on specific conceptual position. In this respect, organized, formalized and networked philanthropy system mobilized resources for charitable work.

Donor aid was mostly provided to improve livelihoods and to create income earning opportunities in the targeted communities. Arsalan (2019) studied the '*Foreign Aid and Economic Development: A study of Foreign Aid and Its Effects and Relationship with Per-capita Income of Afghanistan'*. The study applied quantitative research methods and employed secondary time series annual data covering 1970-2016. The researcher argued that despite the continued provision of foreign aid towards economic growth, impact on per-capita income of Afghanistan and its population was negligible and a large population continued to live below the poverty line. Many factors that contributed to the situation, were among them poor targeting of beneficiaries and programmes, local policies and political instability. Afghanistan had been in political conflict for a long time and it was obvious that external efforts might have limited impact on the population. However, this study provided a lesson for both holistic project design and prudent targeting of beneficiaries and projects.

Poverty was an umbrella or flagship problem faced by vulnerable communities and a factor that attracted donor funding. Kitivi (2011) studied the '*Performance of poverty eradication donor*

funded projects in Mwingi sub-County, Kenya'. The purpose of the study was to establish the influence of stakeholders' involvement, project implementer competence, monitoring and evaluation and availability of resources. The researcher argued that donor aid was effective in the presence of good fiscal, monetary and trade policies, and that lack of community involvement in the project design and implementation, incompetent personnel and inconsistent flow of donor funds were responsible for project failure.

The world had experienced proliferation of donors targeting many development sectors. This happened in response to increased challenges in the modern world. In the book '*Extent and forms of donor proliferation and coordination in Kenya: The Case of Inclusive industrialization and Governance Reform, 2000-2005*', McCormick et al. (2007) argued that development was a mixed blessing for those that received it. On one hand, aid helped in addressing immediate challenges. The downside of aid, however, came with restrictions and control imposed on the recipient governments and communities, including loss of time in meeting the set conditions (McCormick et al., 2007). The researcher recommended for reforms in the way aid was given and emphasized on review of guidelines or procedures to ensure harmonization and coordination among all participants in the aid supply chain. Appendix D provided other research studies done on philanthropy and the results and conclusions made on those studies.

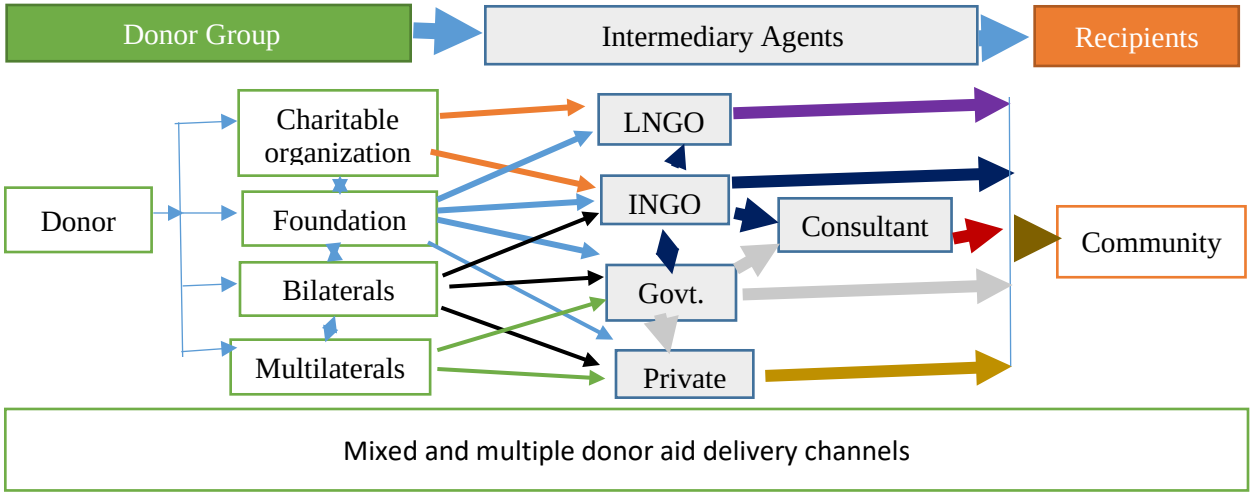
The reviewed literature brought out a lot of lessons for future considerations. The pros and cons of donor aid were centered on the level of involvement of donors, intermediaries and beneficiaries and the relationship thereof influenced the donor aid impact. The philanthropic industry, like many business development industries, had positive and negative aspects. McCormick et. al. (2007) argued that donor aid was a mixed blessing as on one side it provided needed resources to address developmental challenges and on the other it came with conditions

that stifled existing and future innovations. Yijie (2001) argued that donor funding helped reintegrate people into mainstream economic and livelihood activities but could also create dependency. Mujungu (2015) argued that donor aid improved livelihoods but also increased dependency on external support at the expense of innovative and creative utilization of local resources. Busiinge (2010) argued that the community members were pushed into abject poverty due to imposition of projects, created dependency syndrome and increased consumptive behavior with no regard for future considerations. Buffardi (2011) argued that external aid was top-down, rarely considered long-term impact and was experimental in approach. The above situation was propelled by autonomy status of philanthropic institutions. Portland Communications (2017) argued that philanthropists were independent and made their own decisions on grant provision and owing to that there was limited sharing of information between them due to competitive tendencies. The philanthropic organizations also linked the funding business to personal preservation and sustenance. Amato and Amato (2012) argued that large and small businesses engaged in charitable contributions to improve their companies through access to tax breaks, social benefits and networks. Based on the above, donor aid was a mixed basket that posed challenges in assessing operational performance and subsequent impact. Overall, the intended benefits of aid over-weighed the negative effects, so long the process was transparent and managed in an accountable manner.

The donor aid system was operated by many players (Fig 2.2: Donor aid delivery network). Key among the players were the charity organizations on entry side, the intermediaries on the middle and the beneficiaries on the exit end side. The dwindling of donor resources also followed the some trend with more resources at donor (entry level), followed by the middle piece and mostly insufficient at exit (end) point – community level.

Fig 2.2:

Donor Aid Delivery network



Note: Figure 2.2 displayed the various pathways in the delivery of aid from the primary donors through various intermediaries before reaching the final recipients. Source: Field data compilation from Focus Group Discussions.

The charitable organizations provided funds mostly through intermediaries and very rarely direct to the beneficiary communities. This is against the general recognition that most important stakeholders and the ones that made philanthropic industry relevant were vulnerable communities. Treated as vulnerable people in need of help, the beneficiary communities were less involved in planning, implementation and monitoring the change stated in the support agreement. Greenall et. al. (2017) argued that failure to reach vulnerable populations lied in limited planning and collaborative decision making and joint effort. Kuria and Wanyoike (2016) argued that stakeholders and beneficiary's involvement in planning, implementation and monitoring project activities was crucial for the sustainability of the donor aided projects.

Intermediary organizations were also very critical in the philanthropic supply chain because not all donors could reach directly to the beneficiary communities as they faced logistical

issues and were not grounded on the operational environment. Parks (2008) argued that intermediary organizations faced challenges related to fluctuating positions and priorities of donors and the only option for them to remain afloat was to re-align their priorities to suit the donor interests. The magnitude of donor aid mismanagement kept on increasing. Yator (2012) argued that a cumulative total of US$ 23.487m either was underutilized, diverted, misused and misapplied in Kenya, Zimbabwe, South Africa and Uganda. Yator (2012) further argued that many donor recipients underutilized donor funds, requested for no-cost extensions and returned funds back the donor at the expense of beneficiaries. Mundell (2009) argued that there was high level aid mismanagement, disadvantaging the poor and vulnerable communities. Al these vices and maneuvers in the granted projects took resources away from the targeted communities.

Donor aid impact was a contentious issue in the philanthropic industry. Ebrahim and Ragan (2010) argued that donor organizations were under pressure to demonstrate impact. This came from the fact that so much funds had been donated to help the poor and vulnerable but their situation remained the same if not worse after support. Raizer and Winkel (2005) argued that there was high demand for impact related information and the primary determinant of donor aid impact depended on the magnitude and distribution of benefits. Mwega (2009) argued that foreign aid did not produce desired or expected results because it depended on good economic and political environment and on the worst side, back roll development efforts due to its insensitivity to time and lacked credibility. Kitivi (2011) argued that donor aid was effective in the presence of good fiscal, monetary and trade policies, adding that donor funded projects failed due to lack of community involvement, competent personnel of those implementing the project and inconsistent flow of funds from donors. Again, these were external factors where donor organizations had some level of control. Other reviewed research documents gave a number of reasons beyond

mismanagement and challenges faced by intermediaries to deliver aid. Mujungu (2015) argued that lack of consultation in decision making process was responsible for lack of long-term impact of externally aided projects.

Vulnerable communities around the world faced life threatening conditions that emanated from hunger, desperation and poverty related deprivations like limited access to clean water, health, sanitation and education. The problems of the poor were amplified by limited social and financial inclusion, gender inequality, climate change, environmental degradation and desertification among other conditions. With mounting problems, underdeveloped countries had limited resources to go round and therefore depended on external support from wealthy individuals and families, foundations, trusts and corporations. In respect of that, donor funding was a critical ingredient in alleviating human suffering and preservation of the environment for future generations.

According to 2018 statistics on giving, worldwide total giving to charitable causes was $410.02 billion and ranked individuals as the major givers of aid in 2017, followed by foundations and corporations. According to research done by Market Watch 2021 titled *Philanthropy Funds Market 2021: Global Share, Demand Analysis, Leading Key Players, Industry Size, Future Growth Forecast to 2025 with Dominant Sectors and Countries Data*, the majority of charitable funds in 2020 went to religious organizations, education, human services, grant-making foundations and public-society benefits. The 2018 statistics on giving listed areas where aid funds were utilized in order of volume that included education, human services, foundations, health, public-society benefits, international charities, arts, culture and humanities, environment and animal protection and religious groups. According to Oxfam's 2019/20 annual Report, their raised funds went towards emergency response, rescue and rebuilding efforts; poverty reduction; support, operations

and fundraising; campaign and advocacy. Other aid destinations included research and health support systems. The general consensus on aid spending was that charities spent between 26.2% and 87.3% of yearly income on charitable causes, indicating that most of the charity money was used internally.

While the donor gesture was a moral one and had since provided trillions of funds, observed marginal change in the livelihoods of the targeted poor. This position continued to be a concern among donors, intermediary institutions and recipient population across the entire world. Could that be a problem of the means through which donor aid was delivered or could it be that resources were misdirected or misused?

The two critical areas where donor funds were directed included humanitarian aid and developmental projects. The principle delivery engine for humanitarian aid was provision of logistics through aid workers for short-term and immediate response, providing relief efforts to mitigate post-war and disaster victims, homeless people among other emergencies. At global level, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the United National Refugee Agency (UNHCR, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNCEF) and the World Food Programme (WFP), coordinated through the Office of the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) of the United Nations were the key institutions responsible for global response. Other institutions included the International Committee of the Red Cross and some regional organizations like Action Africa International. According to the Office of the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA, 2020), 225 million people or one (1) in every thirty three (33) global population needed humanitarian protection and assistance in 2021.

The other area of donor support went to development aid, commonly known as Official Development Assistance (ODA) (Petit, 2021). Development aid was usually longer-term than

humanitarian aid and focused on meeting long-term needs. Main causes supported under development aid included access to clean drinking water, health care, energy, school education, decent housing, environmental preservation and conservation. ODA was driven by the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) adopted by the United Nations in September 2015. Aimed at addressing the root causes, ODA support was channeled through national governments and established regional bodies like African Development Bank and non-governmental organizations. Beyond ODA framework, developed countries established their national delivery engines such as United States Assistance for International Development (USAID), Department for International Development (DFID), Germany Federal Ministry for Economic Corporation and Development (BMZ) and Kreditanstalt für Wiederaufbau (KfW), Agence Française De Développment (AFD) and Brazilian Development Bank (BINDES) for United States, United Kingdom, Germany, France and Brazil respectively (Petit, 2021).

At the level of non-governmental organizations and community-based organizations, their response mechanisms were mixed and dependent on the position of the donor. In this regard, local level organizations responded to humanitarian demands as well as developmental challenges based on the donor support mechanism.

Market disposition was also identified as another major driver of donor aid system. The philanthropy industry had two sided markets: the donor market on one end and the beneficiary market (Hersberger-Longloh, 2017) on the other end. In between the intermediaries struggled to satisfy both markets. Hersberger-Longloh (2017) argued that the dilemma in the two-market models lied in the difficult to draw a clear line between the donor and the intermediary. In some situations, the intermediary organization might be a donor as well as an intermediary. For example, an organization that received funding from a primary donor for onward disbursement to the

community was considered an aid beneficiary by virtual of receiving funds from the primary donor as well as a donor to the end-user of aid. These lead to different definitions of aid providers along the donor aid supply chain. On the other hand, beneficiaries were defined differently based on their access model: participants, customers, clients, service up-takers, consumers or partners. This definitions influenced the delivery model and eventual performance of donor aid. Regardless of the size, type, region and project sector, the performance of donor aid had been questioned. However, success lied in different managerial positions. For example, private foundations took over governments and aid agencies in providing aid to non-profit organizations (Funds for NGOs, 2020). Donor aid worked in all critical development areas of health care (HIV/AIDS, polio and Malaria control, reproductive health), education, Peace and conflict resolution, Law and Justice; freedom and democracy; and economic development, climate change, human rights, children's rights, technology and gender and social inclusion. Through these sectors, donors responded and helped over 150 million poorest people in Sub-Saharan Africa. However, many scholars still questioned where charitable funds were taken because impact was conspicuous. There was no doubt that part of the charity funds was utilized for intended causes. Oxfam 2019/20 Annual Report argued that charity funds supported vulnerable and poor people in the underdeveloped world. The truth in this statement lied on the intermediary organizations involved, the last mile steps taken to secure the funds, the donor conditions, type of aid transaction medium (financial, technological, in-kind etc.) and purpose of aid. Most intermediary organizations were non-profit making with operational overhead costs and needed to survive beyond a particular funding cycle. Intermediaries offered specialized services that ensured smooth operation of the project, offered strategic direction, mobilized communities and engaged in project implementation through interpretation of the donor goals and objectives (Batey, 2019). In the guidelines provided to support intermediary

organizations to carryout charitable work, the Government of Canada (2020) argued that intermediary organizations were a means through whom donors delivered projects. This meant that intermediary organizations helped donors reach their intended beneficiaries efficiently, effectively and timely. For all this services to be delivered, intermediaries needed funds from the same basket meant for grassroot communities. Therefore, it would be an overstatement that all donor funds should reach the intended communities because intermediary organizations needed funds to manage their administration and fundraising activities. In support of this notion, Vaughn-Williams (2017) argued that one third of charitable funds went to fundraisers. Save the Children (Australia) expenditure report (2020) estimated that twenty seven percent of charity funds was returned for internal use while UNICEF 2020 Annual Report indicated twelve percent returned of the US$8.2 billion raised since 1947 to improve the lives of children was returned. The above narrative clearly showed that not all funds donated to charitable causes was justifiably not delivered. It was acceptable that part of it should be returned to support the intermediary management systems. What was missing though were the guidelines to avoid abuse of the open window especially in the midst of the push for organizational autonomy and organizational sustainability. The guidelines were also required to evade potential mismanagement, fraud, misrepresentation, embezzlement, misappropriation and misapplication of funds.

The problem of financial crime and abuse continued to be a big challenge in the sector. The Charity Commission, an independent regulator and registrar of charities in England and Wales, argued that 1,912 charities (2010/11) engaged in fraud and significant financial and fundraising crimes. Connected to financial crimes were terrorist funding and money laundering activities, using poorly regulated Non-governmental organizations as conduits. Bricknell (2011) argued that non-profit organizations and charities were potential contributors to terrorism financing. Literature

isolated Hamas, Hezbollah, Liberation Tigers of Tamil Ealem and the September 2011 attackers in the United States (Bricknell, 2011) as some of the terrorists that benefited from the NGO fund supply chain. The European Union Anti Money Laundering and Counter Terrorist Financing (AML/CTF) Global Facility (2022) argued that a network of charitable organizations had links with AlQaeda while the Irish republican terrorists funds raised through a US charitable organization. Literature also provided mixed picture where terrorists engaged in armed conflict and development work (Hezbollah operated 4 hospitals, 12 clinics, 12 schools and two agricultural centers) to disguise their hidden agenda. In the mixture of genuine work and underhand methods in the industry, efforts should be strengthened to curb fraud, terrorism funding and mismanagement in charitable organizations (Charity Commission, 2020). Other reasons why donor funds failed to reach the intended beneficiaries were attributed to underutilization, diversion, misuse and misapplication of donor resources (Mulenga, 2019).

2.1.2.2 Level of knowledge on donor motives that influenced funding

Literature review brought out many factors that influenced giving. These could be grouped into internal and external factors. Internal factors related to the institution giving aid included corporate social responsibility. Internal factors related to individuals giving aid was highly influenced by personal feelings driven by many in-depth factors. In the Public Relations Handbook, Theaker, 2008, p.153) argued that corporate social responsibility was given in the hope of creating goodwill from the community and aimed at increasing market share. Theaker (2008: p.153) argued that while corporate social responsibility was justified and gains to the company through measurable market penetration and profitability was feasible, its impact on the communities given corporate social responsibility support was difficult to measure.

On the article titled *the reasons behind giving to charity and non-profit organizations*, Chan (2019) highlighted personal traits as aid influencing factors. These included personal experience, desire to solve a problem and make a difference, recognition and benefit from the process of giving. Other personal traits identified to influence giving included empathy, compassion, and emotions, humility, level of agreement, prosocial behaviour, personal values, morals, and sense of identity. Chan (2019) further attributed giving to helping the planet, organizations, the poor and saving the world. He further argued that giving aid was a means to ensure social justice, social sustainability and inclusion. In his work, Chan (2019) agreed with the notion advanced by world most wealth individuals like Warren Buffet and Bill and Melinda Gates that gave to save the planet, organizations, the poor and the world. In respect of that focus, wealthy individuals gave to institutions that created impact such as foundations and charitable organizations (Chan, 2019) and to popular causes especially programmes that addressed life challenges faced by 9.2% of the world's population or 689 million people that lived in extreme poverty (World Bank, 2021).

Pendley (2012) studied why people made charitable donations and linked it to the Science of Generosity influenced by economic, sociological and psychological variables. Pendley (2012) concluded that individual perceptions directly influenced charitable giving. Other variables including personal experience, desire to make a difference, solving a particular problem, personal recognition and benefit as well as consideration of giving as a good practice.

Newberg (2012) studied the generosity motivation factors among Muslims and Catholics and argued that generosity among these religious people was mainly based on blind loyalty – giving without understanding reasons behind it. Other factors included regionalism where people in a particular region like Western countries felt compelled to give to the poor in underdeveloped

nations. Newsberg (2012) emphasized on the point of blind loyalty by arguing that Muslims followed the Prophet Mohammad's teaching of giving to the poor as an obligation to God while Catholics were motivated by Jesus's teaching of '*loving your neighbour as you love yourself*'. In both religions, people tended to give to the people they knew, admired and within the institution for the purpose of sustaining the religious entity and expectations of getting connected to the society elite and government social-service organizations.

In the White Paper prepared for the John Templeton Foundation by the Greater Good Science Center at UC Berkeley titled '*The Science of Generosity'*, the study identified individual factors (empathy, compassion, and emotions), personality traits (humility, level of agreement, prosocial behaviour) and personal values, morals, and sense of identity as factors that influenced generosity. The study also attributed generosity to gender and religion. Many studies connected generosity to reciprocal response from those given help as well as geographical and governmental factors. Timing a request for support also impacted generosity.

The scholars reviewed increased funding to vulnerable communities with high specialization and sophistication in addition to extra services. Cha and Ramesh (2017) studied the *Review of Social Protection in Zambia and Namibia*; Shende (2017) wrote a position paper on the *Mobilization of financial Resources for Economic Development for the United Nations* and Stepping (2010) studied whether *Donors and Aid Intermediaries gamble with Poor People's health*.

In the Guidance Reference Number CG-004, Government of Canada (2020) argued that hired companies, private consultants, private contractors, joint venture participants, consortium partner and community organizations were key intermediary actors in the philanthropic resource

allocation and resource flow system. Such inter-mediation came with the potential gains including building endowments.

2.2.2.3 Extent to which donor motives were in line with community motives.

Foreign aid was defined as a flow of funds or charitable support and services from donor countries and organizations to developing countries, countries in transition or poor communities (Hanza, 2018). In the past century, donors within the developing world emerged and gave aid to poor people in their communities. To some institutions, marginalization highly observed by institutions that targeted children, youth, women, the persons with disabilities, emigrants/migrants and internally displaced persons, was an important factor in their decision making. United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF, 2021) argued that there were more than one billion poor children faced many life challenges. The COVID 19 was expected to add 100 million more children and an extra 356 million children would be impacted by extreme poverty evidenced by lack of basic nutrition, access to adequate education, health, shelter and sanitation services (UNICEF, 2021). WB (2020) argued that 20% of all children below the age of five (5) in developing world lived in poverty and were at a brink of death. The state of the youth (aged 15 -24 years) needed timely and holistic support to fully exploit the political, economic, cultural and social prospects that lied in future. In the World Youth Report 2020, the United Nations (UN, 2020) indicated that more than 169 million youths had no jobs while 9% of the 1.2 billion global youth population lived in abject poverty (p.5 & p.44). This represented one-fifth of the world's poorest people. The UN also reported that more women than men lived in poverty and argued that one in six people worldwide (i.e. over a billion people) had a disability and suffered economic exclusion.

Literature recorded projects funded to solve livelihood shocks such as climate change disasters, disease outbreaks and other global challenges. This signified donors' resolve to mitigate global challenges. In addition, donors were also driven by interests not known by the recipient

communities such as desire to grow business endowments, addressing the needs of former colonies and political recognition. Other were trade and resource exploitation in exchange for grants and trade deals.

On the other hand, motivations of the community were simple and open - to solve poverty and vulnerability challenges. Vulnerable communities looked for solutions to address their food security, income security and access to social amenities. They measured their needs through good living conditions.

However, the key gap was finding a common ground between the donor motives and the community motives. While the communities were open about what they want, Smith (2011) and Schmitz & McCollim (2021) argued that the aid institutions did not only give for good intentions but also had hidden motives.

2.2.2.4 Means in which delivery channels and models helped in aid provision

The sources of funds in the modern philanthropic industry followed the diversity of the aid providers. Institutions that promoted donor aid included individuals, families, profit and non-profit corporations, community and community organizations, foundations, volunteers and charitable organizations, bilateral and multilateral organizations. Based on this diversity, major fund mobilization came through donations, taxation, inheritance funds, corporate profits and trade.

The donors applied different approaches. Horn (2021) and Lee (2021) studied '*Why the Philanthropic Donations of Wealthy Individuals are not as Great as we think'*, and '*Understanding the Motives Behind Corporate Charitable Donations*' respectively. Horn (2021) and Lee (2021) argued that the charitable donations from wealthy individuals was not altruistic but rather a cover-up and business reputation building initiative.

Huddleston's (2021) advisory note on how to donate to charity identified surrender of life insurance as a more sustainable measure. Insurance was yet another inheritance mechanism as

Huddleston (2021) argued that it could allow one to provide safety-net to a family member or allow the charitable organization to claim payment from the life insurance policy.

On the issue of sources of funds for charity and how that affected sustainability, Ebeling (2020) conducted a study and established a number of funding streams that included pledges, individual gifts, volunteer (in-kind provisions), outright donation of physical estates and inheritance tax. As of 2021, few countries imposed an inheritance tax based on their national policy thresholds (see Table 2.5). Ebeling (2020) argued that 19 out of 34 countries in the OECD had inheritance tax imposed on property transferred to direct heirs while United States made tax exemptions on estates and gifts estimated at US$11.8 million per individual receiver.

Table 2.5

Inheritance Tax Levels In Various Countries

Country	Percentage inheritance tax
Japan	55
South Korea	50
France	45
United Kingdom	40
United states of America	40
Australia	55

Note: Table 2.5 displayed the inheritance tax deductions imposed by countries that effected the policy. Indicates the inheritance tax paid by various countries in percentage terms. Eberling, 2020. IRS Announces Higher Estate and Gift Tax Limits for 2020. *Forbes*. https://www.forbes.com.

There were various pledges that occurred in society but the most formalized pledge system was the Giving Pledge established by Bill Gates, Melinda Gates and Warren Buffet in 2010. On an article '*Learning to Give'*, Lavin (2017) argued that Giving Pledge was a moral consent aimed at giving back to society and founded on the principles of Andrew Carnegie (1889). On an article

listing '*Top Funding Sources for Non-profits and Charities*' Ibrisevic (2020) defined a pledge as casual commitment to safeguard one's estates in the future. Ibrisevic (2020) argued that individual funding contributed 71% to the philanthropy funding basket and had great potential owing to its flexible conditions and timely response. Though small in size, the many small responses to online and offline donations and consistently over time contributed immensely to charitable work. Abdel-Baqui (2021) also studied the Giving Pledge and argued that the pledge came with nonbinding agreement, floating pledge value and hidden motives of empowering family members, ring fencing resources for the future and tax evasion.

Connected to individual donations were voluntary time and services offered by individuals as they offered their time, talent and energy in support of the vulnerable people. Paula (2018) argued that the value of volunteering generated value for organizations, people, society and for volunteers themselves.

Foundations and charitable organizations varied greatly in the way they mobilized and gave support to charity. Among the prominent fund mobilization and provision mechanisms reviewed were recurrent funding model and tithe in religious circles. To enhance accountability and transparency, many donors, big and small, preferred recurrent fund supply model and released funds quarterly, yearly or other agreed short-term periods.

Non-profit organizations like non-governmental organizations, community-based organizations and faith-based organizations thrived on the specificity of interventions and geographical regions. By this, the non-profit organizations responded to specific set programmes and made appeals for support to meet specific needs of their targeted communities. Their interventions were usually time bound and short-term. Staddart and Velte (2019) undertook a special collective case study on '*Capitalizing on short-term collaborative projects*' and argued that

short-term projects needed different funding approaches and resources than long-term projects. Opposite to non-profit-making organizations were the profit-making corporations. Against their goal of profit making, corporate popularist windows like event sponsorship, Pro-bono bequests, outright cash provision and staff secondments were popular funding models.

The way middle level intermediary organizations received support from primary donors was usually the same way funds got released to end-user beneficiaries. Among them included grants, in-kind support, provision of marketable goods and services and given in a predetermined giving model based on the donors' goals and objectives. However, grants were restricted to credible organizations, were not flexible and usually disturbed local initiatives (Ibesevic, 2020). Apart from grants, charitable support might be provided through in-kind materials and equipment which would later be monetized. Organizations that thrived on marketable goods and services included Development Aid from People to People, Oxfam, Send a Cow and Heifer International. Many more organizations were in the consultancy space, offering advisory services.

Funding systems identified above were diverse and confusing as they combined business model and funding model. In analysis review of the '*Ten Non-profit Funding Models'*, Foster et al. (2009) made a distinction between business model and funding model. They argued that a business model was about choices on the cost structure and value proposition while a funding model focused purely on the financing system, not on the programs and services offered to the beneficiary. In this regard, the two models differed at the level of focus, value proposition, fund application and beneficiary targeting. Discussing the differences in detail, business model emphasized customer and business performance relationships taking into consideration the product and service quality. Funding model, on the other hand, considered the beneficiary not as a customer but a partner in a reciprocal and symbiotic relationship especially in the use of resources available.

In this regard, any transaction undertaken between them was done mutually and in a planned and institutionalized approach (Ibresevic, 2020).

From available literature, it was very difficult to pinpoint a precise model that drove philanthropic delivery of funds. However, Foster et. al. (2009) argued that no single model would fit all organizations and situations. In this respect, Foster et. al. (2009) reported action domain models like Heartfelt Connector, Beneficiary Builder and Member Motivator models. Others considered were Big Better, Public Provider, Policy Innovator and Beneficiary Broker models which were all about expressing the institution that drove the action without providing the grounded theory. Based on actions, however, specific institutions were associated with some models. The Heartfelt connector funding model respond to situations that directly appealed to donors and mostly provided support to global challenges like climate change, environment and health. Support to research and treatment undertaken by the Cancer Trust and specialized hospitals in this field could be associated with Heartfelt Connector Model as they appealed to the inner feeling for action. Beneficiary Builder Model allowed provision of services on reimbursement basis, especially from beneficiary sponsors. Most universities utilized this model as they offered subsidized university fees and received sponsorship funds from donors. Certain hospitals provided free medical services to special groups and later submit returns for reimbursement. Doctors without Borders, Eye restoration volunteers and many more were in this category. Member Motivator model was a model that made organizations receive donations and voluntary services from their members. World member clubs such as Lions Clubs and Rotary Clubs utilized this model. Like in the name, Big Better Funding Model allowed for appropriation of huge funds for global level projects like environmental pollution control. Non-profits like Wetlands International

and Worldwide Fund for Nature (WWF) belonged Big Better Funding Model as they attract huge funds to support conservation of wetlands and wildlife respectively.

In the recent past, concepts like Public Private Partnerships emerged as a model to foster partnerships between for-profit and non-governmental organizations and the Public sector to implement large-scale projects in housing, road infrastructure, water systems, electricity and many others. Outsourcing was another model where institutions and governments outsourced their services to private sector or specialist agencies. In this process, subcontracted institutions tapped into the mainstream government programmes and budgets.

Policy Innovator Funding Model support was applied to provide resources to the non-profit organizations to initiate innovative products in the field of technology and production. In most bilateral and multilateral research projects, the idea was to develop innovations that improved the livelihood of humankind. For example, Accelerating Water and Agriculture Resource project implemented by Germany Development Agency in Zambia and Niras International in the Lower Kafue Catchment Area of the Kafue basin in Zambia provided an avenue to test water efficiency in horticulture and dairy value chains.

Beneficiary Broker Funding Model provided services for marginalized individuals. The operational framework involved negotiating for services on behave of the poor. Rent-to-Own, Donor Assisted Funds and microfinance institutions were some of the examples of institutions that apply brokerage model to enable poor communities' access technology and financial services.

In the modern world where industrialization had led to uncontrolled pollution of all sorts, recycling was a crucial matter. In response, Resource Recycler Funding Model was one where the non-profit received in-kind donations to provide charitable support. Through this model, institutions like World Vision, Development Aid from People to People and Oxfam receive used

items for distribution, recycling or sell. Oxfam received donated items which they sold in chain stores across Europe to raise funds for vulnerable communities in underdeveloped countries. Many churches were also known to be beneficiaries of used items.

Market Maker Funding Model operated in an industry where buying an item would be illegal. For example, the Wildlife Conservancy looked after wildlife that could easily be sold but due to market limitations and desire to conserve it, the Conservancy received funding and, in the process, built the tourism market that promoted conservation.

Local Nationalizer Funding Model was a model that built a network of local operators. The Zambia Open Community Schools (ZOCS) was one example that built a network of community schools that engaged in providing educational space to vulnerable children who could not access education in formal schools.

2.2.2.5 Identified gaps in literature

The field of philanthropy was huge with players ranging from the United Nations and its agencies, multilateral and bilateral corporations, national programmes, international and national private sector companies, individual charitable organizations, volunteers, families and individual persons. All these institutions played their part at different levels of aid supply chain. Clearly, this industry was broad and complex, and there were several opportunities for future research exploration (Moeini, 2014), especially establishing the contribution of each category. In literature, OECD DAC was available but donor funding levels by charitable organizations and other non-structured donors were missing.

Identified research gaps included donor motives and its relationship with the community motives. While the communities were open about their motives, the donors had hidden motives. These hidden motives continued changing based on the emerging political, economic and cultural

needs. The hidden motives sometimes drove the conditions of aid delivery system. Without finding a common ground and without transparency, attaining positive and lasting change was a challenge.

Literature indicated diverse funding models. However, there was limited knowledge on the best delivery model. In this respect, research was required to develop the models for delivering sustainable projects.

In addition, many researchers and scholars had provided inroads to research gaps in this industry. Moeini (2014) demanded for assessment of the political influence, levels of donor demand and strategies on recipients' needs. Raizer and Winkel (2005) identified the need for recipient perception of change. Parks (2008) saw a gap in understanding the capacities of beneficiaries against the donor and the shifting priorities. Yator (2012) requested for more research on the level of indigenous development disruptions caused by external aid and the appropriateness of existing funding models. Greenall et al. (2017) demanded for adequate understanding on the effective funding model and acceptable impact measurement respectively.

It was clear from literature that so many models existed but it was noted that none of them was studied to the level of the Business Case Model applied by profit making organizations. This position strengthened one of the objectives of this research to explore and propose sustainable social and economic support models for the philanthropy sector.

This literature review identified limited information on the issues that surround the two-sided market model (Hersberger-Longloh, 2017) and its role in the philanthropic performance measurement. The literature review however did not establish concrete and empirical data related to the level of performance of the donor aid and any clear donor aid delivery model but just a mix of methods adapted to prevailing situations, donor type and volume of aid. Lastly, the voice of vulnerable communities as key players in the donor aid relationship was missing. Therefore, there

was need for further research to build the performance measurement models that recognized a wider participation as a measure of validity of the impact measurement results.

This literature review brought out positive motivation factors that were justified by those that engaged in charitable giving. In the meantime, other internal motives such as tax breaks, market and trade incentives and returned funds for administrative and fundraising activities were not qualified or quantified. With limited understanding on the entire motives of the donors, it was difficult to know the level at which philanthropists compromised with their promise to help.

Arsalan (2019) argued that despite the impact of foreign aid on general economic status of supported countries, large populations continued to live in abject poverty. Shaker & Borden (2020) argued that donor funding had shifted from supporting private institutions and for unrestricted purposes to public institutions. This therefore had put into question as to whether the shift in aid provision answered the demand from Mwega (2009), Busiinge (2010), Cha and Ramesh (2017), Nost et. al., (2018) and Gillis (2017) concerning the measurable impact of the donor aid. Because of that unanswered question, the problem continued to be a research gap. In more specific terms, the gap remained for full understanding of the extent of donor aid impact and related attributes such as delivery channel and institutions and the conditions and partnerships under which they operated.

The philanthropic sector was a large industry that revolved over a long time. The industry grew from a humble beginning, depicting the primate lifestyle of giving to a global resource and giving enormous resources to the poor (WB 2023; ZAMSTAT, 2022; *OECD, 2022*). The industry grew into an industry of great political, social and economic influence. The philanthropic industry applied varied delivery pathways (Hersberger, 2017; Ibresevic, 2020; Abdel-Baqui, 2021) and

complex systems with specializations from professional fundraisers to institutional managers, business brokers and community development workers.

The philanthropic sector growth was influenced by many factors, internal and external (Ramakrishina, 2018; Schmity & McCollin, 2021). The internal motivation factors included tax incentives, personal satisfaction that gave a good sense of feeling and satisfaction, institutional endowment building and general reputation. The external factors included geopolitics, colonial legacy and desire for political influence.

In a nutshell, the philanthropic industry grew to influence and reputation at equal or above for-profit corporations. The financial investment was in trillions and seamlessly benefited millions of poor people. The sector targeted the neglected and vulnerable 700 million people globally who otherwise could not have participate in the global economy (Rafi, 2021; Bleweis et al., 2020; WB, 2020).

While the philanthropy was understood to be a transfer of financial, good and services from the western developed countries to the underdeveloped global south, domestic philanthropy in the global south was less documented or celebrated. It was therefore necessary to capture north-South and South-South flow of philanthropic resources. Notwithstanding the need for foreign aid, the question of impact on the poor lingered the philanthropic industry (Arsalan, 2019; Cha & Ramesh, 2017; Nost et. al., 2018; Gillis, 2017). With the agreed position that funds were needed to drive development, there was need to look at other factors that impeded better results (Greenall et al., 2017). It was for this reason a study to assess the impact of donor aid triangulated the motivations and delivery mechanisms.

2.2.2.6 Conceptual framework variables and relationships

This study had four variable categories identified. First category alluded to what happened in the area where funding was directed. Among the variables included the demographic variables

(study areas, gender and age of respondents) and the donor aid effect on the community in terms of livelihood change experienced in the past 10 years. This category localized the effect of donor the specific areas, expressing the experienced change in livelihood as evidence of donor aid influence on their lives. The effect could also be influenced by the past experience in the community and therefore 10 years as a reference period gave sufficient space to compare the experiences over time.

The second category was related to the drivers of donor funding. These included the donor motivation and community motivation. The relationship in these variables was based on the interests and mutual relationship between the donors and the community. It was expected that the donors delivered aid on the understanding that the community would appreciate it and would help solve their entrenched challenges. It was also premised on the understanding that both the donors and community would gain from the funding partnership. In tis regard, this category of variables influenced the experienced change in the community as it had the potential to direct resources to where it was needed most.

The third category was the means of delivery. These category included the donor funding delivery model; frequently applied funding model; community preferred donor fund supply channel and active donor fund agencies. The delivery system strengthened the result of donor funding as it could expedite or delay the result of donor efforts. Based on the area and community to be funded, the delivery system could steer demand for a more effective delivery system.

The fourth category was the condition under which the funding aid could flourish. These included community readiness and donor fund provision conditions. The set conditions would influence the conditions under which the funding operate and the final results of the funding.

2.2.2.7 Identified conceptual theory

From literature, the central theory identified was the human interdependence. This theory demonstrated the centrality of donor aid as the main driver (independent variable) of change.

Human interdependence explains the inter-reliance of humans on each other (Juliao, 2021). The theory emphasized the symbiotic and mutual relationship necessary to increase impact (Juliao, 2021); the response mechanisms determined the extent of aid impact (Gachui, 2017); the vulnerability and desperation for improved life drove recipient aid receptiveness (Mechanic & Tanner, 2007); and the personal motives especially the necessity to help the poor and the need to fill the developmental gap drove aid providers (Lynn & Wisely, 2021).

Giving and receiving were two sides of a coin. In this symbiotic system, aid was anything given in the hope of helping another person in need. Aid could be for development or humanitarianism. Proponents of development aid argued it as a necessity in helping the poorest people in the world and as a means to fill the gap left by internal financing system. Humanitarian aid provided resources to mitigate and help people recover from emergencies in health, environment, nature and post-effects of war. The symbiotic relationship established by the giver and the receiver of aid determined the aid conditions and subsequent impact to come out of aid support. Based on the aid conditions, the result of aid was predetermined. The modern-day philanthropy was highly diversified, modernized, specialized and complex. The size and approaches to aid had changed. In such a complex system, assessment of impact depended on whose eye aid was measured.

Vulnerability came from an interaction between available resources, community and daily life challenges (Mechanic & Tanner, 2007). It was also an issue of developmental problems, personal lack of capacity, disadvantaged social status, inadequate network and degraded environment and national policies. Mechanic and Tanner (2007) argued that vulnerability rose

from individual, community and entire population challenges. The level of vulnerability, at whatever level (individual, community, population) required different solutions, among them national level policy change in the key development areas like agriculture, education, economic, environment, health and social sectors. When the national policies failed to effect change, the vulnerability continued. In this case, the theory that drove aid receptiveness was desperation for a new life.

Though observed to be positive, aid had been criticized and seen to create dependency among receiving communities and countries, fueled corruption, destabilized production and trade and shifted people's minds from exploiting local opportunities and solutions. In a nutshell, aid increase poverty instead of solving it. Sub-Saharan Africa received huge sums of funds in aid but people that directly benefited from it remained in poverty.

The theory of interdependency recognized the position where those that had surplus shared with those that had less or nothing. In other words, wealthier people, using their endowed capacity, exploited resources to benefit those without capacity. In this symbiotic relationship, action of one actor in the partnership equation had consequences on another. This theory of interdependency and human connection explained the current globalization otherwise defined as the interaction and integration of human activity.

2.2.2.8 Designed conceptual framework

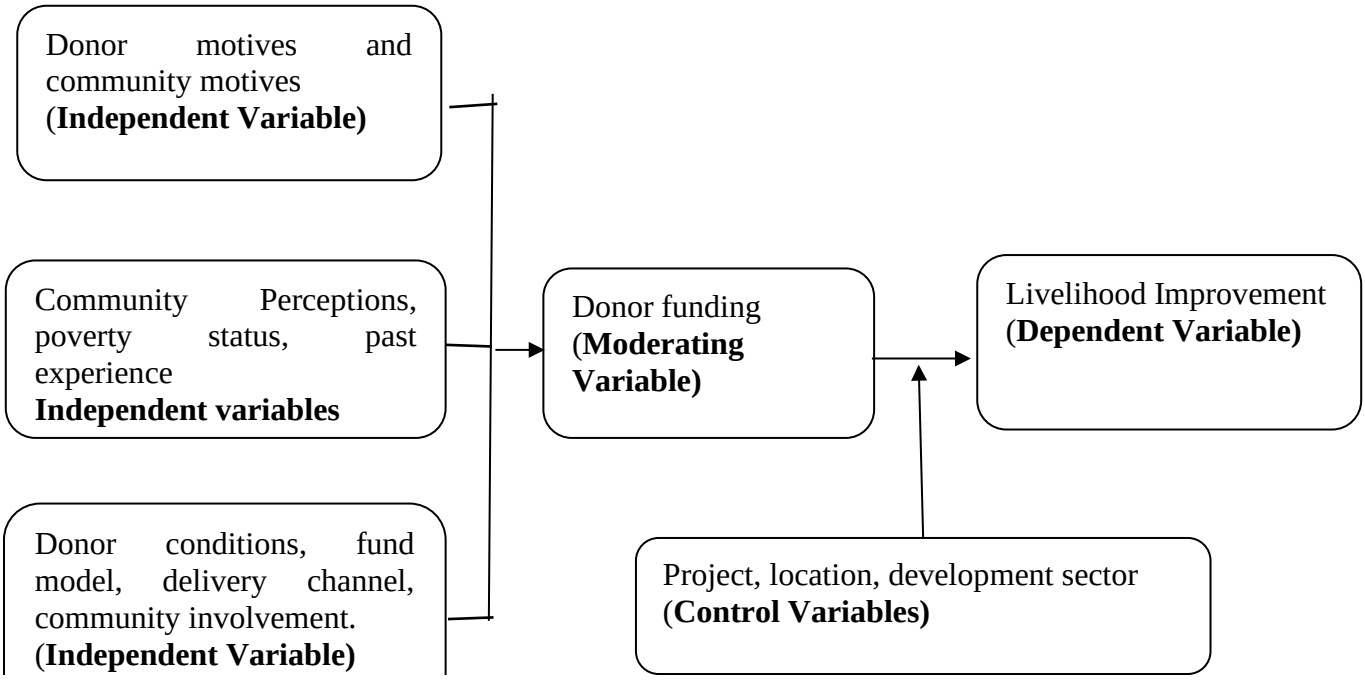
Based on the concept of this study, the objectives and related variables join into realizing the goals of the study. The independent variables included the donor and community motives; community perceptions, past experience and poverty status; and donor conditions, funding model, delivery channel and community involvement. These led to livelihood improvement as a dependent variable measured through livelihood outcomes such as food security, nutrition security, income security, access to health, access to education, capacity for environmental management

and climate resilience. In between the independent and dependent variables were moderating variable (donor funding) and the control variable (project, location and industry sector). Figure 2.3 indicated the interconnection between the independent variables, moderating variable, control variable and the dependent variable.

The above discussed variable levels provided the basis for the conceptual framework developed for this research. Many authors utilized theoretical and conceptual frameworks in triangulating the study subject (Gillis, 2017; Portland Communications, 2017; Arsalan, 2019; Cha & Ramesh, 2017); and Shende, 2017). These authors emphasized on the impact the question of how the donor aid was managed, type of institutions and individuals involved and the gravity at which the beneficiaries depended on external support (Gachui, 2017). It was also a question of the extent to which the shifted their focus in aid delivery and how the change in focus affected sustainability of interventions. Utilizing the above conceptual framework, it became apparent to ascent that the possibility of beneficiary communities bouncing back to self-sustaining life styles after years of donor support was challenging (Gotsadze et. al., 2019).

Fig. 2.3

Conceptual framework design



Note: Figure 2.3 demonstrated three independent variables at motivation level, community status, experience and perspectives and conditions in delivery system. It indicated the moderating and controlling variables of donor funding and the implementation choices respectively. The final livelihood improvement (dependent variable) alluded to the livelihoods including food security, nutrition security, income security, access to health, access to education, and environmental and climate resilience. Source: Field data.

The conceptual framework identified three independent variables. The first independent variable was the donor and community motivations. The motivations of the donors and the community were purely based on individual inspirations. Such motivations could be exercised devoid of any idea of the donor resources, making it an independent variable.

The second independent variable was the background situation related to community perceptions, poverty status and past experience. These independent variable (community perceptions, poverty status, past experience) indicated the potential factors that might influence the donor funding and livelihood improvement outcomes. These factors were pre-existed before the donor funding but had influence on the execution of the donor funding intervention.

The third independent variable was the conditions attached to the delivery of the donor funding. These included the preconditions for donor funding including participation conditions, funding model and the delivery channel.

Before realizing the dependent variable, the process involved the moderating variable – the donor funding. The donor funding was a moderating variable in that it was the intervention on the three independent variables. The moderating variables (donor funding) had a strong correlational relationship between the independent and dependent variable. The donor funding strongly influenced the responses to the independent variables to attain the outcome (dependent variable).

The moderating variable was further mitigated by the controlling variable. To avoid the influence of other factors to affect the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, the control variables (funded project, geographical location and development sector) were kept constant or controlled. The control variables provided the fixed position of the donor funding and set boundaries for dependent variable outcomes. These factors provided divergent modifications to the design and delivery system of the donor funding based on the uniqueness of the prevailing conditions.

The dependent variable was the livelihood improvement. The livelihood improvement was measured through livelihood change outcomes such as food security, income security, access to education and health. The donor funding also had potential to improve community resilience towards environmental and climate change shocks.

2.2.3 Research Approach and Design

2.2.3.1 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this mixed method research was to explore the motives of donors, intermediary agents and recipient rural communities; to assess effectiveness of donor aid delivery models in supporting sustainable livelihoods in rural communities; and to contribute to the academic body of knowledge on effective philanthropic support mechanism for rural development.

The study was focused on establishing the relationship between the limited impact despite consistent donor support provided to vulnerable communities, questioning the motives and funding models applied. The study attempted to respond to the different viewpoints from sector players, where the donors held a view point that donor funds changed lives of rural poor communities. This perception might be true dependent on what was being measured. If the measurement of success was based on execution of planned activities and complete utilization of project funds alone, then activity scoring and financial outflow would be the only measurement of success. In the same vain, recipient of donor funding considered the donor funded projects unsuccessful in changing their lives as long as they failed to experience their envisaged change. In that regard completion of project tasks and total utilization of project funds might not be a sufficient measurement of improvement in the lives of the poor because other factors such as misapplication of resources, wrong targeting and other factors might sway resources away from the poor communities and negate the long-term results. In this respect, what was required was to independently and impartially assess impact of donor aid from the perspectives of the poor rural communities. Such an assessment needed to look at the motives, morality, behavior, delivery model and bring out any unknown influencing factors that drove engagement of donors, delivery intermediary agents and recipient communities.

The issue of impact measurement anchored on accountability, transparency and timely allocation of resources as a measure of performance and control (Ebrahim, 2010). Literature recorded a number of poorly executed programmes, ineffective projects, harmful aid projects (Finckenstein, 2021) and many projects whose effects were unknown. Poorly executed projects included those with proper intentions but failed to meet their intended goals because they were not well suited to the local conditions or were poorly carried out. Also included were projects

abandoned too quickly even before realization of tangible results. Ineffective projects were aid projects that applied wrong assumptions about the communities. Because of wrong assumptions, efforts were put on addressing unnecessary issues. Harmful aid projects occurred due to unintended consequences that ultimately caused harm on the recipients. Other attributes of harmful projects included contribution to dependency on foreign aid, exacerbated existing inequalities, poor implementation, lack of local input and increased possibilities of corruption. Lastly, public and rigorous evaluation of donor aid project effects were usually rare. In many instances, impact evaluations were conducted by donor agencies themselves which made it difficult to rule out internal biases.

Based on the above arguments, the purpose of this study helped in assessing and qualifying the global construct that external aid had long-term and lasting impact on livelihoods of vulnerable communities by focusing on community perspectives. This research also contributed to the body of knowledge by identifying the motives behind donor aid provision, assessed aid delivery mechanisms and recommended new procedures or systems towards social and economic support models for poverty reduction in underdeveloped communities.

Apart from the problem statement, the research purpose was realized through exploring the causal relationship between donor support, appropriateness of the support models and observed livelihood improvement. The first assumption to the study was that the observed change in livelihoods of rural communities was not only influenced by donor aid or appropriateness of the donor funding model. The second assumption was that there was correlational and proportionate dependence between the external aid, appropriateness of the support models and observed livelihood outcomes.

2.2.3.2 Research aim

The aim of this research was to evaluate donor aid contribution to sustainable livelihoods of the poor rural community. In literature, donor funding, donor aid and foreign aid were distinctively defined (Thapa, 2020). Donor funding was considered as a broader category that included financial resources provided by a donor, which may or may not be specifically for foreign aid. Donor aid was considered a subset of foreign aid and specifically identified the donor as a source of aid. Foreign aid was considered as an overarching concept of assistance, i.e. any type of assistance voluntarily shared between nations (Thapa, 2020). In theory, the common denominator on these three concepts of aid was the relationship between the type of aid, then provider of aid and the recipient (Stenehall, 2018). Recognizing the conceptual overlap, this research used the three concepts interchangeably.

The livelihood was understood to be the means through which people sustained their lives. In the research study areas, people's livelihoods depended on arable and pastoral farming to sustain household food and nutrition security, income security and health security. The agricultural sector also helped the people to sustain their other economic activities, maintain their environment and build their resilience against the adverse impacts of climate change. In this respect, any help provided to support agriculture was expected to improve and sustain the entire livelihood outcomes of vulnerable rural communities. Therefore, this research aimed at assessing the extent to which the community development goals were achieved through donor support.

The livelihood change was expected to go beyond the direct recipients or beneficiaries as the whole society could benefit in one way or the other. In respect of the donor aid projects, the targeted recipients were mostly the poor rural communities that faced high levels of deprivation, desperation and experienced poor livelihoods. In respect of that, clear understanding on how they were affected by the donor support they received was critical. It was therefore imperative that an

assessment was done with greater focus on their perceptions and demonstrated experience. Alongside recipient communities, intermediary agents and donors needed to provide their side of information to triangulate the perspectives of the recipient communities. Considering that change never occurred in a vacuum, contributing factors such as motivation dynamics and delivery channels needed to be assessed. Sub-aims of the study were to explore the trend in grant flow and its motives; to build impact measurement from the beneficiary's lens; and to contribute to the body of knowledge.

2.2.3.3 Specific objectives of the research

To respond to the research aim, four objectives were set out to explore the study phenomena. Objective one was to assess whether donor aid reduced poverty and improved livelihoods of rural communities. Objective two was to assess the extent to which donor motives, including hidden motives, influenced provision of donor aid. Objective three was to assess the extent to which donor motives synchronized with the community motives and objective four was to assess the adequacy or sufficiency of the delivery models.

Understanding that livelihood change was a tangible result, it required to portray a conjoint and agreed perceptions of all players. The key players in the philanthropic industry included donors as providers of development resources, intermediary agents (government, non-state actors) as a conduit through which aid was delivered and final recipients as beneficiaries of the funding. Each of them might have their interpretation of livelihood change but real change was more felt at the recipient or beneficiary group. This study therefore focused more on the perceptions of the beneficiaries i.e. rural farming communities whose livelihoods depended on farming and information triangulated against literature that documented donor and intermediary agent input. This targeting process was important to ensure gathered information was relevant to the study.

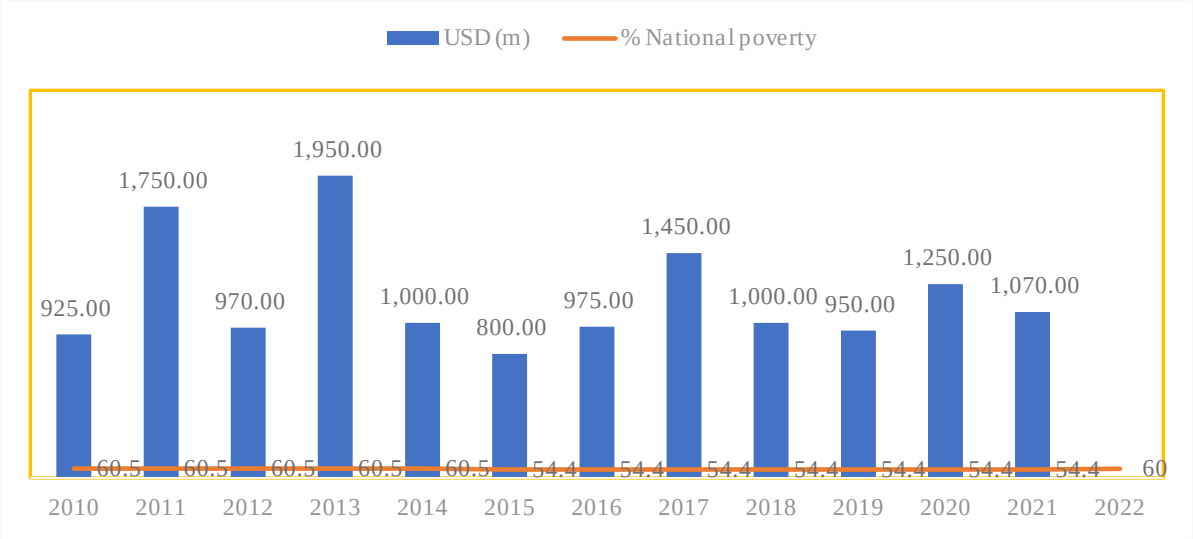
Engagement of any institution in the business was driven by specific needs, some of them at variance with the position of each of the players. Therefore, it could not be surprising to have donors having a different motive, known or unknown, to those of other players. The intermediary agents usually played to the dictates of the donor because they offered their services at a “fee” and within the terms of the contract. In the case of government, it came through trade agreements, bilateral relations, loan terms and foreign direct investment positions. For non-state actors, it could be driven by partnerships and relationships with the donor, familiarity with the operational environment and having common goals. Their motive might be much apparent and clearer than that of the donor such as internal resource mobilization.

The recipient or beneficiary community were at a weaker position or at the receiving end of the donations. That, however, did not mean they had no specific motivations that drove their engagement. Despite being open to any support that came their way, there satisfaction remained resolute on their resolve to see livelihood change. In this regard, any efforts towards resource provision, efficient and effective delivery of support would only be appreciated once their vulnerability was tackled and possibly addressed sustainably.

According to OECD DAC Data (2022), donor aid provision to Zambia from 2008 to 2023 was approximately US$22.6 billion. It was also reported that Zambia received 8,686.5 million US$ from the Net Official Development Assistance (ODA) between 2015 and 2022.

Fig: 2.4

Zambia foreign aid vs poverty trends



Note: Figure 2.4 indicated the histogram showing the level of funding in the years 2010 to 2022 (in blue) and poverty trend in the same period (yellow line) as percentage of national population of Zambia. Sources: ZAMSTAT, 2022, WB, 2023.

The World Bank (2023) reported that between 2010 and 2021, Zambia received US$14 billion in foreign aid towards food security. Historically the funding to Zambia since 1960 to 2022 was 575.7 million per year compared to the World average of 1147.12 million US dollars based on data from 130 countries (WB, 2025). Apart from ODA financial sources, Zambia received funding from charitable giving, project-based support and NGO aid but these were difficult to quantify due to limited data sources. In addition, Zambia consistently received budget support including through loans and grants, some not cleared by Official Development Assistance mechanisms. For example, in presenting the 2022 budget, the Minister of Finance and National Planning tagged Kwacha 72.3 billion (approximately USD 4.2756 billion at 16.91 exchange rate) from bilateral donors and local lending sources.

All these level of investment was expected to significantly change the agricultural-based livelihoods of the rural communities for ensuring income security, food security, health,

education, economic empowerment, resilience to environmental and climate change effects. Based on the data between 2015 and 2022, Zambia was ranked the 6th poorest country in the world with a poverty line of US$ 2.15 per day (WB, 2025). This was against the abundant development resources in mining, tourism and human resources. Zambia had high income inequalities with a Gini Coefficient of 0.507 in 2022 indicating a severe income inequality (WB, 2025). This indicated the need to justify and qualify the contribution of donor funding to livelihoods of rural communities.

National indicators showed that over half of the population lived in poverty with steady increase from 2015 to 2022. The country's half of its 20 million population continued living below poverty datum line (WFP, 2022). According to the World Bank poverty and equality assessment, 64.3 percent of the population – about 12.6 million people were living on less than US$2.15 a day. The Zambia 2022 Census further estimated that three (3) percent faced considerable food shortages and forty six (46) percent failed to afford a healthy diet (ZAMSTAT, 2022). Of the 20 million population, 78.8 percent remained poor in rural areas with 60 percent in 2022 compared to 54.4 percent (2015) faced income poverty (ZAMSTAT, 2023). Figure 1.2 shows the relationship between the foreign aid investment and national poverty trends from 2010 to 2022. The ten year national poverty average was 52.6%.

Therefore, a picture from the resource side to expected outcomes indicated a gloomy posture of the donor funding looking at the static poverty levels and limited resilience in the face of environmental, economic and climate change shocks. What should be expected was a positive and sustained change in the livelihoods of the poor. There was therefore need to fill the knowledge gap between the resource inflows and the livelihood change results, establishing the root cause for failure.

According to Paula (2018), global philanthropy held immense promise for 21st century. However, a number of scholars argued on the issue of donor funding and its influence on livelihood improvement of the rural poor and marginalized communities. Studying the donor funding in Zambia, Moyo (2009) and Nost et al. (2018) questioned the impact on household income, food security, economic empowerment, poverty reduction and resilience. They considered the livelihood change from donor funding as elusive. Other scholars like Arsalan (2019), Waheed (2020); Ferreira (2021), Gachui (2017) and Waheed (2020) questioned limited improvement from the donor funding system.

In addition to the financial support provided, the number of donors in the industry had increased from international bodies such as International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank (WB), United Nations Agencies like United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), World Food Programme (WFP), United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP) etc., to regional bodies such as Africa Development Bank (ADB), Blocs such as European Union (EU), Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) to Bilateral donors, Family Charities and individuals. However, these institutions did not significantly change the lives of the poor to desired levels. Notwithstanding the insignificant change in the lives of poor people, internal assessments by most donor institutions recorded satisfactory success in their projects. The question was on what were those assessments based on to reach those conclusions. It was also not clear whether the internal donor assessments mirrored the full perceptions of the recipient communities. Failure to attribute success to the perspectives of recipient communities increased the doubt in the recorded information about the aid failure or success of donor aid. For example, the World Bank's International Finance Corporation indicated in 2007 that only half of its African projects succeeded and among the failed projects included

World Banks Sankofa Gas Project in Ghana (2015); World Bank Chad-Cameroon oil pipeline to the Atlantic Ocean (2003) worthy US$4.2billion ; Norwegian government Lake Turkana fish processing plant in Kenya (1971) worthy US$22million; World Bank, European Investment Bank and African Development Bank funded Lesotho Highlands water project (1986) worthy US$3. billion; France funded Office du Niger cotton and rice irrigation project in Mali (1932) worthy more than US$300 million; Roll Back Malaria (1998-2010) worthy US$500million; International Donor Agencies (IDA) funding to water development project (Ferreira, 2021). Literature also indicated numerous failed projects under the International Finance Corporation, a World Bank subsidiary.

Despite the negative perceptions surrounding foreign aid, scholars like Hanza (2018), Karanja (2013), Yator (2012) and Kuria & Wanyoike (2016) argued that the support helped millions of lives in the last century and in many countries, making them subsist although did not escape poverty. The foreign aid had made valuable contributions to the global challenges in health, education, environmental conservation, food security and mitigating natural/man-made disasters. However, the stated successes did not come unchallenged. The foreign aid was attributed to the continued poverty, deprivation and vulnerability faced by the poor. The foreign aid was further attributed to increased corruption, poor governance and other negative vices including failure to meet funding pledges. Finckenstein (2021) argued that funds pledged by France in 2018 under the Conference for Economic Development and Reform through Enterprises (CEDRE) to Lebanon had not been remitted within the period expected.

The first critical problem to address was why give aid when corresponding results were not realized. Many scholars advanced a number of social reasons, including the desire to help others, responding to family or religious traditions or to help the poor live a better life. On the recipient

side, the poor received aid for different reasons but mainly to solve their poverty status. Therefore, if donor funds were major ingredients in the development of the poor, then people in poverty might have seen change in their lives. Considering that there was limited change observed (Arsalan, 2019; Waheed, 2020; Ferreira, 2021) in many development sectors, it was a major concern. The second critical problem was lack of consensus among the scholars on the level of achievement from the donor funding mechanism. Scholars remained divided on the question of positive and sustained change on the livelihoods of the vulnerable rural communities (Moyo 2009, Hanza (2018), Karanja (2013), Yator (2012) and Kuria & Wanyoike (2016) vs. Arsalan, 2019; Waheed, 2020; Ferreira, 2021. The third critical problem was limited knowledge on the topic. There was limited knowledge on the level of dependence on donor funding and motives that drove the industry players. The fourth problem was limited data because public information on the philanthropic industry was scarce and neither governments nor private organizations collected and provided philanthropy data publicly (Paula, 2018).

2.2.3.4 Research questions and hypotheses

This research studied the impact of donor funding on vulnerable communities. Impact was interpreted as a show of change from the resource provision towards addressing complex social problems such as poverty and inequality (Ebrahim & Rangan, 2010). Impact was also about an assessment of how the root causes of societal vulnerability was addressed to bring about lasting change.

The issue of impact measurement found its foundation on accountability demanded by aid providers as they requested for a difference in people's lives. Therefore, it was a measure of institutional influence and organizational brand in providing desired outcome and/or change through philanthropic support, measured and delivered in a controlled and guaranteed manner. For lasting change to happen, all parties involved (donors, intermediary institutions and recipients)

needed to be accountable to one another (Ebrahim, 2010). The measurement of inputs and outputs posed a challenge in measuring societal change while those that only focused on measuring outcomes and impact also risked attribution challenges as not every change observed in society could have been as a result of one direct intervention. This was mainly so, because for every specific intervention, many external factors were at play, including macro and micro-economic factors, social beliefs and behaviors, Eco-politics and environmental pressures.

To measure impact, many internationally accepted theories existed. One such theories included Impact Evaluation (IE) and Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) frameworks. The former typically referred to the assessment of end results or impacts, while the latter was premised on tracking the correlative progress along the logical chain. However, in response to Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (2005) and Accra Agenda for Action (2008), international agencies such as United States Agency for International Development (USAID), the United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DFID) and multilateral institutions such as the World Bank and various agencies of United Nations shifted from impact evaluation and M&E to measuring ‘’what would have happened in the absence of an intervention’’ and other causality analyses (Khagram et al., 2009).

In taking advantage of the new dimension in measuring what could have happened in the absence of donor aid and focused on the study problem statement, purpose and study aims, four study questions were developed. Research question 1 (RQ1) was what influence did donor aid had on livelihoods of vulnerable people? This question aimed at establishing evidence or the lack of it of lasting change from the donor aid provided to the community. This question called for experiential sharing and reflecting on what happened to the community in the quest to sustainably see change. This question was also very important as it addressed the key issue of the study and

implicitly addressed what happened to the donor funding provided to the poor communities. In other words, this question addressed the underlying causes of successful or failed impact as highlighted by many scholars. In finding the opposite position where it was proven that donor aid caused positive change, the same question aimed to triangulate the supporting factors and attributions.

The second Research Question (RQ2) was what was the level of knowledge on donor motives that drove provision of donor aid?? This question focused on addressing the behavioral, attitude, administrative and personal factors that influenced the giving of aid. While some donor motives were known, others were not known. The hidden motives might also come about because of the administrative issues such as the desire to build institutional endowments, monopolization of trade, geopolitical influences and mere quest to control the world economy.

The third Research Question (RQ3) was to what extent were donor motivations in line with the community motivations? This question fixated on establishing the relationship between donor motives and community motives. In this respect, the question looked into establishing the mutual partnership for the common goal. If the interest of the donor was to build institutional endowments, monopolization of trade, geopolitical influences and mere quest to control the world economy, where did it leave the community interests in resolving their poverty, vulnerability and marginalization?

The fourth Research Question (RQ4) was how the delivery channels and models helped in taking resources to rural vulnerable communities? This question explored the need to change the delivery model. This question looked into the delivery modality applied in the donor aid. It was a measure of adequacy, sufficiency, appropriateness, relevance, effectiveness and efficiency in the delivery system. This question indirectly addressed the provisions of the 2005 Paris Declaration

on Aid Effectiveness (2008), Accra Agenda for Action (2005), Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development and the Nongovernmental Agreement on International Aid Transparency Initiative (2008). The overall aim of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness was to improve the quality of aid and its impact on development. The Accra Agenda for Action was designed to strengthen and deepen implementation of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness, taking stock of the progress and set the agenda for quality delivery and impact of aid. The OECD provided evaluation criteria that included relevance, coherence, effectiveness, efficiency, impact and sustainability. The International Aid Transparency Initiative aimed at making information about international aid easier to find, use and understand. Put together, these international agreements brought forward the parameters in assessing the models applied in the donor aid delivery model.

Together, these research questions helped explore the causal relationship between donor aid and perceived results as well as assessed the appropriateness of support models. The first assumption to these questions was that the observed change (impact) in livelihoods of rural communities was independent and not influenced by the type of donor aid and/or inappropriateness of donor aid. The second assumption was that there was dependence and direct relationship between observed livelihood change, system and type of donor aid and its appropriateness. The third assumption was that the motivations of donors and communities had a common intention of solving community livelihood challenges. By exploring the above causal relationships, this study provided some responses to the dilemma in the donor aid system highlighted by many scholars such as Mundell (2009), Yator (2012), Karanja (2013), Kuria and Wanyoike (2016), Shende (2017) and Cha and Ramesh (2017).

In line with the research questions and objectives, the hypotheses in the study were developed. The first null hypothesis (Ho) was that donor aid resulted in attributable change in livelihoods of vulnerable rural communities. The alternative hypothesis (Ha) was that donor aid did not result in attributable change in livelihoods of vulnerable rural communities. This Null Hypothesis (Ho) focused on assessing the relationship between the donor aid and the observed change, assuming that the observed change in the community could not be one hundred percent from the donor aid. The rural community was understandably dynamic, interconnected and influenced by many factors. However, it was possible to hold other factors constant while measuring the effect of foreign aid on the community. It was at that point that the relationship between the foreign aid and observed change should be measured.

The second Null hypothesis (Ho) was that motives of donors influenced support to rural communities. The alternative hypothesis (Ha) was that motives of donors did not influence their support to rural communities. This hypothesis measured dependent variable related to donor motives and the extent to which the motives influenced the choice of projects and operational modalities of the interventions. This hypothesis also alluded to the possibilities of hidden motives that were unknown to the community but directly or indirectly influenced the aid delivery system. This was with the understanding that donors had the power to control the delivery of aid on the community. Based on their motivations, the donors determined the amount of aid, sector of work and geographical region to work from. They also set the rules of engagement including conditions for the beneficiary community.

The third Null Hypothesis (Ho) was that donors and vulnerable communities had similar motivations towards donor aid. The alternative hypothesis (Ha) was that donor motives and vulnerable community motives were not common. In this regard, this hypothesis measured the

extent to which donor motives synchronized with the community motives, with the understanding that divergent motives could not result in agreed development position. Moreover, the provider of resources should not have hidden motives or motives not known by the recipient community.

The fourth Null Hypothesis (Ho) was that aid delivery model sufficiently created livelihood change in rural communities. The alternative hypothesis (Ha) was that the delivery model did not significantly create livelihood change in rural communities. This hypothesis emphasized support models adequacy in delivering sustainable social and economic results in rural communities. In this regard, this hypothesis provided space to assess the attribution of success to other social economic deliverables not directly influenced by the sector intervention but those that had holistic livelihood impact. This hypothesis extended the discussion towards assessing the need to change the delivery model to a more efficient and effective delivery system focused on lasting change.

2.2.3.5 Research design

Three general approaches to conducting research included qualitative, quantitative and convergent design of the mixed methods (Creswell, 2018) approach. This study applied a mixed method approach of inductive and deductive studies. The choice of mixed method approach was critical to balance the perceptive positions of the stakeholders with the quantifiable disposition in the delivery of aid. Considering the research questions in this study, a single method of qualitative or quantitative research was not enough to provide a comprehensive understanding. The idea was to provide the depth of the qualitative data with the breadth of the quantitative data. This approach helped in complementing quantitative results with elaboration or clarification from the qualitative results. The quantitative data helped in the generalization of the qualitative data. The mixed method methodology helped balance the strengths and weaknesses of both qualitative (concepts) and quantitative measurable and generalizable results. This choice was also based on the consideration

of the need for integration and completeness of information. The research had limited time and resources, therefore adequately mitigated through a parallel research approach.

Despite the approach being mixed, the quantitative and qualitative study remained separate in focus but conducted in a convergent parallel design to ensure integration in the analysis of qualitative and quantitative data in a single study process.

This research adopted a mixed method approach based on the fact that one standalone method (qualitative or quantitative) might not give a complete picture on the study phenomenon (George, 2021). George (2021) argued that mixed method design improved generalization, contextualization, credibility and triangulation of data. Through this approach, this study realized philosophical and epidemiological understanding of the study phenomenon (Jogulu & Pensiri, 2021).

Mixed method approach was not new but was an accepted scholarly practice since the advent of new research paradigms between 1970s and 1980s. The emphasis on mixed methods was echoed by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) and Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) as they discussed pragmatism while Creswell (2003) considered it as an alternative to non-triangulation methodologies mainly found in the standalone qualitative or quantitative studies.

The use of mixed method approach was quite prominent in philosophical research with De Loo and Lowe (2011) advising application of mixed methods in the science of philosophy. Salfi (2011) utilized mixed method approach in studying leadership practices of head teachers in Pakistan. Murphy and Maguire (2011) applied mixed methods to evaluate the cost and benefits of conducting clinical trials. Wedawatta et al. (2011) used this method to investigate impact of extreme weather on the construction of small to medium enterprises.

With evidence from the above scholarly practice, utilizing mixed method approach helped this research to draw on the advantages of qualitative and quantitative approaches and gave space to explore diverse perspectives and uncovered relationships that existed between various research variables. It was also about gaining a complete picture on the phenomena, a position one could not get if quantitative or qualitative approaches were used in isolation of each other (George, 2021). In addition, the mixed methods approach gave adequate responses to the research questions that included assessment of lasting change, funding models applied and the extent to which there were hidden motives. These questions carried qualitative and quantitative measurements.

The mixed method approach assured best results (Babin & Zikmund, 2015) and was the best approach for this study (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010; Cooper & Schindler, 2011; Bamberger, 2012; White & Ryner, 2014). In general terms, mixed method approach assured generalizability, contextualization and credibility (George, 2021), triangulation and validity of the research results (Fishchler, 2017). This approach also took care of social factors, dynamic operating environment and ensured legitimacy of research results (Gabriel, 2013; Poni, 2014; and Rahman, 2016).

While the mixed method research approach was considered the best, realization of its full potential depended on availability of time, resources and analytical skills. One critical caution was that the approach might not simply be a process of putting together data and collaborative results, but was an approach of intensive insight and intrinsic analysis of collected data. Such a position explained the diversity of this approach which, if not carried out strategically, could increase research biases in data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2013).

Within the mixed method approach, the qualitative study approach provided a number of choices. Creswell (2013) identified five qualitative research approaches namely narrative research, phenomenology, grounded research, ethnography and case study. This research adopted

phenomenology approach to conduct qualitative research targeting a small group of Key Informants (10) to explore lived experiences on the study phenomena. Phenomenology approach was important in collecting in-depth data utilizing broad and general questions to collect data applied to establishing themes and draw conclusions (Creswell, 2018). The phenomenology approach also assisted in the triangulation of quantitative data collected using structured questionnaires.

The phenomenology approach was selected against narrative, grounded theory, ethnography and case studies. The narrative approach, as the name suggested, was a process of gathering lived experiences and stories from individuals (Creswell, 2018) through stories and holding conversations. It also included review of biographies, auto-ethnography such as journals, life history and oral history. In this case, the narrative approach demanded for concentration on a single subject and community subject cataloging of time series events which might not have generalized position of the entire society. Narrative approach was also not suitable for this study because the study needed to gather perspectives and opinions from a wider community for the purposes of generalization. Furthermore, this approach had inherent ethical challenges regarding the storyteller and information ownership, especially on how to handle varied impressions of its validity and legitimacy and how to manage conflicting information (Creswell 2013). Therefore, this research could not narrow down information gathering to individual stories, autobiographies or life histories.

The grounded theory approach helped in establishing correlational patterns (Ward, 2012) and provided empirical evidence based on practice (Tie et al., 2019). Introduced by Glasser and Strauss in 1967, grounded theory provided space for development of theories (theoretical framework (Glen, 2021) and conceptual framework) based on collected data and knowledge

generation. In literature, there were extensive discussions on the application of grounded theory since its establishment by Glasser and Strauss in 1967. Grounded theory was used in studies of diverse populations covering diverse disciplines of professional socialization. It was one of the most commonly used qualitative research approaches. Strough and Lee (2021) used grounded theory in their study of grounded theory application in educational sector and identified 210 studies from 15 educational journals of 18-year publications that applied the grounded theory approaches. Other disciplines that employed grounded theory included anthropology, management, medicine, nursing, social work, sociology and psychology (Strough & Lee, 2021). Unlu and Qureshi (2020) came up with Unlu-Quareshi grounded theory instrument, an analytical tool involving coding, concept formation, categorization and theme building. Graser (1978) defined grounded theory as systematic, iterative and rigorous data collection and analysis process. However, this construct was challenged by Turner (2016) who argued that the number of grounded theory versions equal the number of grounded theorists, indicating that the grounded theory exercise in practice could have a unique framework based on the prevailing situation and orientation of the researcher (positivistic, feministic, constructivist). Daniel Turner elucidated Classical Grounded Theory as one based on Glaser and Strauss (1967) book '*The Discovery of Grounded Theory'* which based grounded theory on generational methodology rather than just analytical approach. This necessitated focusing on data generated to inform theory. The other one was Modified Grounded Theory drawn from Strauss & Corbin in 1990 work. The two scholars emphasized on three stage coding mechanism (open codes (inductive), axial coding and selective coding). This sequential action allowed for generation of theory from data as well as researcher intuitive understanding of the situation. Constructivist Grounded Theory approach was based on Charmaz's 2006 work which gave legitimacy to researcher's own interpretation of theory from data. Turner (2016) agreed with

Charmaz in stating that theory would not be waiting to be discovered but required researcher's effort to extract it from the data picture. Feminist Grounded Theory approach adapted from the nursing field (Kushner & Morrow, 2003) and drew its strength in recognizing multiple possible interpretations of reality embedded in social diversity and power relations (Turner, 2016). Post-modern Grounded Theory focused on mapping the social world including actors and identifying gaps. From the above, it was observed that there was infighting on the types of grounded theory and one needed to be careful in selecting the right theory to apply.

Ethnographic research approach studied the values, behaviors, beliefs and language of the community. It required the researcher to be immensely involved in the day-to-day lives of the people as they observe and interview the study participants. Key features of ethnographic study included developing a complex and complete description of the culture of the group. Ethnography was not selected for this study due to relatively short period of interaction with the community. This was because clear theory and cultural anthropological position was not available from past studies. It also required a lot of time to learn the values, behaviors, beliefs and culture of the people before concluding on data collection.

The Case study research was also defined as a study of a case within a real life contemporary context and setting (Creswell, 2018). It involved a process of inquiry to enlist in-depth and intrinsic understanding of the case in the context of a given time and place utilizing case descriptions, themes and specific situations. A case study was a linear approach aimed at analyzing a given issue from start to end. Case study approach was not selected because this research studied a phenomenon that affected lives of the general rural community, targeted diverse resources from a number of donor funding sources, assessed impact on general socioeconomic sectors (food, income, health) and implementation agencies.

This research adopted the convergent parallel design out of the six (6) mixed method designs (Creswell, 2018). The convergent parallel design allowed for collection and analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data at the same time but analyzed separately (George, 2021). After that the results of the two analyses were compared to draw conclusions. This study also chose convergent parallel design because it was efficient and allowed for immediate triangulation of data. The efficiency came from the process of a combined quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis (Subedi, 2016). The convergent parallel design was also preferred because it allowed for collecting, analyzing and mixing both qualitative and quantitative research methods in a single study (Creswell 2018) and that ensured triangulation of information from the two data collection approaches of qualitative and quantitative means.

This study adopted typological approach suggested by Jogulu and Pansiri (2021) which broke convergent parallel design mix based on a combination gravity of Equal status, Concurrent status, Sequential status and Dominant status. The equal status referred to equal weights in collection and analysis of data. The concurrent status referred to a situation where qualitative or quantitative sub-unit was done or preceded the other on a first-second consequential steps. The sequential status referred to a process where a logical process was followed. For example deal with qualitative data collection and analysis then get back to deal with quantitative data collection and analysis before merging the results. Concurrent status took a process of undertaking qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis simultaneously. Considering the gravity of both qualitative and quantitative data in this research, concurrent status where both were given equal status and undertaken in parallel process was considered. This research weighted the qualitative and quantitative data equally and allowed for simultaneous data collection and analysis and converge the results to draw conclusions.

2.3 Chapter summary

The literature review employed three strategies: reviewed the evolution of the philanthropy sector; literature pertaining to study objectives; and other previous research. The evolution of philanthropy was traced back to primates societal life and the life of religious communities before Christ (Deuteronomy 14:22; Acts 20:25 and 35, and 2 Corinthians 9:7; and Qur'an 90:14-18). The sector evolved following the Post World War II (1 sept 1939 – 2 Sept 1945) following the setting up of the Marshall Plan in 1948 and Molotov Plan in 1949 (Markovits et al., 2019, Onion et. al, 2022). The United Nations, the World Bank and IMF and the Overseas Development Organization (ODA) followed to mitigate global challenges. Bilateral institutions (USAID, FINNIDA, CIDA, SIDA, GIZ, JICA), Individual donors, Foundations and Trusts starting responding to the cause.

In study of *History of Modern Philanthropy*, Gardner (2016) traced philanthropy periods from 1500 to 1980 and concluded that donor funding was driven by Western Supremacy Ideologies, advancement of businesses and colonial control. Chan (2019) concluded that donor funding was provided to meet personal values, beliefs, faith and religion, and personal experience of feeling good. Newberg (2012) argued that religion-driven philanthropists gave out of affinity, affection and human values. Moyo (2009) argued that most foreign aid was not charity but a tool to suppress African nations, make them politically compliant and economically dependent.

Sadeh et al. (2017), in their analysis of 96 Giving Pledge letters, argued that donors gave away funds stop their wealth dominance. Meanwhile, others gave to gain social status, tax relief and avoiding harm to heirs (Worth et al., 2019). At global stage, major donors gave to address global challenges like disease, poverty and destitution (Schmitz & McCollim, 2021). Ramakrishina (2018) and Bandyopadhyay and Verman (2013) argued that developed countries used foreign aid to improve relations, prevent (trade) destabilization and as a tool for consolidation

of their economic and political interests. Tis meant that the donor community was strategic in their provision of funding and bypassed the notion of genuine gesture.

With regards to expected livelihood change, a mixed position was observed. Cha and Ramesh (2017) and Shende (2017) argued that the impact was limited while Limited impact (); Positive impact in basic service provision and governance sectors. There was astounding record of failed projects for reasons were not clear (Ferreira, 2021) but caused disruptions in local innovation and exploitation of local resources (Waheed, 2020); Gachui, 2017). Development disruption also led to corruption, depreciated local currencies, inflation, dependency, neglect of development responsibilities, killed local enterprise innovation, caused civil wars and diluted civic responsibilities (Moyo, 2009).

Long-term sustainability of the donor funded projects was questioned. Gotsadze et. al., (2019) argued that sustainability of donor funded programmes depended on mutual relationship, delivery model and the political, social and economic operational environment. Short-term projects needed different funding approaches and resources than long-term projects (Staddart & Velte, 2019). There was also need to develop impact assessment tools that recognize community perspectives (Glovando et. al., 2021) and more understanding of industry (Kamenetzky & Hinrchs-Krapels, 2020). There was also a need to review the multiplicity of channels applied in fund delivery pathways (Collins 2020, Cook, 2022).

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

Philanthropy was defined as altruistic desire of individuals to improve lives of the vulnerable people in society (Hayes, 2022). Key philanthropic systems at play included humanitarian, emergency, military and development aid. In practice and depending on the situation, these philanthropic systems might not resolutely stand alone in the face of providing relief, livelihood improvement, social reform and civic engagement as dictated by principles of compassion, progress, justice and participation (Lynn & Wisely, 2021). Lynn and Wisely (2021) defined relief as an action that operated under the principle of compassion to alleviate human suffering while improvement operated under the principle of progress where human potential was maximized. Social reform and civic engagement operated under the principles of justice (to solve social problems) and participation (to build community activism) respectively.

Based on the development aid system that promoted relief, livelihood improvement, social reform and civic engagement, this research study assessed the effect and consequences of development aid on livelihoods of the vulnerable people and specifically on agricultural-dependent communities. Specifically, this study evaluated the extent to which the donor aid impacted on the farming communities; assessed the extent to which stakeholder motives, known and hidden, influenced the provision of aid; the adequacy/sufficiency of the delivery model towards attainment of desired lasting change; and assessed any need to change cause. Variable measurements included food security, income security and health vulnerability. The study was also premised on assessing the progress (impact) made at helping vulnerable communities realize their full socioeconomic potential especially in the face of dwindling access to financial resources, increased climatic impact and environmental degradation.

In this study, the donor aid mechanism was identified as one of the pathways used to mitigate economic, social and political injustices (Hayes, 2022). However, the problem was that trillions of dollars provided by individual donors, foundations, for-profit institutions, bilateral and multilateral institutions to support vulnerable communities improved their lives (Yator, 2012; Cha & Ramesh, 2017; Shende, 2017) gave mixed results. Nost et al. (2018) argued that the impact of donor aid remained intangible, elusive and questionable. Scholars such as Mundell (2009), Busiinge (2008), Yator (2012), Cha and Ramesh (2017) and Shende (2017) documented limited impact with players in the sector blaming each other on the poor performance. On the opposite side, other scholars like Ebrahim (2010), Karanja (2013) and Kuria and Wanyoike (2016) and argued that donor funding enhanced freedom, democracy and accountability, and reduced economic exclusion and corruption.

The observed mixed positions on the impact of donor aid highlighted inherent challenges in identifying the support model with best results. The relief philanthropic mechanism established by John Winthrop in 1630 was perceived to be one that wasted resources on addressing the immediate effects without looking at the root-causes of vulnerability (Lynn & Wisely, 2021). The system was also perceived to perpetuate passivity towards addressing the conditions that created the problem in preference for quick fix approach. Like relief effort, the improvement stance (mainly promoted by Andrew Carnegie's theory in 1886 of individual opportunity realization and exploitation) to philanthropy had weaknesses in that it tended to favor well-situated and highly motivated individuals and marginalized individual and community groups with less social, legal and economic opportunities to advance (Lynn & Wisely, 2021). Social reform, seen as a solution to inherent social inequalities, focused on social change. The social reform kind of philanthropy approach, promoted by McArthur Foundation (16th century), drew strength in experimental

approach to developing alternative solutions to social problems and drew lessons from them. The challenges with social reform included attempts for philanthropic institutions to become shadow governments, finding systemic solutions to underlying causes of poverty and other social ills (Lynn & Wisely, 2021). The interventions included processes such as identifying public problems, setting goals and priorities and allocating resources towards social change on behalf of the public, mainly without consultation. The civil empowerment, advanced by Jane Addams in 1886, recognized the different voices in public life rather than just the voices of the successful people and experts. However, civil engagement suffered from perennial defeats of democracy such as slow and contentious pace and was prone to more talk than action, a process that resulted in difficulties to realize change (Lynn & Wisely, 2021).

Looking at the different support models discussed above, the impact assessment demanded for in-depth review of donor aid impact from recipient perspectives. In so doing, the study brought out a detailed understanding of the motives and influencing factors that affected change before making recommendations for possible sustainable social and economic support models.

In respect of the stated study problem, the purpose of this study was to explore the trend in grant aid resource flow and its motives, gather beneficiary perspectives on experienced impact and identify effective support model for human development. This was from a backdrop of the documented lack of clear evidence of lasting change created by trillions of grant aid provided to vulnerable communities.

The overarching goal of this study was to evaluate the impact of donor funding on rural society. This goal demanded for gathering perceptions, experiences and information using inductive and deductive means from the beneficiaries, implementing agencies/aid providers and

community players. To achieve this goal, a mixed method approach was selected, utilizing structured and semi-structured (checklist) questionnaires in collecting quantitative and qualitative data respectively.

This chapter highlighted the research philosophy, approach and design of the study; population and sampling approach; research instruments and tools. It also highlighted the study variables and assessment procedures. The section ended with the ethical assurances considered in data collection.

3.1 Research Philosophy

Success of the research process was informed by the research philosophies: ontology, epidemiology and axiology. The social reality (Ontology) of this research was that communities believed in donor funding as a key resource for rural development. This belief was fully entrenched in the general population and governments of underdeveloped countries including Zambia. This reality limited the internal effort to exploit local resources and use proceeds to mitigate the livelihood vulnerability challenges. However, the true position against the socialized reality was that exploitation of local resources was more sustainable than external (temporal) support. The ontology of this study was therefore based on understanding the behavior, beliefs and motivations of funding agencies, intermediary institutions and recipient communities.

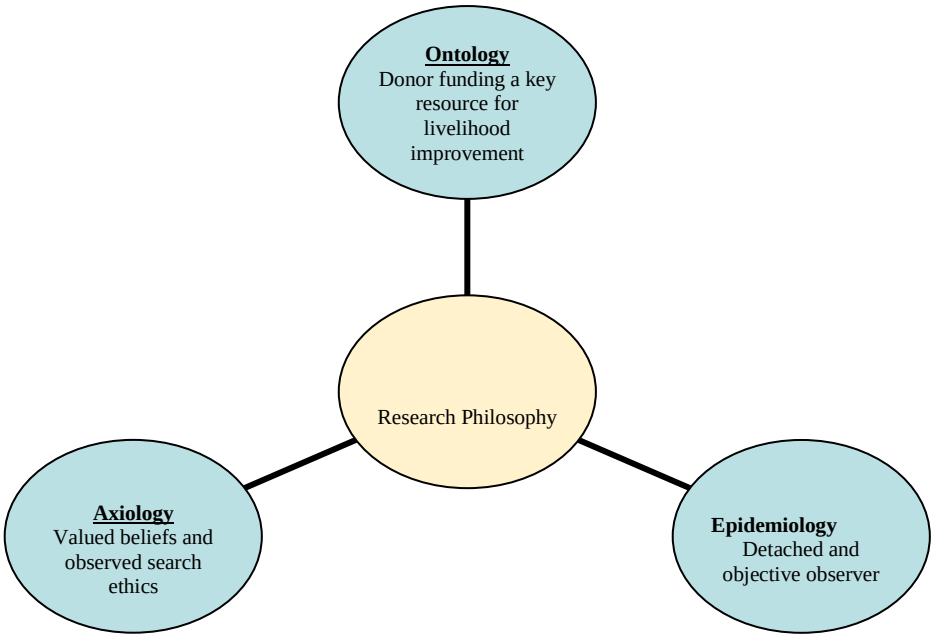
Considering the social reality and the opposite understanding of the researcher, the kind of knowledge to be obtained (epistemology) required the researcher to be a detached and objective observer and not impose personal values and experiences. The epistemological approach focused on exploring appropriate funding models that created value in the communities.

Considering the axiology and epidemiology philosophical positions of this study, the researcher valued the community beliefs and observed research ethics (axiology) to ensure

objectivity, impartiality and avoiding harm in the research process (Taber, 2013). Axiological aspect of this research therefore helped address mixed impact perceptions argued by different scholars like Yator (2012); Taber (2013); Karanja (2013); and Kuria and Wanyoike (2016). Figure 3.1 indicated the interconnection between the adopted philosophies of ontology, epidemiology and axiology. Taken together, the three philosophies helped in addressing the perceptions in the sector, ensured ethical conduct and understanding of the donor funding as s driver of rural development.

Fig 3.1

Philosophy of the study



Note: Figure 3.1 illustrated the research philosophies applied in the study including Ontology indicating the causal effect of donor funding, Axiology demonstrating the beliefs and ethics observed and epidemiology positioning the researcher as an independent observer. Source: Field data compilation

3.2 Ensuring validity and reliability in applied research philosophies

The three philosophies underpinned the methodology and the methods used in data collection and analysis (Kuria & Wanyoike, 2016). The first consideration was the scientific and positivistic methodologies which were concerned with discovering natural and universal laws regulating and determining individual and social behavior. Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) described positivistic approach as nomothetic or confirmatory, emphasizing the researcher's worldview of confirming the existing situation. According to Blumberg et al., (2014), positivists investigated the social reality through observing objective facts, fundamental laws and natural objectives that supported or rejected the hypothesis. To ensure positivism, the study brought a paradigm shift from the social reality through empirical observation and measurement of hypothesis. The study undertook qualitative data collection to explain quantitative data and predict the future positions. The researcher remained an independent observer on the study topic.

The second was the naturalistic and interpretative methodologies that helped in describing and explaining human behavior with emphasis on the differences between people and the nonliving natural phenomena. Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) described interpretative approach as idiographic or discovery, emphasizing on finding the meaning behind the on-going situation. The interpretivists contended that simple fundamental laws were insufficient to understand the complex social space and requested for an objective observation of the social world which was constructed intentionally by human action and behavior (Blumberg et al., 2014). Interpretivism helped in exploring the real meaning of the social construct and community experiences on donor fund vices livelihood improvement. The qualitative data collection method, analysis and researcher's role played a significant part in understanding the meaning behind the community experience.

The difference between the two research paradigms was based on three basic principles: 1) view of the world, 2) involvement of researcher and 3) researcher's influence. According to Blumberg et al., (2014), Positivists considered the happenings in the world to be externally driven, value-free and not influenced by the researcher. On the other hand, interpretivists believed that everything that happened was influenced by the people, the surrounding environment, and the research interests. The researcher therefore drew a balance between the Positivist and interpretivist theories to gain an impartial position. This was because it could irrational to consider people behavior separate from external stimulus knowing that people's lives were highly influenced by the environment in which they lived.

In the process of focused group discussions, the study undertook experiential sharing to enlist real life experiences from the targeted communities (Copper & Schindler, 2011; Ward, 2012). Again, the past experiences were an indication of the future decisions and live patterns.

In this study, scientific and positivistic methodologies were applied as confirmatory procedures to discover social realities, fundamental laws and natural objectives (Blumberg et al., 2014; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Naturalistic and interpretative methodologies were applied to describe the study phenomena, explain human behavior and find the meaning behind the on-going situation (Blumberg et al., 2014; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Furthermore, triangulation approaches of multi-methods were applied to take care of social facts and dynamic operating environment (Bamberger, 2012; White & Ryner, 2014; Leung, 2015) and ensure legitimacy of research results (Gabriel, 2013; Poni, 2014; Rahman, 2016). Applied together, the quantitative and qualitative approaches increased validity of the research (Fishchler, 2017).

The third was pragmatism which focused on the research problem and the method applied to find a solution. A mixed method (both qualitative and quantitative) was applied to gain an in-

depth understanding. The process helped in the triangulation of results and increased validity, reliability and trustworthiness of results.

The fourth was Post-structurarism through which the dominant views and social realities were triangulated through the marginalized vulnerable community lens, uncovering the hidden meaning and power dynamics between the donors and the community.

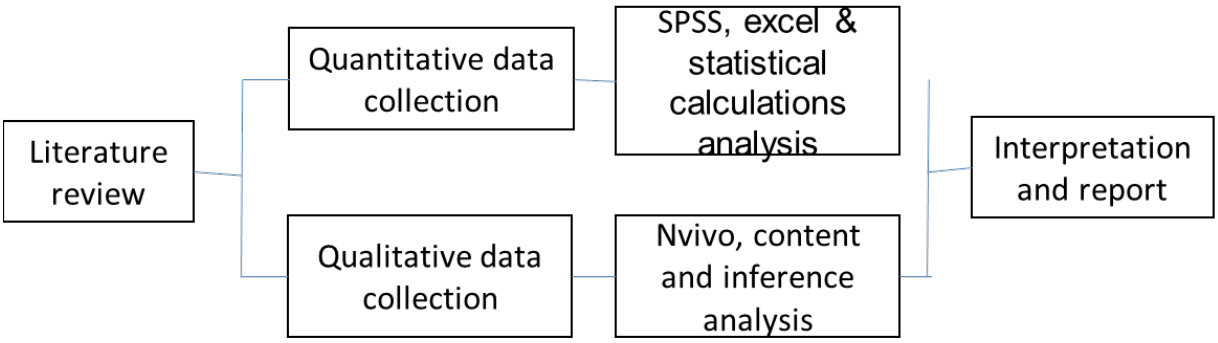
3.3 Key research methodology

Key data collection methodologies and techniques included literature review, field surveys and focused group discussions. These data collection techniques employed descriptive, predictive and analytical approaches to identify and obtain statistical information (Ward, 2012) and characterized study subjects and variables (Copper & Schindler, 2011; Babin & Zikmund, 2015). This process helped in developing a deeper understanding of causality and funding motivations (Ward, 2012).

The secondary data collection (literature review) helped in reviewing background information, developed some leads to this research and isolated information already sufficiently covered by other scholars (Blumberg et al., 2014). Reviewed literature included periodicals, scholarly/journal articles, books, government and agency and media reports. Figure 3.2 summarized the research process at development stages, emphasizing the convergent design at data collection, analysis and reporting

Fig 3.2

Research Process



Note: Figure 3.2 illustrated qualitative and quantitative data collection, data analysis and reporting as a convergent approach. Source: Field data.

The primary data collection tools included interviews and observations. These primary data collection tools were used successfully by various scholars (Raizer & Winkel, 2005; Yator, 2012; Campos & Carbinell, 2012; Ward, 2012; White & Rayner, 2014; Robinwitz & Prizzon, 2015; Rahman, 2016). The chosen data collection tools were important in reducing biases (White & Rayner, 2014; Blumberg et al., 2014) and helped in triangulating information, ensured validity, reliability and generalization of data (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010; Cooper & Schindler, 2011; Bamberger, 2012; White & Ryner, 2014; Leung, 2015).

The experiential sharing was undertaken to enlist real life experiences from the targeted communities and enabled the researcher to understand the research context (Copper & Schindler, 2011; Ward, 2012). Grounded theory helped in establishing correlational relationships in the collected data (Ward, 2012). Participation enquiry allowed participants to be fully involved in data generation and validation.

For qualitative data analysis, the researcher utilized Nvivo software. Quantitative data was analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) as it was effective in building correlational relationships between variables (Ward, 2012; Kuria & Wanyoike, 2016).

In the philanthropic industry, donor aid impact had attracted reactions from the general population and in particular from taxpayers, donors, governments and recipients of aid. Yator, (2012), Robinwitz and Prizzon (2015), Kuria and Wanyoike (2016), Cha and Ramesh (2017) and Shende (2017), criticized donor support for lack of lasting change. Karanja (2013) counter reacted by indicating noticeable impact from external aid support. Other scholars (Yator, 2012; Taber, 2013) attributed lack of impact to inappropriate financing model.

3.4 Population and Sample of the Research Study

3.4.1 Research sample determination

The research sample size determination was based on population variability and size, margin of error and confidence level. Others were type of research and its objectives, the expected effects size and available resources (time and financial resources).

The other consideration was the research objectives and design. This research required a larger sample to test the hypotheses and ensure generalization. Effect size referred to the difference or effect to be detected. The making effect was based on the livelihood outcomes form financing the key livelihood of the targeted community. Qualifying such results demanded a larger sample. Equally, the probability of correctly rejecting the null hypothesis required a larger sample size. The other consideration was the non-response rate, determined through the sampling formula. This necessary to avoid overestimating the participants. The sample was also based on the practical constraints related to time, finances and movement logistics which might limit the critical sample size. Specific sampling methods included purposeful sampling, convenient/judgmental sampling and stratified random sampling (see Table 3.1).

3.4.2 Population variability and size

The population variability was considered in terms of location, age and gender of respondents, level of exposure to the study phenomena and economic development sector. This signaled the need for a larger sample size to attain a representative sample. The Zambia administrative hierarchy had a four tier system that comprised provinces, districts, constituencies and wards. As of 2019, there were 10 provinces, 116 districts, 156 constituencies and 1,624 wards in Zambia (Global Report on Internal Displacement (GRID), 2021). The targeted areas for this research were Magoye and Choongo wards in Mazabuka and Monze districts respectively of Southern Province of Zambia. Having a complete knowledge of the country and study provinces, district and wards was important as it provided a complete understanding of the population distribution and demographic information necessary for extrapolation of data globally with potential for replication.

In 2022, the population of Zambia was estimated at 20, 017, 675, an increase of 2.8% from 2021 population of 19,473,125 (ZAMSTAT, 2022). Zambia had ten (10) provincial regions and every region, be it urban or rural, received and continued to receive external aid targeting various sectors. This scenario was similar to many Sub-Saharan African countries. At provincial level, Southern Province had an estimated population of 2,195,416 (2021 census) and experienced an annual population increase of 2.29 percent (Knoema, 2021). The Southern Province region was homogenous in terms of ethnicity, economic activities and livelihood coping mechanisms. The communities in this region depended on pastoral agriculture and rain-fed farming. In this respect, the homogeneity of the population indicated similar vulnerabilities across the entire population and therefore any intervention in any area of the region had potential to influence the entire regional population.

Narrowing down on the regional population, this research targeted Mazabuka and Monze districts where the sub-regional areas of Magoye and Choongo wards were located. Magoye and Choongo wards were in rural wards of Mazabuka and Monze districts respectively. In 2019, the population of Mazabuka district was 194,653 while Monze had 191,872 (ZAMSTAT, 2019). Mazabuka was largely rural, having only three wards in urban and seventeen wards in the rural part of the district with a total of 402 villages in four Chiefdoms. Similarly, Monze district had eleven (11) wards, one (1) in the urban and the rest were rural. The Monze district had 1200 villages in six (6) chiefdoms. Together Magoye and Choongo wards had an estimated combined population of 16,466 (ZAMSTAT, 2019).

The outcome of donor aid affected infinite population in the region or country. Infinite population was considered as a census population of a given area. Dealing with the entire population had immeasurable benefits especially when it came to relativity and extrapolation of results. The advantage of dealing with infinite or census population included elimination of sampling procedures as every element in the sample frame was automatically selected and by that, every result was a representative of the population. In addition, combination of people in the population could be arranged in infinite ways and that endlessly changed the results each time similar research was conducted on the same population. The solution was to identify a finite population as they were easily recorded and identified.

The finite population was defined as a subset of the infinite population based on quantifiable measurements (Kumar, 2023). In this study, finite population or rather countable population was identified through the Gate-Keepers. In the two areas, five thousand and six hundred (5, 600) individuals participated in donor funded projects in the past ten (10) years.

3.4.3 Margin of error and confidence level

In terms of the sample size, study considered individuals and households in farming cooperatives. Information on the individuals were obtained from the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives, Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries and Ministry of Community Development and Social Welfare. Considering the significant number of individuals in the cooperatives, there was need for a sample size which was representative. The random sampling margin of error was small (5%), signifying the larger sample size. This study had a higher confidence level of 95% and above, indicating a higher sample size.

3.4.4 Sampling frame and calculation of the study sample

In order to engage the population that experienced donor funding in the agriculture sector for a longer term, this research identified 5,600 finite population (N) in Choongo and Magoye wards of Southern Province that belonged to agricultural cooperatives and participated in donor aid interventions in the past ten (10) years. The 5,600 possible respondents were identified from the farmer cooperative membership registers at the Ministry of agriculture and Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries in Monze and Mazabuka. The 5,600 people therefore provided the sample frame for the study.

To arrive at the actual sample size for quantitative survey, this study applied the Cochran's formula $n = \frac{(Z^2 x\, pq)/e^2}{(1+(n-1)/N}$ to calculate the overall sample that ensured practical, cost-effective, convenient and manageable data collection (Bhandari, 2022). The Cochran' formula was chosen because the population was Homogeneous and known in terms of behavior, attitudes and other attributes of the population. The Cochran's formula was ideal and precise, especially when dealing with large population attributes. This research adopted a sample size at 95% confidence

interval, 5% margin of error and 50% Z-value. Based on Cochran's formula, the calculated sample size was 360 calculated as below:

$$n = \frac{(Z^2 x\, pq)/e^2}{(1+(n-1)/N}$$

$$n = \frac{(3.8416 * 0.5 * 0.5)/0.0025}{(1 + (384.16 - 1)/5600}$$

n = 360

Where $n_0 = (Z^2 \text{ x } pq)/e^2$;

Z-Value =1.96;

p – Estimated proportion of population = 0.5;

q=1-p =0.5;

e = margin of error at 95% confidence level = 0.05

In this study the Correction Factor (CF) was calculated as below:

$$CF = \left(\frac{N-n}{N-1}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$\left(\frac{5600-360}{5600-1}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$= \left(\frac{5200}{5599}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$= (0.929)^{1/2}$$

$$= 0.96$$

The calculation gave a 0.96 Correction Factor which was close to 1 and could be ignored (Glen, 2012) as it indicated no significant change in the sample size even after the Correction Factor was applied.

Through the Cochran's formula, 360 sample size was calculated. These 360 individuals were selected from the 5600 finite population through non-probability and probability sampling

approaches. This research applied non-probability sampling to identify the districts, study wards and key informants. The districts of Mazabuka and Monze, and their wards (Magoye and Choongo) were purposefully sampled. Convenience and judgmental sampling was applied to select key informants (especially donor fund implementing agencies (government, non-governmental organizations, community-based organizations and traditional leaders) based on availability and willingness to take part in the study.

The probability sampling provided equal and non-zero chance for every individual in the finite population (5600) to be selected. Considering 360 sample size, each person had an equal chance (six percent) of being selected as indicated in the following calculation.

$$P=1-(N-1/N)(N-2/N-1)..(N-n/N-(n-1) = n/N$$

$$P=360/5600 = 0.06 =6\%$$

Where p- probability

n – sample size

N- population size

This means that every individual had 6% chance of being selected, indicating that every element in the population had a known non-zero probability (6%) and not selected arbitrarily based on researcher's judgment (Babin & Zikmund, 2015).

To ensure unbiased selection, this research applied stratified sampling. The stratified random sampling was chosen because to capture key population characteristics in the sample and was similar to weighted average (Hayes, 2022). In this regard, the process started from proportional sampling of the 5,600 population according to demographic areas (Choongo and Magoye) subgroups. The generated strata were subjected to systematic random sampling using the Random Number Tables. This was the most unbiased system (Jibson & Ingram, 2022) and gave

every unit in the sample frame an equal and independent chance for selection (Roberts, 2012). The other option was to use the mathematical system to select a k'th number in the sample frame. Considering the sample size of 360 from the study population of 5,600 in the two areas, the k'th element would be selected based on the following calculation:

$$K=N/n = 5600/360 = 15^{th} \text{ element}$$

Where K- k'th element in the strata

N – Population

n – Sample population

In this respect, every 15^{th} element in the sample frame was selected as a respondent. Table 3.1 indicate the sampling design for this study.

Table 3.1

Sampling Design

Category	Target population	Sample size	Sampling method
Non-probability sampling			
Districts	Rural communities in Mazabuka and Monze districts of Southern Province	5,600	Purposeful sampling
Wards	Magoye and Choongo wards	327	Purposeful sampling
Key informants	Government agencies, local NGOs, community-based organizations and traditional leaders	13	Convenience and judgemental sampling
Probability sampling			
Project beneficiaries	5,600 beneficiaries	360	Stratified and Systematic random sampling

Note: Table 3.1 indicated the sampling design and the sampling methods within the probability and non-probability sampling approaches. The category referred to study areas and clusters targeted in the study. The targeted population indicated the groups targeted in each category, the

sample size indicated the planned number of individuals engaged while the sampling method indicated the approach taken to reach the sample, utilizing probability and non-probability probability sampling methods. Author's compilation.

In estimating the sample size for the qualitative survey utilizing focused group interviews, the key approach used in sample size determination was saturation (Balbini, 2025). The concept of saturation was based on grounded theory and used to determine when no more information would be collected by continued collection or analysis of data (Saunders et al., 2019; Sebele-Mpofu, 2020; O-Reilly & Parker, 2013).

While there were many forms of saturation, this study applied the data saturation - point at which data or codes became repetitive (Fusch and Ness, 2015) and meaning saturation – a point when full insight was obtained and no more would be required (Hennick et al., 2017 and Hennick et al., 2019). Notwithstanding, Sim et al. (2018), O-Reilly and Parker (2013) and Low (2019) advised against relying heavily on saturation as information was not static but dynamic.

Both data and meaning saturation depended on other variables such as scope of the study, method applied in the study and the diversity of the study group. Others were the expertise of the researcher and the level of no-show individuals in the sample. Bonde (2013), Mwita (2022) and Aldiabat and Le Navenec (2018) argued that scope, method, diversity, expertise and no-show rate contributed to achievement of saturation and 5-8 persons was sufficient to reach saturation. Table 3.2 indicated the number factors in determination of the sample size to reach saturation.

Table 3.2:

Number Factor Determination Criteria in saturation sample calculation

Variable	Factor
Scope	
Narrow – Research on a very specific problem with few unknown and formative	1
Focused – study to create a new product or strategy or exploratory study to tackle unknown factors	1.25
Broad – discovering new problems or insights with many unknowns and gathered in a strategic and foundational approach	1.5
Diversity	
Very similar – use multiple criteria to recruit a specific group of people with shared experiences (5-10 years) and knowledge	1
Somewhat similar – recruiting specific group of people with 5-10 years' experience	1.3
Somewhat different – varied participants or multiple different groups (women farmers, men farmers, disabled farmers	1.5
Very different – very diverse set of participants and groups with broader qualification criteria	1.7
Researcher expertise	
0-4 years expertise	1
5-9 years expertise	1.1
10-14 years expertise	1.15
15-19 years expertise	1.2
20-24 years expertise	1.25
25+ years expertise	1.3
No-show rate – participants who accept to take part but failed to show up.	
Nielsen (2003) reported an average no-show rate of 11% while Sauro (2018) suggested a range 10 to 20% and Burman (2023) established 8%.	0.10
Method	
Focus group discussion – a moderated discussion (Namey et al., 2016)	18
In-depth interview – interviews with individual persons	12
Combination of focus groups and interviews	15

Note: Table 3.2 showed the Number Factor Determination Criteria in saturation sample calculation. It carried the variables and factor determination number for scope, diversity, researcher expertise, no-show and research method. Scope had narrow, focused and broad categories. Diversity referred to the diversity of recruited respondents in terms of being very similar, somewhat similar and very different. Researcher expertise referred to years of experience

while the method referred to used in data collection. Sources: Aldiabat & Le Navenec (2018); Onwuegbuzie et al. (2010), Bonde (2013), Yocco (2017), Sauro (2018), Namey et al. (2016), Guest et al. (2016), Fusch & Ness (2015).

Utilizing the indicative factors in Table 3.2, Table 3.3 indicated the calculation factors in relation to this study.

Table 3.3:

Realized factors for calculation of FGD participants for reaching saturation

Variable	**Category**	**Score**
Scope (Sn)	**Narrow** – research focused on agriculture funded projects, in a homogeneous community whose livelihood dependent on agriculture. The study had very specific issues to address with few unknowns and the approach was tactical and formative.	1
Diversity (Dn)	**Very similar** – specific groups were targeted that included agricultural experts from Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries and Ministry of Community development dealing with Food Security Pack). Others were agricultural based none state actors, leaders of farmer cooperatives and traditional leaders with 10 years' experience in donor funded projects	1
Expertise (En)	At the time of the study, I had 20-24 years-experience in field research in the field of agriculture and donor funded projects.	1.25
No-show rate (Ns)	Estimated at 10% estimated no-show rate	0.10
Method (Mn)	Combination of focus group and interview	15

Note: Table 3.3 indicated the realized factors for calculation of FGD participants for reaching saturation. The table indicated the variables and associated factors. The chosen factor for Scope (Sn) narrow scope with a value of 1, the respondent diversity was very similar with a value of 1, the expertise of the researcher was 20-24 years giving a rate of 1.25, the no-show averaged 10% and the method applied was a combination of focus group and interview. Source: Field data compilation.

Utilizing the Yacco formula, the number of persons to reach saturation was 13 persons.

$$P = Ns\ x\ \frac{Sn\ x\ Dn\ x\ Mn}{En} = 1.10\ x\ \frac{1\ x\ 1\ x\ 15}{1.25} = 13.2$$

Therefore: 13 persons were invited with an expectation that one (1) person would not turn-up.

3.4.5 Type of research and objectives

The research objectives and research design influenced the larger sample to test the hypotheses and ensure generalization. The objectives of this study were to assess the extent to which livelihood was improved, influence of donor motives, level at which donor motives were in line with community motives and the adequacy of the delivery model. The design of the study was mixed method design chosen to improve generalization, contextualization, credibility and triangulation of data. This research design was necessary to gain a complete picture on the phenomena (George, 2021). In this respect, a big sample size was required.

3.4.6 Available resources (time and financial resources).

The study sample was subjected to practical constraints related to time, finances and logistical movements especially reaching out the respondents. Other external constraints were taking care of the external factors like population increase, mobility and morbidity of people (Comunale et al., 2022). Other population dynamics included attitudes and behaviors that would affect level of interest and participation levels.

3.5 Materials/Instrumentation of Research Tools

This research was designed to assess the impact of donor funding on vulnerable communities with focus on agricultural-based communities. Objective 1 of the study was to assess whether donor aid improved livelihood of rural communities. Objective 2 was to assess the extent to which donor motives, including hidden motives, influenced provision of donor aid. Objective 3 was to assess the extent to which donor motives synchronized with motives of recipient community

while objective 4 was to assess the adequacy/sufficiency of the delivery model in reducing vulnerability among rural communities.

Utilizing the parallel convergent data collection design, primary data was collected through questionnaire interviews as the main data collection method. The approach to primary data collection included one-on-one interviews (utilizing close-ended questionnaires) and focused group discussion (utilizing open-ended questionnaires) (see Appendix A and B).

Three major categories of interviews were standardized interview, semi-standardized interview and unstandardized interview (George, 2022). Standardized (structured) interviews were predetermined both in topic and order. To remain focused, interviews in this study applied pre-set schedule and structured unambiguous questions (George, 2022). All interviewees faced the same questions which were close-ended and predetermined dichotomous responses (yes/no), multiple choices or Likert scale answers. The close-ended nature of standardized interviews made it suitable as a quantitative tool.

The semi-standardized interviews (applied during focused group discussions) were by nature open-ended and offered more flexible approach to the interview process to allow for in-depth discussion and reflection. The flexible questioning elucidated unanticipated responses which helped in gathering deeper understanding of the situation, sharing experiences and emotional positions on the topic at hand for richer and more contextual data.

While the standardized and semi-standardized interviews had a specific framework, the unstandardized interviews were the most flexible type of interview and allowed for further exploration of the answers given. In some instances, both the researcher and interviewee had a chance to ask questions and/or elaborate some points. George (2022) conferred that the high level

flexibility of the unstructured interviews made it difficult to conduct and demanded for high level competence in recording and analysis of data by the researcher.

In this study, the qualitative data was collected through Focused Group discussions, utilizing an open-ended semi-structured questionnaire. The focused group discussion brought together participants comprising community members, community leaders and community groups. Others considered included opinion leaders (policy makers and development project implementers), representatives of community-based organizations, faith-based organizations and NGOs working in the study communities. The focused group interview approach was chosen to provide more in-depth information and unfiltered feedback than individual interviews. It was also easy to organize, gave real time responses rooted in felt feelings, emotions, perceptions and opinions that might fail to come out through dichotomy answers of yes or no. It was also a tool to explore hidden meaning to quantitative responses and elucidate consensus on issues affecting the community. The information from focus group interviews had assisted the researcher in triangulating and qualifying data collected from structured (quantitative) interviews.

The Focused Group Discussion was also desirable as it provided information that the researcher lacked. The process expanded the researcher's understanding of the precise insights and helped reduce bias (Cossham & Jahanson, 2018). The FGD was also important in soliciting expert and impartial information. Bernard (2018) as cited in Cossham & Johanson (2018) observed the importance of engaging people with insider information or knowledge about the concept, situation, community culture and subject under study and people who speak from experience. The process of the qualitative data ensured saturation point was reached.

The researcher used a lose-ended questionnaire to gather quantitative data from the respondents. A questionnaire was a form comprising interconnected questions developed by a

researcher regarding a research problem under investigation and in line with the study objectives. With the help of a questionnaire, guided and close-ended responses were collected from the sampled respondents. A questionnaire was used to gather data because of its efficiency in data collection particularly when the researcher knew what was required and how to measure the variables of interest (Creswell, 2014). Furthermore, it allowed the researcher to collect information within a short period of time at a low cost and free from bias (Kothari, 2006).

To ensure data quality, reliability and good response rate (Sharma, 2022) the standard questionnaire was limited to 30 questions. Sharma (2022) argued that the quality of data from the questionnaire depended on the length and number of questions and how easy it was for the respondents to comprehend. The study topic should also be relevant to the study population for them to be eager to respond. Sharma (2022) define response rate as a ratio of the number of people who responded to the total potential respondents and concluded that response rate determined the quality and generalizability of the study results. Defined as a set of questions aimed at obtaining statistically useful or personal information from individuals, the structured questionnaire was chosen for easy assessment of the population (Sharma, 2022). Appendix A indicated the questionnaire for one-on-one interview.

The primary data collection was based on basic tools such as questionnaires and focused group interviews. The questionnaire and focused group interviews were chosen to be used in combination to realize reliable and triangulated data (Simister, 2017). In practice, scholars in all sectors applied these tools in their studies to suit a particular purpose (Abawi, 2017). For example Yator (2012) used these approaches in '*studying donor demands and uses for evidence of research impact'*, and '*Utilization of Donor Funding and its Effects on Economic Development of the Intended Beneficiaries'* respectively.

Reliability and validity were both about how well a method measured a given aspect. Reliability referred to the consistency of a measure (whether the results could be replicated under the same conditions). Validity referred to the accuracy of a measure (whether the results actually portrayed the true picture). Both reliability and validity of the study tools had a direct bearing on the end result of the study. Content validity was applied to ensure all aspects in the study were measured. Internal reliability was ensured through the application of interrelated structured and semi-structured questionnaires (Middleton, 2022).

3.6 Operationalization of Variables

Research variables were any characteristics that took different values (Bhandari, 2022). The significance of research variables was to establish cause-effect relationship that existed in the research study. Bhandari (2022) argued that operational research variables should specify the range of possible values and variable's scale of measurement (nominal, ordinal, interval or ratio) and how the variable was measured. The scale of measurement (nominal, ordinal, interval or ratio) was important as it determined the type of mathematical operations and statistical analysis that were appropriate.

3.6.1 Independent variable

The study had three independent variables: the donor and community motivation; the community disposition status; and the donor funding considerations.

3.6.1.1 Donor and community motivation independent variable

The donor motivation variable assessed the motivating factors that influenced donors to give aid to rural communities. The structured questionnaire, utilizing a one-on-one interview was applied to collect data. The quantitative data on the donor motivation factors was triangulated using non-structured questionnaire in the Focused Group Discussion (FGD). The SPSS statistical

analysis alongside mathematical measurement of this variable included descriptive analysis (frequency tables, mean, mode, median, five number analysis); Measures of dispersion (range, variance, standard deviation, covariance, interquartile range and standard error); measures of shape (skewness, kurtosis); hypothesis testing (correlation coefficient, chi-square test, T-test and regression analysis. Associations between this variable and others such as experienced change (correlation coefficient), influencing factors (T-Test) were conducted. Standard error test was undertaken to build the relationship between the sample means and true mean of the population.

The community motivation variable assessed the motivating factors that influenced the community to participate in the donor funded activities. Suggested motivating factors included poverty situation, hunger and food insecurity, income insecurity, livelihood status, access to education, access to health care and peer pressure. This variable was measured on a Likert (ordinal) scale 1-5 with 1 indicating lowest impact; 2 some impact; 3 moderate impact; 4 high impact; and 5 highest impact. The structured questionnaire, utilizing a one-on-one interview was applied to collect data. The quantitative data on the donor motivation factors was triangulated using non-structured questionnaire in the Focused Group Discussion (FGD). Mathematical and statistical measurement of this variable included descriptive analysis (frequency tables, mean, mode, median, five number analysis); Measures of dispersion (range, variance, standard deviation, covariance, interquartile range and standard error); measures of shape (skewness, kurtosis); hypothesis testing (correlation coefficient, chi-square test, T-test and regression analysis. Associations between this variable and others such as experienced change (correlation coefficient), influencing factors (T-Test). Standard error test was undertaken to build the relationship between the sample means and true mean of the population.

The validity and reliability of the donor and community motivation variables was ensured through consistent application of data collection (through the structured questionnaire), application of common data collection approaches (one-on-one interview utilizing Likert scale measurement scale) and measured on predetermined factors. These measures ensured accuracy and consistence in data collection and analysis.

3.6.1.2 Community status independent variables

The community status variables focused on the recipient community's poverty status, community perceptions of donor aid and past experiences. The poverty status variable was assessed on the relationship with donor funding in Zambia through covariance test, correlation coefficient and poverty forecast to 2030. The structured questionnaire, utilizing a one-on-one interview was applied to collect data. The quantitative data on this variable was triangulated using non-structured questionnaire in the Focused Group Discussion (FGD). A series of hypotheses testing was done. In general, the main tests included ANOVA testing on the impact, applied model, donor motivation and community motivation and funding conditions. Others were coefficient of variations, T-test, F-test, Pearson Chi-Square test, Chi-square test, regression, standard error of the mean, covariance and forecasting.

The experience in funded project variable attempted to qualify the assertion that the respondents had an experience in donor funded projects, having participated in food security project funded projects in the past 10 years. The variable was assessed on a nominal measurement scale 1 and 2 which referred to Yes and No. The structured questionnaire, utilizing a one-on-one interview was applied to collect data. The quantitative data on this variable was triangulated using non-structured questionnaire in the Focused Group Discussion (FGD). Mathematical and statistical measurement of this variable included frequency, mean, mode, median and standard deviation. The reasons for experienced change was qualified by sub-variables such as positive

perception on the donor funding, right quantity and timely delivery of project resources. The perception on the donor funding had a nominal measurement scale 1 and 2 which referred to Yes and No in respect of whether they were happy in the way donor aid was delivered.

Right quality delivery sub-variable linked the independent and dependent variables in terms of resources delivered and the outcome of the resources utilized. This variable was identified as a dependent (Mediator) variable with nominal measurement scale 1 and 2 which referred to Yes and No in respect of whether the respondent approved or disapproved the way services were delivered. The structured questionnaire, utilizing a one-on-one interview was applied to collect data. The quantitative data on this variable was triangulated using non-structured questionnaire in the Focused Group Discussion (FGD).

Like delivery of quality resources, timely delivery variable linked the independent and dependent variables in terms of resources delivered and the outcome of the resources utilized. This variable had nominal measurement scale 1 and 2 which referred to Yes and No in respect of whether the respondent approved or disapproved the timeliness of donor aid services. The structured questionnaire, utilizing a one-on-one interview was applied to collect data. The quantitative data on this variable was triangulated using non-structured questionnaire in the Focused Group Discussion (FGD). Mathematical and statistical measurement of these variables included frequency distribution, cross-tabulation, mean, mode, median and standard deviation.

The active donor fund agency variable assessed the institutions that frequently delivered donor funds to the communities. Suggested responses included government; non-governmental organization; private sector; community-based organization; churches, traditional leaders. This variable was measured on a Likert (ordinal) scale 1-5 with 1 indicating institution did not deliver donor funded project; 2 institution rarely delivered donor funded project; 3 institution often

delivered donor funded project; 4 institution highly delivered donor funded projects; and 5 institution mostly delivered donor funded projects. The structured questionnaire, utilizing a one-on-one interview was applied to collect data. The quantitative data on this variable was triangulated using non-structured questionnaire in the Focused Group Discussion (FGD). Mathematical and statistical measurement of this variable included descriptive analysis (mean, mode, median, standard deviation), frequency tables and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

The validity and reliability of the control variables were ensured through consistent application of data collection (through the structured questionnaire), application of common data collection approaches (one-on-one interview utilizing Likert scale response mechanism) and measured on predetermined factors. These measures ensured accuracy and consistence in data collection and analysis.

The experienced change variable was a perception on the past donor funding project that a respondent took part. It followed on the past experience of the respondent with regard to timely and quality delivery of donor fund resources. This study benchmarked experiences in the past 10 years. This variable had nominal measurement scale 1 and 2 which referred to ‘Yes’ and ‘No’ in respect of whether the respondent experienced change or did not experience change in their livelihood aspects. The structured questionnaire, utilizing a one-on-one interview was applied to collect data. The quantitative data on this variable was triangulated using non-structured questionnaire in the Focused Group Discussion (FGD). Mathematical and statistical measurement of this variable included frequency, mean, mode, median and standard deviation, chi-test, t-test and regression analysis. Correlation coefficient and covariance was done to establish the relationship between experienced change and donor motivation.

The variable on donor aid effect on community focused on the water and sanitation, funding condition, operational environment, responsibility and partnership, perception on donor funds, community social standing, food security condition, nutrition status, income status, access to education and health care. These set of variables were measured on a Likert scale 1-5 with 1 indicating lowest impact; 2 some impact; 3 moderate impact; 4 high impact; and 5 highest impact. The structured questionnaire, utilizing a one-on-one interview was applied to collect data. The quantitative data on this variable was triangulated using non-structured questionnaire in the Focused Group Discussion (FGD). Mathematical and statistical measurement of this variable included Mathematical and statistical measurement of this variable included frequency, mean, mode, median and standard deviation, chi-test, t-test and regression analysis. Correlation coefficient and covariance was done to establish the relationship between experienced change and donor motivation.

3.6.1.3 Donor funding consideration independent variable

The donor funding consideration variable focused on donor conditions, funding models, delivery channels and community participation. The donor funding provision condition variable assessed the criteria and preconditions for the community to participate in the donor project. The donor condition factors included in-kind contributions, matching grant, pay-back-loan, vulnerable status (e.g. look after orphans), stay within the project area, gender considerations, member of a group and ‘no condition’. This variable was measured on a Likert (ordinal) scale 1-5 with 1 being lowest considered condition; 2 low considered condition; 3 moderate considered condition; 4 highly considered condition; and 5 highest considered condition. The structured questionnaire, utilizing a one-on-one interview was applied to collect data. The quantitative data on the donor motivation factors was triangulated using non-structured questionnaire in the Focused Group Discussion (FGD). SPSS (statistical) and mathematical measurement of this variable included

descriptive analysis (mean, mode, median), frequency, standard deviation, chi-test, t-test and regression analysis. The frequently applied funding model variable assessed the frequency of model application by donors. This variable included options such as free grant, goods and services provision, in-kind donations, funding popular felt needs, reimbursable fees, member contributions, large and long-term projects, public private partnership, public policy change, beneficiary broker services and market development. Responses were subjected to a Likert (ordinal) scale 1-5 with 1 indicating lowest applied model; 2 low applied model; 3 moderately applied model; 4 highly applied model; and 5 highest applied model. The structured questionnaire, utilizing a one-on-one interview was applied to collect data. The quantitative data on the donor motivation factors was triangulated using non-structured questionnaire in the Focused Group Discussion (FGD). Apart from the descriptive analysis, other mathematical and statistical measurements included quadratic regression and building relationship with funding conditions utilizing a T-Test and P-values.

The community preferred donor fund supply channel variable assessed the community preference in terms of delivering aid to them. Suggested means included Donor-direct-to-individual-recipient; Donor direct to community; Donor-to-intermediary institution-community; Donor-to-government-to-community; Donor-to-government-to-intermediary institution (NGO)-to-community; and whichever approach. This variable was measured on a Likert (ordinal) scale 1-5 with 1 indicating lowest applied model; 2 low applied model; 3 moderately applied model; 4 highly applied model; and 5 highest applied model. The structured questionnaire, utilizing a one-on-one interview was applied to collect data. The quantitative data on this variable was triangulated using non-structured questionnaire in the Focused Group Discussion (FGD). Mathematical and statistical measurement of this variables included descriptive analysis (frequency, mean, mode, median), standard deviation, chi-test, t-test and regression analysis.

3.6.2 Dependent variable

The dependent variable of this research assessed the livelihood improvement of the donor funding. Therefore, the dependent variable was defined as an effect or resultant variable. The conceptual theory behind livelihood improvement was based attaining livelihood outcomes in view of people's strategies for earning income, improved wellbeing and food security, reduced vulnerability, ensuring more sustainable use of natural resources, creating employment opportunities, access to credit, social connections and empowerment. Others included vulnerability reduction in view of enhanced resilience to shocks and improved access to essential services and risk management. The livelihood was also measured through environmental management and extent to which the sustainable management of natural resources was facilitated to enable heathier environment.

The study also assessed the extent to which vulnerability and institutional processes helped in realizing the livelihood outcomes. Vulnerability was assessed on factors including climate change, economic trends and political stability as it impacted on the livelihoods of the rural communities. The institutional and delivery processes assessed the policies, laws and social structures at local, national and organizational levels that sharped people's choices and opportunities.

Utilizing the livelihood outcome lens, the dependent variable was operationalized through assessment of improved access to water and sanitation condition of my community; improved access to funding aid conditions; improved access to operational environment; improved community responsibility structures and partnerships; and increased positive perception of aid impact on the recipient community. Others were increased social standing and community recovery from economic crisis; improved food security condition and reduced poverty and hunger;

improved nutrition status; improved income status; improved access to education; and improved access to health care services.

The dependent variable was measured on all livelihood outcomes using a five point Likert scale, where, 1 indicated lowest impact; 2 some impact; 3 moderate impact; 4 high impact; and 5 highest impact. The structured questionnaire, utilizing a one-on-one interview was applied to collect data. The quantitative data on the impact of donor funded projects on food security, income security, health, environment, water and sanitation was triangulated using non-structured questionnaire in the Focused Group Discussion (FGD).

The validity and reliability of this measurement was controlled by focusing on livelihood outcomes categorized under improved human, natural, financial, social and physical capitals. Complete measurement human capital considered skills, health, education and access to knowledge. The natural capital considered the access to land, water and other natural resources. The financial capital measured the income, savings, access to credit and other economic resources. The social capital assessed the networks, relationships and social support provided through donor funding. Lastly, the physical capital assessed support towards infrastructure, tools and equipment provision. Such insightful assessments provided clear boundaries for ensuring validity and reliability of the measurements.

3.6.3 Moderating variable

The moderator variable in this research was the donor funding provided to the community. It was a moderating variable expected to change cause of the problem to attain the desired effects (dependent variable). Realizing the diversity of donor funding such as development aid, humanitarian aid and military aid, this study focused on development funding provided for agricultural development and related projects delivering food security, nutrition improvement,

agricultural technology innovation, agricultural production enhancement and other related funding priorities. Other sectors focusing on health, education and environment were measured in comparison to direct agricultural funding and as livelihood outcome measurements. While various funding mechanisms were available, verifiable data in literature were those reported in OECD ODA funding and provided to Zambia. Others such as NGO funding, funding by charities directly to communities and church organizations were difficult to quantify due to limited accessible information. Being a mediating variable, this variable came after the independent variable (cause) and before the dependent variable (effect). This variable was therefore defined as an intervening factor. Data on this variable was based on literature benchmarked for the period of 10 years (2012 – 2023). This variable was further supported by the control variable that looked into funding type, sector of funding, period of funding and geographical location. This variable was triangulated against the research question on whether the respondent community requested or participated in a food security donor funded project in the past 10 years. The moderator variable was measured on a Likert (ordinal) scale 1-5 with 1 indicating lowest impact; 2 some impact; 3 moderate impact; 4 high impact; and 5 highest impact.

3.6.4 Control variables

The control variables included the location of the project, the funded project and the development sector in which the project was undertaken. The location (district and ward) variables referred to the two study districts of Mazabuka and Monze and two study wards of Magoye and Choongo in Southern Province of Zambia. These location variable was a nominal measurement. Based on the residence of the respondent, the choices were 1 and 2 for Mazabuka and Monze districts with corresponding wards of Magoye and Choongo wards respectively. The data collection on this variable was through a one-on-one structured interview. Quantitative analysis

using SPSS, mathematical and statistical measurements of frequency distribution. The validity and reliability of the measurement was ensured through the one-on-one interview using structured questionnaire, conduct of the interviews within the study areas and observation.

The gender identity variable referred to gender orientation of an individual respondent. This demographic variable had nominal measurement of a choice of 1 or 2 for ‘Male’ or ‘Female’ respectively. Considering some people might prefer not to mention their gender orientation, choice 3 and 4 referred to ‘Other’ and ‘Prefer not to mention’ respectively. The data collection on this variable was through a one-on-one structured interview. Quantitative analysis using SPSS, mathematical and statistical measurements of frequency distribution. The validity and reliability of the measurement was ensured through the structured questionnaire and on personal contact observation.

The age variable referred to the age of an individual respondent. This demographic variable had 10-years interval measurement from 11 years to above 60 years. In the first range, only individuals above the age of 18 years old were considered for interview, eliminating the risk of interviewing a minor. This variable was a nominal scale and data with a single age range selection option. The data was collected through a one-on-one structured interview. Quantitative analysis using mathematical and statistical measurements of frequency, median, variance and standard deviation was conducted. The validity and reliability of the measurement was ensured through the structured questionnaire and on personal contact observation.

The highly funded food security subsector was assessed on a nominal scale. Suggested areas included food production, food diversification, extension, training and technical assistance, irrigation and water conservation, sustainable farming practices, food security/postharvest management, food processing and value addition, and other. This variable was measured on a

Likert (ordinal) scale 1-5 with 1 indicating ‘Not provided donor funding’; 2 ‘rarely provided donor funding’; 3 ‘often provided donor funding’; 4 ‘highly provided donor funding’; and 5 ‘mostly provided donor funding’. The structured questionnaire, utilizing a one-on-one interview was applied to collect data. The quantitative data on the donor motivation factors was triangulated using non-structured questionnaire in the Focused Group Discussion (FGD). Mathematical and statistical measurement of this variable included frequency, mean, mode, median, standard deviation, chi-test, t-test and regression analysis.

The validity and reliability of the mediating variables were ensured through consistent application of data collection (through the structured questionnaire), application of common data collection approaches (one-on-one interview utilizing Likert scale response mechanism) and measured on predetermined factors. These measures ensured accuracy and consistence in data collection and analysis.

3.7 Study Procedures and Ethical Assurances

Prior to data collection, this study received approval from UREC. Approved study instruments included the Research tools, Informed Consent, Gatekeeper letter and REAF DS Form. The UREC approval paved way for data collection. This was an academic and ethical provision of the doctoral studies and done to ensure data collection instruments conformed to the study aims and objectives. In this research, structured and semi-structured questionnaires were applied on randomly selected individuals. To ensure confidentiality and anonymity, each respondent was interviewed in isolation without influence of any other person. The names and traceable record of interview areas or locations were not recorded. The application of kobocollect software in data collection as opposed to paper-based record increased confidentiality. In this research study, professionally administered questionnaire interview through trained enumerators and utilizing the

KoboCollect software as opposed to paper based recording was applied. The choice of professionally administered interview approach against self-administered approach was influenced by the limited literacy levels of some respondents posing challenges in critical reading skills. Self-administered questionnaire approach was not a perfect choice owing to the study population's level of comprehension influenced by low literacy level, age of (some) respondent, level of understanding and cognition of some respondents. Furthermore, self-administered questionnaire largely depended on intermediary data transmission mediums like internet, email and social media platforms. Access to these transmission mediums and application skills among the study population was critically limited.

The KoboCollect mobile App was chosen because it was free, user-friendly (work online and offline), eliminated paper-based records and ensured data protection. The KoboCollect allowed for immediate review of the collected data to correct mistakes, confirm completeness, accuracy and consistency, data analysis capabilities and interface with SPSS and the qualitative data analysis software used in this study.

The structured questionnaire (close-ended) was used to collect quantitative data while checklist (semi structured open ended questionnaire checklist) was used to gather qualitative data. These questionnaires were developed around the three study objectives: to assess impact of donor aid on rural communities in Southern Province of Zambia from the perspectives of the donor, implementing agencies and vulnerable communities; to identify donor support motives and influencing factors; and to explore and propose sustainable social and economic support models for donor aid in rural communities.

This research study had minimal risks. Unforeseen risks were minimized through provision of adequate information on the purpose and objectives of the study. Conformity to ethical conduct

was enforced through signing of Informed Consent with an assurance to withdraw or refuse to answer any question at any time the respondent felt like so and without giving any reasons. The respondent was free from any interpersonal influence by avoiding group interviews except for focused group discussion. The study avoided causing any harm by protecting their privacy and allowed them to choose the interview site.

3.7.1 Pretesting of research instruments and enumerator engagement

In the first stage of the questionnaire design, likelihood of ambiguity in the questionnaire could be found which might lead to lose of time and collection of wrong data. To mitigate the situation, questionnaire pre-testing was cardinal to help identify and remove such ambiguities (Blumberg *et al.,* 2014; Saunders *et al.,* 2019). Therefore, the questionnaire pre-test was done on 10 respondents in Chimbo village in Chibombo district of Central province of Zambia. Chimbo community was similar to the study areas (Choongo and Magoye) in terms of rural dwelling, language, culture, economic activities and donor project activities. The questionnaire pre-test helped in assessing time required to engage one respondent, ensuring consistency in data collection process, reveal any deficiencies in the design of questionnaires and make necessary adjustments in the study instruments (Hurst et al., 2015) before field work. Pretesting was also important in ensuring validity and reliability of the instruments (Saunders et al., 2019). Apart from data collection pre-test, the collected data from pilot community was applied on a ‘dummy’ data analysis tool to check easiness in data capture, analysis and interpretation.

In this study, three local enumerators were engaged and trained in the application of questionnaires, accurate data entry, submission and ethical conduct. Local recruitment of enumerators helped in ensuring familiarity to language, culture and social behavior of the targeted

population. Conducting the interviews through enumerators eliminated researcher professional and practical biases with potential to influence eventual results of the study (Lund et. al., 2011).

3.7.2 Procedure in data collection

3.7.2.1 One-on-one interview

The quantitative data collection was done methodically by following the same sequence from start to finish. Entry to the interview was reading the introductory letter to make known to the respondent the purpose and objectives of the study, explain how ethical conduct such as no harm, anonymity and confidentiality was ensured and to ask for permission to proceed with the interview. Based on the agreed position to proceed, the respondent was asked to sign a consent form. If the respondent desired not be involved, the interview was halted and 15 respondents rejected to be interviewed.

The structured (quantitative) questionnaire was administered on three hundred and twenty two (325) community respondents. Owing to literacy levels, most of the interviews were conducted in the common/local languages (Tonga and Nyanja) spoken in the study areas and only on exceptional cases was English (official language in Zambia) was used. The use of local languages helped in easy understanding and accurate response.

3.7.2.2 Focus group discussion

Focus group discussions provided space for validation, triangulation and gathering of in-depth information to backup quantitative data. Focus group discussions (FDGs) involved twelve (12) government staff and community leaders who were purposely chosen individuals different from those in the one-on-one interview sample.

The discussion session started with brief introduction to the study, explaining the study purpose, objectives, how ethical conduct such as no harm, anonymity and confidentiality was ensured and ask for permission to proceed with the discussion. The whole session was conducted

in a flexible and free atmosphere, allowing equal and active participation of every participant. Respondents were also informed that the discussion was audio recorded to avoid missing vital information, later coding and analysis.

3.8 Ethical Assurances

Research ethics involved moral conduct (Blumberg *et al*., 2014) and acceptable behavior. In conducting this study, measures were taken to avoid compromising the ethical code of conduct and principles. Measures taken included ensuring free-will (autonomy) by obtaining consent to participate, doing good (beneficence), doing no harm (non-maleficence) and social distribution of benefits and burdens (Justice) (White & Rayner, 2014; Luc-Menichelli, 2017).

Considering that this research study dealt with human subjects, the study ethical conduct referred to the way human participants were treated (Simelane-Mnisi, 2018). It was about preservation of their rights, privileges, obligations, preferences and choices. It was also about observing the ethical guidelines and principles (Luc-Menichelli, 2017) to preserve their freedom, avoid distress and harm, and ensure fairness.

The applicability of ethical conduct depended on the research design. The research design moderated the personal judgement, biasness and potential compromise of participant's dignity. Literature cited a lot of unethical conduct, for example, the atrocious experiments of the Nazi Germany that led to the Nuremberg Doctor's trial of 1946 and birth of the Nuremberg Code (1947), notorious research abuses in the Tuskegee syphilis experiments (1932-1972); and the Willowbrook hepatitis study (1956-1972) (Sade, 2003). Such unfortunate potential risks were not feasible in this non-human experiment study. Precaution was further taken by application of the ethical principles and guidelines (Simelane-Mnisi, 2018) on how to avoid harm, respect rights of participants and ensure confidentiality, anonymity and justice (Resnik, 2011).

On the side of participants, research ethics were important in preserving human (and animal) dignity, autonomy, freedom (of choice) and self-determination. Sade (2003) argued that such parameters were realized by ensuring voluntary participation based on informed consent. Voluntary (informed) consent and the need for participant protection was adequately backed by the Nuremberg Code of 1946, the Helsinki Declaration of 1964 and the Belmont Report of 1974 (Sade, 2003).

This study recognized the research participants as equal partners to the research as they engaged in providing data, elaboration, triangulation and validation of results. All these contributions gave research participants a special recognition that deserved ethical consideration.

On the side of the researcher, ethical guidelines entailed responsible behavior and practice of good moral conduct (Simelane-Mnisi, 2018). Researcher's moral conduct and good behavior provided public assurance on participant rights, safety and avoidance of conflict of interest (Makubalo et. al., 2017) and through them, avoided harming participants or members of the community. In this research, the following specific ethical contemplations were considered.

3.8.1 Obtaining (written) consent

According to Belmont Report of 1979 and Nuremberg Code of 1947, informed consent was one of the founding principles of research ethics as it ensured self-determination, free-will and freedom of choice. Informed consent was obtained through written Informed Consent forms that clearly outlined the study topic, purpose, objectives and significance and after full disclosure of the participants' rights protection, intention and use of the study, study procedures, potential risks and accrued benefits (Shahnazarian et al., 2018). In this study, written informed consent forms was there to legitimately protect both the researcher and the participant and ensured voluntary participation and autonomy. Shahnazarian et al. (2018) defined autonomy as participation freewill,

exercised by a person with legal capacity and choice to consent without force, fraud, deceit, duress or coercion. However, in the event of less literate individuals, a witness was asked to ascertain that the respondent received adequate explanation on the aspect of the study and agreed to proceed as a respondent.

3.8.2 Confidentiality, privacy and anonymity

Confidentiality in this research was a critical aspect. In dealing with ethical issues, confidentiality was sometimes confused with privacy concepts (Lo & O'Connell, 2019). However, both confidentiality and privacy were considered in this study. According to Lo and O'Connell (2019), confidentiality involved nondisclosure of private respondent information in research. Despite being in a privileged position, the researcher had no right, by professional codes of conduct and by law, to disclose privileged information. This was ensured through the written Informed Consent and given full disclosure about the degree of confidentiality, what the information provided would be used for, how it would be processed, how it would be stored and retrieved, analyzed and reported (Makubalo et. al., 2017; White & Rayner, 2014). Confidentiality was also ensured by elimination or keeping secret personal identity information (name, address, communication contact etc.). This research study did not collect any biometric data (face identification, iris, finger prints, palm reader etc.) and avoided high level ethical violations (Simelane-Mnisi, 2018). This study was not focused on any institution and therefore, the integrity of specific institutions were not compromised. Rather, the study avoided violation of institutional privacy, confidentiality and integrity laws.

In this study, the aspect of privacy was dealt with by ensuring secrecy, anonymity, seclusion and avoiding intimate relationships with the study participants. Privacy could be violated if others obtained information about a person that he or she wanted to keep inaccessible (Lo &

O'Connell, 2019). This was ensured by guaranteeing freedom not to participate, not to answer any question/part of the question or withdraw at any stage of the interview. Privacy was also ensured by conducting interviews at a central location to avoid intruding on personal privacy of other family members who were not involved in the research activity.

3.8.3 Avoiding harm / participant discomfort

Connected to confidentiality, this research had a responsibility to harm no one (non-maleficence) and to balance between risks and benefits to participants (beneficence). Harm could be caused through many ways including cohesion, misrepresentation of facts and taking advantage of the vulnerability of participants. These vices were totally avoided and protected. To avoid anxiety and falsehood on the collected data, this research study checked and triangulated information collected before filling the datasets.

3.8.4 Formal approval of the study

Like in any research study, the researcher had legal and ethical responsibilities under the common rules and answerable to UREC approval procedure. It was mandatory for the researcher to obtain UREC approval on the research design, research approach and methodology, data collection tools and consents. The researcher received the UREC approval on 9th Feb 2023 and the Gatekeeper's consent on 11th Feb 2023.

3.8.5 Role of the researcher in the study

The role of the researcher was to clearly design the research, develop research approaches and methodology and data collection tools and collect data, analyze and interpret data. Other roles included avoidance of personal interest, conflict of interest, biases, misinterpretation and wrong extrapolation of results to suit personal agenda. In respect of fair play, the researcher clearly

avoided unwarranted generalization while unanticipated negative consequences were controlled through a pilot exercise.

3.8.6 Steps towards ethical Assurances

Ethical considerations resonated with the application of ethical guidelines and principles in accordance with the Belmont Report of 1974 that articulated the *Ethical Principles and Guidelines for the Protection of Human Subjects of Research*. Simelane-Mnisi (2018) argued that ethical considerations were key reminders of what needed to be considered as opposed to mere assumptions of specific ethical judgements. White and Rayner (2014) recommended full disclosure of research purpose; seeking participant consent for self-determination; avoiding deception and misrepresentation; safeguarding participant and community rights; ensuring confidentiality and privacy of personal data; and ensuring the right to withdraw one person or information. Dudovskiy (2018) reinforced White and Rayner's (2014) view point on ethical considerations by adding the need to respect the dignity of society by doing no harm to research participants and the environment, building trust with participants, ensuring participant autonomy and privacy, and respecting participant opinions and perceptions.

In order to address above ethical considerations, the following precautions were taken. Firstly, respecting research participants began from non-treatment of them as 'subjects or respondents'. White and Rayner (2014) argued that research participants applied their physical, mental and emotional abilities and treating them as subjects would be diminutive of their effort and constituted a violation of beneficence principle. Lascelles (2017) also argued that the term 'subject' inferred doing things for other people rather than with them, meaning participants contributed nothing in the research process. In respect of that, building trust began from treating participants as critical contributors to research as without them this research could not have been

accomplished. Secondly, voluntary participation in research was important. This was in recognition of the right to withdraw from the study engagement any time as well as the right to withhold any information one wished not to share. The principle of informed consent was the basis for voluntary participation which was dependent on researcher's full disclosure of information including assurance on participation implications. In light of that no participant was coerced, bribed or forced to participate. Thirdly, the use of defamatory, offensive or other unacceptable language was avoided in the formulation of research instruments as well as all forms of communication, especially during interviews and Focus Group Discussion. Whenever required, the researcher kept the anonymity of individual participants and kept every data in all forms (raw, analyzed and achieved) confidential. Unauthorized disclosure of private information, whether internationally or unintentionally, constituted non-maleficence abuse (Hepler & Staller, 2023) and was avoided. Fourthly, the researcher was expected to be objective by acknowledging other authorities on the phenomenon through adequate referencing. None recognition of other authorities was a case of plagiarism which could have lead to rejection of this study outputs. Fifthly, adherence to ethical principles provided by regulatory bodies such as UREC and universities such as the Data Protection Act (1998) was the hallmark of reliability, applicability and generality of the research output. Failure to following disciplinary code of conduct could have construed failed judgement against the ethical principles as the researcher could have been seen to set own rules.

Avoiding obligation of ethical issues was a critical measurement taken by the researcher. In the first instance, the researcher had the proposed research concept cleared by UNICAF Ethics Committee / Institutional Review Board to ensure conformity with the universal academic codes of conduct, standards, norms and procedures of research (Blumberg *et al*., 2014; Simelane-Mnisi, 2018). Ethical consideration in research was very important as it reinforced the ethical principles

that ensured good moral conduct. It was imperative that the researcher protected the interests of participants and every stakeholder against apparent and potential harm throughout the research process. In all respects, everyone in the research process had rights and privileges which were balanced by ethics. Since the researcher depended on the participants for a conclusive end of research study, the researcher and participants were equal partners and no harm on either of the two parties was ensured.

3.9 Data Collection and Analysis

The focus of this research study was to assess effects and consequences of development aid supporting food, income, health, water and sanitation in rural areas. Aim (quantitative goal) was to evaluate the impact of donor funding on rural society and purpose (qualitative goal) was to explore the trend in grant aid resource flow and its motives, gather beneficiary' perspectives on experienced impact and identify effective support model for human development. The three research objectives included: to assess impact of donor aid on rural communities in Southern Province of Zambia from the perspectives of the donor, implementing agencies and vulnerable communities; to identify donor support motives and influencing factors; and to explore and propose sustainable social and economic support models for donor aid in rural communities.

Data collection was done using the questionnaire (quantitative) and checklist (qualitative) see Appendix A). The qualitative questionnaire was designed following the three research objectives. Overall the questionnaire included nominal questions (accept/reject; district, areas), dichotomous questions (yes/No and Male/Female), filter or contingency questions and Likert scale questions. The first section of the questionnaire addressed objective one and provided questions that gathered perspectives of communities on the impact of donor aid on the community in general and water and sanitation, poverty and hunger, nutrition, food, income, health care, education,

economic recovery and social standing in particular. The second section addressed objective two and posed questions that addressed the motivation factors that influenced donors and communities. The third section addressed objective three and questioned the donor funding delivery models in respect of the food security sub-sector (production, diversification, training and extension, sustainable farming practices, irrigation and water conservation, food storage and post-harvest management and value addition). Other aspects assessed included most frequently applied model, the funding aid supply channel, conditions attached to funding aid provision and institution that mostly deliver donor funding aid. The last part questioned the decision making and partnership arrangements. This questioning process addressed the research questions that included 1) Why was there limited evidence of lasting change from donor aid provided to vulnerable communities? 2) What were the funding models applied? 3) To what extent the known and unknown motives affected the performance of the donor fund? And 4) Was there need to change the delivery model?

The data was collected from community members, in particular farmers that participated in donor funded projects in the past 10 years, using a one-on-one interview. The process involved interviewing each participant on the above aspects on a single interview. To collect data, Kobocollect software was used. No name of the participant was included in the questionnaire, the only delimitation information provided were district and area names and age of the participant (to ensure application of Informed Consent). This process ensured confidentiality, anonymity and privacy. Each question was numbered and coded.

The qualitative questionnaire was open-ended to allow for flexibility and free flow of the discussions. The FGD checklist was designed to triangulate the information from the quantitative questionnaire and directed at key informants who were different individuals from those that participated in the quantitative survey. The FGD was organized in group setup, soliciting

participation of every one that attended. Appendix 2 indicate the question checklist applied in the study. In the summary questions reflected on the donor projects implemented in the study in the past 10 years, appropriateness of the models were applied and assessment of the impact created based on the beneficiary experience. The FDG also discussed donor and community motivations, challenges and means to minimize them.

Data analysis was not a standalone activity but started from research design and study protocols, data collection, interpretation and conclusion. According to Collis and Hussey (2014), there was a direct link between data collection and data analysis.

As a mixed method parallel convergent design approach guided data collection and analysis. Data analysis involved analysis of quantitative and qualitative data separately but systematically and simultaneously to find logic, describe, condense and evaluate data. Recognizing the link between questionnaire design, data collection and analysis, prior steps to data analysis included defining study objectives, framing the study questionnaire, data collection and data scrubbing. Data scrubbing involved exploring data and finding patterns (Grant, 2020). Grant (2020) described data analysis as a process of evaluating data using analytical or statistical tools to discover useful information. Stevens (2022) described four data analysis types to assess what happened, why it happened, what was likely to happen in the future and what was the cause of action. This research combined descriptive (what happened?), diagnostic (why did it happen?) and prescriptive (what was the best course of action?) data analytics. Descriptive analytics looked at what happened in the past without digging deeper on the reasons why it happened. As a build-up on descriptive analysis, the diagnostic analysis went deeper into understanding why something happened. The prescriptive analysis built on the first two to determine the cause of action (model development). By taking these three analytic systems, the researcher adequately responded to the

three objectives of the study namely ‘to assess the impact of donor aid (what happened?), to identify donor support motives and influencing factors (why did it happen?) and to explore sustainable social and economic support models (what was the best course of action?).

The actual data analysis involved data mining, text analytics and data visualization. Grants (2020) defined data mining as a method of data analysis for discovering patterns in large data sets using statistics and artificial intelligence to turn data into business decisions. This process helped in identifying and excluding outliers in the data.

The critical tool used for quantitative data analysis was SPSS version 26 and Microsoft excel. The research questions were 1) What influence did donor aid had on livelihoods of vulnerable people? 2) What was the level of knowledge on donor motives that drove provision of donor aid? 3) To what extent were donor motivations in line with the community motivations? 4) How did the delivery channels and models help in taking resources to rural vulnerable communities?

The quantitative questionnaire included nominal questions (accept/reject); dichotomous questions (yes/No and Male/Female); filter or contingency questions (district, areas); and Likert scale questions. The nominal, dichotomous and contingency questions were analyzed by frequency. The Likert scale used in this study was five psychometric response score/variable scale. Being ordinal, the Likert scale depicted that one scale was higher than another. These data was analyzed by finding the mean, median, mode and central tendency using standard deviation to describe the scale. Other tests included chi-square test, t-test, ANOVA and regression procedures. In summary, the quantitative analysis was undertaken as summarized in Table 3.4

Table 3.4

Variable And Statistical Measurements

Type of variable	Construct/ Variable	Measurement scale	Mathematical and Statistical measurement
Independent	Donor aid	Nominal scale	Frequency, mean, mode, median and standard deviation.
Moderator	Donor motivation	Likert (ordinal) scale	Frequency, mean, mode, median, standard deviation, chi-test, t-test and regression analysis.
	Community motivation	Likert (ordinal) scale	Frequency, mean, mode, median, standard deviation, chi-test, t-test and regression analysis.
Mediating	Donor aid delivery model	Nominal scale	Frequency, mean, mode, median and standard deviation
	Frequently applied funding model	Likert (ordinal) scale	Frequency, mean, mode, median, standard deviation, chi-test, t-test and regression analysis.
	Preferred supply channel	Likert (ordinal) scale	Frequency, mean, mode, median, standard deviation, chi-test, t-test and regression analysis
	Community readiness	Nominal scale	Frequency, mean, mode, median and standard deviation.
	Donor conditions	Likert (ordinal) scale	Frequency, mean, mode, median, standard deviation, chi-test, t-test and regression analysis
	Active donor fund agencies	Likert (ordinal) scale	Frequency, mean, mode, median, standard deviation, chi-test, t-test and regression analysis
Control	District and ward	Nominal scale	Frequency, mean and standard deviation
	Most funded FS subsector	Likert (ordinal) scale	Frequency, mean, mode, median, standard deviation, chi-test, t-test and regression analysis.
Confounding	Experienced donor project	Nominal scale	Frequency, mean, mode, median and standard deviation
Dependent	Livelihood improvement	Nominal scale	Frequency, mean, mode, median, standard deviation, chi-test, t-test and regression analysis

Note: Table 3.4 indicated the type of variables, actual variable, the proposed measurement scale and the mathematical and statistical measurements. *Source: Field data.*

Noting that data was not just numbers (quantitative) but text (qualitative) as well, text analytics or text mining was a vital process of finding useful information from text. The study processed qualitative data using content method and grounded theory aided by Nvivo version 14 software application (Crosley, 2020). The content method was used to find patterns. According to Charmaz (2022), grounded theory was a systematic inductive method for conducting qualitative research towards theory development. The grounded theory approach helped in analyzing qualitative data by finding repeating themes, coding data, identifying theory and drawing conclusions.

Critical steps in qualitative data analysis included reading through data, re-reading data to mark significant points and re-read data to sort, categorize and code significant points in terms of themes. The last involved downloading information into coding grid.

Coding was a qualitative data analysis strategy that involved assignment of a descriptive label to identify related content in the data (Crosley & Rautenbach, 2020). A code was a label that described the content in text while qualitative data coding was the process of creating and assigning codes to categorize data extracts (Crosley & Rautenbach, 2020). Through coding, data was labeled and grouped into similar types of data to generate categories and themes and ensure data validity. The two main types of coding were deductive and inductive coding (Crosley & Rautenbach, 2020). Deductive coding involved using pre-established codes based on research questions while inductive coding referred to codes created from the data itself. Inductive coding was also important in this study because the research itself explored the subject less known and investigated new ideas and concepts to create new theories. This study applied hybrid coding (mixed deductive and inductive coding).

The steps taken in coding and qualitative analysis included initial coding, line-by-line coding, code categorization and theme identification. The main approaches to initial coding included in-vivo coding, process or action-based coding, open coding, descriptive coding, structural coding and value coding (Crosley & Rautenbach, 2020). Initially this research used deductive coding based on the research questions and objectives. The line-by-line coding was done to add details to the first coding as well as coding everything in the dataset. The next step was code categorization to build connection between different groups of codes. The last step was identification of themes in the data. The themes helped draw meaning and produced the narrative based on the research aims, objectives and questions (Crosley & Rautenbach, 2020).

3.10 Chapter Summary

The researcher chose the mixed method approach and parallel convergent design to respond to the study aim, purpose, objectives, key questions and hypotheses. The research approach and design responded to the sixteen (16) research construct variables that included the Independent (subject variable) dependent (predictive, mediator, criterion, exploratory and outcome) variables. The researcher applied probability (purposeful and convenient and judgmental) sampling and non-probability (stratified and systematic random) sampling. Data collection was carried out using interviews and focused group discussions.

Data analysis was the ultimate stage at which results of the study were obtained, interpreted and concluded. This meant creating a relationship between the analysis protocol with data collection instruments and approach which also depended on the research design. The research approach and design drew its relations from the research purpose, objectives, questions and hypothesis. Interconnectedness of the research blocks was critical for a successful research study. In this study therefore, care was taken to ensure research purpose, objectives, questions and

hypothesis data collection tools spoke to each other. Therefore, appropriate definition of the construct variables set the pace for data analysis, interpretation and triangulation.

To ensure reliability and validity of the research study, conformity to ethical principles was important. In this respect, the role of UREC in setting the ethical boundaries of the researcher and entire research process was a critical step in obtaining a peer reviewed research outcome. Throughout this study, stringent measures were taken to ensure ethical conduct during data collection, analysis and reporting.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

This study was conducted to assess the impact of donor aid on the farming rural communities utilizing their experience and personal perspectives. The study topic was chosen in recognition of the perceived role donor aid played in mitigating economic, social and political injustices (Deutscher & Tyson, 2008; Annen & Moers, 2012). The study topic was influenced by purported lack of sustainable change in the lives of rural farming communities that continuously received donor support (Mundell, 2009; Yator, 2012; Taber, 2013; Karanja, 2013; and Kuria & Wanyoike, 2016, Alemu & Lee, 2015; Alghamdi, 2016; Mutsumara, 2015). It was estimated that, since 1960, approximately US$3.2 trillion was provided (Deutscher & Fyson, 2008) by donors but the impact was mixed (Mundell, 2009; Flengler & Kharas, 2010; Yator, 2012; Taber, 2013; Karanja, 2013; Mutsumara, 2015; Alemu & Lee, 2015; Kuria & Wanyoike, 2016; Alghamdi, 2016). In Zambia, the country received approximately a total of US$14 billion between 2010 and 2021 but poverty averaged 56.94%.

Looking at the various philanthropic sectors (humanitarian, emergency, military and development aid) the study focused on development aid provided to support improve livelihoods of rural communities that depended on agriculture for food security, income security, access to health, education, water and sanitation. As compared to humanitarian, emergency and military aid, development aid was designed to address systemic challenges such as food insecurity, hunger, poverty and vulnerability. It was also aimed at addressing the systemic challenges by addressing the root causes. In comparison, humanitarian, emergency and military aid were designed to solve the immediate problem from a known natural phenomena (drought, floods, hurricanes, landslides etc.) and human induced actions such as war, internal displacements etc. The humanitarian,

military and emergency responses were usually one-off and well targeted. Experiencing limited impact in the midst of huge aid investment was worrisome and needed a clear understanding of the root-causes by investigating the motives, delivery mechanism and the models applied. In this regard, assessing the impact of donor (development) aid required an evaluation of the underlying factors to positive or negative effects observed in supported sectors such as agriculture.

The overall goal of the study was to evaluate the impact of donor funding on vulnerable communities, most of them rural population that depended on seasonal farming as a major source of livelihood. The research was concerned with unnoticeable and unverifiable incremental change in the rural communities' livelihoods following continued support from donors (Cha & Ramesh, 2017; Shende, 2017). In light of the mixed impact position of donor aid impact, critical questions that begged answers were RQ1: Why was there limited evidence of lasting change from donor aid provided to vulnerable communities? RQ2: What were the funding models applied? RQ3: To what extent the known and unknown motives affected the performance of the donor fund? RQ4: Was there need to change the delivery model?

Driven by these questions, the purpose of this research was to 'explore the trend in grant aid resource flow and its motives, build impact measurement from the beneficiary's lens and contribute to the body of knowledge on effective philanthropic support mechanism for human development'. The purpose was set out to address four critical segments including impact measurements mainly based on the past experiences of the beneficiary communities; assess the trend in the aid flow and models applied; assess the motivations and influencing factors; and recommend a shift to appropriate model that create impact from donor aid investment. To learn from the past, the study focused on the reflective process to assess the development aid in the past 10 years and directed at communities that participated in food security projects. Motivation and

influencing factors were assessed at the donor, intermediary agents and beneficiary community levels. This was within the assumptions that the three players in the philanthropic supply chain had different motives and were influenced by internal and external forces. Impact measurement was a critical segment in the study based on the understanding that every player in the supply chain had a different opinion. The donors and intermediary agents had systems such as monitoring and evaluation that informed their performance measurements over time and for various projects. Their community counterparts however, had limited voice on the performance of the donor funded projects apart from pre-designed evaluation surveys conducted based on pre-set terms of reference. The study therefore, focused on enlisting community voices as the key primary target for which impact was intended to be evidenced. Based on the above three segments, the last purpose of the study was to suggest change in the delivery mechanism.

The critical voice of the beneficiary community was amplified in the development of research objectives which also reflected the four cornerstones highlighted in the study purpose. The objectives of the study included assessment of the impact of donor aid on rural communities based on the stakeholder perspectives; identification of donor support motives and influencing factors; assessing the supply models and recommend for changed model gravitating towards a more sustainable social and economic support models.

Enlisting answers to the research goal, purpose, research questions and objectives required a well-structured study protocol. The nature of the study combined ontology, epistemology and axiology (Mundell, 2009; Yator, 2012; Taber, 2013; Karanja, 2013; and Kuria & Wanyoike, 2016). Ontology helped in assessing the existence of things and considered as reflective of the real world. In this study, ontological approach helped in understanding the behavior, beliefs and motivations of the funding agencies, intermediary agencies and beneficiary communities. The understanding

of behaviors, beliefs and motivations was important because the art of giving and receiving was mainly influenced by these factors. Epistemology, as a component of philosophy study (cognitive sciences, cultural studies and history of science) supported knowledge acquisition. In simpler terms, epistemology helped in building knowledge around this study phenomenon. In this study, epistemological approach was adopted for its contribution to the development of appropriate funding model that created value in the communities. Epidemiology, mainly a health scientific method, was a problem-solving tool to get to the root-cause of the problem in a given sector. Axiology, a branch of practical philosophy, was applied to provide answers to plurality and heterogeneity of value variables towards building new realities. In this study, axiological approach was applied to address mixed impact perceptions as it related to value proposition of the donor aid.

Throughout the study literature, no clear-cut position was provided on the impact of donor aid (Mundell, 2009; Yator, 2012; Taber, 2013; Karanja, 2013; Flengler & Kharas, 2010; Mutsumara, 2015; Alemu & Lee, 2015; Kuria & Wanyoike, 2016; Alghamdi, 2016) but rather the impact of donor aid was questioned by every stakeholder including donors, intermediary agencies and community beneficiaries.

To ground the research study in proven theories, an inspiration was drawn from the theoretical and conceptual frameworks determined during the secondary data review. The theoretical framework identified Resource Dependence Theory developed by Pfeffer and Salancik in 1978 and underscored by Delke (2011) as a theory that linked people's dependence behavior on external resources. The theory was concerned with the power relations or rather how donors (providers of aid) related with each other as donors and the community (as recipient of aid) in the midst of resource sharing. The assumption of the Resource Dependence Theory was that while the

parties were expected to be in a mutual partnership, it was not possible for them to be at equal level in the utilization of resources as their business interests might differ (Davis & Cobb, 2009).

The conceptual framework identified the Interdependence Theory that explained the human interdependence behavior between those that had surplus (regarded as donors) and those that were deprived of resources (Juliao, 2021). In this study, the Interdependence Theory recognized the interplay between the donors and beneficiary communities within the confines of the resource flow mechanism that joined together with motivation or drivers of aid giving towards an envisioned impact on livelihoods of vulnerable communities. The interdependence theory put the donors and the communities at the center of discussion while the projects (and associated resources) and intermediary agents played a facilitator role in donor aid support architecture.

To investigate and assess the above questions and objectives, as well as qualify the study theories in the context of the study phenomena, a mixed method approach and parallel convergent design in data collection and analysis was applied. The focused group discussions (using semi-structured questionnaire), was used to collect qualitative data that expressed participant personal perceptions, opinions and experiences. The qualitative data was analyzed using the Nvivo 14 software. The qualitative data helped in interpreting the quantitative (statistical) data collected through one-on-one interviews using structured questionnaire. The quantitative data was analyzed using the SPSS version 26, Microsoft excel and Statistical calculations.

The study was undertaken in Mazabuka (Magoye ward) and Monze (Choongo ward) in the Southern Province of Zambia, Southern Africa, from 15th February to 4th March 2023, and ensured sufficient interaction. The choice of the study areas was mainly dictated by the study topic that demanded for assessment to be done in rural farming communities and in communities that experienced donor aid in the past ten (10) years. Zambia was highly donor dependent. The country

had 10 provinces and among them, Southern province received the highest donor funded projects followed by Eastern province and Central province. Therefore, the choice of Southern province was based on the intensity of donor projects in the previous 10 years. The choice of the two districts (Mazabuka and Monze) and corresponding wards of (Magoye and Choongo) were based on parameters such as rural setting, poverty and vulnerability of the communities, the flow of donor resources over a period of ten (10) years and the continued presence of various donor institutions providing funding in the areas. The collected quantitative data was managed and analyzed using SPSS version 26, Microsoft excel and statistical calculations. The qualitative data was managed and analyzed using Nvivo version 14.

This chapter provided the findings of the study. The reporting tone was one that elucidated the practical steps undertaken to ensure trustworthiness, reliability and validity of data before presenting the actual findings and its evaluation. Structurally, this chapter began with trustworthiness of qualitative data and reliability and validity of quantitative data before presenting the findings. The findings were presented with quotations of respondent voices to give legitimacy to the information. This chapter also gave an evaluation of the findings to help in drawing conclusions. The last section of the chapter summarized key points as a way of concluding the report.

4.1 Trustworthiness of Data

This section highlighted the trustworthiness of qualitative data collection, analysis and interpretation. The main objective of the qualitative study component was to explore participant perspectives, opinions and experiences to help in interpretation of statistical data from the quantitative approach. Perceptions, opinions and experience sharing posed challenges in reporting and interpretation. To counter the challenge, the trustworthiness rigor suggested by Lincoln and

Guba in 1985 and referred to as the Four-Dimension Criteria (Forero et. al., 2018) was adopted. The four dimension criteria referred to credibility, dependability, transferability and confirmability (Carcary, 2009; Houghton et. al., 2012). In this regard, the research demanded for data that was sincere, consistent and applicable in different set-ups with similar operational environment where it could easily be confirmed.

Credibility demanded for interpretation of the research content in a sincere manner to enable others see value in the findings (Sikolia et. al., 2013). This demanded a number of steps that included preparation of reliable and reviewed data collection instruments, flexibility in data collection, reliable data capture and archiving system, informant feedback, data transcript review and interpretation as well as reporting using participants' words.

For reliable and reviewed data collection instruments, the researcher developed the qualitative and quantitative questionnaires and submitted them for review, verification and approval by the Supervisor. The Supervisor's feedback ensured peer review and examination of the proposed study instruments to ensure alignment with the purpose and research questions. Following Supervisor's review, the proposed data collection methods and tools were submitted to the UREC committee for approval. The UNICAF Research Ethics Committee (UREC) approval was obtained on 9th February 2023 and signaled commencement of field data collection. The structured and semi-structured questionnaires were pretested in a non-research area to verify the relevance and applicability of the instrument.

Flexibility in data collection was ensured through diverse data collection approaches. The qualitative data was collected through a focused group discussion using semi-structured (open-ended) questionnaire. The focused group discussions were conducted mainly with groups of people that experienced donor aided projects in the previous ten (10) years. The 10 years period was

benchmark to ensure adequate collection of information from long time experiences. The responses were audio and text recorded to ensure back-copy availability.

The quantitative data was collected through a one-on-one interview using structured (close-ended) questionnaire. The quantitative questionnaire was uploaded in the KoboCollect software which provided space for prompt and accurate recording of responses. Side notes were kept to ensure no vital data was missed. All data was collected in the local environment (villages) and avoided change of environment related stress. The audio, text and KoboCollect software provided reliable data capture and archiving mechanisms. Informant feedback was solicited from purposely sampled individuals from the key institutions in the donor aid support system. To ensure triangulation of data, the researcher separated the respondents of the quantitative survey from those that participated in the qualitative survey. This enabled comparison of uninfluenced feedback from the quantitative individual responses. The independent feedback from the two segments in the study throughout the data collection process helped in the triangulation of data.

In undertaking the qualitative data analysis, the researcher reviewed all transcripts for coding and identification of themes. Regular review of the transcripts helped in the understanding of the data and eventual interpretation. The application of manual and Nvivo computer qualitative data analysis software provided deep insight in the underlying message and meaning of collected data. The qualitative data further helped in the interpretation of the quantitative data findings. Both qualitative and quantitative findings were interpreted in close reference to the research objectives and evaluated for in-depth understanding of the underlying messages. In order to ensure factual reporting, the findings and interpretation of the data contained actual statements from the respondents so as to ensure trustworthiness of data (Burnard et. al., 2008).

Dependability was important in ensuring repeatability in the study protocol, data collection process and data analysis. The researcher developed a detailed study process from development of study instruments, pretesting of the questionnaires in non-study area in Chibombo district, programme for field survey and training of enumerators and manual analysis of the study findings. Uploading of the questionnaire into the KoboCollect helped in the assessment and alignment of questions and possible answers. Pre-testing of the questionnaires in the non-study areas helped in alignment and adjustment of responses to ensure consistence and relevance as well as timing the interview process. The study questionnaire survey was therefore timed and provided a clear timeframe for execution. The entire data collection process was recorded for future reference. Dependability was also critical in data analysis. Therefore the study applied Nvivo Version 14 in analysis of qualitative data while quantitative data was analyzed using SPSS Version 26. These computer analytical tools were proven and applied in various study disciplines.

Consistency or dependability was also ensured by careful selection of communities that experienced donor funding for a period of ten (10) years. The study selected Choongo and Magoye communities because they participated in donor aided projects for the past ten years and they provided vital experience needed to validate the results of the study. The two areas experienced donor aided projects, among them, agriculture and food security, health, water and sanitation, education and children's rights. The study applied non-probability sampling to identify the districts, specific areas of study and selecting key informants. The districts of Mazabuka and Monze, and respective wards (Magoye and Choongo) were purposefully sampled based on their long-term engagement in donor aided projects. Convenience and judgmental sampling was applied to select key informants. The study targeted community leaders and representatives from government ministries and implementing agencies based on their engagement in agricultural

projects. In this study, the District Agricultural Coordinator from the Ministry of Agriculture and Ministry of Fisheries and Livestock in Monze office acted as Gatekeepers and tasked to arrange the meetings with the targeted participants. Invitation emails and physical contacts were made to invite participants. The invitations were based on criterion sampling to ensure only those with long-term experience relating to donor aid projects and resident in the research districts were eligible. Targeted for the study included Executive Committee of the Community-based organizations, District Expert Team members and district heads from Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Fisheries and Livestock, Ministry of Community Development and Ministry of Local Government. Others were heads of non-governmental organizations. Based on availability and willingness to take part in the study, participants that participated came from the Community leadership, Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Fisheries and Livestock, and Ministry of Community Development.

The qualitative data was collected through Focused Group Discussions. The focused group discussions were prearranged and conducted in the places convenient for the respondents. Focused group discussion was conducted with the community leaders that came together and conducted mainly in the local language to ensure clarity and full participation of all respondents. The discussions concentrated on four open questions though triangulation questions were asked just for clarity of the responses.

To further ensure dependability, the researcher provided detailed description of the research methods and consulted peers in the analysis process. The researcher also repeated the step-by-step questioning in the focused group discussions. With participant permission, interviews were audio recorded and transcribed for analysis. The recordings in local (native) language were

expertly translated and manually transcribed because it was not possible to transcribe such a recording using Nvivo.

Literature identified various qualitative data analysis methods including content analysis, thematic analysis, narrative analysis, grounded theory analysis and discourse analysis (hotjar, 2023). The main strategy selected was thematic and content analysis. The thematic analysis allowed for qualitative data analysis including coding, categorization and development of themes. The analysis was conducted in three stages. In the first stage, content analysis was applied to identify key concepts. The researcher went through the transcribed data several times before coding to have insight on the underlying message from the data. The second stage involved coding of the transcripts. In this qualitative data analysis, the researcher first attempted manual analysis using Microsoft Word before application of the Nvivo software. This was done to gain more insight on the data and the likely results. Hybrid coding, a combination of the inductive and deductive coding, was chosen for its combined advantages and positive attributes (Crosley, 2020) such as reduced potential error and room to explore and investigate new ideas, concepts and theories. Alongside it, the researcher applied descriptive coding, in-vivo coding and value coding as the combination provided the completeness, relativity and relevance of the data. For familiarization of the data, the researcher started with manual coding before application of Nvivo software. The manual coding process started with initial coding (reading and re-reading the texts) to come-up with initial codes. The line-by-line coding involved reviewing data line-by-line to assign additional and in-depth codes from each line and this was done with the help of Microsoft word. This process resulted in 159 codes. To clean up the codes, the list was alphabetically sequenced to group together similar and same codes and control contradictory codes. This process reduced the codes to 24. With this level of understanding, the researcher applied the Nvivo software that realized the

codebooks (see Appendix B). The third stage of analysis involved the positive and negative sentiment assessment based on the participant experiences and perspectives. The fourth and final stage of analysis involved theme identification to generate theory-driven impact assessment and recommendations. The final stage was interpretation (see Appendix B) and reporting of results using actual statement from respondents.

Transferability of data referred to external validity of research findings or methods from one study group to another (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). The Zambia administrative hierarchy has a four tier system that comprised provinces, districts, constituencies and wards. The province and district hierarchical regions carried characteristics of ethnicity, culture and socioeconomic factors of the Central, Eastern, Luapula, Lusaka, Muchinga, Northern, North-western, Western and Southern regions. This research was conducted in Southern Province of Zambia, a region which was ethnically Tonga speaking people with an estimated population of 2,195,416 (2021) and experiencing an annual population increase of 2.29 percentage (Knoema, 2021) while Mazabuka and Monze districts had a cumulative population of 386,525 people (Zamstat, 2019). The selected Magoye and Choongo wards had a population of 16,466 people. These two communities experienced various donor aid projects from diverse sources. In this study, same data collection methods were used in the two different locations. More so, during the pre-test, the same study tools and research methods were applied in Chibombo district of Central Province of Zambia, an ethnically Soli and Lenje regions compared to the Tonga regions of Southern Province of Zambia. The diversity in the areas studied and the various donor projects implemented in the study areas signified the transferability of the findings to other areas in similar operational environment (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). The qualitative study was processed until data saturation was reached.

Confirmability, also called neutrality, depended on credibility, transferability and dependability (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011) in that the measures taken ensured impartiality in the conduct of the researcher. In its inception, the study was not sponsored or commissioned by any interest party for the purposes of confirming their opinion or justifying their existence. The research was developed purely for academic work to contribute to the body of knowledge in the philanthropic industry. Therefore, the researcher was not under pressure from any source and all results of the study had no consequence on the researcher. In the absence of external pressure, the researcher remained independent and objective in conducting research and communicating results. In this regard, the researcher ensured academic integrity. During the research process, the researcher was aware of the personal biases that might occur. To counter that, the researcher recorded personal feelings and insights at the end of every interview to ensure such did not permeate through the respondent positions. The researcher also used reflective approach by avoiding to lead or give suggestions during the interview. Through this process, new insights came out from every interview in both qualitative and quantitative interviews without the researcher's influence. The researcher ensured honesty by including all results in the report in the manner the respondents said them. Remaining within the mandate of the research was critical to ensure unrelated or un-researched information was not included in the findings. Table 4.1 summarized the strategies used to achieve trustworthiness of data.

Table 4.1

Strategies Used To Achieve Trustworthiness Of Data

Rigour	Purpose	Strategies applied

Credibility	To establish confidence and trustfulness of data.	Spent thirteen (13) days engaging varied participants and pretested the questionnaire in a non-study area. Researcher had expertise in conducting qualitative and quantitative studies and trained enumerators in the use of the study instruments. Documented materials were collected and securely achieved with back-ups for analysis. The process also received Supervisory review of the study instruments, consulted colleagues and obtained UREC approval of the study instruments before application.
Dependability	To ensure the repeatability.	Prepared detailed drafts of the study protocol during the study and kept detailed track record of the data collection process. Applied Nvivo version 14 in analysis of qualitative data and applied SPSS version 26 in analysis of quantitative data. The report included quoted text from the respondents.
Transferability	To ensure generalizability of results.	Used a combination of sampling methods (purposeful sampling, convenience and judgmental sampling). Used same survey tools in study areas with ten years experience. Ensured operational and theoretical data saturation.
Confirmability	To ensure peer review confirmation	Conducted constant review of the collected data and applied triangulation techniques (diverse data sources and quantitative data check). The study was not influenced from outside forces with internal motives. Ensured honesty and impartiality in data reporting.

Note: Table 4.1 indicated the strategies used to achieve trustworthiness of data to ensure credibility, dependability, transferability and confirmability, indicating the purpose and the strategies applied, emphasizing on considerations taken to achieve trustworthiness in collected, analysed and reported data (Forero et. al., 2018).

The study operational research variables included independent and dependent variables. Others were the mediator, moderator, control and confounding variables. The significance of research variables was to attach appropriate measurement within a specified range of possible values and variable scale of measurement (nominal, ordinal, interval or ratio) Bhandari (2022).

The variables provided direction towards assessment of research hypotheses indicated in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2

Research Hypotheses

Null hypothesis (Ho)	Alternative hypothesis (Ha)
Donor aid resulted in attributable change in livelihoods of vulnerable rural communities.	Donor aid did not result in attributable change in livelihoods of vulnerable rural communities.
Motives of donors influenced support to rural communities.	Motives of donors did not influence their support to rural communities.
Donors and vulnerable communities had similar motivations towards donor aid.	Donor motives and vulnerable community motives were not common.
Aid delivery model sufficiently created livelihood change in rural communities.	Delivery model did not significantly create livelihood change in rural communities.

Note: Table 4.2 indicated the null and alternative research hypotheses. Source: Field data compilation.

Within the context of the study, the mathematical and statistical measurements were appropriate and adequate for trustworthy interpretation of results. However, the potential weakness might be associated to limitations in linking independent variables with and within mediator, intermediary and control variables. In this regard, variable mapping was done to show link between the construct variables as indicated in Figure 2.4: Conceptual framework design

4.2 Reliability and validity of data

Reliability and validity are both about how well a method measured a given aspect. Reliability referred to the consistency of a measure in terms of whether the results could be replicated under the same conditions. Both reliability and validity of the study tools had a direct bearing on the end result of the study.

Reliability and validity and reliability in this study was assured by strategies indicated in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

Validity And Reliability Strategies

Validity	**Reliability**
• Used questionnaires to correctly measure the concepts. • Scientific research method applied in the process of generating research findings. • Developed objectives, hypotheses and key questions for assessment. • Assessed internal validity through statistical selection of respondents, data capture and analyses using SPSS. This ensured replicability of the methodology. • Repeated questioning ensured triangulation and saturation of data, reflexivity and data review. • Assessed external validity through random sampling, interviewing heterogeneous groups, avoiding reactive measures, and studying two different areas. • Assessed content validity through an adequate questionnaire with necessary questions and measurement responses and scores.	• Inter-rater reliability - Collected data using kobocollect data capture tool, ensuring consistent data collection process. • Standard error estimate indicating the representation of the sample to the population. • Applied the same questionnaire across the all sampled population to obtain consistent results identical situations but different circumstance. • The study employed independent interviewers and eliminated the (single) researcher subjectivity. • Correlation coefficient testing

Note: Table 4.3 indicated the steps taken to ensure validity and reliability of the study. Source: Field data.

4.2.1 Reliability measurement and statistical testing

Reliability referred to the consistency or precision of a set of measurements. This meant that reliability assessment focused on qualifying the measurement extent in a consistent manner and to the highest degree possible (Alghamdi, 2016). Four reliability measurements included stability reliability (test-retest reliability) and equivalence reliability (inter-rater (observer) reliability, parallel-form reliability and inter-item reliability also called internal consistency

reliability (Hayes, 2011). Each type of the reliability was indexed on a 0 (no reliability) to 1.0 (perfect reliability) scale. The higher the reliability index (closer to 1.0), the greater the consistency/precision in measurement. The inter-rater reliability referred to the extent to which respondents within the survey parameters gave similar ratings.

Test-retest reliability was a stability test reflected on the extent to which respondents gave similar ratings over non-trivial time period (Hayes, 2011; Alghamdi, 2016). This meant that the first survey and the second subsequent survey targeting the same respondents and using the same survey tools gave same results. This research had no repeat survey, making the second measurement not possible and therefore the correlation coefficient between the two surveys could not be obtained. However, literature on relationship surveys showed stability in respondent attitude to responses over time (Hayes, 2011) within the context of dispositional tendencies of positivity and negativity. Negative people tended to rate things negatively while positive people would rate things positively. Parallel-forms reliability reflected the extent to which respondents gave similar ratings across different measures that assessed the same things.

For inferential statistics, the study assessed reliability through the Pearson coefficients and Chi-Square tests, standard error test, Fleis Multirater Kappa analysis, confidence interval, covariance and correlation coefficient.

The Person Chi-Square correlation tests across the survey variables indicated statistically significant and consistent measurements as indicated in Table 4.4: Reliability test results. The results indicated positive consistency reliability, criterion reliability and predictive reliability in responding to questions related to why donors and communities engaged in donor aid business (motivation), food security sectors prioritized, applied funding model, conditions applied in donor funding and proposed future funding models.

Table 4.4

Reliability Test Results

Variable	Pearson chi-square	Likelihood ratio	Asymptotic significance (2 sided)	
			Pearson chi-square	Likelihood ratio
Donor motivating factors				
Political recognition	12.484	12.801	0.006	0.005
Religious beliefs	20.482	20.682	0.000	0.000
Moral obligation	14.273	14.414	0.003	0.002
Economic vulnerability	8.357	8.399	0.039	0.038
Community marginalization	14.366	14.452	0.002	0.002
Government decision	11.202	11.246	0.011	0.010
Corporate social responsibility	11.685	11.723	0.009	0.008
Community motivating factors				
Poverty situation	18.913	19.384	0.000	0.000
Hunger and food insecurity	15.104	15.359	0.002	0.002
Food security sector funding				
Food production	17.915	19.221	0.001	0.002
Food diversification	24.670	26.597	0.000	0.000
Applied funding model				
Good and services provision	12.932	13.355	0.024	0.020
In-kind donation	14.755	14.976	0.011	0.010
Market development	16.657	17.782	0.005	0.003
Conditions applied in donor funding				
Contribution in kind	17.702	18.380	0.003	0.003
Vulnerable status	30.054	30.799	0.000	0.000
Stay within the project area	26.004	26.619	0.000	0.000
Gender consideration	20.352	20.669	0.001	0.001
Member of a group	35.724	37.051	0.000	0.000
Proposed funding model				
Donor to individual	52.208	55.848	0.000	0.000
Donor to community	28.809	27.423	0.000	0.000
Donor - government - community	12.267	12.417	0.031	0.029
Donor-government-agent-community	13.279	13.388	0.021	0.020

Note: Table 4.2 indicated reliability test results from the Pearson Chi-square test conducted on study variables on motivation factors, funding models and conditions applied and proposed funding models. The results extended to the likelihood of future occurrences. *Source: Field data*.

Internal consistency reliability reflected the extent to which respondents were consistent in their ratings over different questions especially reflected on composite score that was made up of several questions. The analysis was to help the researcher assess whether the composite score measured the same thing. To do this analysis, Fleiss Multirater Kappa was applied at 95% confidence interval and p value of 0.05. The results were based on the level of agreement suggested by Altman in 1999 and Cohen's kappa coefficient and adapted by Landis and Koch in 1977. The suggested level agreement at -1 raters did not agree on anything; ≤0 indicating no agreement, 0.01-0.20 slight agreement, 0.21-0.40 fair agreement, 0.41-0.60 moderate agreement; 0.61-0.80 substantial agreement and 0.81-1.00 perfect agreement. The researcher sampled variables from the total of 325 response categories and ran the Fleiss Multirater Kappa test. Table 4.5 indicated the results that the Fleiss kappa coefficient was statistically significant at 95% confidence interval and $p<0.05$. The result also gave a standard error between 0 and <1 indicating that there was be no difference between the population mean and sample mean if the study was to be repeated using a new a sample from within the population. The standard error of the sample mean in the study variables represented the situation in the population as the mean of the samples were within the 0 to <1 of the true population mean at ninety five percent (95%) confidence level.

Table 4.5

Fleiss Multirater Kappa Overall Reliability Agreement

Assessment variables	Raters	Kappa	Asymptotic			Asymptotic 95% Confidence Interval		Overall agreement
			Standard Error	z	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
Happy donor fund and delivery attributes	3/325	.777	.024	32.052	.000	.776	.779	Substantial
Experienced change and happy with donor fund	2/325	.790	.045	17.730	.000	.787	.793	Substantial
Participated and happy with DF	5/325	.546	.013	42.205	.000	.546	.547	Moderate
Donor motivation	12/325	.233	.004	64.819	.000	.233	.233	Fair
Food security projects supported	7/325	.258	.006	42.894	.000	.257	.258	Fair
Applied fund model	11/325	.268	.004	68.219	.000	.268	.269	Fair

Note: Table 4.5 indicated the results of the Fleiss Multirater Kappa analysis done to assess the interconnectedness of the study variables, focused on standard error and overall agreement. Source: Field data.

4.2.2 Validity measurement and statistical testing

Validity referred to the accuracy of a measure in terms of whether the results actually portrayed the true picture on the ground. Content validity was applied to ensure all aspects in the study were measured because content validity was about finding logical and not necessarily establishing the empirical evidence. Considering that fact, and in addressing the impact of donor aid on rural communities, the content of this research focused on donor aid projects undertaken in the study areas in the past ten (10) years; motives of the stakeholders; models applied and conditions imposed on the delivery system. To this reason, the study weighed more on manifest

and latent - pattern and prospective content analysis (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 2009). Potter & Levine-Donnerstein (2009) distinguished manifest content as issues on the surface, easily observable and experienced. Another assessment in validity was to undertake a process that manifests or exhibit the results of the actions taken so as to bring about face validity based on how something appeared to be in accordance with the researcher's judgement. However, that alone could not be sufficient to guarantee reliability and validity of data and thus the need for latent content. Potter & Levine-Donnerstein (2009) distinguished latent content as pattern and prospective content based on the subjectivity attached to data interpretation. Potter & Levine-Donnerstein (2009) argued that pattern content focused on objective and logical flow in the content while prospective content explored deeper into the meaning of the content by coder's interpretations to predict the future and concurrency with other tests. The other consideration was to ensure criterion validity, a process to assess the correlation of the study environment to other standard factors applied in the field of study. The research ensured application of study instruments (questionnaires) that were proven in scientific research. By so doing, this study ensured predictive and concurrent analysis. The research applied a Pearson Chi-square at degree of freedom of 5 to test the likelihood of the donor funding model to continue in future and a number of variables grouped under motivation factors, applied finding models, condition applied, projects frequently funded and proposed funding models to be statistically significant and likely to continue. This variables had the potential to continue based on the current behaviors and motivations that drove the donors, intermediary agents and communities unless a paradigm shift was instituted. Therefore, the choice of content analysis, and more importantly the combination of manifest and latent content analysis, set the foundation for reliability and validity of data and their importance cannot be over-emphasized (Haradhan, 2017).

Internal validity was ensured through the application of interrelated structured and semi-structured questionnaires (Middleton, 2022). The internal validity was highly impeded in the applied basic but robust study instruments (Simister, 2017) and the causal relationships in the construct variables as portrayed in Chapter 2 Figure 2.1. Surveys, through questionnaires remained the robust and flexible methods for collecting data on and making inference to, populations (Couper, 2017). Based on the robustness and flexibility, the questionnaire and focused group interviews were chosen to be used in combination for reliable and triangulated data. In practice, scholars in all sectors applied these tools in their studies to suit a particular purpose (Abawi, 2017). To remain focused, interviews followed a pre-set schedule and applied structured unambiguous questions (George, 2022). All interviewees faced the same questions and had a chance to choose from close-ended dichotomous responses (yes/no), multiple choices or Likert scale (George, 2022) answers. The close-ended nature of standardized interviews made it suitable as a quantitative tool. The focused group discussion brought together key informants to provide more in-depth and impartial information. Bernard (2018 as cited in Cossham & Johanson, 2018) emphasized on the importance of engaging people with insider information, knowledge and experience about the concept, situation, community culture and the subject at hand. The focused group discussion was easy to organize and gave real time responses rooted in felt feelings, emotions, perceptions and opinions. Such responses were based on professional expertise and experience and expounded on the dichotomy answers of yes or no. In so doing, the focused group interview explored hidden meaning to quantitative responses and illustrated issues affecting the community. The information from focus group interviews assisted the researcher to triangulate and qualify data collected from structured (quantitative) interviews. The focused group discussion was also desirable as it provided more information and precise insights (Cossham & Jahanson, 2018).

In using structured questionnaires with close-ended responses, the data collection process locked responses to those suggested for each question and not exploratory answers. The uploaded questionnaire into the KoboCollect eliminated errors that would occur if responses were manually recorded. The software also provided space for prompt and efficient achieving of data for easy retrieval. The system also had no room to accept answers outside the stipulated parameters. These meant that, any survey conducted using the same questionnaire would solicit responses within the same and predicted range. The qualitative semi-structured questionnaire contained guided questions which were open-ended. The questions followed the objectives of the study and eliminated digression in questioning to other issues except for soliciting clarity on the main questions. Applied by an expert researcher, unwarranted questions and responses were avoided.

The questionnaire was used to gather data because of its efficiency in data collection particularly when the researcher knew what was required and how to measure the variables of interest (Creswell, 2014). Furthermore, it allowed a researcher to collect information within a short period of time at a low cost and free from bias (Kothari, 2006). Benchmarking the reference duration to ten years was vital so as not to gather data outside the accepted memory limits. The study also limited data collection to the geographical regions under study and avoided unwarranted presumptions. Focused questioning through a limited number of questions helped limit the duration of the interview and improved response rate. Sharma (2022) suggested a standard questionnaire restricted to 30 questions to ensure data quality, reliability and good response rate. Sharma (2022) further argued for the relevance of the study topic measured through the response ratio - the number of people who responded against the total potential respondents and concluded that the generalization of the results depended on the response ratio and eventual statistically significant results.

The research questionnaires were made appropriate, meaningful and useful to the study phenomena. The appropriateness was made possible through the close-ended answer structure to the questions based on the highly possible and applicable answers. The close-ended questionnaires indicated the test-re-test reliability for it was possible to obtain the same results on a repeat survey soon after the initial survey. This ensured easy and quick response as well as consistent analysis of data. The meaningfulness of the study instruments was made relevant through triangulation of research objectives, ensuring that all parameters in each objective area of the study was addressed. The qualitative questionnaire was designed to clarify and verify information from the quantitative questionnaire, making the questionnaires highly meaningful. The usefulness of the study instrument relied on the practicality of the findings from the applied instruments. The study instruments benchmarked the practical experiences from those involved in the industry. In this regard, the expected responses were practical as much as they reflected on what people experienced.

The external validity was ensured through correct sampling towards the combined qualitative and quantitative approach (mixed method approach). The correct sampling allowed for generalization of data and hence external validity (Alghamdi, 2016). The research applied non-probability and probability sampling approaches. The research applied non-probability sampling to identify the districts, study wards and key informants. The research purposefully sampled Southern Province region with the homogeneous population in terms of vulnerabilities, coping mechanisms (pastoral agriculture) and donor aid experience. Convenient and judgmental sampling was applied in targeting key informants based on their long-term experience in donor aid projects in the selected areas, availability, willingness to participate in the study and expertise in management of the sector. The research applied the Cochran’s formula to calculate the overall

sample to ensure data collection was practical, cost-effective, convenient and manageable (Bhandari, 2022). The probability sampling provided equal and non-zero chance for every individual in the finite population to be selected. The research applied multistage sampling technique (stratified sampling and systematic random sampling) to select individuals for the interview. The research allowed validation of individual responses from the face-to-face interview with the key informant responses from focused group discussions. The sampling and triangulation approaches therefore provided consensus on the gathered information and directly contributed towards generalization of data to the wider population. For Focused Group Respondent sampling, the saturation principle was followed data saturation (point at which data or codes became repetitive (Fusch and Ness, 2015)) and meaning saturation (point when full insight was obtained) (Hennick et al., 2017 and Hennick et al., 2019).

The study considered the confounding variables (community perceptions, poverty status and past experience). These consideration was important as it had the potential to influence the research results. The relationship between donor funding and poverty was done through covariance and correlation coefficient tests. The covariance test gave positive relationship between the donor funding variable (independent variable) and the poverty variable (confounding variable). The correlation coefficient test on the donor funding and poverty status indicated positive but weak relationship (0.3558). A forecasts was done on the poverty status variable which indicated a sustained poverty levels above 50% into 2030 despite donor funding.

Other tests conducted included the Fleis Multilater Kappa analysis and standard error on the relationship between past experience and donor funding. The result was standard error 0.045 (Z value 17.7) indicating a substantial consistence at ninety five percent (95%) confidence interval and $P>0.05$.

4.3 Research results

This section presented the quantitative and qualitative data collected, analyzed and evaluated. The presentation began with the quantitative data section and followed with the qualitative data section. The quantitative data section commenced with the demography results followed by presentation of results on each of the research objectives. The research objectives were:

1) To assess whether donor aid reduced poverty and improved livelihood of rural communities;

2) To assess the extent to which donor motives, including hidden motives, influenced provision of donor aid;

3) To assess the extent to which donor motives synchronized with the community motives; and

4) To assess the adequacy of the delivery models.

The collected quantitative findings were analyzed utilizing the SPSS software version 26, excel analysis and mathematical calculations. The nominal, dichotomous and contingency questions were mainly analyzed by frequency tables. The ordinal questions (Likert scale) were analyzed by descriptive analysis to find the mean, median, mode and central tendency using standard deviation to describe the scale. Inferential tests included chi-square test, t-test, ANOVA and regression procedures.

The qualitative section presented the quantitative data collected and analyzed using Nvivo software version 14. The qualitative data helped in the triangulation of the quantitative data.

4.3.1 Quantitative data and analysis results

The quantitative survey involved 325 participants. A total of 164 and 161 took part in the survey from Choongo and Magoye wards representing 50.5% and 49.5% respectively. The gender distribution was 139 female and 186 male representing 42.8% and 57.2% respectively. The majority of the participants (N 320) were above 20 years old, representing 88.0% of the total participants (N 325). Descriptive analysis on the age of the respondents was done to establish the variance and standard deviation in the age of respondents.

Table 4.6

Age Of Respondent Frequency Testing

Age	**Fi**	**Mi**	**FiMi**	**Mi-Xi**	**$(Mi-Xi)^2$**	**$Fi(Mi-Xi)^2$**
11-20years	5	15.5	77.5	10.5	110.25	551.25
21-30years	38	25.5	969	-12.5	156.25	5937.5
31-40years	79	35.5	2804.5	-43.5	1892.25	149487.8
41-50years	101	45.5	4595.5	-55.5	3080.25	311105.3
51-60 years	68	55.5	3774	-12.5	156.25	10625
>60years	34	60	2040	26	676	22984
	325		14260.5			500690.8
Variance (S^2)		**1545.3**				
Std. dev (S)		**39.31**				

Note: Table 4.6 indicated the values in the calculation of the variance and standard deviation from the age of qualitative respondents. Source: Field data

The median age was 41.936, signifying adult participation in the study. Table 4.7 indicated the quantitative demographic information respectively.

Table 4.7

Demographic Information For Quantitative Survey

Demography Measurement	Parameter	Frequency	Percent
Ward	Choongo	164	50.5
	Magoye	161	49.5
Gender	Female	139	42.8
	Male	186	57.2
Age group	11 - 20 years	5	1.5
	21 - 30 years	38	11.7
	31 - 40 years	79	24.3
	41 - 50 years	101	31.1
	51 - 60 years	68	20.9
	Above 60 years	34	10.5

N= 325

Note: Table 4.7 indicated the demography measurement, measurement parameter and the resulting frequency absolute number and percentage frequency. Source: Field data.

A T-Test was carried out on the District, Gender and Ward variables. Measured at 95% Confidence Interval and p-0.05, the demographic variables were not significantly different (see Tables 4.8). This meant that the participants in the study had similar experiences regarding the research phenomenon. The standard error was between 0 and 1 which signified that the sample mean was representative of the population mean at 95% confidence level.

Table 4.8

T -Test Group Statistics

Variable	Measurement category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
District	Mazabuka	214	1.52	.501	.034
	Monze	111	1.57	.498	.047
Gender	Male	214	1.44	.498	.034
	Female	111	1.40	.491	.047
Ward	Magoye	214	1.52	.501	.034
	Choongo	111	1.57	.498	.047

Note: Table 4.9 displayed the results from the T-Test conducted on demographic information data. It indicated the variable, associated measurement category, number of respondents, the standard deviation and error. Source: Field data.

4.3 2.1 Results on attributable change on rural livelihoods.

Objective one assessed the donor fund impact on the livelihoods of the vulnerable rural communities. One of the key assessment variable was poverty status in relation to livelihood outcomes. Collected data included the poverty status (based on literature), community past experience and their perceptions on donor funded interventions.

Data collection results on poverty and donor funding indicated that in the period 2010 to 2022, donor funding to Zambia fluctuated from a low of 925 million US$ to a high of 1,450 million (WB, 2022). However, the poverty level as a percentage of the population remained relatively stable at an average of 57.45% (see Table 4.9: Zambia's donor funding and poverty trend.

Table 4.9

Zambia's Donor funding and poverty trend

Year	Donor funding (US$ million)	%Poverty
2010	925	60.5
2011	1750	60.5
2012	970	60.5
2013	1950	60.5
2014	1000	60.5
2015	800	54.4
2016	975	54.4
2017	1450	54.4
2018	1000	54.4
2019	950	54.4
2020	1250	54.4
2021	1070	54.4
2022		60

Note: Table 4.9 indicated the donor funding and poverty trends in Zambia in the period 2010 to 2022. In showed the donor funding in United States dollars and poverty percentage (WB, 2022).

In assessing the experience of the respondents in the past 10 years in the donor funded project with reference to food security projects, personal perceptions were qualified through accessed donor funding, right quantity and timely delivery of project resources. Also assessed was whether the respondents experienced any change from the donor aid project and in which areas such change was prominent.

Among the quantitative respondents, 214 representing 65.5% of the total 325 participated in the food security project in the past 10 years. This meant that 111 representing 34.5% did not participate in the donor projects before and could not give any practical perspectives. Of the 325 respondents, 186 representing 57.2% were happy with the way the donor aid project was delivered and 180 respondents, representing 55.4% experienced change. Of the 325 respondents, 145 and 169 respondents, representing 44.6% and 52.0% respectively indicated right quality delivery and timely delivery as the reason for the positive change experienced from the donor funds. Table 4.10 indicated the perspectives on the impact of donor funds on vulnerable community. Impact of donor aid on food security was not among the top three (water and sanitation, access to education) that had above 15% (average impact) with highest impact.

Table 4.10

Practical perceptions on the impact of donor funds on vulnerable farming community

Practical Perspectives	Response	Frequency	Percent
Participated in food security project	No	111	34.2
	Yes	214	65.8
Happy way donor fund was delivered	N/A	111	34.2
	No	28	8.6
	Yes	186	57.2
Right quantity of donor fund resource delivered	N/A	111	34.2
	No	69	21.2
	Yes	145	44.6
Timely Donor Fund resource delivery	N/A	111	34.2
	No	45	13.8
	Yes	169	52.0
Experienced change	N/A	111	34.2
	No	34	10.5
	Yes	180	55.4

N=325

Note: Table 4.10 indicated the practical perceptions on the impact of donor funds on vulnerable farming community concerning their participation in food security projects, happiness in the way donor funding was delivered, right quality of donor resource delivered, timeliness donor fund delivery and experience change from donor funds using nominal responses. Source: Field data.

An assessment was done on the areas on which impact was felt by the community. The areas of change included water and hygiene, funding conditions, responsibility structures, social standing, nutritional status and access to education. Others included operational status, perception on donor funding, food security, income security and access to health. The assessment utilized a five point Likert scale, where, 1 indicated lowest impact; 2 some impact; 3 moderate impact; 4 high impact; and 5 highest impact. Impact of donor aid on food security was not among the top

three (water and sanitation, access to education) that had above 15% (average impact) with highest impact. Table 4.11 indicated the areas and levels of improvement from donor funding aid.

Table 4.11

Areas And Level Of Improvement From Donor Funding

Areas of improvement	Response frequencies				
	High impact	**Highest impact**	**Lowest impact**	**Moderate impact**	**Some impact**
Water sanitation	55	110	61	67	32
Funding aid condition improved	44	57	65	98	61
Operational environment	51	57	47	4	76
Responsibility structure improved	76	34	53	101	61
Positive perception increased	73	38	47	106	61
Social standing increased	71	38	34	120	62
Food security increased	81	44	45	101	54
Nutrition status improved	74	38	45	118	50
Income status improved	74	31	50	119	51
Access to education improved	73	54	46	109	43
Access to health	52	46	43	109	75
Mean	65.0				
STD (68% CI)	25.0				

Note: Table 4.11 shows the areas and level of improvement from donor funding. The measurements were done using five dichotomous responses of highest impact, high impact, moderate impact, some impact and lowest impact and gave a result of 25 standard deviation (STD) at 68% Confidence Interval (CI). Source: Field data.

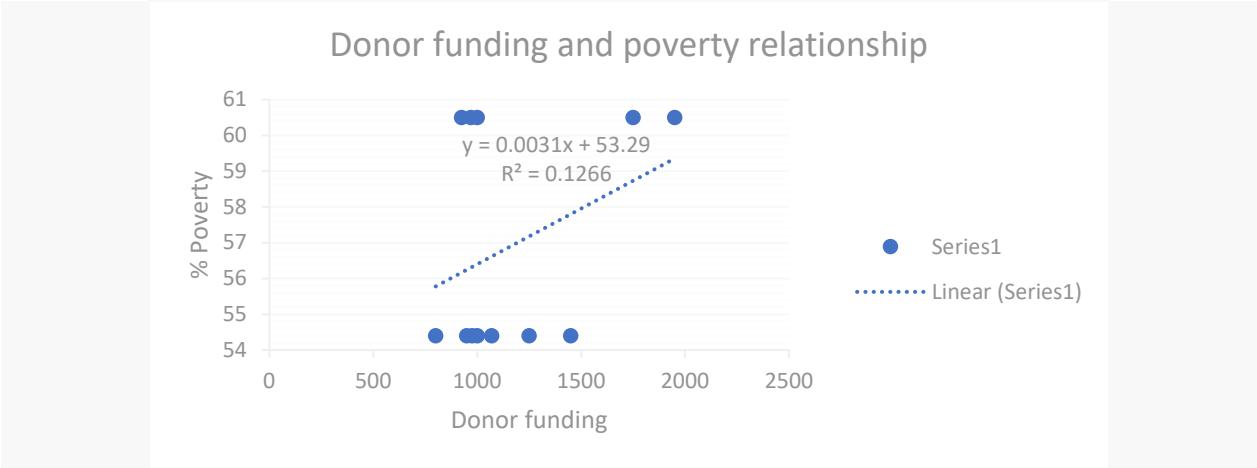
This objective also explored the experiences gained in development aid business activities in the past 10 years (2012-2022). Key questions were directed at whether the community requested or participated in food security donor funded project; the number of donor funded projects implemented; and the extent to which the community experienced positive impact from the provided support.

Empirical findings indicated that experience and participation in donor funded project in the past 10 years was 65.5% (N=325). Of those that participated 57.2% (N=214) indicated positive change from the project.

The relationship between poverty and donor funding was analyzed using covariance and correlation coefficient and test the first null hypothesis that donor aid resulted in attributable change in livelihoods of vulnerable rural communities. The covariance calculation ($Cov_{x,y} = \sum (x_i - \bar{X}) (y_i - Y)N-1$) for the period 2010 to 2022 gave a positive relationship ($Cov_{x,y} = 401.58$). The correlation coefficient $r = \sum (x_i - \bar{X}) (y_i - Y) \sqrt{\sum (x_i - \bar{X})^2 \sum (y_i - Y)^2}$ gave a result of 0.3558 indicating a weak and positive correlation. This result rejected the null hypothesis and upheld the alternative hypothesis that donor aid did not result in attributable change in livelihoods of vulnerable rural communities.

Fig 4.1

Donor Fund And Poverty Relationship

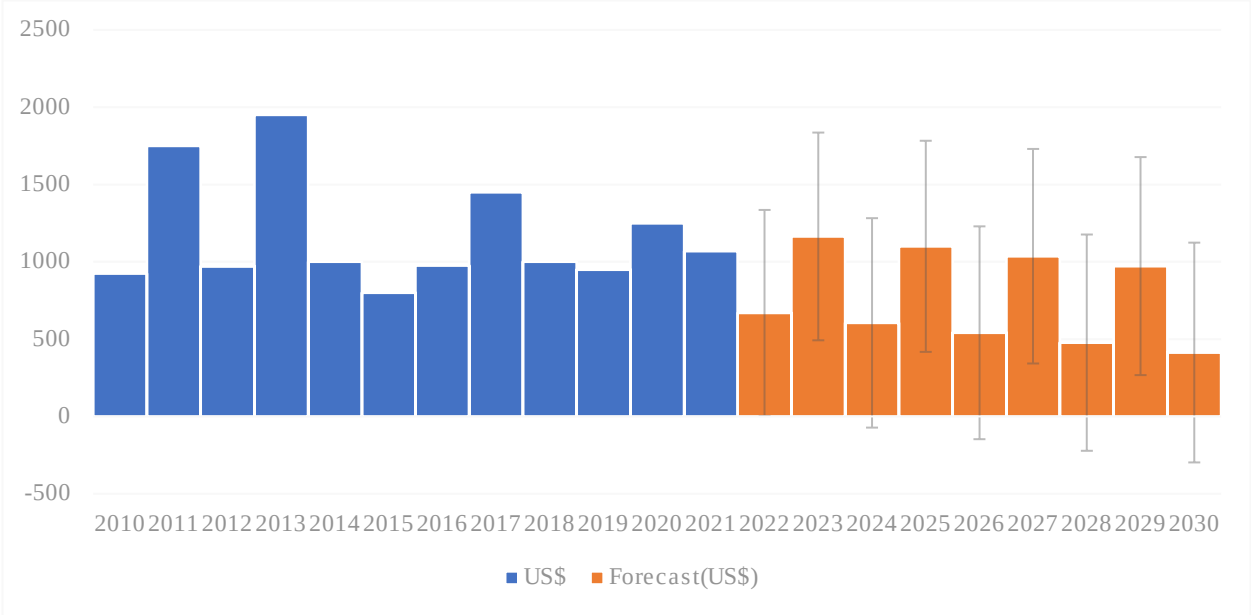


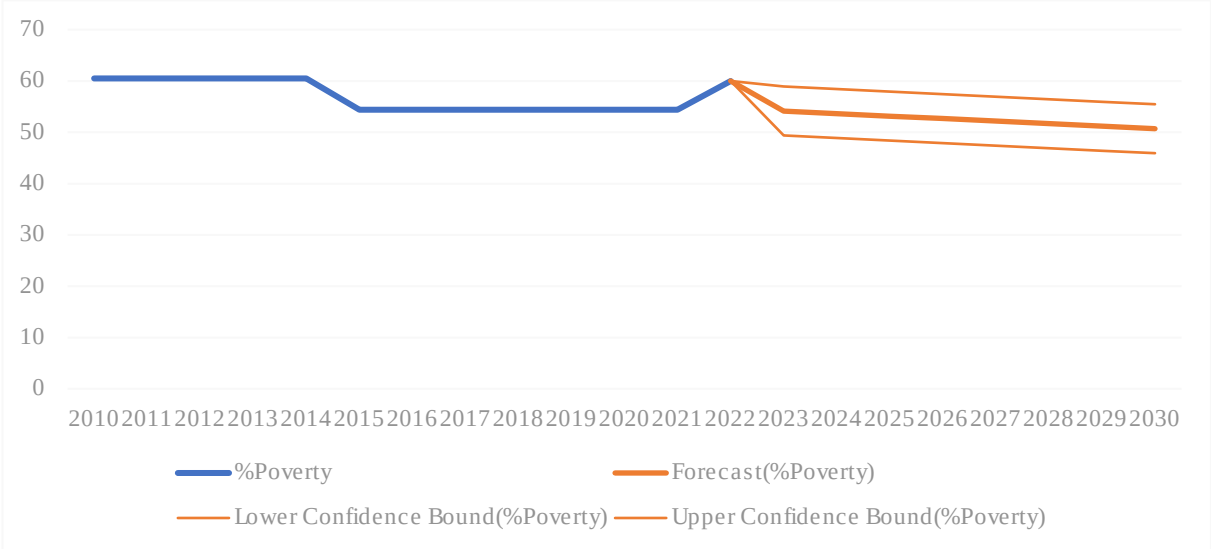
Note: Figure 4.3 showed the linear relationship between donor funding and poverty in percentage terms. Source: Field data

Further analysis was done to forecast the poverty and donor funding relationship in the future. The forecast on the funding levels to the end of 2030 indicated a continued fluctuations in funding with a limited level of stability (Figure 4.2. The poverty level was also forecasted to remain high above 50% into 2030.

Fig 4.2

Donor Fund And Poverty Forecast 2030



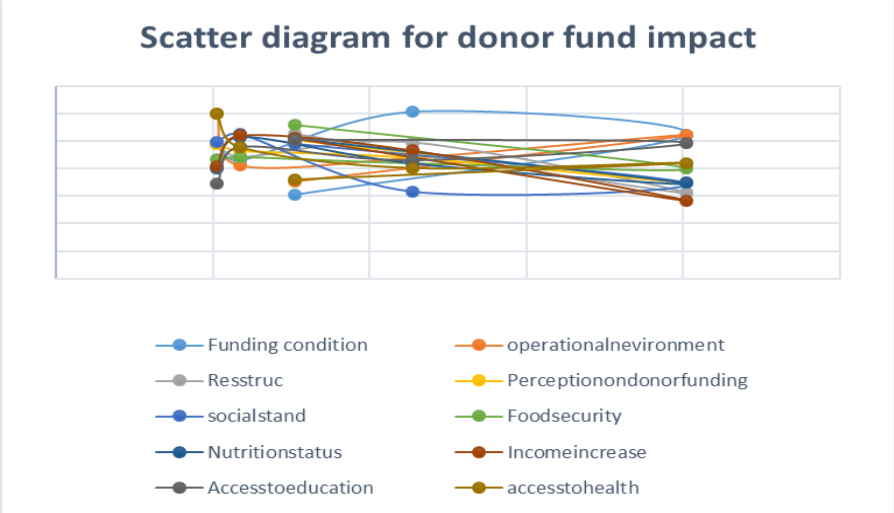


Note: Figure 4.2 indicated the funding levels from 2010 to 2021 (Blue) and forecasted funding from 2022 to 2030 (Orange) in united States Dollars. The projection indicated a reduction from the 2010 -2021 levels. Source: Field data Compilation.

A cross-tabulation analysis was undertaken on the livelihood outcomes (social standing, food security, nutrition status, income increase, access to education and health) and enabling factors (funding conditions, operational environment, structures and perceptions). The relationship between these variables was not perfect - all plotted points in the Scatter diagram (Figure 4.3) were not in a straight line. This meant that observed improvements in each of the study variables had no impact on the other. It was therefore true that the first null hypothesis that donor funding had an impact on the livelihoods of communities could not be generalized.

Fig 4.3

Scatter Plot Donor Funding Impact



Note: Figure 4.3 displayed the relationship between livelihood outcomes (social standing, food security, nutrition status, income increase, access to education and health) and enabling factors (funding conditions, operational environment, structures and perceptions). All plotted points were not in a straight line indicating an imperfect relationship between variables. *Source: Field data*

The farming communities that participated in food security projects, were “happy with the way the projects were delivered”. The T-Test to correlate the perceptions of communities on donor fund delivery variables (right quality donor resources and timely delivery of resources) established a standard deviation of 0.469 and 0.408 and standard errors of mean at 0.032 and 0.028 respectively (see Table 4.12). This indicated that the values in this study were clustered close to the mean (Bandari, 2023), indicating the true representation of the population. However, qualitative results indicated that livelihood change depended on the way donor funds were delivered ($t=0.042$, $p<0.05$) and managed.

The question of impact was measured on the basis of the projects that took place in the areas. In this case the respondents reflected on their experiences and elucidated on the sector interventions that changed their lives. This study established improvement in some aspects and not all sectors. To assess the variability of data across assessment variables, ANOVA was carried out, which established significant difference in the group mean (F Value 1.639) of the test variables (see Table 4.12)

Table 4.12:

Bayesian Regression

ANOVA[a,b]

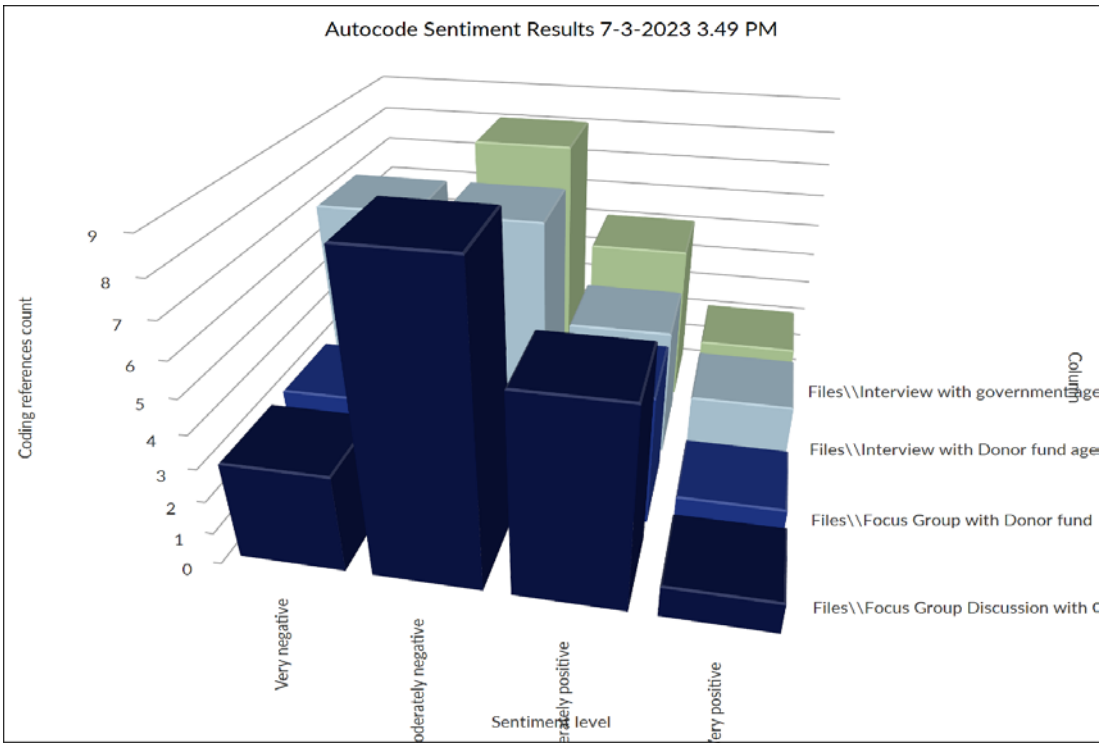
Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F Value	Sig.
Regression	8.552	44	.194	1.639	.014
Residual	20.046	169	.119		
Total	28.598	213			

Note: Table 4.12 indicated the Bayesian regression result on the experienced change dependent Variable funding Model Intercept. With a F Value of 1.639, the result suggested that the Model Interceptor) had a significant effect on change experienced. Source: Field data

The sentiment analysis on the impact of donor funding comparing results from the interview (quantitative) and focus group discussion (qualitative) indicated an aggregate score for negative sentiment of 41 (15 very negative and 26 moderately negative) and positive sentiments at 25 (19 moderately positive and 6 very positive) see Figure 4.4. This indicated that the both quantitative and qualitative results had reservation on the overall perception that donor funding created change in rural communities.

Fig 4.4

Results of the Auto-Coded Sentiments



Note: Figure 4.4 indicated the sentiments on the performance of the donor fund projects on the rural communities. *Source: Field data.*

4.3.1.2 Results on donor motives

The second objective explored the motivations and influencing factors that drove donors to engage in donor aid business. In assessing the motivating factors for the donors, fifteen factors were considered (Table 4.14) using a Likert scale. At 68% Confidence Interval, the standard deviation was 8.8 within the mean of 20.

The descriptive analysis indicated a narrow divergence of the sample mean with the population mean. The positive skewness (0.190) indicated a long tail to the right. The low Kurtosis (2.373) indicated that the data had frequent modest-sized deviations.

Table 4.13

Donor motivation descriptive statistics

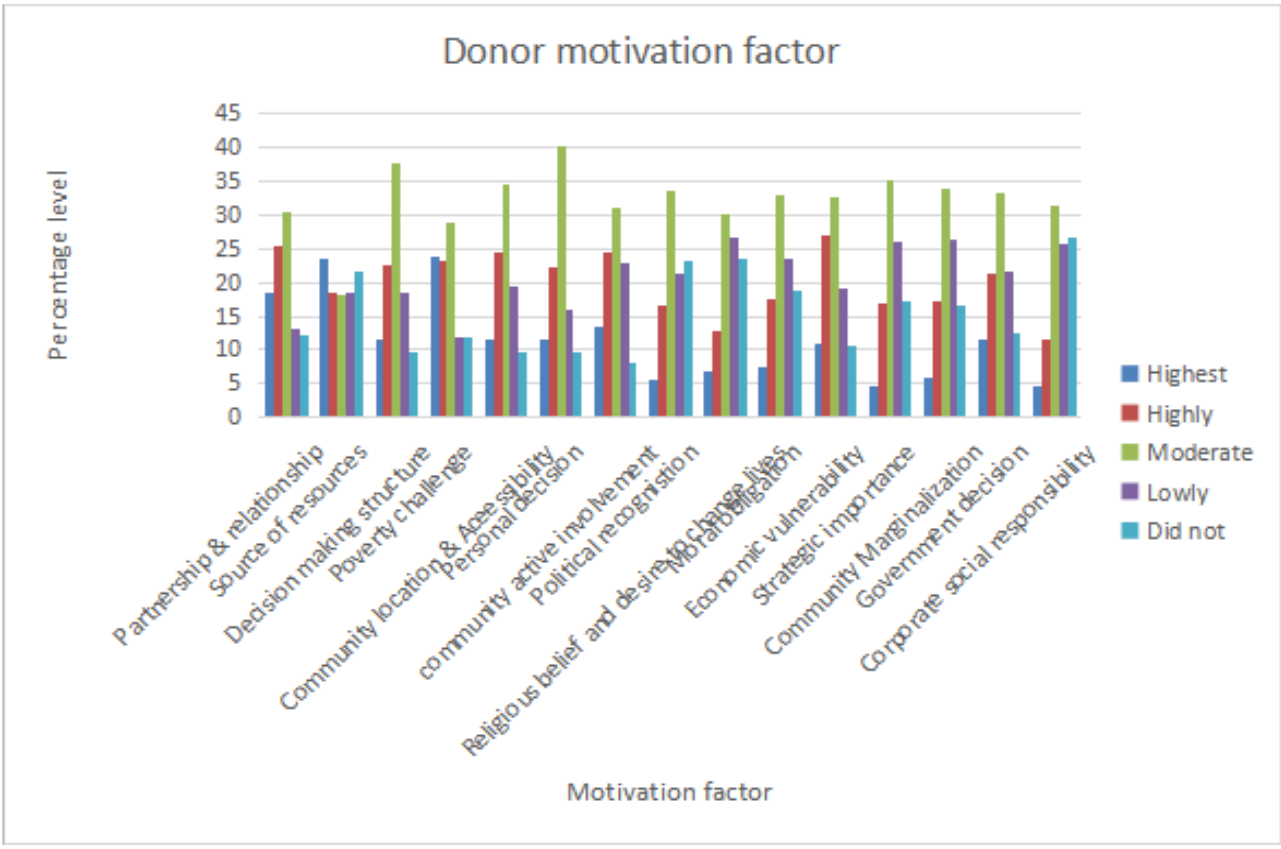
Donor motivation descriptive statistics								
Size	**Range**	**Median**	**Std. dev**	**Std error**	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**	**Relative Std. dev**	**Outlier**
74	116	61.5	28.483	3.289	0.190	2.373	43.94	0

Note: Table 4.13 indicated the descriptive statistics on donor motivation. Source: Field data

Figure 4.5 indicated that donors were influenced at highest level (above 15%) by partnerships and relationships, source of resources and poverty challenge. On average however, the donors were influenced moderately (above 15%) by all factors.

Fig 4.5

Factors and the level at which they influenced donor fund provision to vulnerable communities



Note: Figure 4.5 showed the level at which donor motivation factors were influenced. The level of influence included Highest Deep green) High (red), Moderate (green) Low (Brown) and did not influence (Blue).

The Pearson Chi-Square Test applied at 3 degrees of freedom confirmed the results with a likelihood to continue (see Table 4.14).

Table 4.14

Chi-square test results for donor motivating factors

Variable	Pearson chi-square	Likelihood ratio	Asymptotic significance (2 sided)	
			Pearson chi-square	Likelihood ratio
Source of resources	2.157	2.155	0.541	0.541
Partnership and relationship	2.185	2.185	0.535	0.535
Decision making	2.590	2.592	0.459	0.459
Poverty challenge	2.313	2.309	0.510	0.511
Community location	3.244	3.252	0.355	0.354
Personal decision	0.731	0.729	0.866	0.866
Active community participation	3.229	3.254	0.358	0.354
Political recognition	12.484	12.801	0.006	0.005
Religious beliefs	20.482	20.682	0.000	0.000
Moral obligation	14.273	14.414	0.003	0.002
Economic vulnerability	8.357	8.399	0.039	0.038
Strategically important	4.134	4.148	0.247	0.246
Community marginalization	14.366	14.452	0.002	0.002
Government decision	11.202	11.246	0.011	0.010
Corporate social responsibility	11.685	11.723	0.009	0.008

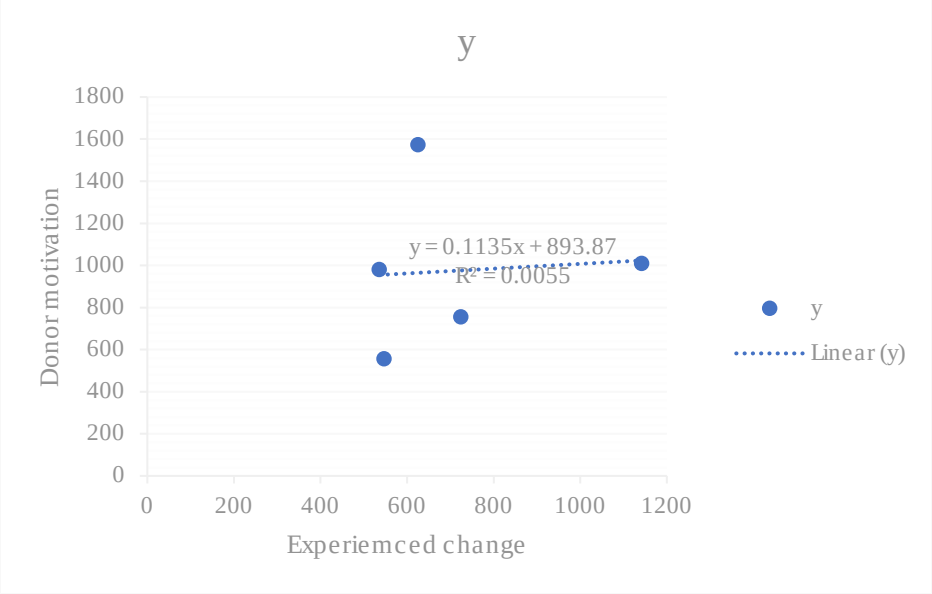
Note: Table 4.14 indicated the Chi-square test results for donor motivating factors based on study variable and gave a prediction of the probability significance of likelihood. Source: Field data.

The result from the Chi-square test indicated that political recognition, religious beliefs, economic vulnerability, community marginalization, government decision and corporate social responsibility were not by chance and there likelihood of consideration in future projects was significant. The T-test on the donor support motives and influencing factors was 2.69 at 4 degrees of freedom which was greater than the distribution T value of 2.064. This result indicated that the difference between the means of the two variables were statistically significant. Based on the guideline that when the calculated T-value was greater than the critical T-value, the null hypothesis must be rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted. Therefore, this study rejected the null

hypothesis that motives of donors influenced support to rural communities and upheld the alternative hypothesis that motives of donors did not influence their support to rural communities. The relationship test undertaken through the covariance between the experienced change and donor motivation was 7115.75 while the correlation coefficient was 0.0745, indicating a very weak and positive correlation (Figure 4.6). This strengthened the rejection of the second null hypothesis. However, the qualitative triangulation of the donor motives explained that donor motivation was at different levels depending on the social, political, economic and environmental circumstances. In addition, qualitative indicated compassion in response to communities "poverty situation, desperation and vulnerability". Qualitative results attributed Intermediary Agents motivation to "money" and the need to solve "personal income poverty".

Fig 4.6

Correlation Relationship Between Experienced Change And Donor Motivation



Note: Figure 4.6 indicated the Correlation relationship between experienced change and donor motivation. The figure indicated a positive and perfect linear relationship. Source: Field data.

4.3.1.3 Results on synchronized donor and community motives

The third objective explored the relationship between the donor motivations and the community motivations for engaging in partnership. The community motivation were measured against seven (7) factors using a Likert scale (Table 4.15). At 74% Confidence Interval, the standard deviation was 12.7 within the mean of 20. At the 15% benchmark, the communities were moderately influenced by income security, livelihood status and access to health (see Figure 4.7).

Table 4.15

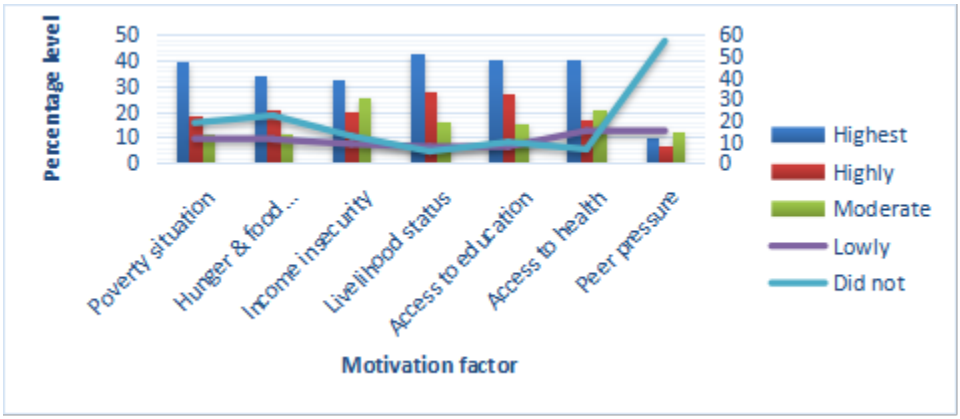
Influencing factors as community motivation

Influencing factor	% Frequency				
	Did not influence	Highest influence	Highly influence	Lowly influence	Moderately influence
Poverty situation	18.8	39.4	18.8	11.4	11.7
Hunger and food insecurity	22.2	34.5	20.9	11.1	11.4
Income insecurity	12.6	32.6	20	8.9	25.8
livelihood status	5.5	42.5	27.7	7.7	16.6
Access to education	4.3	40	25.8	10.5	19.4
Access to health	9.8	40.6	26.8	7.7	15.1
Peer pressure	56.9	9.8	6.8	14.5	12
% Mean	20.0				
% Std (74% CI)	12.7				

Note: Table 4.15 showed the level at which influencing factors acted as community motivation, measured on dichotomous scale of Highest, High, moderate, low and no influence. Source: Field data

Fig 4.7

Factors And The Level At Which They Influenced Community Participation In Donor Funded Projects



Note: Figure 4.7 indicated the motivation factors and the level at which they influenced community participation in donor funded projects. The legends included Highest influence (Deep blue), High influence (Red), Moderate influence (Green), low influence (Pink) and Did not influence (Light Blue). Source: Field data

The descriptive analysis indicated a narrow divergence of the sample mean with the population mean. The positive skewness (1.086) indicated a long tail to the right. The low Kurtosis (3.155) indicated that the data had frequent modest-sized deviations.

Table 4.16

Community Motivation Descriptive Statistics

Community motivation descriptive statistics								
Size	**Range**	**Median**	**Std. dev**	**Std error**	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**	**Coefficient of variation**	**Outlier**
35	171	54	41.190	6.962	1.086	3.155	0.634	185

Note: Table 4.16 showed the descriptive results on donor motivation. Source: Field data

The chi-square test results on donor motives indicated that political recognition, religious beliefs, economic vulnerability, community marginalization, government decision and corporate social responsibility were significant motives for the donors (see Table 4.16). The Chi square test conducted on the community motives significant (p-0.001) community motivation being poverty situation. hunger & food insecurity and income security (Table 4.17). The qualitative information confirmed this as a "*strategic survival measure*" and a means of "*social safety net*"

Table 4.17

Chi-Square Test Results For Community Motivating Factors

Variable	**Pearson chi-square**	**Likelihood ratio**	**Asymptotic significance (2 sided)**	
			Pearson chi-square	**Likelihood ratio**
Poverty situation	18.913	19.384	0.000	0.000
Hunger and food insecurity	15.104	15.359	0.002	0.002
Income insecurity	6.035	6.085	0.110	0.108
Livelihood status	2.361	2.388	0.501	0.495
Access to education	0.670	0.673	0.880	0.880
Access to health	2.766	2.796	0.429	0.424
Peer pressure	6.429	6.497	0.092	0.090

Note: Table 4.17 indicated the Chi-square test results for community motivating factors based on study variable and gave a prediction of the probability significance of likelihood. Source: Field data.

The Chi-square test of the donor motivation and community motivation gave a result of p-value of 0.0000 at the significant level of $p < 0.05$. With the p-value 0.000, the relationship between the donor motives and the community motives was statistically significant. This result indicated a significant reason to reject the null hypothesis that donors and vulnerable communities had similar motivations towards donor aid.

4.3.1.4 Results on adequacy of delivery model.

The fourth objective assessed eleven parameters in the exploration of the sustainable social and economic support model. The first question assessed the means through which donor aid was delivered to the rural communities. The second question assessed the area within the food security sector that was mostly funded. The third question assessed the frequently applied funding model by donors. The fourth question assessed the donor fund supply channel that the community would prefer in future. The fifth question explored the extent to which the community was prepared by the donor to take part in the project. The sixth question assessed the extent to which communities were consulted over what needed to be funded. The seventh question evaluated the decision making level over the funded resources between the donor, implementing agent and community. The eighth question examined the hindering factors that made the community fail to make decisions. The ninth question aimed at assessing the relationship between the donor aid funding agent and the community. The tenth question assessed the conditions applied to the community to receive donor aid and the eleventh question assessed the institutions that delivered donor aid in the community.

In assessing the means through which donor aid was delivered to the rural communities, parameters included delivery channels through community application, government, donor direct supply and through NGOs. This study established mixed approaches of the all four channels almost on equal basis (Table 4.18).

Table 4.18

Donor aid delivery channel

Delivery channel	Frequency	Percent
Community applied for it	107	32.9
Government directed it to our community	45	13.8
Just brought without our knowledge	86	26.5
NGO applied for it	87	26.8

N=325

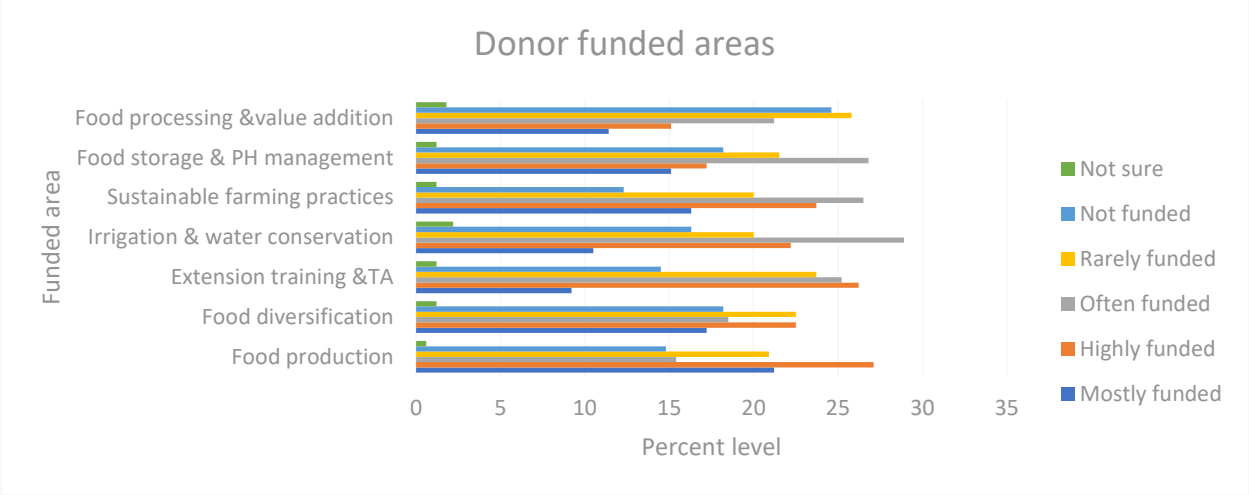
Note: Table 4.18 assessed the popular donor aid delivery channel based on percentage response.

Source: Field data

The food security subsectors considered using the Likert scale on food production, food diversification, extension and technical services, irrigation and water conservation, sustainable farming practices, food storage and postharvest management and food processing/value addition. The factors realized standard deviation at 71% Confidence Interval of 5.1 and % mean of 19.7, meaning all factors were closer to the mean. The study established that mostly funded food security sub-sectors (above 15% level) were food production and diversification, sustainable farming systems and food storage/post-harvest management (Figure 4.8). Food processing and value addition activities were rarely and/or not funded.

Fig 4.8

Food Security Sector Mostly Funded



Note: Figure 4.8 indicated the donor funded food security areas and level of percentage prominence. The legends included Mostly funded (Deep blue), Highly funded (Red), Often funded (Green), Rarely funded (Pink), Not funded (Light Blue) and Not sure (Orange). Source: Field data

Free grants were untied funds released by donors for developmental activities. Good and services provision took a direction of providing ready to use goods, mostly imported for use in the designed project such electrical equipment, machinery and specific installations. The services spoke to external experts brought in to deliver specific services to the recipient community, aimed at building local capacities and mostly through short-term consultancies. In-kind donations were mostly new and used equipment and machinery provided to support delivery of specific interventions. Such delivery models were popular in many projects implemented in sub-Saharan Africa. The downside of such efforts was that it excluded development of local solutions to lack of capacity in the community.

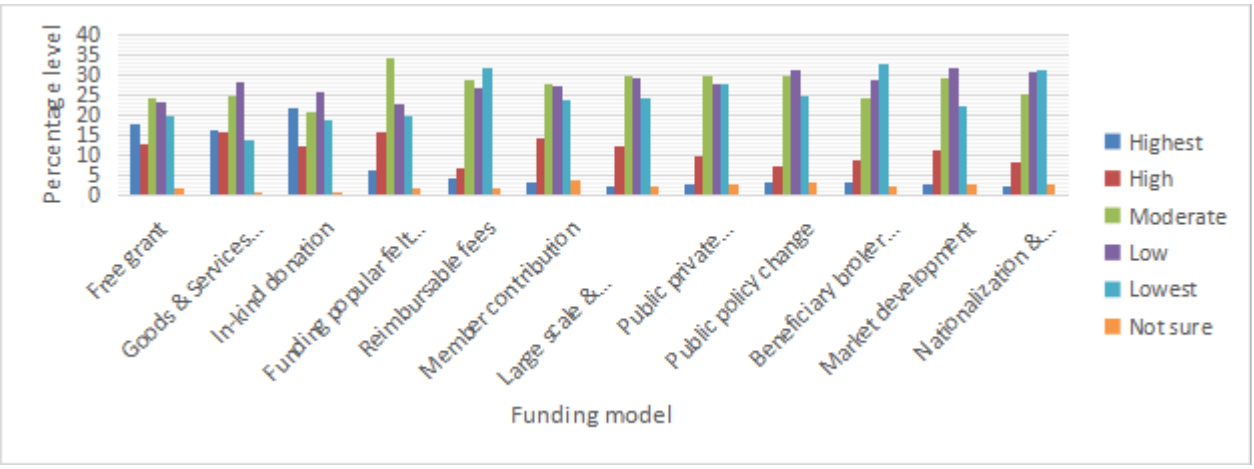
Other models such as funding popular felt needs, reimbursable fees, member contributions, large scale and long-term projects, public private partnership, public policy change, beneficiary

broker service, market development and networking operated at moderate level. Funding popular felt needs focused on tackling challenges expressed by the recipient community. In this regard, no project were prescribed for the community but rather communities came up with the solution and asked for support. In essence, such an approach was bottom-up and put the community at the center of development. Reimbursable fees was project delivered through a process of recipient communities allowed to pay for the service and later on given back the spent resources. That was popular in primary health care and education. Member contribution was an approach through which members of the community made contributions towards a common cause such as road construction, community school construction and other projects of common cause. Large scale and long-term projects are mainly provided by government and bilateral partners. Most popular in this category were dams, industrial development and other infrastructure development. Public Private Partnership (PPP) was a new partnership arrangement between the private sector and public (government) sector. In this category, the private sector was allowed to partner with government through provision of capital where the private sector realize benefits ranging from direct profits to fringe benefits in tax incentives. Public policy change was an initiative focused on financing policy regulatory reviews to influence effective and efficient ways of doing business. In this category, the target was the nation rather than the specific recipient community because policy change affected everyone. Beneficiary broker service was a model that appreciated expert go-between services from an expert institution such as insurance. In this model category, service providers might take an initiative of offering guarantees on behalf of the community to enable them receive donor support. Market development was focused on ensuring sustainable development through business incubation, market intermediation and product development. Focused on market growth, locally available resources were utilized to build marketable products and utilizing local expertise.

Networking was a new development model that capitalized on expert relationships beyond the recipient community.

Fig 4.9

Applied Funding Model



Note: Figure 4.9 indicated the applied funding model and level of percentage prominence. The legends included Highest applied model (Deep blue), Highly applied model (Red), Moderately applied model (Green), Lowly applied model (Pink), Lowest applied model (Light Blue) and Not sure (Orange). Source: Field data

The descriptive analysis indicated a narrow divergence of the sample mean with the population mean. The negative skewness (1.086) indicated a long tail to the left. The low Kurtosis (3.155) indicated that the data had frequent modest-sized deviations.

Table 4.19

Applied Model Descriptive Statistic

Size	Range	Median	Std.dev	Std error	Skewness	Kurtosis	Coefficient of variation	Outlier
48	109	59.5	34.198	4.36	-0.202	1.838	0.634	

Note: Table 4.19 showed the descriptive results on Applied Model. Source: Field data

The third question assessed the frequently applied funding model by donors. Figure 4.9 indicated the most frequently applied donor funding model that included free grant, goods and service provision and in-kind donations.

The descriptive analysis indicated a narrow divergence of the sample mean with the population mean. The positive skewness (1.086) indicated a long tail to the right. The low Kurtosis (3.155) indicated that the data had frequent modest-sized deviations.

Table 4.20

Frequently Applied Funding Model Descriptive Statistics

Size	Range	Median	Std.dev	Std error	Skewness	Kurtosis	Coefficient of variation	Outlier
35	171	54	41.190	6.962	1.086	3.155	0.634	185

Note: Table 4.20 showed the descriptive results on Frequently Applied Model. Source: Field data

The fourth question assessed the donor fund supply channel that the community would prefer in future. The descriptive analysis indicated a narrow divergence of the sample mean with the population mean. The positive skewness (1.088) indicated a long tail to the right. The low Kurtosis (5.175) indicated that the data had frequent modest-sized deviations. The descriptive analysis was as indicated below.

Table 4.21

Preferred Funding Model Descriptive Statistic

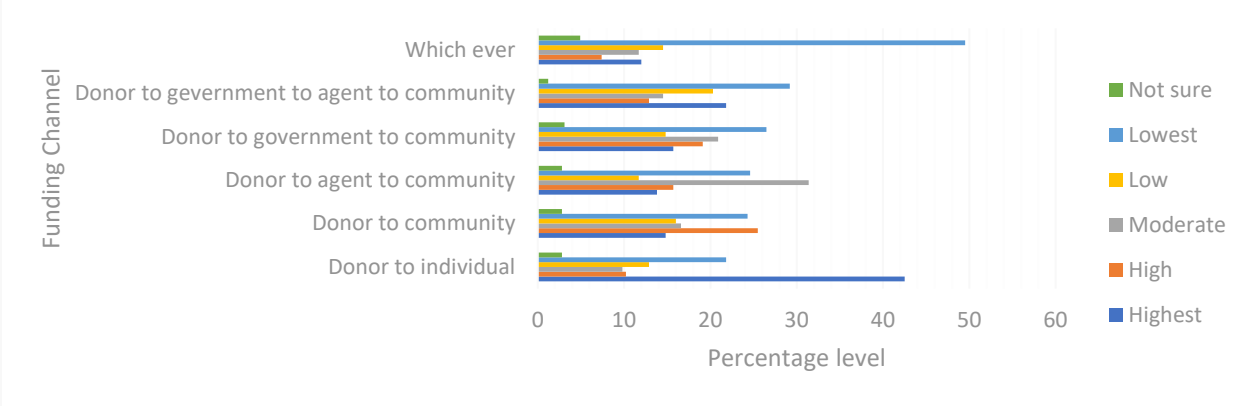
Size	Range	Median	Std.dev	Std error	Skewness	Kurtosis	Coefficient of variation	Outlier
36	15	59.5	34.523	5.754	1.088	5.175	0.637	

Note: Table 4.21 showed the descriptive results on Funding Model. Source: Field data

Considering the required change in the donor aid delivery mechanism, respondents preferred delivery of aid directly from donor to community followed by donor to government to agent to community (Figure 4.10).

Fig 4.10

Community Preferred Donor Funding Supply Channel



Note: Figure 4.10 indicated the community preferred donor funding supply channel and level of percentage prominence. The legends included Highest preference (Deep blue), High preference (Red), Moderate preference (Green), Low preference (Pink), Lowest preference (Light Blue) and Not sure (Orange). Source: Field data

The fifth question explored the extent to which the community was prepared by the donor to take part in the project. Table 4.22 indicated the community preparation. The study established that 63.4% (N=325) received training, orientation and shared responsibilities while 14.8% were

not prepared and 3.7% and 1.8% (N=325) were offered training and oriented to the programme respectively.

Table 4.22

Community Preparedness, Consultation, And Fund Utilization Decider

Community Preparation	Frequency	% Frequency
No preparations	48	14.8
Offered training	12	3.7
Oriented to the program	6	1.8
Offered training and oriented to the program	36	11.1
Offered training and shared responsibilities/roles	8	2.5
Oriented to the program, shared responsibilities and roles	9	2.8
Offered trainings, oriented to the program and shared responsibilities/roles	206	63.4

N=325

Note: Table 4.22 showed the assessment on community preparations for donor funding and the process taken to prepare them. Frequency indicated the number of respondents on each response option. Source: Field data

The sixth question assessed the extent to which communities were consulted over what needed to be funded. This study established low level consultation as 67.7% (N=325) were not consulted over the donor aid project (Table 4.23).

Table 4.23

Community Consultation In Donor Funded Projects

Community consultation	Frequency	% Frequency
Yes	220	67.7
No	104	32.0
Not sure	1	3

Note: Table 4.23 showed the assessment on community consultation in donor funded projects. Frequency indicated the number of respondents on Yes, No and Not sure response option. Source: Field data

The seventh question evaluated the decision making level over the funded resources between the donor, implementing agent and community. This research established that up to 20% level, decisions were jointly made by the Community, Implementing agent and Donor while 18% was made by the community (Table 4.24). Qualitative result on secrecy in decision making validated quantitative result that donors were statistically significant deciders on fund utilization (F=0.009).

Table 4.24

Donor Fund Utilization Decision Makers

Fund Use Decider	**Frequency**	**% Frequency**
Community	60	18.5
Donor	5	1.5
Implementing agent	11	3.4
Individual beneficiary	41	12.6
Community and Donor	9	2.8
Implementing agent and Donor	26	8.0
Individual beneficiary and Community	17	5.2
Individual beneficiary and Donor	3	.9
Individual beneficiary and Implementing agent	2	.6
Community, Implementing agent and Donor	68	20.9
Individual beneficiary, Community and Donor	11	3.4
Individual beneficiary, Community and Implementing agent	7	2.2
Individual beneficiary, Implementing agent and Donor	1	.3
Individual beneficiary, Community, Implementing agent and Donor	25	7.7
Not sure	7	2.2

N=325

Note: Table 4.24 indicated the donor fund utilization decision makers based on response frequency. Source: Field data.

The eighth question examined the hindering factors that made the community fail to make decisions. Table 4.27 indicated a combination of factors making up to 26.2% (n=325) while 15.2%

faced no hindrance. Factors like funds just brought to the community, lack of information and less community power hindered community decision making on donor aid to a level of 12.6% (see Table 4.25).

Table 4.25

Hindrance To Donor Fund Decision Making

Hindrance factors	Frequency	% Frequency
Single hindrance factor Everything kept secret	16	4.9
Funds are just brought to us	22	6.8
Lack of information	8	2.5
Less power	18	5.5
Double hindrance factors Funds are just brought to us and everything kept secret	6	1.8
Funds are just brought to us with lack of information	11	3.4
Funds are just brought to us as we have less power	2	.6
Lack of information as everything is kept secret	8	2.5
Lack of information and less power	20	6.2
Less power and everything kept secret	2	.6
Triple hindrance factors Funds are just brought to us, less power and everything kept secret	14	4.3
Funds are just brought to us, lack of information and everything kept secret	4	1.2
Funds are just brought to us, lack of information and less power	41	12.6
Lack of information, less power and everything kept secret	18	5.5
Funds are just brought to us, Lack of information, Less power, Everything kept secret	85	26.2
Nothing	50	15.4

N=325

Note: Table 4.25 indicated the hindrance to donor fund decision making by the community based on response frequency. Source: Field data.

The ninth question aimed at assessing the relationship between the donor aid funding agent and the community. Table 4.26 established that low level (23.1%) formal partnership and 21.2%

informal agreement while shared responsibility was only at 5.8% and 14.5% had no form of agreement at all. The combined agreements covered 27.4% and a combination of all three systems was 8.0%.

Table 4.26

Relationship Between Community And Donor Fund Agents

Relationship between community and DF agent	Frequency	Percent
Formal partnership agreement	75	23.1
Informal agreement	69	21.2
Shared responsibility	19	5.8
Formal partnership agreement and Shared responsibility	51	15.7
Informal agreement, Formal partnership agreement	9	2.8
Informal agreement, Shared responsibility	29	8.9
Informal agreement, Formal partnership agreement, Shared responsibility	26	8.0
None	47	14.5

N=325

Note: Table 4.26 indicated the relationship between community and donor fund agents based on response frequency. Source: Field data.

The tenth question assessed the conditions applied to the community to receive donor aid. The descriptive results are indicated in the table 4.27.

Table 4.27

Funding Condition Descriptive Statistic

Size	Range	Median	Std.dev	Std error	Skewness	Kurtosis	Coefficient of variation	Outlier
48	149	58	32.116	4.636	0.482	4.064	0.597	

Note: Table 4.27 showed the descriptive results on funding conditions. Source: Field data

Among the highest considered conditions (above 15% mark) were membership in local group, gender consideration and vulnerable status. Contribution in-kind, matching grant and payback loan were the lowest considered conditions (Table 4.28). Qualitative results that rigidity in operational arrangements, delays and late delivery validated the quantitative result that there was direct and positive relationship between the applied funding model and funding conditions.

Table 4.28

Donor Conditionalities

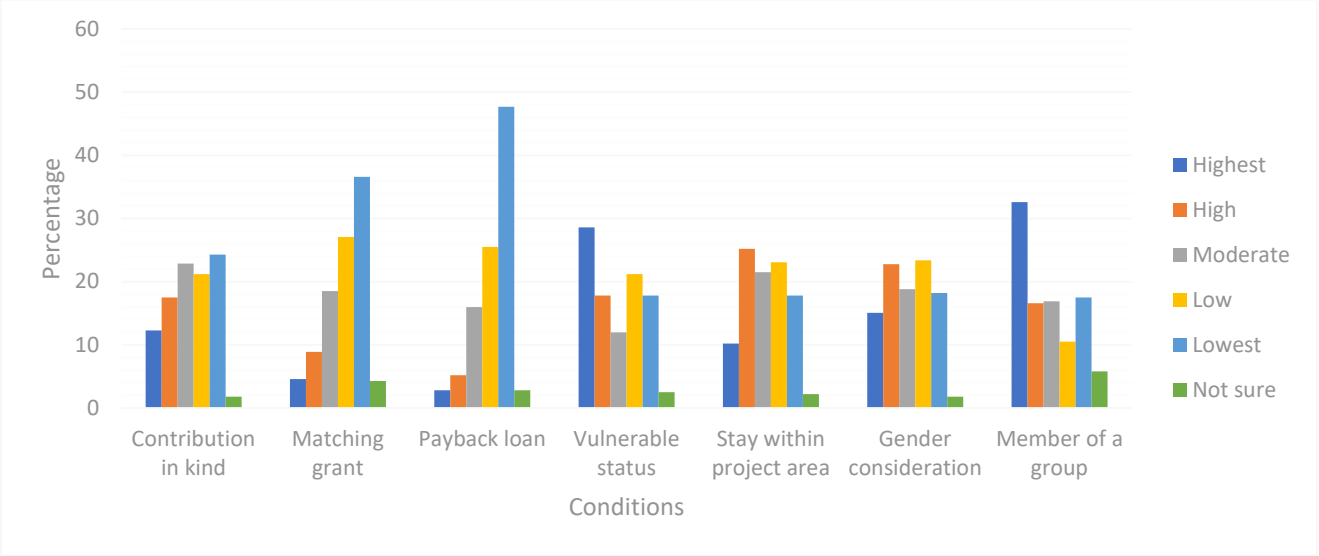
Conditions	Highest considered	Highly considered	Lowest considered	Lowly considered	Moderately considered
Contribution in-kind	12.3	17.5	24.3	21.2	22.8
Matching grant	4.6	8.9	36.6	27.1	18.5
Pay Back Loan	2.8	5.2	47.7	25.5	16
Vulnerable status	28.6	17.8	17.8	21.2	12
Stay within project area	14.2	19.4	18.5	21.8	24.3
Gender consideration	10.2	25.2	17.8	23.1	21.5
Member of a group	15.1	22.8	18.2	23.4	18.8
No condition	32.6	16.6	17.5	10.5	16.9
%Mean	19.4				
%Std (75% CI)	8.4				

Note: Table 4.28 showed the prominence of donor conditions, measured on dichotomous scale of Highest, High, moderate, low and no influence. Source: Field data.

The donor applied a number of conditions. Among them were contributions in-kind, matching grant, pay back loan, vulnerable status and place of residence. Others were gender and membership to the group. Figure 4.11 the most applied condition was membership to a group, followed by vulnerability status, gender considerations before contribution in-kind.

Fig 4.11

Conditions Applied To Receive Donor Funding



Note: Figure 4.11 indicated the conditions applied to receive donor funding and level of percentage prominence. The legends included Highest preference (Deep blue), High preference (Red), Moderate preference (Green), Low preference (Pink), Lowest preference (Light Blue) and Not sure (Orange). Source: Field data

The eleventh question assessed the institutions that delivered donor aid in the community. The study established that government and NGOs were the key institutions that mostly delivered donor aid in the community. The private sector, Community-based organizations and the church faith-based organizations performed at medium level.

The private sector service provision was based on profit-making and therefore were not considered as genuine donors by the community. In this case, the private sector got involved in donor funded projects through reimbursable cost arrangements where their incurred costs were passed-on to the donor.

Community-based organizations took the form of community owned institutions formed to foster development in the given area. The downside of these institutions was lack capital and

expert capacity to deliver development. Therefore, their work was highly dependent on the donor support almost for everything that they needed. However, once effectively supported, they had great potential to sustainably change community well-being.

The faith-based organizations, formed by the churches delivered services based on their church doctrines.

The correlation between the experienced change and the way the donor funds were delivered indicated 1.16 and 2.28 means and 0.366 and 1.005 standard deviation respectively. The Pearson Correlation test established significant correlation ($t=0.042$, $p<0.05$) between the two variables for 2 tailed test. This result confirmed the respondent experiences of change which was dependent on the way donor funds were delivered to their communities.

A Pearson Chi-square test (95% confidence interval and 5 degrees of freedom) indicated statistically significant results on food security and food diversification. This result confirmed the vulnerability of the rural community wishing to invest on production as the other sector interventions required huge capital investment.

Table 4.29

Chi-Square Test Results For Food Security Sector Funding

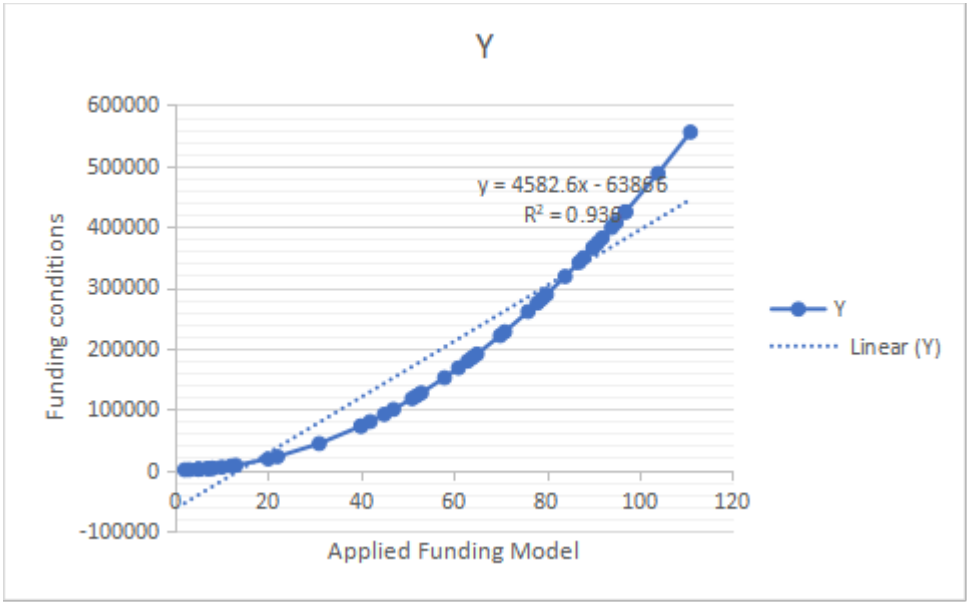
Variable	**Pearson chi-square**	**Likelihood ratio**	**Asymptotic significance (2 sided)**	
			Pearson chi-square	**Likelihood ratio**
Food production	17.915	19.221	0.001	0.002
Food diversification	24.670	26.597	0.000	0.000
Extension training and advisory services	12.477	12.664	0.027	0.027
Irrigation and water conservation	5.231	5.266	0.388	0.384
Sustainable farming practices	10.013	10.134	0.075	0.072
Food storage and postharvest management	10.540	10.864	0.061	0.054
Food processing and value addition	3.327	3.555	0.650	0.615

Note: Table 4.29 indicated the Chi-square test results for food security sector funding based on study variable and gave a prediction of the probability significance of likelihood. Source: Field data.

The quadratic regression analysis ($y = ax^2 + bx + c$, where $a \neq 0$) of the applied funding model and funding conditions indicated a coefficient $a = 45.1 > 0$, $b = -0.3143$; $c = 0.0063$ giving an upward parabola. This indicated that as the value of the independent variable increased, the mean of the dependent variable also tended to increase. Further test on the applied funding model and funding conditions indicated the T-Test value of 0.03.

Fig 4.12

Applied Funding Model Vs Funding Condition Regression Curve



Note: Figure 4.12 indicated the regression curve developed on applied funding model against funding conditions. The T-value (0.03) was less than the critical value (2.01) and that led to the acceptance of the null hypothesis. Source: Field data

T value of 0.03 meant that there was very high similarity between the two data variables and not statistically different. If the absolute value of the calculated T-statistic was larger than the

critical value of T, then the null hypothesis must be rejected. On this two-tailed test, the degree of freedom was 47. At 5% Margin of error, the t statistic 0.03 was less than the 2.01 critical value. In this case, where the T-value (0.03) was less than the critical value (2.01), the null hypothesis was accepted.

Considering that if the p-value was less than or equal to 0.05, we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there was a significant difference between the two groups of variables. If the p-value is greater than 0.05, we fail to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is no significant difference between the two groups or variables. Therefore, the result was not significant because the p-value (0.97619) was greater than (0.05) at 95% significant level and 47 degrees of freedom.

The Pearson Chi-square (95% confidence interval and 5 degrees of freedom (see Table 4.30) found goods and services provision, in-kind donations and market development to be statistically significantly applied funding model with likelihood to continue in future.

Table 4.30

Chi-Square Test Results For Applied Funding Model

Variable	Pearson chi-square	Likelihood ratio	Asymptotic significance (2 sided)	
			Pearson chi-square	Likelihood ratio
Free grant	7.490	7.553	0.183	0.187
Good and services provision	12.932	13.355	0.024	0.020
In-kind donation	14.755	14.976	0.011	0.010
Funding popular needs	4.292	4.415	0.518	0.491
Reimbursable fees	6.542	5.713	0.257	0.243
Member contribution	4.700	4.725	0.454	0.450
Large scale and long-term project	7.723	8.163	0.173	0.147
Public Private Partnership	5.227	5.329	0.389	0.377
Public policy Change	4.169	4.240	0.525	0.515
Beneficiary broker	7.214	7.397	0.205	0.193
Market development	16.657	17.782	0.005	0.003
Nationalization and networking	9.953	10.309	0.077	0.067

Note: Table 4.30 indicated the Chi-square test results for donor motivating factors based on study variable and gave a prediction of the probability significance of likelihood. Source: Field data.

A chi-square test ran on the variables indicated change towards donor to individual, donor to community, donor to government to community and donor to government to agent to community as statistically significant variables (Table 4.31). This result confirmed the position of the community that “donor agents retained a lot money meant to support the vulnerable communities”. The private sector, community-based organizations and churches were statistically significant (F = 0.005, F= 0.002 and F= 0.010 respectively) in delivering donor aid at community level.

Table 4.31

Chi-Square Test Results For Proposed Applied Funding Model

Variable	Pearson chi-square	Likelihood ratio	Asymptotic significance (2 sided)	
			Pearson chi-square	Likelihood ratio
Donor to individual	52.208	55.848	0.000	0.000
Donor to community	28.809	27.423	0.000	0.000
Donor-agent-community	3.422	3.453	0.635	0.631
Donor-govt-community	12.267	12.417	0.031	0.029
Donor-govt-agent- community	13.279	13.388	0.021	0.020
Whichever	3.223	3.238	0.666	0.663

Note: Table 4.31 indicated the Chi-square test results for proposed applied funding model based on study variable and gave a prediction of the probability significance of likelihood. Source: Field data.

The ANOVA operated on final decider of donor fund utilization established statistically significant position for donors (F=0.009) as the final deciders on the use of donor funds and this confirmed the community assertion that ‘money is just brought’ and ‘we have no power’ to challenge its usage.

The study established that all applied conditions were statistically significant except for matching grant and pay back loan (see Table 4.32). Such a position was genuine as rural communities had no financial capacity to contribute to the project. Apart from incapacity, the community perception was that donor funds was to be received without any contribution from them, save only for their participation. However, due to limited resources, new trends such as food-for-work, contribution in-kind such as stones, sand and labor in some infrastructure development projects had become common.

Table 4.32

Chi-Square Test Results For Conditions Applied In Donor Funding

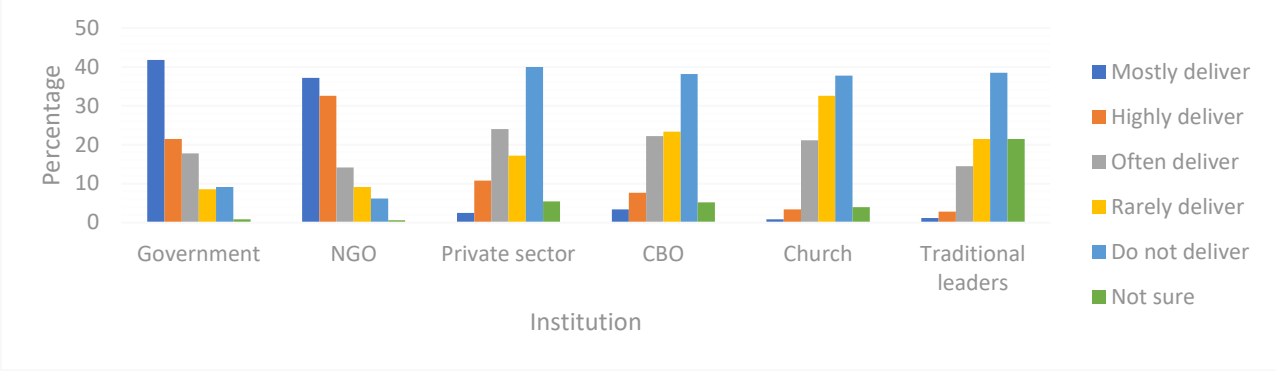
Variable	Pearson chi-square	Likelihood ratio	Asymptotic significance (2 sided)	
			Pearson chi-square	Likelihood ratio
Contribution in kind	17.702	18.380	0.003	0.003
Matching grant	10.927	10.990	0.053	0.052
Pay back loan	4.125	4.279	0.531	0.510
Vulnerable status	30.054	30.799	0.000	0.000
Stay within the project area	26.004	26.619	0.000	0.000
Gender consideration	20.352	20.669	0.001	0.001
Member of a group	35.724	37.051	0.000	0.000
No conditions- free grant	11.744	13.390	0.038	0.026

Note: Table 4.32 indicated the Chi-square test results for conditions applied in donor funding based on proposed possible responses their likelihood. Source: Field data.

The assessed the institutions that provided consistent services to the communities utilizing the donor resources. Among the assessed institutions were government agencies, non-governmental organizations, private sector, community-based organizations, churches or faith-based organizations and traditional leaders (Figure 4.13).

Fig 4.13

Institutions Delivering Donor Fund In Food Security



Note: Figure 4.13 indicated the institutions delivering donor fund targeting food security and level of percentage prominence. The legends included Mostly delivered (Deep blue), Highly delivered (Red), Often delivered (Green), Rarely delivered (Pink), Did not deliver (Light Blue) and Not sure (Orange). Source: Field data.

Table 4.33

Active Donor Agencies

Active Donor Agencies								
Size	**Range**	**Median**	**Std.dev**	**Std error**	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**	**Coefficient of variation**	**Outlier**
36	134	46.5	43.551	7.259	0.532	3.240	0.804	

Note: Table 4.33 showed the descriptive results on Active donor agencies. Source: Field data

The active donor agencies had a standard deviation of 43.551. The ANOVA tests Test Statistic F: 0.002 and P Value 1.0. With the F: 0.002 < 2.571, we accept null hypothesis. It was established that a mixture of factors hindered the community to make decisions and they included secrecy, funds just taken to the community without any form of consultation, lack of information and less community power to influence change. Communities were hindered in making decisions mainly because everything was “kept secret” from them (Pearson Chi-square F score 0.001, $p<0.05$) and ‘funds just taken’ to the community (F score 0.017, $p<0.05$).

The overall assessment on the relationship between impact, applied model, donor motivation, community model, donor motivation, community motivation and funding conditions, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was undertaken to compare the means of the groups compared. The realized Test Statistic F was 4.174 and p-value if 0.01214. Within the provisions of the rules of ANOVA, if the F Test result was less than the critical value (value in the F-Table, reject null hypothesis and verse versa. At 4 degrees of freedom, 95% confidence interval, the F-test 4.174 > Critical Value 2.778, we failed to accept the hypothesis.

The ANOVA test on active donor agencies results in Test statistic F (0.002) and p-value (1.00). Given that the F value (0.002) < 2.571, we accepted the null hypothesis at a significance level of 0.05).

4.3.2 Qualitative information and results

The qualitative data was collected from 12 participants (fifty percent (50%) male and fifty percent (50%) female) through a focused group discussion. Geographically respondents were 5 for Monze and 7 for Mazabuka representing 41.7% and 58.3% respectively. Among the respondents 6 representing 50% were community leaders that participated in the project implementation in the past ten (10) years. The remaining 6 representing 50% were project implementers from the donor agency institutions. The donor agency institutions referred to intermediary institutions like government agencies, non-governmental organizations and private sector engaged by the donors to implement the project at community level.

Respondents in the age range of 31-40 years were 3 representing 25%, 5 in the age range of 41-50 years representing 41.7%, 2 in the age range of 51-60 years representing 16.7% and 2 above 60 years representing 16.7%. None of the respondents in the qualitative survey took part in the quantitative survey, thus provided triangulated information to the quantitative data. The focused group discussions were held until saturation was reached. Tables 4.34 indicated the qualitative demographic information.

Table 4.34

Demographic Information Of The Qualitative Study

Demography Measurement	Parameter	Frequency	Percent
Ward	Monze	5	41.7
	Mazabuka	7	58.3
Gender	Female	6	50.0
	Male	6	50.0
Age group	31 - 40 years	3	25.0
	41 - 50 years	5	41.7
	51 - 60 years	2	16.7
	Above 60 years	2	16.7

N= 12

Note: Table 4.34 indicated the demographic information of the qualitative study, indicating the demography measurement, measurement parameter and the resulting frequency absolute number and percentage frequency. Source: Field data

4.3.2.1 Community donor project experience

From the qualitative results, respondents confirmed that "*in the past 10 years, our area implemented four (4) projects covering drought mitigation, livestock disease control, efficient use of water in dairy and horticulture for climate change mitigation, food relief and financial savings*". The projects were supported by various institutions including NGOs, government and multilateral institutions. In the donor aid delivery system, a multiplicity of ways was applied. Participants observed that "*donor aid had multiplicity of channels dependent on the conditions of the donor and the situation being addressed*". The donor aided projects were open to everyone in the community. The participants assented that "*at start of the project, all community members were invited to participate but only those that volunteered their time fully ended up participating during full project implementation*". The participants further stated that it was "*those that volunteered who benefited from the donor funded project*".

4.3.2.2 Areas on which impact was felt by the community

Qualitative data confirmed presence of a number of projects in the study area and indicated that “in the past 10 years, our area implemented projects covering drought mitigation, livestock disease control, efficient use of water in dairy and horticulture for climate change mitigation, food relief and financial savings”.

The participants observed that the donor aided projects “impacted the community positively especially in the area of hygiene and sanitation’ and ‘improved access to clean drinking water, health, food and nutrition while climate change was tackled through conservation farming system”. The participants identified other benefits from the donor aid projects like “diversified income sources” realized through “knowledge gained from project trainings”. Diversified income “reduced malnutrition and increased access to health care services”. Despite observed gains, the community recorded some failures in the donor funded projects based on poor project “from inception we would know that this project will not work well” and at times there was no difference between the community serviced by donor projects and those not serviced. Overall not all people “significantly increased their household income” because the “projects just provided training and construction materials for community infrastructure” and anticipated a trickle-down effect in the community. The perceptions on implemented donor projects were positive, giving frequency rating of 186 representing a percentage rate of 57.2% (see Table 4.35).

Table 4.35

Happy With Donor Fund Delivered

Happy with donor fund delivery	Frequency	Percent
Yes	186	57.2
No	28	8.6
Not sure	111	34.2
Total	325	100.0

Note: Table 4.13 indicated the respondent agreement to their appreciation of donor fund delivery measured through nominal responses of Yes, No and Not sure. Source: Field data

4.3.2.3 Relevance of donor funding

According to the respondents, donor aid was important and able to give positive results so long it was of quality and done timely. Experience in the past ten (10) years exhibited poor quality delivery of inputs, technology and services. It also exhibited late delivery of services where by two or three year projects were reduced to one year due to delays in start of the project while maintaining the end date. The study established that the donor aided projects were usually well intended to support vulnerable farming communities as the participants observed that "*in most projects, objectives were on point and well-intended*". However, the participants complained of the delays in the project delivery, stating that "*increased intermediary group increased delays and lose of resources"*. They also stated that "*the major problem was the channel through which money passed as at each step, a lot of money remained and only about 45%, if you are lucky, reached the intended community*". The participants complained that "*it was important to realize that donor money was released because of the vulnerable community but if the vulnerable communities receive peanuts from the total allocated amount, then there was a challenge in the delivery model*".

4.3.2.4 Delivery channel

The communities complained of retention of donor funds “the biggest problem was government and NGOs as they retained a lot of donor funds” and observed that “donors were not a problem as they always release money to support the communities”. The other factor was delivery of “inferior project materials”, “delays in release of funds that led to late implementation of activities”, “short time for any meaningful impact” and “phase-out of projects with no moral obligation to safeguard what was left behind”. Participants also observed that “in some instances, projects came up with very expensive solutions that communities failed to handle on their own during and after project period”. The communities blamed themselves for “deep rooted negative culture believe in indigenous knowledge that was difficult to change”. The participants suggested a consultative process in project design, observing that “sustainable development was assured where solutions came from the community rather than the donor or implementing agency”. The participants lamented “dishing out materials to communities” as it was not sustainable. The project was operated at various levels involving donors, intermediary institutions and community.

The participants suggested a shift in the delivery of donor aid, indicating that “*to improve on the donor aid system, the supply chain needs to be checked and strengthened*” and donors should consider “*sending aid direct to the individuals in the community*”. While delivering donor aid directly to the community might sound like a good model, caution must be exercised as the community might not have “*total control over the resources like the donors who are controlled through their bilateral and multilateral agreements*”.

4.3.2.5 Challenges in donor funding

The study established a number of challenges in the donor aid system. It was already established that donors provided aid to the vulnerable communities but very little reached them as the “actual amount that the donors provided” did not reach the intended communities as “much of

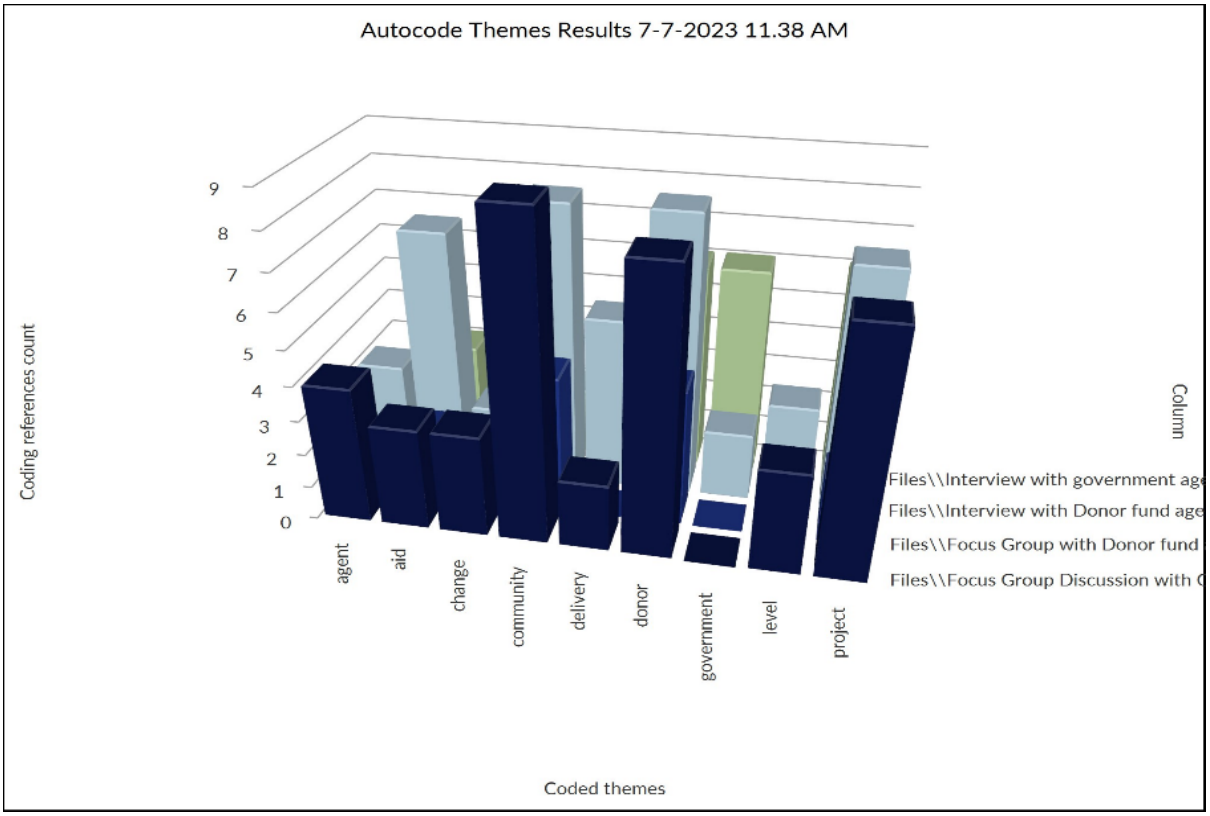
the money remained with the agents in the supply chain (government, NGOs and whoever received the money)". Participants confirmed that the "donors had no problem as they always released money to support the communities". The participants observed that "donor money was released because of the vulnerable community but if the vulnerable communities received peanuts from the total allocated amount, then there was a challenge in the delivery model". Most "projects only provided knowledge and no means to implement the knowledge or skills imparted". Late delivery of project resources and services was cited as another major challenge and when delay happened, project implementers "did not give clear reasons".

4.3.2.6 Analysis of qualitative results

The qualitative analysis utilizing the Nvivo software produced the codebook (Appendix 4) with auto-coded codes (Figure 4.1) that included impact and sustainability, challenges, experienced support model and motivation. Theme identification was applied on cases and codes and obtained the project, donor and community as key themes. Other themes included change, delivery, aid and agent. Figure 4.1 presented the auto-coded themes and Fig 4.2 indicated the cloud map, demonstrating the centrality of philanthropic support around the donors, the community and the projects implemented with donor funds. It also indicated that the resultant change was dependent on external factors such as delivery mechanisms, aid resources and donor agents.

Fig 4.14

Auto-Coded Themes



Note: Figure 4.14 indicated the auto-themes from the Nvivo descriptive analysis. Source: Field data.

Fig 4.15

Word Cloud Map.

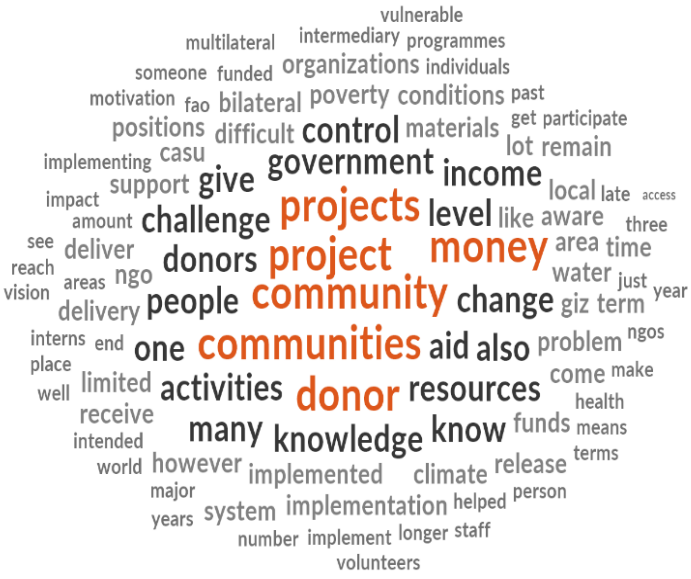


Fig 4.15 indicated the concentration of the results on projects, community and money. *Source: Field data.*

The qualitative results qualified that communities were significantly (p-0.001) motivated by their vulnerability, however, there was limited relationship between the donor motivation and community felt change (Value of r=0.0745.

This study established that the central motivation factor at all levels (donors, intermediaries and communities) was money - “to be honest, the true motivation of any person in this projects is money”. However, in-depth analysis of the motivation factor brought out many other factors. Compassion was the key motivating factor that influenced donors, based on a “full understanding of the poverty situation, desperation and vulnerability people under high incidences of malnutrition and climate change effects”. The other “driving force” under consideration by donors, was “community participation”. This meant that while the donor were compassionate about the situation rural poor people found themselves on, their minimal contribution should be assured for

them receive support. Through this study, the communities observed hidden motives among donors especially “creating jobs for their own people”.

At the intermediary level, the main motivating factor identified was money and the need to solve personal income poverty – “implementing agencies were there just for money to solve their income poverty” and “issues of community livelihood and long term sustainability was secondary” to them. The “driving force” for rural and vulnerable community was to solve their poverty situation and finding the “strategic survival measure”, means to “maximize moveable asset accumulation” and building their “social safety net” for assured long-term resilience.

The result from this study indicated that active community participation, political recognition, religious beliefs, economic vulnerability, community marginalization and corporate social responsibility drove the donors to support the community and the likelihood for the same to be considered in future financing was significant. This result indicated that capacity to respond was the driver of donor aid provision and with it partnerships and relationships for aid delivery were important. At the intermediary level, the main motivating factor identified was money and the need to solve personal income poverty. In literature, key drivers of donor aid included political, socioeconomic and internal and external incentives.

At donor level, the challenge experienced in the supply model was application of “one-solution fits all with a lot of rigidity” to accommodate innovative ideas. Most donor aid projects came with “pre-set development agenda and conditions and accepted minimal alterations if any”. The other challenge was “stiff competition for resources experienced” at intermediary agent level which led to fragmentation where you find “four or five projects working in the same area” without any form of coordination. Due to stiff competition at community level, many projects resorted to “dishing out resources (in-kind incentives) to the communities to entice their participation”.

Communities were hindered in making decisions mainly because everything was ‘kept secret’ from them (Pearson Chi-square F score 0.001, $p<0.05$) and ‘funds just taken’ to the community (F score 0.017, $p<0.05$). The community had “less power to complain and complain to whom?” The participants observed that communities had “protective tendencies” and avoided reprimanding any of their members. Basically there were no “means to hold community members to account”.

4.3.3 Evaluation of results

4.3.3.1 Evaluation of demography results

This research was conducted in two districts and two wards in Southern Province of Zambia. The literature review indicated that the two areas were homogeneous in terms of culture, social and economic activities. Based on their 10 years practical experience of participating in donor funded food security projects and other development aid projects, the farming community recognized agriculture as an industry with free entry and in which they could engage with limited exclusion conditions. However, the study observed low impact on food security compared to other sectors like water and sanitation. Over the years, the rural farming communities depended on donors and government support for their agricultural business development. In all these years of receiving support, their situation did not change as they still faced low production and productivity, food insecurity, income insecurity, low nutrition levels and general desperation. Notwithstanding the negative experiences, the farming communities were hopeful that the applied models would be of quality and timely.

Food security projects had spill-over effects towards improving nutrition, diversified income, access to education and health. With improved production knowledge and skills, the

farming community had the potential to improve their economic and social status and be able to challenge political injustices.

4.3.3.2 Evaluation of donor aid impact results

In addressing poverty, this study established improvement in socioeconomic/ livelihood outcome aspects (water and sanitation, food security condition, nutrition status, income status, access to education and health care) and less on attitude, beliefs and behavioral aspects (funding condition, operational environment, responsibility and partnership, perception of donor funds and community social standing). The community ranked socioeconomic aspects to have high and moderate effects while attitude, beliefs and behavioral aspects were at moderate to low level impact. This result reviewed the low level of interventions on the most important developmental aspects of addressing poverty by ensuring cultural, attitudes, beliefs and behavioral change.

The findings were not divergent from literature in placing agricultural livelihood at the center of rural development. In rural communities, 60% depended on agriculture (Baumgartner & Kapotwe, 2019; Phiri et. al., 2020) and according to International Trade Administration US Department of Commerce (2022), agriculture employed 90% of the Zambia's population. To ensure food security, the rural communities engaged in diversified food production and ensured good storage and post-harvest management. Ruete (2015) argued in the '*Investment in Agriculture Policy Brief*' that food security, poverty reduction and mainstreaming interests of marginalized groups were highly considered and achieved through climate smart interventions like livelihood diversification and application of sustainable farming systems. Limited funding to extension training and technical assistance, irrigation and water conservation, food processing and value addition activities signified lack of holistic approach to solving community needs. This linear approach to rural development limited community resilience.

The rural communities had different needs that required diverse interventions to carter for the majority of the rural population. Moreover, the rural communities were not at the same level of vulnerability. Complicating the situation was the operational system where the projects were delivered under one solution-fits-all approach. The one solution-fits-all felled short of addressing the different community needs. The other factor that compromised participation was donor predictability (Deutscher & Fyson, 2008) especially when it came to timely delivery of aid resources. The study established "*delayed delivery without genuine reasons*".

This research established six (6) organizations that implemented more than one project in the same area. At the level of implementing agencies, fragmentation and poor coordination was rife. It was common to find one implementing agency undertaking more than one project in the same area and funded by different donors. Adding to institutional fragmentation was multiplicity of delivery pathways which increased the confusion at community level. The donor organizations delivered short and long-term projects in the areas of climate change and drought mitigation, livestock development, water resource conservation and management, horticultural production, food relief and financial inclusion. This result was expected as Southern Province (the study area) had many organizations delivering projects. While every donor had good intentions for their support, the donor institutions and implementing agencies were fragmented and lacked coordinated approach in addressing community challenges such as climate change and drought mitigation, livestock development, water resource conservation and management, horticultural production, food relief and financial inclusion.

Fragmentation of donor aid projects was not unique to this study area only as the entire world experienced it. At global level, institutional complexity was noted, where 280 bilateral donor agencies, 242 multilateral programmes, 26 development banks and over 40 United Nations

agencies plus so many private foundations and nongovernmental organizations worked in the development aid business with an estimated 340,000 projects in operation (Deutscher & Fyson, 2008). Fragmentation of donor projects was not only at community level but was also at donor level where one donor provided aid to multiple countries. Annen and Moers (2012) observed that in 2009 and out of 142 developing countries, Japan supported 140 countries, USA 138 countries, Canada 137 countries, Germany 138 countries, France 129 countries, United Kingdom 127 countries, European Union institutions 141 countries, the United Nations 140 countries and International Monetary Fund 38 countries to a combined gross sum of USD 70.8 billion. These meant that Japan, European Union and United Nations almost had projects in all 142 developing countries. With such complexity, institutional and operational fragmentation was expected throughout the donor aid fabric. At local level, competition for impact and visibility led to limited coordination and competition for resources (Annen & Moers, 2012). Competition for impact and visibility resulted in many donors implementing projects in easily accessible areas. Fengler (2010), argued that fragmentation of donor aid into small projects made coordination and reliability challenging and recommended for a new model with changes that addresses the size of the problem.

The institutional fragmentation, poor coordination, multiplicity of projects and open targeting were recipes for low impact. In such conditions, it was easy for stakeholders in the donor aid business to manipulate the system and increase the probability of donor funds not reaching the intended beneficiaries. This confirmed the community assertion that less funds than provided by donors reached them. It was for that reason that the OECD (2005), working on aid effectiveness through the Paris Declaration, saw the need for holistic approach to development (Annen & Moers, 2012) to make financial aid effective.

The critical question of sustainability and long-term impact measurement was dependent on community perception of donor aid and how they repositioned themselves in the light of social aspects. Therefore, the question of whether the donor aid had lasting impact on the community had mixed answers. The mixed position on impact correlated with earlier indications of the literature review and was further supported by many scholars (Alemu & Lee, 2015; Alghamdi, 2016; Mutsumara, 2015; Izoko, 2020). Alemu and Lee (2015) argued that foreign aid stimulated economic growth in low income African countries. Investigating the Impact of *Foreign Aid, Policies and their Interaction on Economic Growth*, Alghamdi (2016) concluded that foreign aid had positive, statistically significant but minimal effect on economic growth. Mai Alghamdi's study observed diminishing returns as the volume of aid increased and prolonged exposure to aid caused degeneration of morals among recipients. Mutsumara (2015), studying the '*NGOs' Activities and Food Security in Sinazongwe*' in Zambia, argued that the effectiveness and achievement of food aid were not clear. Studying the '*Impact of Foreign Aid in Africa: Case of Botswana and Somalia'*, Izoko (2020) argued that little or no improvement was made in socioeconomic or political development. From literature and results of this study, the picture of donor aid impact was not clear and demanded for in-depth exploration of the underlying reasons for that position.

This study recorded a number of factors that compromised the expected impact, among them retention of donor funds by implementing agencies, delivery of 'inferior project materials', 'delay in release of funds, 'short-term projects for meaningful impact', and project 'phase-out before achievement of set goals. Others included externally driven 'expensive solutions' and negative 'cultural aspects'. This study established various reasons that curtailed envisaged impact among them short-term nature of the projects, design problems, competitive tendencies and donor

funds returned to donor countries through professional staff attachments. The impact was also compromised by lack of consultation with community, leading to funding of non-priority areas. In addition donors were slow to change and/or embrace alternative ideas as they were entrenched in meeting their goals and long-term objectives (Mayhew, 2002).

The above situation indicated that the donor aid was not the issue but the applied system was the major reason for failure. The fact was that for a long time now, many African countries relied on donor aid for economic growth and poverty reduction (Melesse, 2021) but what seemed to exacerbate donor aid failure in underdeveloped world, was limited integration or holistic service delivery (Mayhew, 2002) and not the aid itself.

This research study presented an opinion that donor aid impact was not clear though skewed to limited impact. The failure of the donor aid was not about the finance itself but lack of effectiveness and efficiency among stakeholders, conditions applied and competitive tendencies that surround the donor aid resource acquisition and management. Institutional and project fragmentation and poor coordination amplified impact failure.

Based on that opinion, the study findings confirmed the resource dependence theory in that so long the donor aid remained in the current form of delivery management model, dependence on the external resources by rural communities would continue. The chain of dependence could only be broken when the delivery model was made efficient and effective.

Good results from an agricultural intervention depended on reliable access to resources, right quality of resources or inputs and timely delivery of resource inputs. These factors were clustered close to the mean. Perceptions of communities on donor fund delivery, right quality resources and timely delivery of resources established a standard deviation of 0.338, 0.469 and 0.408 and standard error of mean at 0.023, 0.032 and 0.028 respectively. Though the communities

were satisfied with the current system of donor support (Std dev - 0.405, standard error 0.027), sentiment analysis showed mixed positions with 41 negative scores against 25 positive scores. This meant that the farming communities were skeptical with the donor support system applied. The negative positions were attributed to managerial, operational and behavioral factors.

The managerial factors included limited consultation with the recipient community on the establishing what they wanted before delivery of aid. It also alluded to lukewarm partnership and relationship between the donor and Intermediary Agents and the Recipient Community. In the entire process, the community had no power to influence change as decisions were “kept secret” and there were no direct means for the community to present their needs to the donor. In addition the community “just received funds” with all decisions made by the donor. This high level top-down management system hampered the appreciation of the support provision.

The operational system adopted the one-suit-fits all system with limited regard to different situations faced by the communities. The common approach was delivery of aid through intermediaries utilizing a predetermined approach, mostly through financial grants, in-kind donations of project materials (most of them prescribed from outside).

The behavioral factors included different motives and positions, culture and beliefs and personal attitudes. The donor approached the aid provision based on the belief that the recipient communities were desperate and vulnerable and therefore could accept anything. This regard, the donors adopted the posture of superiority, an attitude that influenced their decision making. The recipient communities assumed the subordinate position looking to the supremacy of the donor to solve their problems. This posture caused the recipient communities not to demand what was good for them but rather drifted and responded to the whims of the donor. The Intermediary Agents adopted the position of a broker between the donor and the recipient community. In that position,

the Intermediary Agent respected the donor more than the recipient community as they considered them to be their “clients” that paid for the services they offered.

Participation of the vulnerable rural farming communities in the donor funded food security project activities and other projects was not a challenge as they always looked forward to any means that would improve their livelihoods. In this regard, multiplicity of donor funded projects in their areas was not a problem to them. Multiplicity of donor funded projects gave an assurance to the community that they were recognized and had the opportunity to tackle their livelihood challenges. As such, they had to accept many different projects at any given time. In this regard, projects tackling drought mitigation, environmental management, livestock production and management, food security improvement, income generation, water resource management and financial inclusion were at the core of their needs and were always welcomed. As long as the donor aid project was well intended and targeted, the rural farming communities were happy with anything that came there way. However, their happiness was only assured through timely and sufficient delivery of productive resources and services. There happiness was also short-lived in that the projects were usually short-term with limited measures towards sustainability. With that realization, the recipient communities looked forward to multiple projects that brought different support packages and different time-frames.

Targeting one project like food security had spill-over effects. Through support to food security, improved or surplus and diversified income realized from surplus production along the food security value chain, enabled improved hygiene and sanitation, access to clean drinking water, health, education and nutrition. The donor project should therefore capture offshoot impact indicators from the chosen livelihood project. In this regard, project mirrored around United

Nation's Sustainable Development Goals, National Vision 2030 and African Union's Agenda 2063 was a plus to the rural communities.

However, impact depended on the level of intervention, for example, while knowledge was critical in changing the lives of the rural poor, rural farming communities lacked resources to apply the knowledge to explore business opportunities before them. Over-reliance on imported and expensive agricultural solutions by many donor funded food security projects increased the vulnerability and inabilities of rural farming communities to apply the acquired knowledge and skills. To ensure sustainability and long-term impact on food security, finding local solutions could be non-negotiable. Furthermore, change in the community depended on the way donor funds were delivered ($t=0.042$, $p<0.05$) and managed at community level. This had a double connotation of resource dependence (play the donor card) and interdependence (keep the business running). Therefore, communities could benefit more from a process where capacity was built to influence change over period of time. Hand to mouth that came through in-kind donations of food, inputs and other freebies might not the better means to tackle poverty and vulnerability, but rather supporting business growth, market development and efforts that tapped on the local resources would yield longer term results.

The other concern on the negative impact of donor aid was limited decision making level by the farming community. That situation pointed to the poor relationship between the donors and the farming community in that lukewarm and '*cheap-talk*' partnership agreements were at play and emanating mistrust resulted in limited sharing of roles and responsibilities in the partnership. This situation also confirmed supply-driven arrangement that propelled imposition of predesigned ideas and increased allocation of externally driven expensive resources. Focus on external products and markets to solve local problems in underdeveloped rural communities' disadvantaged local

innovation initiatives and prolonged dependency syndrome. There was need to involve the rural farming communities in intervention designs to address community felt needs, utilizing local resources and expertise.

Lasting impact from development projects depended on the level of intervention, information flow and community capacity to apply the knowledge, the partnership and relationships built. The parties should strive to build a mutual partnership and sound relationship that ensured consultation and joint decision making beneficial to all parties. The partnership must appreciate the influencing factors that drove each other into partnership. In this regard, the rural farming communities were mainly driven by poverty situation, hunger and food insecurity. Therefore, the donors must find a point of convergence with the rural farming community for each to meet their aspirations. As for the community, there concern was to address poverty, hunger and food security and indirectly address income, education and health concerns. In this convergence position, no partner would have hidden motives and exercise it through unwarranted bad conditions.

The study recognized the role of donor aid supporting agricultural based livelihoods and addressing economic, social and political injustices. Critical donor aid to farming communities was there to support economic independence of the farming community. Considering that enormous amounts of donor money were provided to farming communities, there must be underlying reasons why the impact was limited. It was also established that the donor aid was not to blame for the impact failure experienced but the delivery models applied.

4.3.3.3 Evaluation of donor motivation results

The study established that the donor resource was not to blame for the poor performance. Rather, the motivation of the donors and the communities determined the delivery model and *modus operandi* of the donated resources. Motivation factors for the donors combined economic

(internal and external), managerial considerations and social concerns. Economic considerations included source of funds, corporate social responsibility, level of investment and level of community economic vulnerability. Managerial considerations were strategic positions and included partnerships, decision arrangement, religious and moral obligations, community location, political recognition and local government decisions. The social considerations focused on addressing community poverty and marginalization. Overall, donors were strategic and always took measures to ensure longer-term control of the aid business. To ensure strategic position, the donors applied hidden motives (not expressed for community to know why support was being given) to drive their agenda forward regardless of community felt needs. On the contrary, the rural and vulnerable farming communities were concerned with immediate challenges such as hunger, food security and poverty and measures that provided short-term livelihood safety net.

The inferential result gave an indication that motives of donors did not influence support to rural communities. The central theme in the donor aid was business. The donor aid business was influenced by internal and external factors and at different levels. It largely depended on social, political, economic and environmental considerations. For the donors, the source of aid resources, poverty challenge of the recipient communities and partnerships and relationships played a primary role in the provision of aid. However, donors were additionally influenced by their need for political recognition, religious beliefs, community vulnerability, community marginalization and need to pay back to the community. At 68% Confidence Interval and 8.8 standard deviation and 20% mean, the motivation factors for donors were close to the mean and all factors moderately influenced the donors. This meant that the donors were altruistic only to the extent that they provided aid without any hidden motives. This confirmed the concept of donor hidden motives such as tax exemptions, building endowments and increasing regional presence (Duncan, 2023).

4.3.3.4 Evaluation of donor and community motivation relationship

Mayhew (2002) argued that donors were not neutral philanthropic givers of gifts as they were driven by political interests at national and international levels at the expense of rural community needs. Donors were also influenced by hidden incentives. Some less talked about were those directed at building national and regional security, economic and trade ties, tackling global issues, helping friendly countries, getting diplomatic support and building alliances as well as a form of reparation (especially by former colonial powers), prestige and promoting own values (Duncan, 2023). Based on the above diverse reasons for donor aid, development programmes followed the bigger picture in the engagement agenda. This confirmed the assertion by the community that “donors came with their own agenda”. Consequently, the donor-based impact measurement might not focus on the recipient community but on flimsy reasons why aid was given in order to hide their real motives.

In light of the Paris Declaration (2005) on aid effectiveness, reforms on the area of local ownership and mutual accountability in projects were demanded. In this narrative, the popular challenge addressed by donors were those that they perceived important and not what the communities demanded. Coupled with internal and external considerations, the process to enlist community position on popular felt need was limited. Therefore, donor-driven aid support failed to give sustainable outcomes (Deutscher & Fyson, 2008).

The study established that the central motivating factor at all levels (donors, intermediaries and communities) was money. Meanwhile, donors were influenced by the broader political and economic interests (Mayhew, 2002) and may not provide the most appropriate solutions to the specific needs of the community. It was also observed that donors had goals that served their own interests rather than the needs of recipient community (Mushasha & El Bcheraoui, 2023). In a supply-driven support system, impact at community level might not be assured.

Motivating factors that influenced the community at highest level were household well-being (poverty and livelihood status), socioeconomic aspects (hunger and food security, income security, access to education and health care) while social aspects (peer pressure) had no influence. As expected in the study, the rural community was critically motivated to participate in donor funded programs by the poverty situation and need to improve their lives. Poverty situation, hunger and food insecurity were statistically significant as motivating factors that compelled communities to participate in donor aid projects. This result resonated with the study expectations as household well-being subsumed the economic aspects. In other words, the attainment of economic gains positively changed the household well-being.

The findings on this objective brought to light the theories that drove the study. Divergent motives among the players aligned the results to the Resource Dependence Theory on the aspect of people's dependence behavior on external resources, power relations or how people related with each other in the midst of resource sharing. With different and/or hidden motives, it was difficult to attain partnership mutuality, equality and equity. In light of that, it was not possible for the players in the industry to be at equal level in the utilization of resources as long as their business interests differed (Davis & Cobb, 2009). The motive phenomena also confirmed the interdependence theory in terms of the symbiotic relationships (Juliao, 2021). Despite the different interests, the common denominator was financial flow that kept all parties afloat. It was this common denominator that placed the donors and the communities at the center of business while the projects (changed over time) and intermediary agents played an expert role in donor aid support management architecture.

The farming communities were motivated by poverty situation, hunger and food insecurity. They were driven to donor projects for income security, and as a "strategic survival measure" and

a means of “social safety net”. At 74% Confidence Interval and 12.7 standard deviation and 20% mean, the motivation factors for donors were close to the mean and all factors moderately influenced the community. The prominence on the need to address farming community poverty, hunger and food insecurity was highly genuine because that was at the core of the daily needs of any vulnerable household. With surplus resources, the rural household would realize surplus income and start addressing other well-being requirements like education and health.

Though not at the same level, convergence between the donors and the community occurred on the need to solve the poverty challenge. As for the community, poverty meant food insecurity, income insecurity, limited access to education, health, hygiene and sanitation. As far as the rural communities were concerned, they were ready to respond to the donor demands and enter into partnership or any form of relationship. However, the donors always wanted to retain authority on the partnership to safeguard their strategic needs. The general understanding therefore was that the rural farming communities were very clear on what they wanted from the donor support i.e. to address poverty, hunger, food security, sustainable income, good quality education and health care. That clear position should resonate on the motivation of the donors and minimize the hidden motives in delivery of donor support.

The study identified the key themes that included projects, donors and community as the critical areas of work to improve the philanthropic sector. This indicated that rural development agenda would not achieve the intended purpose if the partnership between the community and donors remained weak. Key lessons from this included the need to manage the motivation factors and resolve the governance issues, weak partnerships, accountability and transparency.

4.3.3.5 Evaluation of funding delivery model result

To explore sustainable social and economic support models in donor aid, ten parameters were assessed. This section explored institutions that delivered donor aid in food security; most

frequently applied funding, donor aid delivery channel, food security sectors frequently funded and conditions applied in aid delivery. This section also explored the relationship between community and donor fund agents, the extent to which the community were prepared and consulted, fund utilization decision making and hindrances in community decision making. It concluded by exploring the supply channel model preferred by the community.

The donor aid delivery channel included a number of processes such as community applying for the funds, government directing aid to the community, donor funding agents just taking aid to the community without their knowledge and NGOs applying for it. This study established that all above approaches were applied on equal basis. The result that community application for donor support could equal the unsolicited provision of aid by the donors and NGOs was not anticipated in this study. However, the supply-driven model where government directed aid to the community and NGOs and donor agents taking aid to the community without their knowledge was an expected result.

With regard to the extent to which funding was provided to specific food security sub-sectors like food production, food diversification, extension training and technical assistance, irrigation and water conservation, sustainable farming practices, food storage and post-harvest management, and food processing/value addition, the study established that mostly funded sub-sectors were food production and diversification, sustainable farming systems and food storage/post-harvest management. At $p < 0.05$, sectors with statistically significant results included food security and food diversification. This result confirmed the vulnerability of the rural communities and their wish to invest on production to solve their hunger, food insecurity, income insecurity and alleviate other livelihood challenges. The result also signified the incapacity of the rural communities to venture into capital intensive investment. The findings were not divergent

from literature. In rural communities, 60% depended on agriculture (Baumgartner & Kapotwe, 2019; Phiri et. al., 2020) and according to International Trade Administration US Department of Commerce (2022), agriculture employed 90% of the Zambia's population. To ensure food security, the rural communities engaged in diversified food production and ensured good storage and post-harvest management to prolong their food availability and access. Ruete (2015) argued in the '*Investment in Agriculture Policy Brief*' that food security, poverty reduction and mainstreaming interests of marginalized groups were highly considered and achieved through climate smart interventions like livelihood diversification and application of sustainable farming systems. Therefore, limited funding to extension training and technical assistance, irrigation and water conservation, food processing and value addition activities signified lack of holistic approach to solving community needs. This linear approach to rural development restricted community resilience.

In assessing the model frequently applied in donor funding, the study considered donor resource provision modalities such as free grants, provision of goods and services, in-kind donations, reimbursable fees and participant contributions. Others were programme design approaches such as funding popular felt needs, large scale and long term projects, public private partnership, public policy change, beneficiary broker services, market development, nationalization and networking. This study established that donor resource provision modalities most frequently applied included free grant, goods and service provision and in-kind donations. Other models such as funding popular felt needs, reimbursable fees, member contributions, large scale and long-term projects, public private partnership, public policy change, beneficiary broker service, market development and networking were operated at moderate level.

The question of the donor fund supply channel preferred by the community was assessed by exploring the most popular delivery pathway used by donors before arriving at the preferred model. The result was that the most popular donor supply channel was through government and NGOs to communities and depended on the donor support system. This study established preference for direct aid to communities to reduce the operational cost and management bureaucracies inherent with the supply chain in the delivery system. Statistically significant channels included donor to community, donor to individuals, donor to government to community and donor to government to agent and to community.

The question of community preparedness was explored by assessing the extent to which the community was prepared by the donor to take part in the project. Further assessment was on the level of consultation, decision making on the use of donor funds and associated hindrances. The study established some level of community preparedness through training, orientation and sharing of responsibilities. This study established low level consultation as 67.7% (N=325) were not consulted over the donor aid project. Consequently, there was minimal community and joint decision making arrangements between the Community, Implementing agents and the Donors. The ANOVA operated on final decider of donor fund utilization established statistically significant position for donors (F=0.009) as the final decider on the use of donor funds and this confirmed the community assertion that '*money was just brought'* and '*had no power'* to challenge its usage. The level of community preparedness, community consultation and hindrances in community decision making was dependent on the partnerships and relationships between the donor and implementing agents and the community. This study established low level and high levels of informal and loose agreements respectively.

The question of applied donor aid conditions applied was assessed through practical conditions imposed that included membership in a local group, gender consideration, vulnerable status, contribution in-kind, matching grant and payback loan. In this study it was established that all applied conditions were statistically significant except for matching grant and pay back loan. Conditionality in itself was not a problem but the circumstances, distribution pathways and the utilization system were challenges (Izoko, 2020). Conditionality helped minimize negative impact (Izoko, 2020). However, the conditionality should not be overstretched to a point where local governance and cultural norms of the recipient communities were compromised. In recent time, many controversial conditions such as demand for gay rights, abortion, Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Queer or Questioning (LGBTQ) and removal of some social safety nets and subsidies that benefited the poor were imposed in exchange for donor aid.

Lastly, the institutions that delivered donor aid in the community were assessed. Among the responses suggested were government, NGOs, private sector, CBOs, church and traditional leaders. This study established that among these five institutions, government and NGOs were the key institutions that mostly delivered donor aid in the community. The private sector, community-based organizations and churches were statistically significant ($F = 0.005$, $F= 0.002$ and $F= 0.010$ respectively) in delivering donor aid at community level in future.

Donor aid delivery channels to communities were diverse and depended on the potential to achieve results. It also depended on whether financial aid was delivered through budget support, emergency response such as drought and floods, debt relief, public-private partnerships or South-South cooperation (Fengler (2010). Dietrich (2013) identified government to government aid transfers as a traditional way in which donor aid was delivered especially in countries with good accountability record while in countries where governance was poor, conventional approach where

donor aid was delivered to non-state actors was applied. Reinsberg et al. (2015) argued that donors delivered funds through Trust Funds at bilateral and multilateral agencies to share the burden, reduce administrative costs and benefit from local expertise. In theory these channels improved the development effectiveness of aid. Therefore, the findings of this research where donor aid was delivered direct to the community was not practiced, but needed to be explored.

The financing models ranged from donations to results-based approaches (Mushasha & El Bcheraoui, 2023) while several donors applied different models to allocate aid (UNESCO, 2008) such as Development Assistance for Health that delivered financial and in-kind resources. In reality, donors applied mathematical formulae with indicators of Gross National Index (GNI) per-capita, population size and a measure of country performance to link the amount of aid given to each recipient country and a set of quantitative indicators based on subjective perceptions of donor agencies and staff (UNESCO, 2008). Among the popular models applied are the cash on delivery aid which provided fixed payment based on contract terms between a donor and government (Mushasha & El Bcheraoui, 2023). This model was applied on Carbon credit projects, IMF and World Bank conditional projects. The other popular model was the conditional cash transfer that provided aid based on predefined amount transferred after complying with given conditions (Mushasha & El Bcheraoui, 2023). In this case, examples included donor demand for relaxation or removal of national local subsidies. This approach was very common with IMF and World Bank support. The performance-based financing was applied by World Bank and regional development banks such as Africa Development Bank (ADB) and International Fund for International Development (IFAD) towards providing incentives to recipients to deliver good performance (Mushasha & El Bcheraoui, 2023; UNESCO, 2008). Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation plus (REDD+) was one of the projects delivered under this funding model.

The other was a combined demand and supply-side financing, directed at both provider and recipient of finance (Mushasha & El Bcheraoui, 2023) to simultaneously build the capacity of donor aid providers and recipients. Other models were applied by the United Kingdom, Netherlands, UNICEF, the European Commission and the Global Environmental Facility (GEF). The United Kingdom and Netherlands used an allocation model with subjective measurements and Gross Net Income (GNI) factor (UNESCO, 2008). UNICEF utilized allocation model that considered under 5 mortality rate, GNI per-capita and size of the child population (UNICEF 2007; UNESCO, 2008). The European Union utilized an Envelope A and B that combined conditions of Country population, GNI per-capita, Human Development Index (HDI), objective and subjective country performance, country vulnerability index, economic vulnerability, debt status and vulnerability to natural disasters and conflicts. Others included were the UNDP Human Poverty Index, the HIV prevalence rate and the dependency ratio (UNESCO, 2008). GEF utilized the benefit index (potential to generate global environmental benefits) and performance index (measure of policy and practices to support GEF programmes (GEF, 2005; UNESCO, 2008).

Bilateral donors had no specific allocation model but based decisions on countries of focus, consideration of country needs and demand, business ties and their national laws. The Global fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria (GFATM) demanded for quality proposals, affected population and provision of a certain amount of co-financing. The US Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC) allocated resources based on 17 performance indicators whose emphasis was on ruling justly, economic freedom and investing in people (Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC), 2007, UNESC, 2008).

Looking into the reviewed models from literature, the information confirmed the theory that donor aid was at times supply-driven, pre-designed by donors and allocation determined

externally with limited consideration of the specific and localized country needs (UNESCO, 2008). It was also foregoing that the communities could not make any decisions contrary to the pre-set criteria and performance requirements. Concurring with the study respondents concerns, Annen and Moers (2012) argued that any agreements between donors and the community were '*cheap-talk'* just to show that there were some level of relationship but never were there balance of power. The donors always had a wider leverage, scope and incentives to deviate from agreed positions without any regrets.

The findings in this section sort to find a balance between the Resource Dependence Theory and the Interdependence Theory. The key result was that change in the community was dependent on the way donor funds were delivered and managed at community level and that had a double connotation of resource dependence (play the donor card) and interdependence (keep the business running). Therefore, in the absence of mutual partnership, donor aid conditions could work but only for the period when the project was being implemented.

Sustainable aid support model was assessed through mostly funded food security sub-sector, the delivery channel, applied funding model, applied supply model and the support conditions. It was also assessed through partnerships built with the recipient community, the level of community preparedness, decision making structure and information flow. In the areas studied, the food security sub-sector mostly funded were food production and diversification. Other interventions like sustainable farming systems, post-harvest management, processing and value addition depended on the commodity produced but were not the main interventions.

The results indicated the supply-driven model where donors delivered resources to the community without their express request. This showed the lopsided level of partnership, level of community participation and decision making structure. Mixed partnership and relationships

between the donor and the community was observed but informal relationships (21.2%) were common. The informality of the partnership was a recipe for mistrust and led to limited sharing of information, a factor which significantly hindered community decision making. With compromised partnership, conditions for participation became the means to control resource utilization. Apart from matching grant and payback loans, the donors applied many stringent measures such as request for contribution in-kind, targeting vulnerable and marginalized community members and those that belonged to a community group where peer-controls were applied to safeguard the aid resources. In targeting the vulnerable and marginalized individuals, the idea was to bridge the gap between the affluent and the poor in the society. The problem with targeting the vulnerable and marginalized was their level of consumptive capacity compared to their investment niche. For most of them, every initial support should go towards mitigating the immediate needs and could only change when the support was sustained over time. Given the short nature of donor support, seeing change among vulnerable and marginalized community was always a pipe dream.

Even when such conditions were applied, appropriate funding model and supply model was required. Donors commonly applied traditional funding models such as free grant, provision of goods and services and in-kind donations. All these models did not guarantee investment at recipient community level but ignite consumption behaviors. Added to the dilemma was the expensive and external nature of goods and services provided. Therefore, these traditional funding models increased dependence among rural farming communities and exposed them to external and expensive solutions that they could not afford once the support ended.

While looking at the delivery system, the chosen funding model directly influenced the supply model. Based on capacity, many donors chose to deliver through the government agencies

and non-governmental organization. The choice of government as a primary recipient was based on various agreements and bilateral relationships as well the need to avoid interference in internal affairs. The non-governmental organization were chosen based on the internal expertise and as a means to escape government bureaucracies. However, these primary delivery channel could only operate as long as they maintained good governance, transparency and accountability. The future outlook, however, was to engage private sector, community-based organizations and faith-based organizations. These organizations were statistically significant to deliver aid to the rural communities. Apart from the private sector, the community-based organizations and faith-based organizations were closer to the people, had a longer existence record and were expected to be with the poor people for years in future.

However, this category of service providers was as fragmented as the number of churches popular in a given area. Among those under the Catholics Church were CARITAS, Catholic Relief Services, Jesuit Centre for Theoretical Reflection and many other societies operating hospices, hospitals and schools. The Lutheran World Federation was strong among migrants and internally displaced populations. Reformed Open Community Schools (ROCS) under the Reformed Churches in Zambia offered support to community schools. Others included the Council of Churches in Zambia and Evangelical Churches of Zambia that delivered services to various communities in all sectors of the economy. The Islamic community also had numerous community projects. Common among faith-based organizations just like the community-based organizations was that they were close to the community and projects were managed by indigenous people. They were also strong in mobilizing local resources, especially human resources. They employed the church teachings and doctrines to drive financial mobilization directly and through church

structures. There fragmentation and competition was not rivalry but a means to attract more members to their individual churches.

The governance system was also affected by the delivery model of donor aid. Delivery of donor aid had multiplicity of channels dependent on the conditions of the donor and the situation being addressed. While the delivery design might be clear at the donor level, confusion was at the intermediary level where stiff competition for resources was experienced. However, the most prominent aid delivery channel at play was where donors gave funds to NGOs and then engage government staff to implement the project at community level. In this model, public sector complained of the NGO partners retaining a lot of money at the expense of government and community players. In this regard, it was time community resilience was built and start sending resources direct to the community under the government and NGO supervision. The quantitative analysis on preferred delivery partnership highlighted the need to support non-traditional donor funding partners like community-based organizations, churches and private sector to take the front seat in the project delivery system.

This study also observed lack of coordination in the delivery of donor aid. Competition among implementing agencies and projects stifled comparative and cumulative advantage. Many donor agencies went straight to the communities to implement projects without passing through the government line ministries and leadership. Limited guidelines in the delivery of donor aid at community level was a critical challenge that affected immediate and long-term impact. What could work well was where government provided guidance on the donor aid projects and that which focused on national development agenda.

To the most minimum, the partners in donor aid projects included donors, intermediary or implementing agencies (government agencies, NGOs, CBOs), community (traditional) leaders and

community members. It was clear from the study that the donors and communities symbiotically needed each other. The donors presented the needs of the rural and vulnerable communities to raise resources while the farming communities willingly agreed to partner in whatever came their way from donors. For donors, it was a form of investment while for the vulnerable farming communities it was a form of survival. However, the project partnerships between donors and recipient farming communities was always weak and mostly temporal. To fill the sound relationship vacuum, intermediary agents were brought into play as mediators but at a cost. It was observed that increased intermediary group increased "*delays and lose of resources*" intended for rural farming communities as farming community beneficiaries were rendered powerless to change the status core.

In many of the community projects, the objectives were well articulated and well-intended but they mostly resonated with donor positions as donors rarely consulted the community prior to providing resources. The weak partnership was also observed in the way donor aided farming rural community projects were micro-managed by the implementing agents. If the community changed anything away from the original design, the project implementing agent mercilessly rejected the changes, giving an excuse that the donors will not accept the new direction. In this regard, the supervisory role taken by the intermediary agents reduced the growth and innovation of the local communities. Resource allocation also stifled partnership. According to this study, the biggest problem was government and NGOs as they "*retained a lot of donor funds*" to meet their internal administrative, operational and institutional growth needs. It was important to note that donor money was released because of the vulnerable community and they should be the main deciders on the utilization of donor funds. In this respect, any model that puts the vulnerable community at the center of donor aid utilization and management had the potential to realize better results.

Mutuality remained an important aspect in the donor aid partnership. However, it was observed that the cultural and social norms of the communities were less considered in the design and implementation of community projects. In addition, the culture of most rural communities taught them to be royal to their leaders. Therefore, they might not complain or claim their rights in fear of donors taking resources elsewhere. In the current partnership model, the community felt powerless and did not know anyone to complain to. Recognizing the limited scope the community had in interfacing with the powerful donors, there was need for a paradigm shift in the mind-sets of the donor and implementing agencies (government, NGOs) to allow for shared project implementation responsibilities with their community counterparts.

Accountability and transparency demanded for clarity, openness and ownership. Measured through these three cornerstones, the results of this study elucidated limited accountability and transparency. From the beginning, the funding model must be clear and full information disclosed. Accountability and transparency was challenged right from the point when donors failed to consult the community prior to provision of resources. At that level, the community remained with limited knowledge about the project and what it was intended to achieve. This level of secrecy led to mistrust and false presentation of issues. It was therefore prudent for donors to solicit community solutions to their sustainable development challenges.

This study also established late delivery of project resources without clear reasons to a situation where the community received less of the actual amount that the donors provided. In many projects, communities complained of receiving inferior and questionable project materials and equipment. This process indicated that the community were just directed on what to do and their level of decision making was limited.

While the donors had some control and operational dictates from bilateral and multilateral agreements and governments, the rural communities had none. In this regard, building the capacity of the communities should go beyond hardware project support to institutional development. Therefore, donor projects should focus on building capacities of community-based organizations as a base for sustainable development.

Sustainable aid support model was influenced by the industry under which donor aid was targeted. Any partnership built would be based on the available information and the decision making structure. With limited information, the rural farming communities participated in donor funded projects blindly in the hope of improving their livelihoods. In that case, the rural farming communities focused more on production and any other project support areas came as extra benefits. The limited flow of information at community level was a precursor for dependency on donors. That challenge could be resolved through mutual and long-term partnership. In a mutual partnership, the operational conditions could be open for negotiation, a process that could create sustainability of the interventions.

Good results from any project such as agricultural intervention depended on reliable access to resources, right quality of resources or inputs and timely delivery of resource inputs. It therefore followed that the perceptions of the community should be maintained to ensure positive impact. In the same process, attention should be paid on the negative managerial, operational and behavioral factors. The operation in the sector should avoid unnecessary competition and multiplicity of projects with counter interventions. However, different projects were acceptable so long they were complementary.

In this study, governance referred to the experienced inflexibility in the midst of confusion observed in the philanthropic sector. Most donors “came with their own agenda’ and “accepted

minimal alterations" to their predetermined development option. Rigidity drove the sector where donors "applied one solution-fits-all approach" and did not allow the community project to change course and this was not good for rural development. Rigidity was also observed through the "call for proposals" approach flagged out with pre-set conditions, project goals and objectives and the chosen implementing agency. In this, the community had no room to change the original design even when it was parallel with the community needs and priorities. The "call for proposal" approach to funding killed community innovation. Therefore, at local level the projects must take a multi-sectoral approach because communities lived in one place but had different needs. There was need to change the strategy to allow for flexibility as the situation dictated.

The overall opinion was that the impact of donor aid on rural communities was limited. Reasons for this position was anchored on the resource dependence theory and the interdependence theory, stressing that the two theories were fully at play in the philanthropic industry. In driving the reform agenda forward, the approach would be to review the two theories in the light of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness, The Accra Agenda for Action and Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) Official Development Assistance (ODA) Framework.

4.4 Chapter four summary

The donor support mechanism continued to provide resources in support of rural and vulnerable communities. This research applied a mixed method approach to study the situation in the sector with regard to livelihood improvement, motives of donors and community and adequacy of delivery models. This approach proved beneficial in the assessment of the research questions, objectives and hypothesis.

The demography of the study areas were homogenous and had similar experiences with regard to project performance. The T-Test conducted on the variables accepted the null hypothesis on the demography of the study area as not being different. This indicated that the results from the study could be generalized.

The study result on livelihood change caused by donor aid was considered limited in relation to poverty reduction and livelihood outcomes attainment. However, the covariance and correlation coefficient tests gave positive results ($Cov_{x,y}$ = 401.58; of 0.3558). Signifying that change in donor provision could affect the poverty level in rural communities. With unstable funding regime, poverty levels were projected to remain high in Zambia unless local support systems were established. A cross-tabulation analysis undertaken on the livelihood outcomes (social standing, food security, nutrition status, income increase, access to education and health) and enabling factors (funding conditions, operational environment, structures and perceptions) gave an imperfect result. This meant that observed improvements in each of the study variables was independent rejecting the generalization of the null hypothesis that donor funding had an impact on the livelihoods of communities.

The result from the Chi-square test indicated that political recognition, religious beliefs, economic vulnerability, community marginalization, government decision and corporate social responsibility were significant donor decision factors. The T-test on the donor support motives and influencing factors was 2.69 at 4 degrees of freedom which was greater than the distribution T value of 2.064, indicating the difference between the means of the two variables statistically significant and rejected the null hypothesis that donor motives influenced support to rural communities. The covariance and correlation coefficient tests on experienced change and donor motivation was 7115.75 and 0.0745 respectively, indicating a very weak and positive correlation.

This strengthened the acceptance of the second null hypothesis that was that motives of donors influenced support to rural communities. Qualitative analysis attributed the results to different levels of donor motives based on social, political, economic and environmental circumstances. Overall, donors were strategic and always took measures to ensure longer-term control of the aid business.

The donor motivation and community motivation had low divergence. The chi-square test results on donor motives indicated that political recognition, religious beliefs, economic vulnerability, community marginalization, government decision and corporate social responsibility were significant motives for the donors. The Chi square test conducted on the community motives significant (p-0.001) community motivation being poverty situation. hunger & food insecurity and income security. The Chi-square test of the donor motives and community motives gave a result of p-value of 0.0000 at the significant level of $p < 0.05$. The result led to the rejection of the null hypothesis that donors and vulnerable communities had similar motives towards donor aid.

The correlation between the experienced change and the way the donor funds were delivered indicated 1.16 and 2.28 means and 0.366 and 1.005 standard deviation respectively. The Pearson Correlation test established significant correlation ($t=0.042$, $p<0.05$) between the two variables for 2 tailed test. This result confirmed the respondent experiences of change which was dependent on the way donor funds were delivered to their communities. This result confirmed the vulnerability of the rural community in meeting development capital investment.

The quadratic regression analysis of the applied funding model and funding conditions indicated a positive relationship between the two variables. Further test on the applied funding model and funding conditions indicated the T-Test value of 0.03, upholding the null hypothesis of

positive relationship between the variables. The ANOVA operated on final decider of donor fund utilization established statistically significant position for donors (F=0.009) as the final deciders with community hindered from making decision through secrecy, taking funds to the community with limited consultation and skewed power relations.

CHAPTER FIVE: IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.0 Introduction

This research was conducted to assess the impact of donor aid on rural communities in Zambia. The problem addressed in the study was that despite trillions of aid support (WB 2023; ZAMSTAT, 2022; OECD, 2022) provided to get 700 million poor people out of abject poverty, half of whom were in Sub-Saharan Africa (WB, 2023), no tangible and sustainable change was recorded (Arsalan, 2019, Waheed, 2020; Ferreira, 2021; Nost et al, 2018; OECD, 2022). The aim of the study was to evaluate impact of donor aid from the beneficiary's lens. The purpose of the study included exploring trend in grant flow and its motives, building impact measurement from the beneficiary's lens and contributing to the body of knowledge. The study objectives included assessment of impact from donor support, identify Donor, Intermediary Agents and recipient community motivation factors and explore sustainable social /economic models. The study was addressing four questions: RQ1 - what influence did donor aid had on livelihoods of vulnerable people? RQ2 - What was the level of knowledge on donor motives that drive provision of donor aid? RQ3 - To what extent the donor motivations in line with the community motivations? RQ4 - How did the delivery channels and models help in taking resources to rural vulnerable communities?

The study had four null hypotheses with corresponding alternative hypotheses. The first null hypothesis (Ho) was that donor aid resulted in attributable change in livelihoods of vulnerable rural communities. The alternative hypothesis (Ha) was that donor aid did not result in attributable change in livelihoods of vulnerable rural communities. The second Null hypothesis (Ho) was that motives of donors influenced support to rural communities. The alternative hypothesis (Ha) was that motives of donors did not influence their support to rural communities. The third Null

Hypothesis (Ho) was that donors and vulnerable communities had similar motivations towards donor aid. The alternative hypothesis (Ha) was that donor motives and vulnerable community motives were not common. The fourth Null Hypothesis (Ho) was that aid delivery model sufficiently created livelihood

The study was therefore undertaken to assess the impact of donor aid mainly from the beneficiary perspectives, triangulate the impact position against motives and other factors that might have influenced the players in the sector and explore and/or propose sustainable social and economic support models with possibility of changing the operational framework. With reference to study problem statement and objectives and within the context of the theoretical and conceptual frameworks of the study and utilizing study findings and interpretations from Chapter 4, this chapter discussed the implications, practical and future recommendations and conclusions of the study.

5.1 Implications of the study results

The study started by exploring the donor support to Zambia and its implications on the community. The poverty relationship with the donor aid was highly correlated. Based on the performance of the sector in the past 10 years, the donor inflow was projected to continue being unstable and not fully responsive to the poverty level expected to remain above 50%. Coupled with the increasing population, the donor funding per-capita would remain below the support threshold. Expected to solve the poverty problem, donor funding would remain the major source of rural community livelihoods and therefore remained a vital help to the poor.

The question of impact in this study recognized the tangible and lasting socioeconomic change at recipient community level (Annen & Moers, 2012). The study based the assessment on the action-based experiences from the beneficiaries and project implementers in the past 10 years

and in the agricultural sector. In particular, the study benchmarked 10 years (2012-2022) as a reference period and focused on farming community experiences with the donor aided food security projects implemented in their areas. Exploratory questions were asked to assess whether the farming community requested for support and participated in food security projects from an informed position; the number of donor funded projects implemented; and the extent and type of change the farming community experienced from the provided support. Significant information was gathered through questioning the timeliness of service delivery, quality delivery of project resources and the exact areas where change was felt or recorded.

Based on theoretical position and good practice, it was expected that the community would take the first step in looking for solutions and resources to help resolve their problems and therefore be active participants in their development agenda. It was also expected that a number of well-coordinated projects in different sectors came in to support the community in achieving long-term and holistic impact. In line with the conceptual framework, it was expected that the aid givers and aid receivers had mutual partnership and sound relationship in the implementation process to realize shared benefits.

The results from the question regarding community participation indicated 65.5% (N=325) of the community members that participated in donor funded projects. This result was expected as it would be unrealistic to expect 100% participation. Notwithstanding, the different needs and interests of people, this result underscored the heterogeneity of populations (Rusbelt & Van-Lange, 2012). The implication of this study result alluded to the need to design holistic projects that carter for diverse needs and interests of the farming community. For that to happen, involvement of communities in providing solutions was critical. This also demanded for proper population targeting to accomplish effective delivery and appreciated change. In this regard, the

concept of open invitation to project participation was realistic but was not an effective approach. The other implication was that measurement of donor aid impact should be assessed from a practical position utilizing evidence from the individuals that participated in the programme rather than the common approach where impact assessment targeted the general populace. However, this was not to say that only direct beneficiaries would experience change, but rather to recognize that the entire population would experience change from trickle-down effect especially for projects that deliver products of common good such as education, health and business development.

The research established six (6) organizations that supported and implemented short-term (2-3 years) and long-term (5 -15 years) projects in the same area. Multiplicity of donors in a given area was expected as it was depicted globally (Deutscher & Fyson, 2008; Annen & Moers, 2012). While that might be good for a recipient community, the approach might disadvantage non-attractive communities and create over-dependence on donors. Literature also recorded issues of fragmentation and competition for resources among the support institutions. The fragmentation of donors potentially led to competition for recipients (Annen & Moers, 2012) and operating space (mostly accessible areas). The concentration of donor projects in a given area was also observed as measure of building institutional visibility. However, such moves drove community into clusters of elite and interest groups at the expense of all-inclusive development. Such competitive tendencies took away coordinated approach as each institution fought for ‘low-hanging fruits’ and forgot about their signed Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (2005) (Goicoechea, 2015) that demanded for reduced development fragmentation.

The diversity in food security programme areas was observed. The major programme areas included climate change and drought mitigation, livestock development, water resource conservation and management, horticultural production, food relief and financial inclusion. Again

this was expected looking at the donors' drive to carry the international development agenda in addition to their internal strategic and niche areas. However, not all of these programme areas resonated with the needs of the community even if they were critical in achieving poverty reduction and food security. The fragmented programming led to uncoordinated results rendering cumulative impact measurement a challenge. This was evidenced by sector impact (water and sanitation, food security status, nutrition status, income status, access to education and health care) and less on attitude, beliefs and behavioral aspects (funding condition, operational environment, responsibility and partnership, perception of donor funds and community social standing). It was important to address the community attitude, beliefs and behavioral before hardware systems that deliver food security, income security, nutrition security, education and health. Whenever attitudes, beliefs and behaviors were neglected, impact sustainability was lost.

The other observation was high level of institutional and programme disintegration and that was happening in the communities with limited absorption capacities. This position was exacerbated by limited donor predictability (Deutscher & Fyson, 2008) evidenced by community experience of "delayed delivery without genuine reasons". Limited impact was also evidenced by limited transfer of donor resources ("less money reach our community") to the community, institutional fragmentation and poor coordination, multiplicity of projects, open targeting and constantly changing donor goal posts.

Project focus on 'quick wins' potentially left behind the most important development aspects of social, attitude, beliefs and behavioral change among the community. Social, attitude, beliefs and behavioral change were considered important because rural communities wrongly considered donor aid as their entitlement (Raizer & Winkel, 2005) and cared less on mobilizing

their own resources. The end result was over-dependence on donor aid, a situation that justified the Resource Dependence Theory.

In this study, the question of whether the donor aid had lasting impact on the community was mixed. Impact was triangulated against sustainability as a measure of long-term change based on community perceptions of donor aid and how they re-positioned themselves in the light of envisaged improvement (Alemu & Lee, 2015; Alghamdi, 2016; Mutsumara, 2015; Izoko, 2020). According to the community, the impact of donor aid was very limited and in few programme sectors. The donor recipients observed “retention of donor funds by implementing agencies”, delivery of “inferior project materials”, “delay in release of funds”, “short-term projects for meaningful impact”, project “phase-out before achievement of set goals”, externally driven “expensive solutions” and negative “cultural aspects” as major factors that compromised long term impact. Other factors included lack of flexibility and limited community consultation to embrace community needs and interests during project implementation period (Mayhew, 2002).

The consequence on the above outcomes demanded for streamlining the aid delivery mechanism especially at the level of donor-recipient mutual partnership and embracing development focused approach. These was in recognition that the research findings on the question of impact did not place blame on any single entity but was a collective failure. In reference to designing a new direction in donor aid delivery model, there was a need for those in the donor aid system to closely check the provisions of the Paris Declaration on Aid effectiveness (2005), Accra Agenda for Action (2008), Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2005) and the nongovernmental agreement on International Aid Transparency Initiative (IATI, 2008). These four international agreements provided benchmarks to guide effective, efficient, transparent and accountable dispensation of donor aid management. They also expound the

performance indicators that supported and respected the aspirations of the donor and the beneficiary communities.

The section on donor and community motives explored the motives and influencing factors that drove donors (and their implementing agents) and rural poor communities in their engagement in donor aid business and partnerships. In this study, motivation referred to internal and external, direct and indirect incentives and conditions that influenced the decision of stakeholders to engage and get involved in the development business. In assessing motivation factors, related questions were asked to address factors that influenced donors, their implementing agents and vulnerable rural farming communities.

Theoretical position related to motivation provided diverse theories that drove the decisions to provide and engage in donor aid. Such theories depended on the type of a donor (multilateral, bilateral, foundation, trust, charity or individuals). It also depended on the type of aid (military intervention, humanitarian assistance, development aid or emergency aid). Commensurate with the donor type, aid agenda and model of aid delivery, the aid conditions followed suit and exhibited differences across the aid fabric.

The theoretical framework identified external factors such as economic, geopolitical and historical influences (Vaiderpass & Anderson, 2020) that drove the donor institutions. External factors included economic, sociological and psychological factors (Pendley, 2012), religious convictions (Newberg, 2012) and global social justice, sustainability and inclusion (Chan, 2019). The multilateral institutions, such as Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Official Development Assistance (ODA), International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank supported countries that reached their pre-set economic performance thresholds. Bilateral institutions like the United States Aid for International Development (USAID), Swedish

International Development Aid (SIDA), Canadian International Development Aid (CIDA), Finish International Development Aid (FINNIDA), German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ/GIZ), Japan International Corporation Assistance (JICA), Australian Aid, etc. based their aid on advancing their western values, trade partnerships and geopolitical engagements (Milner & Tingley, 2013). In the recent past, it became common to hear of sanctions against developing countries such as Zimbabwe, Uganda, Libya etc. that refused to embrace 'imposed' western values and practices.

Economic and political alliances was another influencing factor advanced by old and new worthy nations like China, Korea, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia and India. Geopolitics was expounded in the furtherance of colonial relationships between the west and their former colonies (Becker, 2020). Since World War I, many countries used transfer of technology, military aid, personnel skills, goods and services as means to extend their colonization agenda of nations that they colonized. Such an arrangement was highly emphasized in Francophone, Saxophone and Anglophone divide. Apart from economics, geopolitics and colonial legacy, aid giving was influenced by power relations, resource accumulation and control (Delke, 2011; Ramakrishina, 2018; Odedukum, 2003; Davis & Cobb, 2009). The imbalanced relationship emphasized the superiority of the giver and subservience of the receiver (Oller, 2006; Reith, 2010). Furthermore, aid givers were driven by monopolization of resources at the expense of the desperate aid receivers (Odedukum, 2003; Davis & Cobb, 2009).

Apart from the external motivation factors, the internal factors included belief, behaviors and convictions to help humanity and product market advancement (Theaker, 2008: 153). Other internal factors were prestige, morals, personal values, sense of identity and perceived benefit from the process of giving (Chan, 2019).

From the onset, positive donor motivation factors such as “compassion” on community vulnerability and need to reduce “poverty” and its underlying causes such as malnutrition, hunger, food and income insecurity, water and sanitation and access to health and education were expected and endorsed by the rural farming community (Chi-square 690.961, p-value 0.00 at $p<0.05$). As expected in the study, the rural communities were critically motivated to participate in donor funded programs by their “poverty situation and need to improve life”. Poverty situation, hunger and food insecurity were statistically significant as motivating factors that compelled communities to participate in donor aid projects. In real terms, the rural and vulnerable communities’ resolve to tackle poverty and hunger, education, child mortality and maternal health. It was apparent in the community desire to change lives. In addition, it was everyone’s desire to sustain environmental sustainability and global partnership.

The intermediaries, institutions subcontracted to deliver donor aid to the grass-root community, were mainly motivated by money and the need to solve ‘personal income poverty’. The intermediary institutions played a role of a business broker or business negotiator between the donor and the vulnerable rural communities. In playing such role, the intermediary institutions gained through fees, interests and endowment funds. In the absence of gaining from the middle piece, the intermediary institutions could not engage in the business even if the vulnerable rural communities were desperate.

While in partnership, the donor motivation factors were not expected to be 100% in tandem with those motivations that influenced implementing agents and community because of the hidden motives at donor level. “Donors came with their own agenda”, meaning that there were some factors such as tax incentives, trade agreements, future investment propositions, imposition of western values, maintaining colonial legacy and superiority which were beyond what was

displayed. The implication therefore was that hidden motives informed the conditions in the support package and compromised the partnerships and relationships for aid delivery which in essence needed to be mutual. This therefore confirmed the theory that past relationships and reciprocal benefits such as allowing foreign direct investments greatly influenced donor aid. The other implication was lack of transparency observed through limited disclosure of vital information as provided for under the Accra Agenda for Action (2008). Accra Agenda for Action (AAA 25.B) provided for public regular disclosure of detailed and timely information on volume, allocation and, when available, results of development expenditure. Displeasure on lack of transparency was expressed by the community when they observed that "*a lot of money remained with government and nongovernmental organizations*". In the words of the aid recipients, "lack of transparency resulted in donor money released to help the poor misdirected from the intended purpose" making impact definitely questionable.

The other implication was that donors were not neutral (Mayhew, 2002) as they got influenced by economic and political interests which superseded recipient rural farming community needs. Among the hidden motives included tax exemptions, building endowments and increasing regional presence (Duncan, 2023). Building endowments was highly evidenced during the Covid 19 pandemic when the wealthy billionaires tremendously increased their takings within two years compared to their combined 23 years' income (Prospecting for Gold (PfG), 2022). Despite their net-worth (14% of the global Gross Domestic Product (GDP)), their donation was less than 1% (PfG, 2022). Such a disproportionate and minimal ratio of provision of aid compared to the total earnings for that purpose was sign of gross misrepresentation and allocation of financial resources to the intended cause.

Measurement of impact from donor aid was necessary but depended on what was being measured and the motivation of the person or institution providing the feedback. In this regard, the measurement focus of donors was always on their contributions to particular global development indicators. It could always be aggregate accumulation of positive wins and contribution to the global reach, macro-level performance and other (hidden) performance indicators. The intermediary agents on the other hand focused on achievement of performance indicators in terms of relevance, effectiveness and efficiency and timely closure of the project despite whether the closure came at a time when impact and sustainability was attained or not. While the donors would be looking at global contribution and other high level indicators, the rural farming community focus might be based on the extent to which their basic needs (reduced poverty, hunger and food shortages) were met. The rural farming communities concentrated on the micro indications of change such as immediate food, income, nutrition, health and education achievements. The different measurement areas of impact indicators (macro level for donors, intermediary level for intermediary organizations and micro-level for communities) among players, highly driven by their motivation factors including the hidden motives, brought about disagreements in the assessment of donor aid impact in the aid business. In this scenario, impact measurement might not be expressed in unison among the players in the industry and they ended up blaming each other for the failures.

In this regard, the major implication was to harmonize and identify common grounds for development of coherent positions. The harmonized motivations could be derived from existing frameworks such as the Paris Declaration (2005) on Aid Effectiveness (which recommended reforms to ensure local ownership and mutual accountability in donor projects) and Millennium Development Goals that set common achievement benchmarks. The situation also demanded for

placing the rural farming community recipients of aid at the center of aid delivery agenda to ensure sustainable outcomes (Deutscher & Fyson, 2008, Mushasha & El Bcheraoui, 2023). In a nutshell, a paradigm shift in the delivery of aid was imperative (Fengler & Kharas, 2010).

The objective 3 and 4 addressing sustainable social and economic support model objective explored various donor aid delivery models (Mushasha & El Bcheraoui, 2023) applied to support the rural communities. The quadratic regression calculated a positive coefficient that indicated a positive linear progression and positive relationship between the applied funding model and funding conditions. In this regard, the conditions changed with the funding model. Bridgespan Group (BG, 2016) argued that a funding model was a methodical and institutionalized approach. To understand Bridgespan Group's argument, the study selected food security projects to assess the methodical and institutional aspects. The methodical aspects were assessed through the institutions that delivered donor aid; most frequently applied funding system, donor aid delivery channel, food security sectors frequently funded and conditions applied in aid delivery. The institutional aspects were assessed through relationships between community and donor fund agents; the extent to which the community were prepared and consulted; fund utilization decision making hindrances in community decision making and supply channel preferred by the community.

The donor aid delivery channel included community application for help, government directed support and donor funding agents directed support. This study established that all above approaches were applied at equal basis. However, the delivery channel depended on the situation (Fengler, 2010) and conditions of the donor. The result that community application for donor support could equal the unsolicited provision of aid by the donors and NGOs was not anticipated in this study. However, the supply-driven model where government directed aid to the community

and NGOs and where donor agents took aid directly to the community was highly anticipated. Furthermore, the result where private sector, community-based organizations and churches were statistically significant (F = 0.005, F= 0.002 and F= 0.010 respectively) in delivering donor aid at community level in future was not expected. The unexpected position was justified by whether financial aid was delivered through budget support, debt relief, public-private partnerships or South-South cooperation (Fengler, 2010). It also depended on the level of partnership established between the donor and the recipient institutions and also based on whether the donor was going to reduce administrative costs and benefit from local expertise (Reinsberg et. al., 2015).

The results under this question portrayed a mixture of demand-driven and supply-driven approaches and the choice between them, now and in the future, was dependent on the donor's delivery policy. For medium term transparency and for ensuring long-term sustainability, provision of aid needed to echo the needs of the rural community. While government directing funding to the community might be in response to national development agenda, the implication of the action would be government imposition of aid on the community with the net-result of limited sustainability. Equally, other supply-driven approaches done by NGOs and other donor agents were detrimental.

The second question on the extent to which funding was provided to specific food security sub-sectors was undertaken to understand the level at which the projects in a particular discipline was holistic. The study established statistically significant results towards fund provision to food production and food diversification. This result confirmed the expectation of the study based on the vulnerability of the rural community whose core focus was meeting hunger and household food security (Ruete, 2015). The implication of this result was that, even with donor funding, the community remained at subsistence level as they focused on immediate food needs of the family.

Limited surplus income from agriculture (main occupation in rural areas) led to inadequacies in meeting other socioeconomic needs such as education, health, water and sanitation.

The question on the model frequently applied in donor funding, considered possible means through which donors provided development resources to rural communities. The study established that donor resource provision modalities frequently applied included free grant, goods and service provision and in-kind donations. The expectation of the study was that the donor models had gravitated to funding community popular felt needs, large scale and long-term projects and utilized public private partnership, public policy change, market development and networking. Given that the study assumption was not attainable, the implication of continued free gifts was deepening community dependency on donor aid and limited exploitation of locally available resources. Funding community felt needs improved participation and was critical for long-term sustainability of interventions. Equally important were public private partnership, public policy change, market development and networking as they had the potential to improve business acumen among the rural population. Leaving the business angle in terms of the role of private sector, public policy, markets and networking posed a serious implication on the entire donor effort of ensuring sustainability and meaningful impact. Also important was the realization that foreign aid alone was not enough to develop a country but complemented with socioeconomic and environmental protection could show developmental progress (Goicoechea, 2015). The implication at this level resonated with the Resource Dependency Theory in the study theoretical framework.

Notwithstanding the model frequently applied in donor funding, the question of the donor fund supply channel was explored to synergize with community preferences. The result was that the most popular donor supply channel was through government and Non-governmental organizations (NGOs). This delivery channel was expected in the study and resonated with the

Paris Declaration and Accra Agenda for Action commitments in terms of avoiding creation of parallel project implementation structures. However, the study established a statistically significant preference from the rural communities, demanding for direct aid delivery to the community. The suggested departure from the current practice of delivering aid through government and non-governmental organizations would create an opportunity to build responsibility roles of communities as they would be at the Centre of their own development, increase transparency and accountability in donor aid delivery system and improve effectiveness. The challenge would be how to handle the recognized need to work through national development structures as per Paris Declaration (2005). Therefore, delivery of aid direct to the community would create confusion and compromise the macro and micro-economic development indicators of the country. The other implication could be that donors would need to build structures at community level (against Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness) and train the communities on how to handle specialized demands of the donor. Associated to the delivery shift would be time to prepare and consult the communities and allow them to make decisions on the use of donor funds. In the current setup, the communities were less prepared and less consulted (at 32.3%) while decisions on the use of funds were made by donors. Statistically significant hindrance to community decision making was lack of transparency as “information on the donor aid was kept secret”. The implication of this situation linked to lukewarm partnerships and relationships between parties, giving more prominence to donors on any decision regarding the donor resources (Annen & Moers (2012). In the partnership where relationship was not mutual, one partner could become superior to the other and that could lead to mistrust.

Donor aid conditions assessed found membership in a local group, gender consideration, vulnerable status and contribution in-kind statistically significant. Such a position was anticipated

as they were practiced in many projects. However, this was against the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness which demanded for all bilateral aid to be provided as untied aid (Goicoechea, 2015). Notwithstanding, the conditions helped to foster commitment on the part of the recipient and ensured proper targeting of beneficiaries such the most affected an marginalized people benefited from the support (Izoko, 2020). The challenge was where conditions applied were against the national values and cultural norms of the recipient communities.

This study had a number of implications to practice. The study established limited impact of donor aid on the rural farming community because of insensitivity to local demands, rigidity, limited coordination, competitive tendencies and support fragmentation. The community and the implementing agents also shared the blame on the negative impact discourse. Despite such a position, development aid remained a vital resource for development (Mayhew, 2002). The key implications therefore remained on the need to reform the donor aid business in line with the Accra Agenda for Action, Paris Declaration for Aid Effectiveness, MDGs and other global frameworks.

Though imperative, donor aid needed to be complemented with local resources and innovations for itself alone could not ensure lasting change (Goicoechea, 2015). Therefore, socioeconomic and environmental capacity on the rural farming communities was needed to complement donor aid. Furthermore, donor aid delivery needed to be coordinated, holistic, methodical and systematic to attain long-term impact. The study brought out a number of practical implications. The positive covariance ($Cov_{x,y} = 401.58$) and positively week relationship indicated by the correlation efficient ($r = 0.3558$) indicated that, development aid, though fragmented, poorly coordinated and unreliable (Flengler & Kharas, 2010), was critical in supporting the vulnerable communities in resolving the poverty nexus. If mishandled, donor aid had the potential to propel corruption, over-dependency and mismanagement of national local resources as it would be

considered an easy substitute and/or source of free money. That would lead to dwindling local innovations and development and eventually create over dependence.

Though internal and external motivations might be attractive, donors needed to ensure aid effectiveness by adhering to Paris Declaration, Accra Agenda for Action and other global good practices in ensuring transparency and avoid fragmentation and duplication of efforts. Therefore, there was need to adjust the funding models with a shift from donor-focused interests to accommodate the needs of the vulnerable rural communities (Christian, 2023; Flengler & Kharas, 2010). In doing so, there was need to reduce the cash hand-out approach to donor aid by supporting self-sufficiency initiatives (Hasford, 2013) through product and market development interventions and build local entrepreneurial capacities. Put simply, aid must be delivered in a different, more effective and efficient way.

The study made a tremendous contribution to the body of knowledge. This study identified the need to attribute the donor aid impact to the rural farming community perspectives as opposed to only donor and implementing agent developmental goals. This was because donors had more hidden motivations as well as internal and external influencing factors that drove their engagement. Attributing some of the hidden motives, internal and external factors to impact at rural farming community level was always a challenge. In this regard, community-based measurements of impact needed to be developed to ascertain in concrete terms the level of impact from donor aid. Based on that, donor delivery model appropriateness and those in favor of the rural farming communities must echo the donor development agenda. This study was therefore the first attempt at unlocking the perspectives of the rural vulnerable communities. However, this study had no scope to look at other external conditions faced by beneficiaries of the donor aid projects such

drought, political decisions and policies, international agreements and many other livelihood influencing factors.

5.2 Recommendations for application

The purpose of this section was to suggest ways in which the findings of this study could be strengthened to realize the objectives of the study. In this regard, the report suggested specific interventions and strategies to address the issues and constraints identified in the study findings (Angler, 2023) in relation to administrative, operational and policy levels to put the outcomes of the study into practice.

The qualitative research highlighted four auto-coded codes and themes that positively and directly aligned with the research objectives, questions and hypotheses. The four auto-coded codes included impact and sustainability, challenges, experienced support model and motivation. The themes, in a logical flow, included the Projects as a vehicle through which development activities were implemented with financial support from donors. The Donors included all aid financial providers for the purposes of project implementation. The Community were those that directly or indirectly utilized the donor resources to realize change in their livelihoods. Change referred to all benefits including climate change resilience and environmental sustainability that positively or negatively affected the beneficiaries. The Delivery referred to the mechanism or models applied in providing aid. Aid referred to the type of assistance given to support the economic, environmental, social, and political development of developing countries and their communities by foreign/international/overseas aid governments and agencies. Agent referred to the institutions and individuals that delivered support and services. The above themes complemented and explained the analyzed quantitative results. Based on the above synopsis, the following subsections highlighted the results and provided practical recommendations.

In summary, one the recommendations was the need to consider priorities of the donor and their source of funds; consider long-term projects to ensure attitude and behavior change; address priority and felt needs of the community; consider holistic projects for integrated development; and foster local solutions. Other recommendations included the need to review and understand the developmental priorities and long-term strategies of donors; promotion of mutual partnerships and relationships with grassroot organizations and communities, leveraging on each other's comparative advantage. There was need to put in place mechanisms to identify hidden motives of donors. It was important to monitor and control endowment building among intermediary institutions by setting a ceiling on administrative packages. Other recommendation were to embrace diversity and local innovation by encouraging development ideas that originate from the community; and build capacity at grassroot level where actual work took place. Further recommendation was to build the capacity of rural community in leadership, project management and group dynamics for them to tackle their cultural, social and leadership hierarchical rigidity. There was a need to tap into local resources (human and material) to ensure sustainability. It was important to focus on executing public-private partnership, effect public policy change and develop markets and networking. Follow the host country development agenda and avoid creation of parallel structures in the delivery process as per Paris Declaration on Aid effectiveness (PDAE) of 2005, Accra Agenda for Action (AAA) of 2008, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) of 2005 and the nongovernmental agreement on International Aid Transparency Initiative (IATI) of 2008. There was a need for a paradigm shift in the delivery of aid (Fengler & Kharas, 2010) from supply driven to demand driven approach, from donor-focused interests to meeting vulnerable community felt needs. There was need to promote business growth through business incubation, market-led support systems and building value addition capacities to

create employment and increase Gross Domestic Products from local industries and service sectors. Implementing holistic, inclusive and integrated projects was recommended to achieve tangible results. Where possible, it might help to consider sending aid direct to the recipient community to cut down red-tape and minimize loss of funds along the supply chain. Lastly, minimize conditions that had potential to hinder local development. Below were the information supporting above recommendations.

5.2.1 Practical recommendation on donor contribution to livelihood change

Key recommendation was the need to consider priorities of the donor and their source of funds; consider long-term projects to ensure attitude and behavior change; address priority and felt needs of the community; consider holistic projects for integrated development; and foster local solutions.

Projects formed the actual funded interventions to help the vulnerable rural communities. Donor funding came from numerous sources such as multilateral, bilateral, foundations, trust and charities as well as the national governments. In the study areas, notable projects were funded by the World Bank, German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ), Czech Republic, World Vision, Self-Help Africa, Heifer and Development Assistance from People to People (DAPP). Most of the projects were selected based on proximity and easy access. For example, Accelerate Water and Agricultural Resources Efficiency (AWARE) project, funded by the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ) (2020-2023), targeted the villages within 30 km radius from the Central Business District of Mazabuka and Monze. It was in this region that many other projects also operated. The donor aided projects targeted everyone in the community as they “invited anyone to participate. Therefore, only those that volunteered their time fully ended up participating during full project implementation”.

The projects, though externally designed with limited consultation of the local authorities and rural farming communities, were "well-intended" in responding to some needs of the community. However, the participants complained of the delays in project implementation and the short term nature of projects even for agricultural projects that depended on seasonal factors. While the intention was not to portray a picture that only long-term projects yielded better and long-term results, many life-long interventions demanded for sufficient time to reorient the rural community into a new paradigm. Time was needed to address the entrenched beliefs, behaviors and culture. Time was also required for the parties (donors, intermediaries and beneficiaries) to reach a common ground and understand each other.

Projects were expected to provide actionable and cheaper solutions for the rural farming community. Unfortunately, communities received projects that had very expensive solutions that they failed "*to handle on their own during and after project period*". Failure to handle alluded to sophistication of the technology and procurement cost. In the Civil society assessment of the mid-term review of German-financed Alliance for Green Revolution in Africa (AGRA) projects in Burkina Faso and Ghana, Urhahn et al. (2022) argued that the project model was unsustainable without continuously funding external industrial inputs such as synthetic fertilizers, pesticides, and industrially produced seed. Such import dependent solutions made project sustainability challenging. In other instances, the community needed consistent support from international expert to deliver on particular outputs and outcomes. Such international expert services came at huge cost.

Most donor aided projects came with "pre-set development agenda and conditions" with no regard to community suggestions for improvement. Rigidity to change led to "micro-management" and refusal to adopt or adapt new ideas for the benefit of the community. In such

situations, the interventions undertaken were not to address the felt needs of the community but rather the perceived issues raised by the donor. It was therefore common knowledge that addressing external concerns could not realize a total buy-in from the recipient community. Furthermore, the beneficiary communities usually remained with limited knowledge and resources to carry forwarded the initiated projects (Schler & Gez, 2018). It was such a scenario that resulted in a number of non-serviceable machinery including donated vehicles and computers, leading to stagnation or collapse of some projects affecting overall development agenda (Matsa et al., 2023).

In most projects, the end-date was more important than the start date. Because of initial set-up bureaucratic processes, most projects started late but maintained the end-date. The rushed ending usually disrupted funding abruptly and caused withdrawal of all implementation human and material resources, “leaving nobody or arrangements to manage the post project period”. The result was total neglect of the investment made over time. It was no wonder there were a lot of abandoned donor funded project items such as storage warehouses, irrigation schemes, processing plants etc.

Moving forward, there must be a consideration on project lifespan. The lifespan of the project depended on the type of aid. Bilateral and multilateral projects were usually long-term and delivered through budget support and direct investment on bilateral basis. The bilateral aid worked under conditions that direct a recipient country to spend resources on the agreed sector and within specific time. Multilateral aid, mainly delivered through IMF, World Bank, UN agencies and regional development banks to support specific programmes, were delivered to respond to macro-level challenges such as debt recovery, infrastructure development and economic restructuring. The lifespan of bilateral and multilateral aid projects depended on the type of aid such as short-term emergency aid to provide food, medicine and shelter to disaster victims; debt relief directed

at canceling debt of the developing country. Long-term, designed to influence continuous and large scale impact covered health, education, agriculture and environmental management. For these sectors, it was ironical to expect impact from a two-year intervention.

Despite short, medium and long-term project duration, what was common in bilateral and multilateral projects was delayed start while end dates remained unchanged. The project commencement got delayed due to bureaucracies in the management of aid contracts. It was a sign of poor project planning, procrastination, scope change, last minute changes from clients and poor communication (Kashyap, 2023). Ultimately, the delay, whether at start or during project implementation, subtracted vital time from the entire project lifespan and increased the cost of doing business in the long run. Kashyap (2023), argued that 43% of completed projects exceeded the original budget and 48% missed the initial deadline. Achieving tangible results in projects highly depended on intra and inter-coordination. Intra-coordination referred to internal coordination of project activities implemented by a given institution. In the study areas, some institutions implemented various projects that were not speaking to each other, causing internal fragmentation. Inter-coordination referred to collaboration between projects operated in the same area. In this regard, projects implemented in a given area should complement each other to holistically meet rural farming community needs (Van Lange & Rusbult, 2012) and contributed to the development agenda of the recipient country. Project fragmentation that caused unnecessary competition among donor projects and institutions (Annen & Moers, 2012) should be avoided. The entry point to ensure good results should be domestication of the Paris Declaration for Aid Effectiveness, Accra Agenda for Action and International Aid Transparency Initiative guidelines on accountability, predictability and transparency.

Holistic projects were more beneficial than linear implementation of small segments of development programmes. Without all-inclusive approach, food security projects achieved disjointed results. In the case of Zambia, sixty five percent of the agricultural national budget was allocated to maize production and marketing at the expense of other value chains. Due to linear approach to food and agriculture, Zambia's agriculture contribution to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) remained low at nineteen percent in 2022 (International Trade Administration (ITA, 2022), malnutrition levels remained a major burden on the country's health care system with 40 percent in children under 5 years were stunted (USAID, 2018) and Zambia continued to have the highest malnutrition rates in the world (Masiye et al. 2010).

The donor aid highly depended on the relationships between the donor institution, implementing Agency and the recipient community. The recipient community depended on the donors for developmental resources, whether funds or in-kind. The donor also depended on the community to grow their philanthropic services. By and large, the donor provide solutions to the problems faced by the underprivileged community. This interdependence explain the direct need for symbiotic relationship between the donors and recipient community. The implementing or Intermediary Agents provided a service for both the donor and recipient community. While providing a service, the Intermediary Agents benefited through contract fees and other ramification given to grow their institutional endowments. Therefore, it was recommended that the relationship between the donors, agents and community be made formal and beyond the common and temporary memorandum of understanding.

In institutional partnerships, the players in the relationship must equitably share roles and responsibilities with the community in the project implementation process. The focus should be to reduce "*power poverty*" faced by the rural community. The vulnerable communities were

powerless in influencing the developmental agenda. The power poverty was highly exhibited from community inability to address their challenges, mostly due to limited leadership capacity and weak resource mobilization strategies. In this regard, the roles and responsibilities of recipient community in the development agenda must be made clear.

Development based on foreign support alone was not sustainable. Sustainability was assured when local resources (human, material and financial) were mobilized form the local environment. Apparently, most developing and under-developed countries were heavily dependent on foreign donor aid at the expense of exploiting the local resources. For example, Zambia has natural endowments in terms of minerals, land, fresh water and aquatic resources, forest products. Zambia is among the world's leading copper producing nations. Other key natural resources included emeralds, gold, cobalt, zinc, petroleum, freshwater and wildlife. If sustainably exploited, Zambia could finance all developmental needs of the rural communities. Going forward, the best was to blend local resource mobilization with foreign aid to enhance the dwindling local innovations and capacities. Coupled with endowed natural resources in various sub-Sahara African countries, home grown solutions had higher chances of resolving local life challenges than externally driven solutions. Therefore, donors should minimize describing developmental solutions that were mostly one-solution-fits all even when situations differed in those communities.

5.2.2 Practical recommendation on donor motives

Various donors contributed resources to development work. Notable among them were multilateral, bilateral, foundations, trusts, private sector and individuals. The rural farming communities singled out government and non-governmental organizations as their major donors. This was based on the visibility of these institutions at community level and would not know the original source of funds like World Bank and other bilateral institutions that provided funds.

The donors always stood ready to support the right causes that were within their developmental priorities and long-term strategies. The results of this study identified "*compassion*" as the key motivating factor that influenced donors as they fully understood the "desperation and vulnerability" of the poor people with regard to "poverty, high incidences of malnutrition and climate change effects".

To be effective in their work, donors should promote mutual partnerships and relationships with grassroot organizations and communities, leveraging on each other's comparative advantage. Despite recognition of mutual partnerships and need for sound relationships, the arrangement should not end at signing lukewarm Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) conveniently signed to advance the project implementation and without providing for post project strategies.

Donors were not neutral partners (Mayhew, 2002) as they got influenced by economic and political interests above recipient rural farming community needs. Even when the community had genuine reasons to "direct the project in a certain way", the donors remained steadfast on their pre-designed cause of action. In a quest to remain visible and play leadership in particular sectors, donors applied "one-solution fits all support model" that came with a lot of "rigidity to accommodate innovative ideas". Therefore, mechanisms should be put in place to identify hidden motives such as "creating jobs for their own people, advancing their geopolitical positions and endowment building''.

The resource flow within the funded programme must be monitored and control endowment building. For that, a performance-based remuneration package for all donor project workers. Interns and volunteers allowances should not be higher than local officers in the same profession. Huge payments to interns and volunteers siphoned "money intended for the

communities". But this was not to say that volunteers were not necessary but rather to emphasize that equity needed to be applied.

In the past two to three decades, the donor approach to funding shifted from Direct Request for Support (DRS) to "Call for Proposals" (CfP). Direct Request for Support had an element of recipient communities initiating the demand in a bottom-up arrangement. The Call for Proposals (CfP) came with top-down arrangement and legitimized the "one-solution-fits all" approach. To embrace diversity and increase local innovation, donors should encourage development ideas that originated from the community. Such an action would improve local ownership of donor support initiatives.

Partnerships with local institutions improved delivery effectiveness as they were familiar with the local environment. However, there was limited transparency and accountability on the funds that remained with the intermediary institutions, causing intimations that the intermediary institutions "retained a lot of donor funds" meant for rural farming communities. This was also evidenced by the growth in organizational endowments of many intermediary institutions around the world. The donor community should therefore provide a ceiling and make known the "administrative packages" provided to intermediary institutions. Such administrative support to intermediary institutions should include mandatory infrastructural support necessary to deliver the project.

Agents referred to the institutions that delivered donor support at community level. The understanding of the rural farming community was that the agent was actually the donor. In a way they were not wrong because the agent performed within the conditions signed with the substantive donor. Dependent on the size of the project, the agent composition and ladder could be quite complex (Figure 2.2 Donor delivery ladder). At every stage of the implementation ladder, the

parties involved signed various (formal or informal) agreements and along with it was resource retention.

The other multiplicity determining factor for agent engagement was the “conditions of the donor and the problem being addressed”. The bigger size of the project, the more the complexity and capacity of the primary recipients required in the implementation partnership. Understanding that such partnerships attracted resource utilization, worry was expressed concerning the “high risk of funds retained” at the top of the supply chain. It was therefore recommended to limit the intermediary players by “sending aid direct to the recipient rural farming community”. In government implemented or funded projects, priority should be to build capacity at grassroot level where actual work took place. It was also recommended to check fragmentation and “stiff competition for resources” that disregarded community interests. Such a situation compromised attribution of results at community level. The situation where more than one institutions competing for resources was “*common”*.

5.2.3 Practical recommendation on synchronized donor and community motives

The community referred to rural farmers that directly or indirectly utilized the donor resources to tackle perceived life challenges such as food insecurity, environmental degradation, income insecurity and other social challenges. The rural farming communities were always positive and receptive to developmental programs. Urhahn et al. (2022) argued that small-scale food producers hardly had any freedom of choice. This study established that rural farming community participation was significantly influenced by poverty situation, hunger and food insecurity and moderately influenced by income insecurity, livelihood status, access to education and access to health care. To some communities, participating in a donor funded project was a

“strategic survival measure” to socially and economically remain afloat in their quest to solve poverty and improve their well-being.

While the communities remained positive to development, their cultural aspects were “so deep that change was difficult”. The communities had “protective tendencies” that made community-level accountability difficult as it was basically challenging to “hold any community member to account”. The community leadership learned over the years to protect their community members in face of external pressures.

Within the project tripartite partnership between donors, implementing agents and rural farming community, the rural farming community had less power and scope to ascent in donor aid project delivery discourse. Such a position was amplified by lack of leadership and control, especially in the absence of effective participation of the traditional leaders like chiefs.

Based on the above findings, the key recommendation was to build the capacity of rural farming community in leadership, project management and group dynamics for them to tackle “cultural, social and leadership hierarchical rigidity”. Donor interventions should also consider tackling negative behavior’s, beliefs and attitudes to counter the deep-rooted cultural aspects that made “changing anything difficult”. The participants confirmed that any project performance depended on “community participation”. In this regard, a platform should be built through which communities would provide solutions to help resolve their developmental challenges.

5.2.4 Practical recommendations on ensuring adequacy of the delivery model

The study established multiple approaches applied in the delivery of donor aid projects. The most frequently applied donor funding model included provision of free grants, goods and service and in-kind donations. The measurement of good or bad delivery model depended on the “implementation stage of the project, the aid type and sensitivity of the community”. Based on

that, the supply chain model might be demand-driven or supply driven. However, when a project deliver goods and services to the community without involving them in plans and decisions and without allowing them to demand support based on their felt needs, then whatever is delivered is supply driven. It was therefore established that the social and economic funding models applied tended to be supply-driven and at the expense of addressing community felt needs.

The participants further observed “late delivery of project resources and services with no clear reasons given”. Stiff competition for project participants and taking projects to easy-to-reach areas led to “dishing out resources (in-kind incentives)” to entice the community.

The study established free grant, goods and service provision and in-kind donations as the scientifically significant delivery models. The current applied models promoted dependency and built products and markets for imported goods/services and killed local innovations (Urhahn et al., 2022). It was time the donor models gravitated to funding community popular felt needs, large scale and long-term projects. The projects should also tap into local resources (human and material) to ensure sustainability. Goicoechea (2015) argued that exclusive foreign aid was insufficient to develop a country. It was also time donor projects focused on executing public private partnership, effect public policy change and develop markets and networking. These approaches would help put the beneficiaries at the Centre of their development.

To tackle supply driven approaches, “direct delivery of aid to the community” was suggested, so long sufficient capacity was built on the community leadership. This was in recognition of the limited latitude of the community to directly “interface with the donor” and deliver the project with effectiveness and efficiency. It was also recommended that delivery models follow the development agenda of the country and avoid creation of parallel structures in the delivery process as per Paris Declaration on Aid effectiveness (PDAE) of 2005, Accra Agenda

for Action (AAA) of 2008, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) of 2005 and the nongovernmental agreement on International Aid Transparency Initiative (IATI) of 2008.

The donors and their implementing agents should eliminate the notion of "*coming with own agenda*" by applying conditions that did not favor the vulnerable rural farming community. In setting up operational conditions, transparent procedures, especially full disclosure of information, must be followed and explained.

Partnerships and relationships for aid delivery must be mutual and one that guaranteed recipient community placement at the Centre of the aid delivery system to ensure sustainable outcomes (Deutscher & Fyson, 2008, Mushasha & El Bcheraoui, 2023). In this regard, a paradigm shift in the delivery of aid was imperative (Fengler & Kharas, 2010).

Aid was anything given to support someone in need. In this study, aid referred to national, international and overseas assistance given by governments and other agencies to support the economic, environmental, social, and political development of poor and needy countries and communities. The common denominator to donor aid was financial resources and therefore, money was the dominant motivation factor at all levels (donors, intermediaries and communities). Given the vulnerability and underdevelopment nature of poor countries, reliance on donor aid was common (Melesse, 2021). The studied rural farming communities relied on donor and government support for economic growth and poverty reduction.

Despite other indicators in the delivery mechanism, amortization of in-kind donations and services led to the understanding of "less funds reaching the vulnerable communities". The reduction in the funded resources could only be attributed to intermediary arrangements between the donor and the community. In this respect, donor money itself was not the reason for failure of

the aid system but inadequacies in the delivery system, divergent motives and unfavorable conditions imposed in the funding supply chain.

Considering that donor aid in itself was not a problem, the study recommended for transparent intermediary pathway, avoiding loss of funds - “a lot of resources got trapped” - in administrative and endowment accumulation provisions. Interventions that ensured value for money in donor aided projects might be applied and intensified to ensure success and attribution of success to applied investments.

The research recommended a shift from donor-focused interests to consider vulnerable community felt needs. Based on the motivation results in this study, donors were driven by compassion and significantly (p-0.009) motivated by political recognition, religious beliefs, moral obligation and community marginalization. Donors also had hidden motives to build their endowment and profit from the process through tax exemption and other incentives. The recipient communities were significantly (p-0.001) motivated by poverty situation, hunger, food insecurity, income security. Their participation in the donor funded projects was for “strategic survival” and a means to enhance their “social safety net”. The donors could therefore perform better by considering what the recipient communities required. In addition, underdeveloped countries had a number of longer-term strategic plans such as Zambia Vision 2030 and short-term country strategies to address sector level challenges especially in agriculture, health and education.

The study established significant (p-0.013) aid delivery through provision of goods and services, in-kind donations and free grants. The delivery mechanism was highly influenced (F=0.009) by donors as they made decisions on the extent of support in terms of duration, development sector and financial investment. Realizing that performance of the project depended on the way the aid support was delivered, cash hand-outs created high dependence on donors and

should be reduced. Instead, the donor aid operation should promote business growth through market-led support systems utilizing models like the Market-maker Funding Model (MFM) and Resource Recycler Funding Model (RRFM).As the models suggest, markets and resource recycling had the potential to exploit local opportunities and ensure sustainability.

One of the dilemmas of underdevelopment was limited capacity to add value to the raw materials, poor markets and entrepreneurial skills. Building capacities in these areas would create employment and increase Gross Domestic Products from local industries and service sectors. It was therefore recommended to promote innovative support systems such as value addition and market development. Channels such as Private Public Partnership and enhancing financial inclusion would support entrepreneurial capacities of vulnerable and capital constrained poor communities.

Donor funds, if wrongly handled, would create dependency and stifle local innovations. The vulnerable communities work in isolation as they had no business platforms through which they would plan and execute their plans. Development meant consolidation and mobilization of resources including human resources. It was therefore recommended to build community business platforms for incubation of businesses and resolve developmental challenges. This approach would reduce the power poverty faced by vulnerable communities.

This study mapped the channels through which the donor funds before reaching the intended vulnerable communities. In these channels, financial resources got retained to support the administrative and operational costs of the Intermediary Agents to an extent that only 45% of donor funds reached the intended communities. The alternative to delivering aid through the Intermediary Agents was to deliver direct to the communities. However, “direct delivery of aid to the community” could be considered once sufficient leadership capacity is built on the community.

This would call for building community capacity in leadership, project management and group dynamics to tackle “cultural, social and leadership hierarchical rigidity” as well as tackle negative behaviors, beliefs and attitudes to counter deep-rooted cultural aspects that made “changing anything difficult”.

The donor-community relationship demanded for mutual partnership and trust. With a strong partnership, communities would effectively and efficiently implement donor projects without supervision from the donors. Sound relationship would also ensure transparent sharing of information and such a situation, no hidden motives such as the ones observed at donor level would be experienced. With trust and shared vision, positive achievements would be anchored on increased local ownership, diversity and innovation. At donor level, community engagement with ensured value for money would give sustainable results.

Development projects needed to focus on a more diverse but interconnected sectors. For example, agricultural production alone without market development would not yield positive results. In this respect, focus should be on implementing holistic, inclusive and integrated projects to achieve tangible results. And for that to happen, strongly consultations with recipient rural communities would be required at project design stages. Such a move would discourage dependency and promote local ownership.

This research established a mix of supply and demand driven models in donor aid system. Though operated interchangeably, demand driven development surpassed supply driven development as it directly responded to the needs of the recipient communities. Whenever, the two models were envisaged, a balance should be reached in the resource allocation between the community (end beneficiaries) and the intermediary institutions. This research established that more resources remained at the intermediary level at the expense of the recipient communities. If

possible, initiate a separate support system for the Intermediary Institutions and empower them to respond to their institutional growth requirements. It was therefore recommended that donors consider “sending aid direct to the recipient community”.

Fragmentation and uncoordinated projects at community level were rampant. The fragmentation occurred among donors, between donor projects and within donor projects. That resulted in duplicated intervention efforts. Fragmentation and poor coordination were responsible for confusing the community as they did not separate which institution provided what support but ultimately participated in projects that imposed minimal engagement conditions. It was important to note that, as for the community, it was difficult to attribute failure to one single project or donor but rather condemn every donor project based on their longer-term experiences. In that case, project initiatives should be built on the past projects and experiences and take advantage of cumulative gains. It was also possible to build mutual partnerships and sound relationships with the community that had been engaged over time. The process of starting afresh every time a donor project was delivered caused high level fragmentation and curtailed experiential learning.

While engagement terms and conditions might be viewed to be counter-productive, they kept the vulnerable communities in check and encouraged participation. Without conditions like contribution in kind, local mobilization and residence in the project area, donor aid project delivery could be a challenge to deliver. However, certain conditions were a hindrance to local development. For example IMF and World Bank conditions and recent European and United States governments’ conditions regarding Lesbian and Gay related acceptance demands were against the recipient community norms and cultures. Therefore, in designing donor aid conditions, the process should be transparent with focus on creating a common understanding.

The donors were not regulated directly by any single policy framework. At global level, the donors and philanthropic system were regulated by the Paris Declaration on Aid effectiveness (PDAE) of 2005, Accra Agenda for Action (AAA) of 2008, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) of 2005 and the nongovernmental agreement on International Aid Transparency Initiative (IATI) of 2008. Key provisions of these policies included enhancing transparency, accountability and avoidance of fragmentation and duplication.

It was therefore recommended that donors observe the global agreements to ensure effective delivery of aid. Every country and at international corporation level had longer-term policy frameworks and strategies such as Vision 2030, Agenda 2063, Millennium Development Goals (2000 – 2015) and Sustainable Development Goals (2030). The Zambia's Vision 2030 (2006-2030) aimed at transforming Zambia into a prosperous middle income nation by 2030 and to create a strong and dynamic middle income industrial nation that provided opportunities for improving well-being of all and to create an enabling environment for sustainable socioeconomic development. African Union Agenda 2063, also termed as the '*Africa We Want'*, was Africa's blueprint to achieve inclusive and sustainable socioeconomic development. Goal number 20 of the Agenda 2063 spoke of Africa taking full responsibility for financing her development goals. Goal number 20 directly supported other goals such as engaged and empowered youth and children; environmentally sustainable and climate resilient economies and communities; and modern agriculture for increased productivity and production to ensure high standard of living, quality of life and well-being for all citizens. The African Union's Agenda 2063 was directly linked with the United Nation's Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in the areas of economic development, human development, infrastructure, technology development and political governance. The SDGs was more comprehensive compared to Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in that it

highlighted the importance of the environmental sustainability which was part of the MDGs. All these longer term strategic plans would provide significant guidance to delivery of development at global, national and local community levels. With effective donor support delivered along specific goals and development sectors, the vulnerable communities would change their lives in a sustainable manner.

The sentiments from this research indicated a mixed feeling regarding the impact from donor aid. Donor aided projects "*impacted positively on the community hygiene and sanitation, water, health, food security and nutrition*". Communities also benefited from "diversified income and knowledge". Though some positive indications were noted, the negativity sentiments weighed higher than the positivity, confirming the null hypothesis that there was no relationship between external aid and change (impact) in livelihoods of rural farming communities. Failure of the donor aided project were identified through limited change in "household income" and fragmentation due to multiplicity and concentration of donors in easy-to-reach areas, competitive tendencies, limited community consultation, limited transparency, poor partnerships, short-term projects and low predictability. Other factors that negatively caused negative results included funds less than expected reached the community, expensive solutions advanced to solve community challenges and limited management of the post-project period. There was "no one morally responsible to oversee progression of the project outcomes" beyond the project period.

The donor aid had potential to achieve tangible results if properly delivered and managed. Therefore, strong community consultation at the design stage of the project or programme aimed at "sustainable development" was suggested. The donor projects should avoid approaches such as "dishing out materials to communities" that encouraged dependency on external support. Rather more effort should be on supporting the rural farming communities to start "livelihood

improvement activities". It was universally accepted that long term change depended on strong local institutions. Therefore, there was need to equitably share roles and responsibilities in the project implementation process to tackle the "power poverty" faced by the rural farming community and increase their position in project design and impact performance assessment of any donor project from their perspective and not from the donor's perspective.

As the impact of the donor aided projects suffered many challenges, it was recommended that the lifespan be commensurate with the aid type and adjusted to the resource basket. The projects should consult communities on the best solution to their challenges and utilize locally generated interventions to reduce "abandonment of project investments". Consider cultural aspects of the community to ensure "sustainable development". To attain complete and holistic development, "long-term and integrated programmes" were proposed. Human development demanded inclusiveness in delivery and net results. It was therefore recommended to streamline aid delivery mechanism with focus on holistic development.

5.3 Recommendations for future research

Based on the results and analysis of implications and applications of the findings, this section provided recommendations for future research. The philanthropic industry had become a highly specialized industry with focus on results. Provision of private and public resources in any development sector demanded for clear results with measurable value for money. More often, the tax payers in donor countries continued to question why resources sent to poor countries for sustainable development created limited change in the livelihoods of the recipient communities and continued facing increasing poverty and vulnerability. Equally the recipient communities also continued to demand for tangible change in the delivery system. None among stakeholders were squarely to blame but the failures in the delivery architecture were to blame. Findings from this

research underscored the need for more work. Therefore, this research made recommendations for further research:

- Comparative study on impact created by short-term and long-term projects. The nature of projects was dependent on scale, purpose and duration (Mwebia & Yusuf, 2022). The intricate project cycle (project initiation, planning, execution and closure) determined the project entire duration. Spending valuable time on each stage of the project had a direct bearing on the impact and sustainability of the project. Other dependent variables to project lifespan included the donor aid type, the associated resource basket, the intervention sector and socioeconomic and political factors. The longevity of the donor projects was determined by the donor aid type (multilateral, bilateral, foundations, trust and charities). Multilateral projects were usually longer-term as compared to bilateral projects that mainly contributed funds to national annual budgets and those projects designed to meet strategic goals of the recipient countries and/or responded to strategic priorities of the donor nation. Projects delivered through direct funding to civil society and non-governmental development organizations were generally short-term with limited sustainability measures in place to safeguard investments. The resource basket for donor projects depended on the complexity of the project, duration and institutional players involved. Findings from this study and many scholarly work (Buffardi, 2011, Guchui, 2017, Arsalan, 2019, Hattlebakk, 2021) indicated a mixed feeling regarding the impact from donor aid without attribution to donor aid type and the economic sector. Hattlebakk (2021) argued that donor aid improved the GDP and a 5% GDP increment resulted in 15 percentage points in poverty reduction. The correlation of project contribution to GDP and resultant poverty reduction was not regressed against the project lifespan. Findings of this research further established that

different economic sectors demanded different time space. For example, agricultural projects were prone to seasonality while health and behavioral change projects required more time to change the behaviors, beliefs and attitudes of people. Gachui (2017) recommended for expanded research in other sectors like agribusiness, sanitation, education and crafts. This research established positive impact on community hygiene and sanitation, water, health, food security, nutrition, diversified income and knowledge transfer. However, it was not the mandate of the study to undertake in-depth comparative study of project duration as a factor of donor aid impact. Based on the above knowledge gap, a comparative research was recommended to assess the extent to which project duration influenced the long-term impact of donor aid projects. Such a study would help the donor institutions to provide sufficient time and resources to realize the expected results.

- Sustainability of donor funded projects beyond donor financing. The impact of donor aid could be immediate and in the longer term (sustainability). As the recipient community utilize the donor aid, the immediate impact was observed based on the extent to which the recipients met their immediate needs. On the longer term, sustainability was measured through lifelong change on factors like community resilience, financial capacity and inclusion, environmental sustainability and business growth. The interest of every donor was to see lasting change from their resource investments (Alonzi, 2022). The study observed abandonment of infrastructure financed with donor funds while many routine implementation activities ended-up on closure of the project. Contributing factors to observed abandonment of donor investments included “externally driven ‘expensive solutions”, donors driving their “own agenda”, negative “cultural aspects” and poorly

implemented exit strategy that left “nobody responsible for what was left behind in the project area”. The study also recorded limited consideration of cultural, attitude and behavioral aspects in the community towards externally driven projects. Urhahn et al. (2022) conceded that project models that promoted external industrial inputs and services were unsustainable. It was therefore recommended for research to assess the longer-term sustainability of donor aided projects utilizing proven concepts of sustainability such as economic viability, environmental protection and social equality (European Commission, 2001) to measure parameters of policy support, appropriate technology, institutional and management capacity, economic and financial viability, sociocultural and gender inclusion. Others would be the International Food and Agricultural Development (IFAD) sustainability and scale-up framework that assessed institutions and policy engagement; partnership building; human and social capital empowerment; quality of target group engagement and feedback mechanism; responsiveness of service providers; environment and natural resource management; exist strategy and potential for scale-up. These frameworks could provide the basis for triangulation of the sustainability issue in donor aid programmes.

- Consequences of partnership and relationships in effective aid delivery. Building partnerships and relationships are sparked by populist development theory for participatory development and community empowerment (Overton & Storey, 2022). Partnership implied joint participation though not at equal basis, to achieve a set goal (Overton & Storey, 2022). In a similar manner, relationship implied long-term commitment between parties and implied joint effort in mobilizing resources, technology and decisions to solve a perceived problem. Based on the benefits of sound partnerships and relationships, the

philanthropic industry shifted from stakeholder approaches that recognized everyone affected by the intervention to the participatory theory that recognized team work in delivery of aid. In this study, tripartite partnership involving donors, implementing agents and the recipient community was recorded. Among the three partners, the recipient community had less power and were less assertive as they could not challenge donors over whatever support they received. The funding underscored the argument of Overton and Storey (2022) that the relationship between the donor and the recipient community were weak and structured in a utilitarian and self-legitimizing manner that reinforced donor dominance. This was at the background that recipient communities were the ultimate reason for existence of philanthropic sector and therefore lack of mutuality needed to be bridged to ensure longer-term, reciprocal and broader partnership beyond project lifespan. Considering that many donors including the World Bank had adopted the rhetoric of partnerships and relationships to drive their development agendas, the knowledge gap that existed on this anecdote needed to be bridged. Therefore, further research was recommended to assess the consequences of partnership and relationship in effective delivery and long-term sustainability of aid.

- Explore dynamics of Call for Proposals. Call for proposals (CfP), also called Request for Proposals (RfP), was a procurement tool that gave open invitation to tender. In a manner of emphasizing the external agenda to development, the ‘Call for Proposals (CfP)’ became the norm through which funding for development was provided in recent era. The call for proposals was a fully designed concept of delivery cascading the intervention title, objectives and project goals, areas of work, partnerships, deliverables, duration and funding size. The only areas left for input was expression of interest and mainly done by the

intermediary institutions and less by the recipient community. In that process, the ‘vendor’ was only allowed to submit requested information. In some cases, CfP/RfPs followed pre-identification of vendors best positioned to deliver the mandate and invitation to bid only made to them (St-Jean, 2020). The backside of the CfP/RfP was the confirmation that the donor had limited knowledge on the target community and required an agency with technical specialization and local knowledge to provide specific services. It was also a tool used to identify the right partners for collaboration. The right partners might be those with aligned organizational values, shared vision and capacity. On the positive side, call for proposals, as a competitive process, reduced nepotism, favoritism and other corruption tendencies. On the negative side, call for proposals contributed to fragmentation in donor aid project intervention. The call for proposals was highly top-down as it described the scope of the project, lists down activities, budgets and milestones for a perceived problem in the community. While created with good intentions, the Call for proposals legitimized the “one-solution-fits all” approach to developmental work and allowed the donors to change goal posts at will. It was also a process through which donors gathered free strategic information from the populace and at times done just to fulfil internal procurement policies. In this regard, the call for proposals “killed the local innovations” and promoted diversion from the national development agenda. Selection of a good proposal might not guarantee a successful outcome. Like any innovation, the call for proposals initiative had inherent dynamics in driving the sustainable development. To this end, further research was recommended to explore the dynamics of call for proposals as a new approach to funding rural community projects.

- Extent and implications of financial retention by donor agents. Donor Agents referred to the institutions that delivered donor support at community level on behalf of the primary resource providers. In a bid to reach-out the rural communities, donors delivered aid through intermediary agents that could be government agencies, NGOs, private sector and consultancy companies. Some of the intermediaries were international organizations with structured financial bank-roll mechanisms. The resource retention at this level of aid delivery was commensurate with size and complexity of the delivery ladder - the more institutions involved in delivering aid the more resources remained at Agent level to cover administrative, and consultancy and management fees. In this study, recipient communities complained of receiving only about "*45% and less*" of the funds disbursed by the donor because "*so much money remained with the intermediaries*". This meant that, while donors recorded billions of aid given out for development, more than 65% got utilized outside the recipient community. If donor funds were delivered to a community-based organizations, more funds could be used on community priority activities. In a study done by Kivelyova et al. (2013), community-based organizations utilized 29% on programme management and administration and used 71% of funds on programmatic activities. Therefore, further research was recommended to explore the extent to which financial retention at Agent level compromised the expected outcome from development resources given out to vulnerable communities.
- Comparative study on demand and supply driven models. his study established no single approach to delivery of donor aid projects. However, the dominant model was a supply-driven model as the donors decided every stage of the delivery mechanism and changed cause at will. This dominant model was at variance with the development needs of the

recipient communities as “free grant, goods and service provision and in-kind donations” were “dished with limited consultation with the community”. The approach promoted dependency, built the market for external products and services and killed local innovations (Urhahn et al., 2022). The exclusivity of local initiatives was detrimental to the growth of under-developed countries (Goicoechea, 2015). To gain full understanding, a comparative study on the supply-driven and demand-driven aid delivery models was proposed. The study would also explore sub-delivery systems within each model such as market development, policy change, public private sector approaches and support to home-grown solutions.

- Extent to which donors and NGOs domesticated global agreements. Programme and project complementation had higher chances of success than uncoordinated and fragmented projects (Van-Lange & Rusbult, 2012. Fragmentation had the potential to cause unnecessary competition (Annen & Moers, 2012). The topics of fragmentation and competition were discussed at many global fora and agreements signed, among them the Paris Declaration on Aid effectiveness (2005), Accra Agenda for Action (2008), Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2005) and the Nongovernmental agreement on International Aid Transparency Initiative (IATI, 2008). These agreements were there to guide the philanthropic sector on issues of delivery effectiveness, accountability, transparency and ethical conduct. Since enactment of PDAE in 2005, AAA in 2008, OECD in 2005 and the Nongovernmental agreement on IATI in 2008, and looking at the donor aid delivery practices, domestication of these agreements were limited. To this end, delivering aid based on “own agenda, unfavorable aid conditions, lack of transparency in information provision and limited accountability” continued. The

parties to the agreement were not performing satisfactorily on the provisions of the agreements, a sign that enforcement and domestication was limited. In this regard, further research was recommended to assess the extent to which these international agreements were domesticated and enforced. Such a study would help in sharping the entire efficiency and effectiveness of the philanthropic industry for the good of humankind.

5.4 Conclusions

The aim of this study was to evaluate impact of donor funding from the beneficiary's lens. The purpose was to explore the trend in grant flow and its motives, build impact measurement from the beneficiary's lens and contribute to the body of knowledge. The four study objectives included 1) To assess whether donor aid improved livelihood of rural communities; 2) To assess the extent to which donor motives influenced provision of donor aid; 3) To assess the extent to which donor motives synchronized with motives of recipient communities; and 4) To assess the adequacy of the delivery model in reducing the vulnerability of rural communities.

Four research questions included RQ1: What influence did donor funding had on livelihoods of vulnerable communities? RQ2: What was the level of knowledge on donor motives that drive provision of donor funding? RQ3: To what extent were donor motivations in line with the community motivations? RQ4: How did the delivery channels and models help in taking resources to the vulnerable communities?

The study had four hypotheses. The first null hypothesis (Ho) was that donor aid resulted in attributable change in livelihoods of vulnerable rural communities. The alternative hypothesis (Ha) was that donor aid did not result in attributable change in livelihoods of vulnerable rural communities. The second Null hypothesis (Ho) was that motives of donors influenced support to rural communities. The alternative hypothesis (Ha) was that motives of donors did not influence

their support to rural communities. The third Null Hypothesis (Ho) was that donors and vulnerable communities had similar motivations towards donor aid. The alternative hypothesis (Ha) was that donor motives and vulnerable community motives were not common. The fourth Null Hypothesis (Ho) was that aid delivery model sufficiently created livelihood.

In line with the problem statement, research aim, purpose and objectives, and based on the findings and implications, this section of the report makes conclusions on the study. The conclusions were made in relation to donor aid impact and sustainability; motivation factors; and proposed donor model (donor projects and operational framework; partnerships and relationships; community engagement; and response to global provisions).

5.4.1 Donor attributable contribution to livelihood change

The first objective of the research assessed whether donor funding reduced poverty and improved livelihoods of rural communities. Poverty in rural Zambia was entrenched with over 57% living below the poverty line. The situation threatened their livelihoods and its outcomes such as limited income security, food security, access to health and education, economic empowerment, resilience to respond to environmental and climate change effects. Tackling poverty required financial, human, social and environmental capital. The financial capital points to provision of monetary support to rural development. The human capital looked into building skills and provision of knowledge for building internal capacities for exploitation of available opportunities and spur growth. The social capital could aim at building networks and collaborative efforts in the exploitation of local resources. The environmental capacity was for ensuring sustainable management of natural resources. Unless there was holistic approach to the provision of these capital areas, the support result might not be realized.

The donor funding was styled to provide resources for poverty reduction. Depending on the donor, the focus might be in the provision of one or all capital items. The results of the study indicated that donor funding and poverty had positive linear relationship, indicating that the more donor funding was provided, the more poverty remained stagnant or increased. This linear proportion of the donor funding to poverty status was not expected, justifying the concerns at international level. What was expected was an inverse proportion between donor funding and poverty, where increased donor funding resulted in reduction in poverty levels. In other words, what was expected was donor funding resulting in improved livelihoods. It was also concerning to have a projection of donor funding not having positive influence on the poverty trend in the near future. In this respect, the perception that donor funding had no impact on the rural livelihoods was proven in this study. This position of donor funding and poverty indicated the need to investigate the parameters that perpetuated the linearity in the relationship between the two sides.

The overall position on the study findings was that the impact of donor aid on rural communities was not commensurate with the volume of resources provided and therefore was not balanced in changing lives of the poor. Earlier scholars (Alemu & Lee, 2015; Alghamdi, 2016; Mutsumara, 2015; Izoko, 2020). Alemu and Lee (2015) argued that foreign aid stimulated economic growth in low income African countries. Mutsumara (2015) and Izoko (2020) argued that impact was not clear, little or none. This study observed improvement in socioeconomic aspects (water and sanitation, food security condition, nutrition status, income status, access to education and health care) and less on attitude, beliefs and behavioral aspects (funding condition, operational environment, responsibility and partnership, perception of donor funds and community social standing). In this mixed results, donor aid itself was not to blame (Goicoechea, 2015) but the human behavior and ineffective aid delivery system. That performance position was blamed

on a number of factors including fragmentation, poor coordination and unreliability in service delivery.

Development aid, though fragmented, poorly coordinated and unreliable (Flengler & Kharas, 2010), was critical in supporting the vulnerable communities in the resource poor countries and must continue. It was an important ingredient in the development support mix, especially for sub-Saharan African countries like Zambia where half of the children were stunted and one in every five underweight (Masiye et al. 2010). Countries like Zambia had high poverty levels of over 50% (77% in rural areas) of the population living below national poverty line (Africa Development Bank, 2022).

The failure of the donor aid was not about the finance itself (Goicoechea, 2015) but lack of effectiveness and efficiency among stakeholders, conditions applied and competitive tendencies that surrounded the donor aid resource acquisition and management. Institutional and project fragmentation and lack of coordination amplified impact failure. With elusive impact, vulnerability and poverty of the poor continued to increase. This had put the current dependency on donor aid (Kwakye, 2010) by sub-Saharan African countries for economic growth and poverty reduction (Melesse, 2021) at high level of prominence because minimal results were obtained.

For long-term impact, a well-coordinated, holistic, methodical and systematic approach was required. The donor aid approach should be adjusted (Christian, 2023) by shifting from donor interest-based support system to community-cantered model that ensured mutual partnerships, accountability, transparency and sustainability. The donor predictability (Deutscher & Fyson, 2008) especially when it came to timely delivery of aid resources should improve. Notwithstanding global and institutional interests, the donors should curtail frequent change of goal posts and make development consistent, progressive and predictable. This could only be achieved when donors

stop looking inwardly to meet their own interests and motivations. The donor community should develop complementary programmes and projects that tapped into local resources to attain high chance of success (Van-Lange & Rusbult, 2012). The observed fragmentation of donor aid projects in the studied areas, though also experienced worldwide (Deutscher & Fyson, 2008; Annen & Moers, 2012) was regrettable. Fragmentation universality did not make the practice a good thing. It led to unhealthy competition, limited coordination (Fengler, 2010) and multiplicity of delivery pathways that increased the probability of donor funds not reaching the intended beneficiaries.

Philanthropic support, if not well executed, proliferated poor nations' over-reliance on donor aid for economic growth and poverty reduction. Expectations were that the short-term support would invigorate exploitation of local resources and provide incentives for growth in different development sectors. However, the expectations were not realized because of neglected local resources, multiplicity and concentration of donors in easy-to-reach areas, limited transparency, poor partnerships, short-term projects and low donor predictability. The current donor aid support system was filled with competitive tendencies with focus on quick-wins at the expense of long-term results. The sector was also subjected to divergent motives that diluted the development purpose and reduced the resolve to meet the needs of the poor community. Because of hidden motives and other interests, unfavorable conditions were advanced which in many cases were more punitive than constructive. It was regrettable to observe imposition of western values at the expense of promoting local values and norms. Divergent interests also led to application of supply-driven funding models, a process which eliminated recipient community consultative process, putting to question the sustainability of the interventions.

The sustainability of donor funded projects should be secured through improved environment, economic, social and entire human development. The current donor focused was on

consumption rather than longer term investment in such areas like business incubation, value addition and market development. The projects should be seen to leave behind holistic development with assured and continued application of local solutions. In this respect, the projects should avoid temptations of “quick fix” by dishing money to entice community participation, but rather adopt a process of community transformation and eliminate internal rigidity in development. On the side of donors and implementing agents, donor conditions, within the context of budget support, debt relief, public-private partnerships or South-South cooperation (Fengler (2010) should be flexible enough to accommodate the vulnerability of the recipient communities and promote long term growth rather than taking advantage of vulnerable communities. In this respect, the donor aid conditions should not be overstretched to a point where local governance and cultural norms of the recipient communities got compromised.

5.4.2 Influence of donor motives on provision of donor funding

The second objective assessed the extent to which donor motives, including hidden motives, influenced provision of donor aid. Clear motives helped in achieving personal goals and increased productivity in organizations. Motives helped in developing innovations and building good work culture. Most donors were influenced by their interests, priorities, internal capacity, sector coverage and geographical regions. Above everything else, donors’ common motives that influenced giving could be clustered around cost and benefits, reputation, impact or influence and altruism (Schlia, 2021).

To gain from the positive attributes of their motives, donor aid business should harmonize their motives and interests. The donors must strike a balance between their moral obligations, business growth, global influence, dominance and control.

While the central motivating factor for all players was money, donors were not neutral philanthropic players as they were driven by internal institutional and political interests at the expense of rural community needs (Mayhew, 2002; Mushasha & El Bcheraoui, 2023). They always had hidden motives (Ibrisevic, 2020; Abdel-Baqui, 2021) such as building national and regional security, economic and trade ties, tackling global issues, helping friendly countries, getting diplomatic support, building alliances and reparation to their colonies, prestige and promoting their own values (Duncan B., 2023). Much of these were done to safeguard their interests and therefore operated with limited transparency (Schmitz and McCollim, 2021). In this respect, donors popularly addressed prioritized issues they perceived important and unique and not what the community mostly needed (Deutscher & Fyson, 2008). Considering that impact was expected to show at community level, outside interests and priorities overshadowed sustainable outcomes (Deutscher & Fyson, 2008) from donor interventions.

The Implementing Agent motivations were underpinned by the donor interests and compromised through the signed agreements with the donor. Though Implementing Agent motives might not fully be in line with the donor motives, the Implementing Agents were the conduit through which the interests of the donors were expressed. However, the bottom line for them were the income earned (fees) through delivery of services on behalf of the donor. Any other motives were superficial and made to justify their existence.

5.4.3 Synchronized donor and community motives.

The third objective assessed the extent to which donor motives synchronized with the community motives. The process involved assessing the donor motives and community motives before making a comparison to address the research question and establish if the extent to which the objective was met.

Donor motives combined economic (internal and external), managerial considerations and social concerns. Economic considerations included source of funds, corporate social responsibility, level of investment and level of community economic vulnerability. Managerial considerations included strategic decisions influenced by partnerships, religious and moral obligations, community location, political recognition and local government decisions. The social considerations focused on addressing community poverty and marginalization. Overall, donors were strategic and always took measures to ensure longer-term control of the aid business. To ensure strategic position, the donors applied hidden motives (not expressed for community to know why support was being given) to drive their agenda forward regardless of community felt needs. On the contrary, the rural and vulnerable farming communities were concerned with immediate challenges such as hunger, food security and poverty and measures that provided short-term livelihood safety net.

While donors focused more on meeting their moral obligations, business growth, global influence, dominance and control, the community attention was on under-deprivation, vulnerability and need to change lives. The recipient communities, the reason why donor aid was delivered, could be considered to have genuine motivations. The challenges of poverty, deprivation and vulnerability could not be over emphasized as that ran through their daily survival fabric. Overall, the common motivation denominator between them was money as a precursor for growth, change and resilience. With the p-value 0.000, the relationship between the donor motives and the community motives was statistically significant, indicating that donors and vulnerable communities did not have same motives. However, convergence between the donors and the community occurred on the need to solve the poverty challenge. As for the community, poverty meant food insecurity, income insecurity, limited access to education, health, hygiene and

sanitation. Such a position was detrimental to survival. Therefore, the rural communities were ready to respond to the donor demands and enter into partnership or any form of relationship with the donor. However, the donors always wanted to retain authority on the partnership to safeguard their strategic needs.

There was a need to synchronize Donor and Implementing Agent motivations, priorities and interests towards the needs of the poor communities. In the absence of synchronized position on donor aid business motives, priorities and interests, the risk of limited impact could continue to be very high. Thus, issues of trust, reward, leadership, donor and beneficiary character, environmental influence, personal benefits and future interests should be harmonized (Degasperi & Mainardes, 2017).

The partnership and relationship between the donor, intermediary agent and community was a critical structure that determined the longer term impact of the donor aid. The project partnerships were weak and mostly temporal. The partnership and relationship should be mutual. Noting that the weaker partner was usually the recipient community, deliberate move should be made to recognize and leverage on their culture, beliefs, knowledge, attitudes and practices. The partnership and relationship should be based on good accountability and transparency and driven by common goals and values. In this regard, individual motivations should be managed to reduce mistrust and increase partnership retention. Players in the donor aid business should realize that the recipient community were the reason for donor fund release and therefore should be provided maximum donor resources than the other way round where intermediaries retained more donor resources. Partnerships and relationships must be strengthened to mobilize resources and technology and make decisions suitable to solve community problems (Overton & Storey, 2022). The donor projects would not achieve the intended purpose if the partnership between the

community and donors remained weak. The donor aid business should therefore resolve the poor governance, weak partnership and accountability and transparency issues.

Apart from compassion over vulnerable communities' poverty situation, desperation and vulnerability, donors were significantly (p-0.009) motivated by political recognition, religious beliefs, moral obligation & community marginalization and hidden motives existed. The experienced change in the livelihoods of poor people indicated a close relationship between the donor motives (correlation efficient 0.0745). Intermediary Agents were mainly motivated by "money" and the need to solve "personal income poverty". Communities were significantly (p-0.001) motivated by poverty situation, hunger, food insecurity and income security and engaged as a measure for "strategic survival" and a "social safety net". This variant motivation factors among the key players in the donor supply chain had the potential affect the expected change at community level.

5.4.4 Adequacy of the delivery models.

The fourth objective assessed the adequacy of the donor funding delivery models. This came from the concerns over limited impact and failure of donor aid attributed to managerial, operational and behavioral factors. The study established that change depended on the way donor funds were delivered ($t=0.042$, $p<0.05$) and managed. The aid delivery system significantly ($F=0.009$) depended on the decision of the donor, with everything "kept secret" (Pearson Chi-square F score 0.001, $p<0.05$); "funds just taken" to the community (F score 0.017, $p<0.05$); and the community had no power to decide on what they wanted. This indicated that the delivery models were not efficient and transparent.

Significant (p-0.013) delivery means included goods and services provision, in-kind donations and free grants. These provisions went with conditions such as contribution in kind,

persons' vulnerability status, resident within the project area, gender considerations and member of a community group.

To improve the donor aid model, the supply chain must be strengthened and mainstreamed to reduce on resource losses. There was need to share project implementation responsibilities among the key players, create space for grievance management and empower the recipient communities to deliver on their mandate. The donor aid projects should ensure project goals were realistic and attainable within the project period (Mayhew, 2002). The available resources should be sufficient to control the challenges at hand.

For the future direction of the donor aid support in communities, consideration should be made to include other players underplayed in the current system such as the private sector, community-based organizations and churches. These institutions worked closer to the community and were permanent in their respective areas compared to international and some local non-governmental organizations that were driven by short-term projects and partnerships.

Though Africa experienced persistent poverty, the region was endowed with abundant resources with potential to eliminate all causes of poverty. Africa was home to 30 percent of the world's mineral reserves (40 percent of gold and 90 percent of chromium and platinum), 8 percent of world's natural gas and 12 percent of the world's oil reserves (UNEP, 2023). Africa shared 65 percent of the world's arable land, 10 percent renewable fresh water sources and vast wildlife and forest biodiversity with good climate for tourism. All these could be harnessed for economic growth and mitigate the poverty challenge without waiting for financial handouts. Going forward, donor aid should focus on building the technological, governance and skilled labor capacities to tap into the vast resources. Donor aid should be complementary to the local resources and innovations for it alone could not guarantee long-term and sustainable development (Goicoechea,

2015). In this respect, cash hand-out approach in donor aid should be reduced. Against cash handouts, self-sufficiency initiatives through product and market development and building local entrepreneurial capacities should be promoted. Put simply, aid must be delivered in a way that sustainably change the lives of the poor.

In the process of supporting the vulnerable communities, the capacity of the intermediary institutions should be enhanced. However, the current process where intermediary institutions took lion's share from the resources meant for development of the vulnerable community created suspicion among communities. The share of resources to the Intermediary Agents went away with limited information thus putting to question the issues of accountability and transparency in the delivery system. The donor community should therefore provide a ceiling and make known the "administrative packages" provided to intermediary institutions. Such administrative support to intermediary institutions should also spell-out non-financial provisions such as infrastructural and equipment support given in support of delivering the project.

Projects were blamed for insensitivity, rigidity, limited coordination and competitive tendencies. Apart from donors, the community and the implementing agents also shared the blame on the negative impact discourse. Overall, donor aid was not altruistic but given for strategic and geopolitical reasons (Horn, 2021; Lee, 2021; Milner & Tingley, 2013; Becker, 2020). The donor aided projects were usually well intended and therefore critical in meeting the needs of the poor. The donor aid projects should always consult communities on the best solution to their challenges (poverty, hunger and food insecurity) and avoid expensive and external solutions that communities failed to handle.

In its current state, donor aid had the potential to propel corruption, over-dependency and mismanagement of resources. , donor aid was critical in supporting the vulnerable communities in

a developing world with huge resource gap to meet the needs of the rural poor. The donor aided projects had the opportunity to change lives of the entire community and not just those participating in its delivered products. The rural communities were always positive and receptive to developmental programs and that should be used by donors as a window to ensure inclusivity. With time, donor projects should move towards addressing interests of different community groups especially the marginalized, poor, old, young, women and girls and other special groups and avoid playing in the comfort of general participating numbers. In this respect, voluntary engagement should not be the measure of community participation success because the net-result of the community project whether positive or negative, affected the entire community. Long term change depended on strong local institutions. Therefore, donor projects should build and support local institutions to run and take over project activities in the post-project period.

To embrace diversity and increase local innovation, donors should apply development approach that originated from the community. Such an action would improve local ownership of donor support initiatives. Holistic projects were recommended to achieve lasting change compared to small segments.

The challenges of the poor in society differed from region to region and within community clusters. In light of that, donor aid projects should avoid '*one solution-fits-all*' approach as it bred rigidity and micro-management of projects. It had also been blamed for stifling local innovations and neglected indigenous knowledge. Projects were expected to provide actionable and cheaper solutions for the community. Therefore, donor projects must avoid expensive and external solutions that communities would not manage or fund during and after the project period (Urhahn et al., 2022). Development aid, especially those on agriculture, education, environment and health should be long-term and continuous programmes. This is because this sectors required sufficient

time as they responded to seasonality and human behavioral change aspects. The projects should be aligned to the developmental agenda of the nation rather than the priorities of the donor nations and institutions.

For the communities to be effective in management of donor funds, adequate preparations was required. The communities should be fully consulted to understand their developmental needs. It was through collaborative action that transparency, accountability and sustainability would be assured. The community partnership would also ensure community involvement in decision making for use of donor aid resources.

Poor governance in the sector was exhibited by inflexibility that came with pre-set development agenda in many delivery models including Call for Proposals. In recognition of community diversity, multi-sector approach should be applied. The model should also address the confusion at the intermediary level where stiff competition for resources was experienced. The weak partnership resulted in micro-management of project activities by the implementing agents to the extent that if the community changed anything in line with their emerging challenges, project implementing agents rejected the changes. Biased resource allocation also stifled partnership. Therefore, there was need for a paradigm shift in the mind-sets of the donor and implementing agencies (government, NGOs) to allow for shared responsibilities.

Accountability and transparency demanded for clarity, openness and ownership. From the beginning, the funding model should allow for full disclosure of information. The current donor aid delivery failed the litmus test on accountability and transparency right from the point when donors failed to consult the community prior to project design. It was therefore prudent for donors to solicit community solutions to their sustainable development challenges. In this respect, the community should be at the Centre of the donor support effort against the current system where

political and economic factors played central role. Overall, international donors remained a vital resource for rural development (Mayhew, 2002).

Based on the above findings, the key recommendation was community capacity building in leadership, project management and group dynamics to tackle "cultural, social and leadership hierarchical rigidity". Donor interventions should also consider tackling negative behaviors, beliefs and attitudes to counter the deep-rooted cultural aspects that made "*changing anything difficult*".

Responding to national, regional and international policies was important. Donors and implementing agencies should domesticate the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (PDAE) of 2005, Organization for Economic Corporation and Development (OECD) of 2005, Accra Agenda for Africa (AAA) of 2008 and International Aid Transparency Initiative (IATI) of 2008 to achieve accountability, predictability and transparency. The new delivery model should follow the development agenda of the recipient country and avoid creation of parallel structures in the delivery process. In designing conditions, transparent procedures must be followed and explained unlike the practice where poor countries signed support agreements without full disclosure of conditions.

In addition to the above agreements, the donor community needed to be responsive to the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals (SDG, 2030), Country Vision 2030 and African Union Agenda 2063 to drive development in underdeveloped countries. These frameworks directly responded to the needs of the poor nations' development goals and processes. Above that, timely and consistent consultation of the communities and placing the recipient community at the center of development would create ownership and promote longer-term positive results.

5.5 Chapter Summary

The study established limited impact of donor aid on the rural farming community because of insensitivity to local demands, rigidity, limited coordination, competitive tendencies and support fragmentation. The poverty relationship with donor aid funding was highly linear, indicating limited impact on livelihoods of the rural community. Despite limited livelihood change, donor funding remained the means for livelihood improved and provide a vital help to the poor. However, if taken literary, the donor funding could manifest corruption and dependence. Therefore, communities should be inspired to take the first step in looking for solutions and mobilize resources to solve their problems and be active participants in their development agenda. It was also expected that the donors and aid beneficiaries would build mutual partnership to realize shared benefits.

The study clearly identified the importance of development aid in supporting rural livelihood improvement. Underdeveloped countries like Zambia faced resource constraints and had limited capacity to meet the needs of their rural farming communities. As such, countries like Zambia highly depended on external support. However, the desperate need for external support had the potential to propel corruption, over-dependency and mismanagement of national resources. In this regard, donors needed to strengthen their partnerships and relationships to ensure accountability.

The complexity and interconnectedness of the livelihood outcomes demanded holistic projects that carter for diverse needs and interests of the rural community. However, it was important to recognize the impartiality of the donors. Donors were not neutral prayers as they got influenced by economic and political interests which superseded recipient rural farming community needs.

In moving the philanthropic agenda forward. more knowledge was required to enable a paradigm shift to a more efficient aid delivery system and more studies are recommended including comparative assessment of short-term and long-term donor funded projects (Mwebia & Yusuf, 2022); the sustainability of donor funded projects beyond donor financing; impact of donor fragmentation and its influence on the effectiveness of donor funding; consequences of partnerships and relationships in effective delivery of aid; implications of financial retention at donor agent level, and extent to which donors and their intermediaries domesticated international agreements on donor aid.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Survey Tools

Questionnaire for Community respondents

Respondent number ----------

Request for a questionnaire (interview)

I am Michael Faustino Muleba, a PhD Student at UNICAF University, Zambia and would be very grateful if you could make time from your busy schedule to grant me an interview. I am investing the impact of donor funding on vulnerable rural communities in Southern Province of Zambia. The aim of the study is to understand the impact of donor funding on society. The objectives of the study are: to assess the impact of donor aid on rural communities from the perspectives of the donor, implementing agencies and vulnerable communities; to identify donor support motives and influencing factors; and to explore sustainable social and economic support models for donor aid in rural communities. It is envisaged that this study will contribute knowledge to the academic world.

The interview is expected to last 15-20minutes. I believe that you will be free to answer all questions or some of the questions and you are also free to quit the interview any time you wish not to continue. Any information you provide will be strictly confidential and will not at any time be attributed to you, your household or institution you work with. To ensure anonymity, your name or identity will not be indicated anywhere.

Kind Regards,
Michael Faustino Muleba

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Advisor: Dr Shiferaw MT: s.mitiku@unicaf.org

Consent statement (select your answer using a √ mark or write

1. **Do you wish to take part in the study?** Yes [ ] No [ ]

2. **If your answer for the above question is Yes, kindly sign the consent form provided and If your answer for the above question is No, please end of the interview**

Demographic profile of the respondent

3. **District Code [ ]**

4. **District/Area Name: Mazabuka – Magoye [ ] Monze – Choongo [ ]**

5. **Respondent gender : Male [ ] Female [ ] Other [ ] Prefer not to mention [ ]**

6. **What is your age category?**

11-20 years[ ] 21-30 years [ ] 31-40 years [ ]
41-50 years [ ] 51-60 years [ ] Above **60** years[ ]

Objective 1: To assess impact of donor aid on rural communities in Southern Province of Zambia from the perspectives of the donor, implementing agencies and vulnerable communities.

ITEMS	Yes	No	Remark (Not sure)
7. In the past 10 years, did you or your community request or participate in food security donor funded project?			
8. Are you happy the way the donor funds were delivered to your area?			
9. Were the donor funded resources delivered to you at right quantity?			
10. Were the donor funded resources delivered to you at the right time?			
11. Looking at the support you received from the donor funded project, did you experience any change?			

Please rank your level of agreement on the impact of donor aid in your community using a five point Likert scale, where, 1 indicates lowest impact; 2 some impact; 3 moderate impact; 4 high impact; and 5 highest impact using a √ mark

Items: impact of donor aid in your community	Scale				
	1	2	3	4	5
12. Donor aid Improved access to water & sanitation condition of my community					
13. Donor aid Improved access to Funding aid conditions of my community					
14. Donor aid Improved access to Operational environment of my community					
15. Donor aid Improved the Responsibility structure and partnerships of my community					

16. Donor aid increased the positive Perception of aid impact on the recipient community					
17. Donor aid Increased social standing of my community by recovering from economic crisis					
18. Donor aid Improved food security condition of my community by reducing poverty and hunger					
19. Donor aid Improved the nutrition status of my community					
20. Donor aid Improved the income status of my community					
21. Donor aid Improved access to education my community					
22. Donor aid Improved access to health care service of my community					

Objective 2: To identify donor support motives and influencing factors.

Based on your knowledge please rate your level of agreement on donor motivation factor that highly influenced the provision of funds to your area (community) using a five point Likert scale where, 1 factor did not influence fund provision; 2 factor lowly influenced fund provision; 3 factor moderately influenced fund provision; 4 factor highly influenced fund provision; and 5 factor influenced fund provision at highest level.

Donor motivation factor that highly influenced the provision of funds	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
23. The Sources of resources is the motivating factor for donor support					
24. The Partnerships and relationships is the motivating factor for donor support					
25. The decision-making structures is the motivating factor for donor support					
26. Poverty challenges of the community is the motivating factor for donor support					
27. Location and accessibility of the community is the motivating factor for donor support					
28. Personal decision of the donor is the motivating factor for donor support					
29. Active involvement of the community is the motivating factor for donor support					
30. Political recognition of donors support is the motivating factor for donor support					
31. Religious beliefs and desire to change lives of the community					
32. moral obligation to save community is the motivating factor for donor support					
33. Economically vulnerability of the community is the motivating factor for donor support					
34. Strategically importance of the community is the motivating factor for donor support					
35. Community marginalization is the motivating factor for donor support					
36. Government decisions is the motivating factor for donor support					
37. Corporate Social Responsibility of the donor is the motivating factor for donor support					
Based on your experience please use the Likert scale to rank your motivation factor that highly influenced your participation in the donor funded project using (1 motivation factor influence					

at lowest level; 2 motivation factor influence at low level; 3 motivation factor influence at moderately; 4 motivation factor influence at high level; and 5 motivation factor influence at highest level)					
Factor that highly influenced your participation in the donor funded project	**Scale**				
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
38. Poverty situation motivated me to participate in the donor funded project					
39. Hunger and food security motivated me to participate in the donor funded project					
40. Income insecurity motivated me to participate in the donor funded project					
41. To improve livelihood motivated me to participate in the donor funded project					
42. To improved income motivated me to participate in the donor funded project					
43. To have access to education motivated me to participate in the donor funded project					
44. To improve access to health motivated me to participate in the donor funded project					
45. Peer pressure motivated me to participate in the donor funded project					

Objective 3: To explore sustainable social and economic support models for donor aid in rural communities.

46. How did you receive the donor funding in your area?

Just brought without our knowledge [ ] *Community applied for it* [ ]
NGO applied for it [ ] *Government directed it to our community* [ ]

In a likert scale, rank food security subsector provided donor funding (1 not provided donor funding; 2 rarely provided donor funding; 3 often provided donor funding; 4 highly provided donor funding; and 5 mostly provided donor funding).

Food security subsector mostly provided donor funding	**Scale**				
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
47. Food security subsector mostly provided donor funding for food production					
48. Food security subsector mostly provided donor funding for food security subsector mostly provided donor funding Food diversification					
49. Food security subsector mostly provided donor funding for Extension training and technical assistance					
50. Food security subsector mostly provided donor funding for Irrigation and water conservation					
51. Food security subsector mostly provided donor funding for Sustainable farming practices					

52. Food security subsector mostly provided donor funding for Food storage and postharvest management					
53. Food security subsector mostly provided donor funding for Food processing/value addition					
Other specify_____					
In a likert scale, rank frequently applied funding model (1 lowest applied model; 2 low applied model; 3 moderately applied model; 4 highly applied model; and 5 highest applied model), rank most frequently applied donor funding model					
Most frequently applied donor funding model	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
54. Free grants is the most frequently applied donor funding model					
55. Provision of goods and services at cost is most frequently applied donor funding model					
56. In-kind donations (shelter, food, medicine, clothing, free training) is the most frequently applied donor funding model					
57. Funding for popularly felt need (e.g. climate change, environment, health and medical research.) is the most frequently applied donor funding model					
58. Reimbursable fees provided to beneficiaries in health, education etc. is the most frequently applied donor funding model					
59. Member or participant contributions is the most frequently applied donor funding model					
60. Large scale long term project is the most frequently applied donor funding model					
61. Public Private Partnership is the most frequently applied donor funding model					
62. Public policy change influence is the most frequently applied donor funding model					
63. Beneficiary broker services to access services, technology					
64. Market development is the most frequently applied donor funding model					
65. Nationalization and networking is the most frequently applied donor funding model					
In a likert scale, rank donor fund supply channel you would prefer (1 being lowest preferred channel; 2 lowly preferred channel; 3 moderately preferred channel; 4 highly preferred channel; and 5 highest preferred channel.					
Preferred donor fund supply channel	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
66. Donor direct to recipient individual					
67. Directly from donor to community					
68. Donor to intermediary to community					
69. Donor to government to community					
70. Donor to government to intermediary to community					

71.	Whichever approach is fine					

72. How were you and your community prepared to take part in the donor funded activities

Offered training	Yes [ ]	No [ ]
Oriented to the program	Yes [ ]	No [ ]
Shared responsibilities & roles	Yes [ ]	No [ ]
No preparation	Yes [ ]	No [ ]

73. Were you or your community consulted over what needed to be funded? *Yes [ ] No [ ]*

74. Who finally decided on what to use donor funds on?

Individual beneficiaries	Yes [ ]	No [ ]
Community leaders and groups	Yes [ ]	No [ ]
Implementing agents	Yes [ ]	No [ ]
Donor	Yes [ ]	No [ ]
Not sure	Yes [ ]	No [ ]

75. What hindered you from deciding on what to use donor funds on?

Funds are just brought to us	Yes [ ]	No [ ]
Lack of information	Yes [ ]	No [ ]
Less power	Yes [ ]	No [ ]
Everything kept secret	Yes [ ]	No [ ]
Nothing	Yes [ ]	No [ ]

76. Between you and the donor fund delivery agent, what relationship existed?

Informal agreement	Yes [ ]	No [ ]
Formal partnership agreement	Yes [ ]	No [ ]

In a likert scale, rank conditions applied for you to receive donor funding (1 being lowest considered condition; 2 low considered condition; 3 moderate considered condition; 4 highly considered condition; 5 highest considered condition)

Conditions applied for you to receive donor funding		**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
77.	Contribution in-kind					
78.	Matching grant					
79.	Pay back loan					
80.	Vulnerable status (e.g. look after orphans)					
81.	Stay within the project area					
82.	Gender consideration					
83.	Member of a group					
84.	No condition – free grant.					

Looking at the food security project you participated in, use the following Likert scale to rank the institutions that delivered donor funds (1 institution did not deliver donor funded project; 2 institution rarely delivered donor funded project; 3 institution often delivered donor funded project; 4 institution highly delivered donor funded projects; and 5 institution mostly delivered donor funded projects).

Institutions that delivered donor funds in food security project		**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
85.	Government					
86.	Non-Governmental Organization					

87.	Private sector					
88.	Community based organization					
89.	Churches					
90.	CBOs					
91.	NGOs					
92.	Traditional leaders					

End of the interview, Thank you for your participation

Semi-structured questionnaire for Focused Group Discussion (FGD)

Discussion Interview number	
Request for a questionnaire interview I am a PhD Student at UNICAF University Zambia and would be very grateful if you could make time from your busy schedule to grant me a discussion. I am investing the impact of donor funding on vulnerable rural communities in Southern Province of Zambia. The aim of the study is to understand the impact of donor funding on society. The objectives of the study are: to assess the impact of donor aid on rural communities from the perspectives of the donor, implementing agencies and vulnerable communities; to identify donor support motives and influencing factors; and to explore sustainable social and economic support models for donor aid in rural communities. It is envisaged that this study will contribute knowledge to the academic world. his discussion is expected to last 1 hour. I believe that together we will discuss freely. Any information you provide will be strictly confidential and will not at any time be attributed to you, your household or institution that supported you. To ensure anonymity, your name or identity will not be indicated anywhere. Any picture or audio recording taken during the discussion will be kept highly confidential.	
Reflect on the past 10 years and discuss number of donor funded projects delivered in your area. What models were applied and were they appropriate?	
From your experience, how do you assess the donor funded support impact on the community especially on food security? Is the change through donor funds up to your expectation, if not why?	
Based on your understanding, what motivates the donors and the community to engage in donor funded initiatives? What challenges did you face in dealing with donor funds? How can be done to minimized challenges and ensure lasting impact?	

Appendix B: Qualitative transcripts, code and themes

Focus Group Discussion Transcript Notes

How many donor funded projects were implemented in your area in the past 10 years?

Response 1: In the past 10 years, our area implemented three projects covering livestock disease control, efficient use of water in dairy and horticulture, food relief and financial savings.

Response 2: In the past 10 years projects implemented included FAO, GIZ, SNV, WFP, WWF and World Vision.

Response 3: In the past 10 years, our area implemented projects supported by World Vision (Dip tank), GIZ/Niras (irrigation and livestock production), Heifer (food relief and financial savings).

Response 4: many projects have been implemented, FAO (CASU), GIZ/AWARE, Heifer, World Vision, Self Help Africa, SCALA.

Response 5: SNV, FAO (CASU), SCALA

How do you assess the impact of donor funded projects on food security, income security, health, environment, water and sanitation?

Response 1: The project impacted the community positively especially in the area of hygiene and sanitation. The project helped the community construct ablution blocks at the local schools. The projects improved access to clean drinking water, health, food and nutrition. Climate change was tackled through conservation farming system. However, many people in the community did not increase their household income. The extra income helped the community access health care services. Other benefits from the projects included diversified income sources. That was achieved through knowledge gained from project trainings.

Response 2: Most of them the objectives are on point and well-intended but in most cases the time frame are short for any meaningful impact. The projects are usually not willing to bend from their set-objectives even if it's parallel in some way.

Response 3: These projects improved home hygiene through construction of ablution blocks in schools, provision of pumps to pump water and improved access to health. The projects also improved food security, nutrition and tackled climate change through water conservation farming practices. However, very few families realised increased household income. Because these projects are short-term, people failed to reach a point where they start making sufficient income but just little money to meet immediate needs in health and education.

Response 4: People must be seen to grow. However, there is a level of selfishness. Donor's concept of allowing the decisions to come from local people is good.

Response 5: There is limited continuity (abandonment) of project activities by government, implementing NGO and the community. Immediately the project ends, no one is responsible. For example, the Monze SACCO office has been abandoned and remains disused just after few years the project ended and yet another project comes in to teach communities on financial savings with no reference to the 'white elephant'.

What motivated donors to give money to your community?

Response 1: The key motivating factor for donors is compassion. The donor community fully understand the desperation and vulnerability of the poor people and wish to help. The donor community counterparts know that the people in underdeveloped countries are in poverty.

Response 2: Genuine challenges in the community and community participation.

Response 3: Key motivation factor is compassion. Poverty is not reducing in rural communities.

Response 4: Germans are looking for employment for their own people. In projects they give senior positions for their own people and leave the junior positions to locals. At every level there is a level of selfishness, keeping for yourself. For example, if FISP was stopped, it could be a wake-up call on the community to work for themselves.

Response 5: Donors have genuine concerns on poverty levels and want to change it. There might be other reasons such as bilateral partnerships.

What motivated the community to receive donor funds/projects?

Response 1: In many of the projects the communities just receive things not money. The projects only provide knowledge and no means to implement the knowledge and skill imparted. In this regard, the community is just directed on what to do and their level of decision making is limited. The communities have no power to change anything as they receive donor aid with limited prior knowledge.

Response 2: The community are always receptive to aid which helps them solve their challenges.

Response 3: We follow what they want – we are on the receiving end. We just receive things, not money. They just give us knowledge and emphasis that the money is theirs and not for giving people. They have never tried to give us project money.

Response 4: Farmers' concept is to receive. Communities also want to change their social standing and want to accumulate assets like bicycles which they get from various institutions. To some people is a source of leadership, source of income. Psychologically, it is a show of influence.

Response 5: people look to donor projects to raise money and are not really focused on the objectives. Even project implementers do not do due diligence to assess projects done in the same area before and how they performed.

What challenges did you face in dealing with donor funds?

Response 1: During project implementation, all community members are invited to participate but only those that volunteer their time fully participate.

Response 2: They come with their agenda with less room for alterations. To some extent the cultural and social norms of communities are regarded less on some implemented activities.

Response 3: Quantity and quality is always questionable as there was no information on the delivery plan, all we saw were materials delivered. There was secrecy on the design and we were just on the receiving end. These projects just direct the community what to do, for example, they just give seeds to plant. Critically, consultation is limited because projects are predesigned fully with no room for change or adjustment. Usually all people are invited to participate in the projects but few people come forward. The other problem is delayed implementation of projects and activities. The community has no power to change the cause of the project as they receive projects without consultation. The fund delivery chain is long such that a lot of money remains on the way and only a bit of money reaches us.

Response 4: We see challenges at donor level and community level. Donors come with their own conditions which stifle participation and progress in the project. For example funds are concentrated at the head office with very little utilized in the field. The head office gets their offices varnished with new computers, furniture and new vehicles bought. That demotivates field government workers who receive very little salaries. In many instances, the donors target the same individuals as recipients and contact persons in the community making them accumulate incentives that go with their leadership role. For example, some households have six bicycles received from different projects, a situation that show that projects do not talk to each other but rather compete at field level. Government have been taken advantage of in all project activities. At community level, cultural aspects in the communities are so deep, making it difficult for people to change even on things they know are wrong. For example in livestock, people rely on their past practice and become resistant to

change. For example people refuse good farming practices, artificial insemination, consuming carcass from diseased livestock and refusing to listen to extension offices that have no practical experience. Many cultural practices are so rigid. We also observe boastful behaviour among members of the community members and no way to hold them accountable. A number of projects bypass the local government institutions and go direct to the communities and implement projects. That leaves a vacuum when it comes to continuity of the project effort. Communities have become very clever and use project resources in a sharing mode with very little accountability. Communities protect each other and there is no way of holding them accountable apart from through the traditional system. Positions in the community follow a particular hierarchy; mostly a community leader must be connected to chief or village headpersons. We used to have long-term programmes and staffs were highly motivated, but now even getting an allowance one is entitled to is a big challenge.

Response 5: The call for proposals and non-response to proposals that have not reached the benchmark is draw back and not in line with transparency norms. Most projects are target driven (reach 10000 farmers) and it does not matter how the project affected the 10000 people or what change did the project bring to them. So when the project comes to an end, you wash your hands and move on. The project targets are always directed rather than focusing on changing people's lives. For example Conservation Agriculture Scaling-up (CASU) was almost a failed project because key steps in the value chain were not considered but just focused on production. To effect change, CASU was transformed into SFAS after four years to support farmers apply marketing and business principles. Perseverance is missing in projects and every project is just starting afresh with no time to refer to the past interventions. Many projects are linear in approach for example hardware support is left in preference to software support like capacity building. Projects focus on the end date which determines everything to be done in the project. Donor shifting positions- now it is climate change, tomorrow the focus changes to poverty alleviation, productivity improvement, market enabling projects etc.

What is your recommendation?

Response 1: To improve on the donor aid system, the supply chain needs to be checked and strengthened. Increased intermediary group increases delays and lose of resources.

Response 2: At local level the project must take a multi-sectoral approach because these communities live in one place with different needs.

Response 3: Check the government/NGO intermediary institutions as they seem to delay progress and compromise the intended results of the donor funded projects. Work on reducing the donor fund supply chain in terms of institutions involved before funds reach the intended communities. While donors release sufficient funds, very little funds reach the community due to delivery costs. The communities have no means to express themselves and need to be empowered to voice out and express their rights. However, how do you express your rights to someone who just give

you things for free, i.e. you cannot question your leaders. Give space to the community to express themselves.

Response 4: The method of funding must be clear. Individual community beneficiaries must mobilize resources through their own institutions. Government should put a deliberate policy to regulate operation of NGOs. Some NGOs are spoon feeding the communities and spoiling the donor funding process and making it difficult for government to continue working in the community. NGOs should provide minimal support just to ignite local initiatives. Government must put deliberate policy on how to approach the communities. Traditional leaders must be empowered to supervise the local projects. Involvement of traditional leaders must go beyond project awareness to be given clear roles to supervise the project.

Response 5: The purpose of the donor funding is supply funds to the community. Delivering the funds directly to the community, though good, may not appropriate because you need to build the capacity of the community to handle funds and that is where you need the intermediary institutions like government department or NGO. The community could only be funded directly in the second or later years after ensuring that they have become resilient. This is a process which is being undertaken by WFP and DAPP. However, the community is not registered, lack systems to manage external resources and lack scope to interface with the donor. But the communities still argue that they have not been tried to completely count them out. Government and NGOs should play a role of consultants to guide donors where to take their resources and build the capacity of communities.

Code book from Nvivo analysis

Name	Description	Coded Reference
Impact and sustainability	The level (positive and negative) at which the donor aid benefitted the community.	34
Consultation	Consultations with the recipient communities and other stakeholders leading to positive change and sustainability of the donor aided project	15
Challenges	Challenges faced in the delivery and management of donor aid.	23
Rigidity	The level and areas of rigidity in the donor aid projects. Limited change allowed on the donor aid delivery design.	23
Experienced Support Model	Frequency and scope of community experience in the donor aided support in the past ten (10) years, indicating multiplicity of donor aid developmental projects in support of the community livelihoods.	18
Community-centered model	Proposed sustainable social and economic support model focused on meeting community needs	16
Knowledge and learning	The provision of knowledge and learning to build the capacity of the community to manage donor aided programmes	6
Mutual partnership	Mutual partnership demanding shared responsibilities and accountability among stakeholders.	15
Selfishness and mistrust	Lack of mutual partnership leading to limited transparency in the use of donor aid among stakeholders	8
Motivation	Factors that influence the donors and communities to engage in donor aided activities.	17
Community receptiveness	Community's willingness to participate in donor aided project.	12

Auto-coded themes from Nvivo analysis

Name	Description	Aggregated References
Donor	Referred to donor aspects that include donor level and motivation; donor agents and their perspectives; donor aid and utilization; and donor aid impact.	64
Community	Referred to community aspects such as their qualification to engage (membership, vulnerability, targeted and needy community) and other community related engagement attributes.	46
Project	Referred to donor aid project lifespan, project resources and support, types of projects, project performance and project stakeholders.	41
Aid	This referred to aid and its delivery system, utilization, impact and need for streamlining it.	36
Level	Referred to the institutional chain (donor, intermediary, community, local household) and poverty at which donor aid was operated	23
Government	Referred to government engagement in the donor aid intervention as an agent, utilizing entire ministries and headquarters, selected departments, government workers and other set-ups such as government agencies set-up to deliver the project.	21
Agent	This referred to involvement of donor implementing and government agents and their perspectives on projects.	20
Delivery	Refereed to donor aid delivery mechanisms, designs and pathways.	17
Change	This referred to observed change in the community.	9

Appendix C: Useful Resources

UREC Decision, Version 2.0

Unicaf University Research Ethics Committee Decision

Student's Name: Michael Faustino Muleba

Student's ID #: R1808D5846494

Supervisor's Name: Shiferaw Mitiku

Program of Study: PhD Doctorate of Philosophy

Offer ID /Group ID: 043516G46417

Dissertation Stage: 3

Research Project Title: Impact of donor funding in rural communities of Southern Province of Zambia, Southern Africa

Comments: No Comment

Decision*: A. Approved without revision or comment

Date: 09 Feb 2023

*Provisional approval provided at the Dissertation Stage 1, whereas the final approval is provided at the Dissertation stage 3. The student is allowed to proceed to data collection following the final approval.

REAF_DS - Version 3.1

UNICAF UNIVERSITY
RESEARCH ETHICS APPLICATION FORM
DOCTORAL STUDIES

UREC USE ONLY:
Application No:

Date Received:

Student's Name: Michael Faustino Muleba

Student's E-mail Address: michaelmuleba@gmail.com

Student's ID #: R1808D5846494

Supervisor's Name: Shiferaw Mitiku

University Campus: Unicaf University Zambia (UUZ)

Program of Study: UUZ – PhD Doctorate of Philosophy

Research Project Title: Impact of Donor Funding in Rural Communities of Southern Province of Zambia, Southern Africa

1. **Please state the timelines involved in the proposed research project:**

Estimated Start 01-Mar-2021 Estimated End Date: 30-Jul-2023

2. **External Research Funding (if applicable):**

2.a. Do you have any external funding for your research?

YES ○ NO ◉

If YES, please answer questions **2b** and **2c**.

2.b. List any external (third party) sources of funding you plan to utilise for your project. You need to include full details on the source of funds (e.g. state, private or individual sponsor), any prior / existing or future relationships between the funding body / sponsor and any of the principal investigator(s) or co-

investigator(s) or student researcher(s), status and timeline of the application and any conditions attached.

2.c. If there are any perceived ethical issues or potential conflicts of interest arising from applying or and receiving external funding for the proposed research then these need to be fully disclosed below and also further elaborated on, in the relevant sections on ethical considerations later on in this form.

3. The research project

3.a. Project Summary:

In this section fully describe the purpose and underlying rationale for the proposed research project. Ensure that you pose the research questions to be examined, state the hypotheses, and discuss the expected results of your research and their potential.

It is important in your description to use plain language so it can be understood by all members of the UREC, especially those who are not necessarily experts in the particular discipline. To that effect ensure that you fully explain / define any technical terms or discipline-specific terminology (use the space provided in the box).

The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of donor funding in rural communities of the Southern Province of Zambia, Southern Africa. The purpose of the study is to generate knowledge and understanding on the donor support system and its impact on society. To realize this purpose, the specific objective is to assess the impact of donor aid from the perspectives of the stakeholders (donors, implementing agencies, and beneficiary communities' perspective). Sub-objectives are:
1) To assess impact of donor aid on rural communities in Southern Province of Zambia from the perspectives of the donor, implementing agencies and vulnerable communities; 2) To identify donor support motives and influencing factors; 3) To explore and propose sustainable social and economic support models for donor aid in rural communities.
This study will be conducted in Choongo and Magoye communities of Monze and Mazabuka districts respectively. Agriculture being the key economic driver in the area, this study will focus on food security. In assessing impact of donor aid on these two communities, this research will explore the donor aid support given to the community in the past ten years, assess livelihood change among these vulnerable communities and assess the effectiveness of financing models applied.
Considering the long term support given to Choongo and Magoye communities, long-term impact must be visible and measurable. However, that depends on whether the financing model was right and adequate, the communities had the right mindset towards aid and the implementing agency allowed for accountability, transparency and participation in decision making. This study therefore, will provide answers and evidence on critical areas including the overall impact of the external aid, adequacy and appropriateness of the applied financing models. By so doing, this study will contribute to the body of

3.b. Significance of the Proposed Research Study and Potential Benefits:

Outline the potential significance and/or benefits of the research (use the space provided in the box)

External aid is an important ingredient in fostering development in vulnerable communities. Done with good intentions, its delivery mechanisms are questioned due to associated corruption, mismanagement, top-down decision making, misapplication and misdirection of resources (Busiinge, 2008); Yator, 2012; Robinwitz & Prizzon (2015); Cha and Ramesh (2017); Shende (2017); Kuria and Wanyoike (2016); Taber K.S., 2013; and Von Pischke, 1991). Notwithstanding the negative and unintended results, external aid has alleviated the sufferings of vulnerable communities. These mixed positions make this study important as it will:
1) Assess motivating factors that compel donors to give aid (Innovation for Poverty Action, 2017, Cha & Ramesh, 2017, Mundell, 2009, Yator 2012, CGIAR, 2005).
2) Assess the effectiveness of the financing models applied and consequences on long term situation (Muleba, 2019).
3) Develop new knowledge and recommend models for effective delivery of donor aid (Mundell, 2009, Yator 2012).
This study is posed to make philanthropic work more efficient, effective and impactful. Beyond new knowledge, this research will improve upon sustainability theory, stakeholder theory and resource dependence theory propounded by other scholars.

4. Project execution:

4.a. The following study is an:

- [x] experimental study (primary research)
- [ ] desktop study (secondary research)
- [ ] desktop study using existing databases involving information of human/animal subjects

☐ Other

If you have chosen 'Other' please Explain:

4.b. Methods. The following study will involve the use of:

Method		Materials / Tools
Qualitative:	x	Face to Face Interviews
	x	Phone Interviews
	x	Face to Face Focus Groups
	x	Online Focus Groups
	☐	Other *
Quantitative:	x	Face to Face Questionnaires
	x	Online Questionnaires
	☐	Experiments
	☐	Test
	☐	Other *

*If you have chosen 'Other' please Explain:

5. Participants:

5 a. Does the Project involve the recruitment and participation of additional persons other than the researcher(s) themselves?

(●) YES **If YES, please complete all following sections.**

( ) NO **If NO, please directly proceed to Question 7.**

5 b. Relevant Details of the Participants of the Proposed Research

State the number of participants you plan to recruit, and explain in the box below how the total number was calculated.

Number of participants: 360

The main focus for this research is to collect quantitative and qualitative data from donor funded project stakeholders. From the preliminary data collected, the active population is five thousand six hundred (5, 600) households. The sample includes 360 individuals plus approximately 20 individuals that will participate in Focused Group Discussions. People with mental or physical activities will not be involved.

Describe important characteristics such as: demographics (e.g. age, gender, location, affiliation, level of fitness, intellectual ability etc). It is also important that you specify any inclusion and exclusion criteria that will be applied (e.g. eligibility criteria for participants).

Age range From 18 To 65

Gender Female X

Male X

Eligibility Criteria:

- Inclusion criteria

1) Community members, traditional/community leaders, development facilitators in Mazabuka and Monze districts.
2) Current/former active participant in a donor project
3) Office project staff.

- Exclusion criteria

1) Children below the age 15 and youths below the age of 18.
2) Older people above the age of 80

Disabilities

People with mental or physical disabilities will not be involved.

Other relevant information (use the space provided in the box):

The blind will not be involved due to limitation of braille questionnaires.

5 c. Participation & Research setting:

Clearly describe which group of participants is completing/participating in the material(s)/ tool(s) described in 5b above (use the space provided in the box).

The research will target 360 households. This sampled households will be interviewed using a structured questionnaire to bring out qualitative and quantitative results.
The traditional leaders, community group representatives and community development facilitators will be engaged through Focused group discussion utilizing semi-structured checklist. This category will also lead in observation processes for evidence building. Together, the FGD participants will be twenty (20). The other stakeholders including government ministries, intermediary institution representatives will take place in FGD. The FGD will apply an open-ended questionnaire.

5 d. Recruitment Process for Human Research Participants:

Clearly describe how the potential participants will be identified, approached and recruited (use the space provided in the box).

To reach-out to the community households for one-on-one interview the link through the Ministry of Agriculture District Offices. In this case, District Agriculture Coordinator (DACO) is the gatekeeper for potential respondents. DACO will provide names of the farmers supported in the areas from which 360 individuals will be sampled. The gatekeeper will then contact the sampled respondents for possible interview.
In like manner, the traditional leaders, community leaders, community group representatives and community development facilitators will be contacted through the DACO's office. The DACO has extension workers that support farmer cooperatives. The DACO also work closely with traditional. Through the DACO's local network, recruitment and reaching out potential respondents will be easy.

5 e. Research Participants Informed Consent.

Select below which categories of participants will participate in the study. Complete the relevant Informed Consent form and submit it along with the REAF form.

Yes	No	Categories of participants	Form to be completed
x		Typically Developing population(s) above the maturity age *	Informed Consent Form
	x	Typically Developing population(s) under the maturity age *	Guardian Informed Consent Form

* Maturity age is defined by national regulations in laws of the country in which the research is being conducted.

5 f.Relationship between the principal investigator and participants.

Is there any relationship between the principal investigator (student), co-investigators(s), (supervisor) and participant(s)? For example, if you are conducting research in a school environment on students in your classroom (e.g. instructor-student).

○ YES ◉ NO

If YES, specify (use the space provided in the box).

6.<u>Potential Risks of the Proposed Research Study.</u>

6 a. i. Are there any potential risks, psychological harm and/or ethical issues associated with the proposed research study, other than risks pertaining to everyday life events (such as the risk of an accident when travelling to a remote location for data collection)?

○ YES ◉ NO

If YES, specify below and answer the question 6 a.ii.

6 a.ii Provide information on what measures will be taken in order to exclude or minimise risks described in 6.a.i.

6 b. Choose the appropriate option

		Yes	No
i.	Will you obtain written informed consent form from all participants?	●	○
ii.	Does the research involve as participants, people whose ability to give free and informed consent is in question?	○	●
iii.	Does this research involve participants who are children under maturity age? **If you answered YES to question iii, complete all following questions. If you answered NO to question iii, do not answer Questions iv, v, vi and proceed to Questions vii, viii, ix and x.**	○	●
iv.	Will the research tools be implemented in a professional educational setting in the presence of other adults (i.e. classroom in the presence of a teacher)?	☐	☒

v.	Will informed consent be obtained from the legal guardians (i.e. parents) of children?	☐	☒
vi.	Will verbal assent be obtained from children?	☐	☒
vii.	Will all data be treated as confidential? If NO, explain why confidentiality of the collected data is not appropriate for this proposed research project, providing details of how all participants will be informed of the fact that any data which they will provide will not be confidential.	◉	○
viii.	Will all participants /data collected be anonymous? If NO, explain why and describe the procedures to be used to ensure the anonymity of participants and/or confidentiality of the collected data both during the conduct of the research and in the subsequent release of its findings.	◉	○

		Yes	No
ix.	Have you ensured that personal data and research data collected from participants will be securely stored for five years?	◉	○

x.	Does this research involve the deception of participants? If YES, describe the nature and extent of the deception involved. Explain how and when the deception will be revealed, and who will administer this debrief to the participants:	○	●

6 c. i. Are there any other ethical issues associated with the proposed research study that are not already adequately covered in the preceding sections?

○ Yes ● No

If YES, specify (maximum 150 words).

6.c.ii Provide information on what measures will be taken in order to exclude or minimise ethical issues described in 6.c.i.

6 d. Indicate the Risk Rating.

○ High ● Low

7. Further Approvals

Are there any other approvals required (in addition to ethics clearance from UREC) in order to carry out the proposed research study?

(●) YES ( ) NO

If YES, specify (maximum 100 words).

Ministry of Agriculture will give consent (as a Gatekeeper) to work in the selected agriculture camps (Choongo and Magoye).

8. Application Checklist

Mark √ if the study involves any of the following:

- [ ] Children and young people under 18 years of age, vulnerable population such as children with special educational needs (SEN), racial or ethnic minorities, socioeconomically disadvantaged, pregnant women, elderly, malnourished people, and ill people.
- [ ] Research that foresees risks and disadvantages that would affect any participant of the study such as anxiety, stress, pain or physical discomfort, harm risk (which is more than is expected from everyday life) or any other act that participants might believe is detrimental to their wellbeing and / or has the potential to / will infringe on their human rights / fundamental rights.
- [ ] Risk to the well-being and personal safety of the researcher.
- [ ] Administration of any substance (food / drink / chemicals / pharmaceuticals / supplements / chemical agent or vaccines or other substances (including vitamins or food substances) to human participants.
- [ ] Results that may have an adverse impact on the natural or built environment.

9. Further documents

Check that the following documents are attached to your application:

		ATTACHED	NOT APPLICABLE
1	Recruitment advertisement (if any)	○	◉
2	Informed Consent Form / Guardian Informed Consent Form	◉	○
3	Research Tool(s)	◉	○
4	Gatekeeper Letter	◉	○
5	Any other approvals required in order to carry out the proposed research study, e.g., institutional permission (e.g. school principal or company director) or approval from a local ethics or professional regulatory body.	◉	○

10. Final Declaration by Applicants:

(a) I declare that this application is submitted on the basis that the information it contains is confidential and will only be used by Unicaf University for the explicit purpose of ethical review and monitoring of the conduct of the research proposed project as described in the preceding pages.

(b) I understand that this information will not be used for any other purpose without my prior consent, excluding use intended to satisfy reporting requirements to relevant regulatory bodies.

(c) The information in this form, together with any accompanying information, is complete and correct to the best of my knowledge and belief and I take full responsibility for it.

(d) I undertake to abide by the highest possible international ethical standards governing the Code of Practice for Research Involving Human Participants, as published by the UN WHO Research Ethics Review Committee (ERC) on http://www.who.int/ethics/research/en/ and to which Unicaf University aspires to.

(e) In addition to respect any and all relevant professional bodies' codes of conduct and/or ethical guidelines, where applicable, while in pursuit of this research project.

x	**I agree with the points listed under Question 10**

Student's Name: Michael Faustino Muleba

Supervisor's Name: Shiferaw Mitiku

Date of Application: 10-Jan-2023

Important Note:

Save your completed form (we suggest you also print a copy for your records) and then submit it to your UU Dissertation/project supervisor (tutor). **In the case of student projects, the responsibility lies with the Faculty Dissertation/Project Supervisor.** If this is a student application, then it should be submitted via the relevant link in the VLE. Please submit only electronically filled in copies; **do not** hand fill and submit scanned paper copies of this application.

Data Collection Summary / Details

Student's Name: Michael Faustino Muleba Student's ID: R1808D5846494

Start date for data collection: 15 Feb 2023 End Date for Data Collection: 4 Mar 2023

UREC Decision Date: 9 Feb 2023

A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Select the tools to be used in your study	**Select how the tools selected in column A will be administered (select one or more)**	**Select what types of questions will be included in the tools previously selected in column A (select one or more)**	**Number of Participants Participating**	**Gender of Participants**	**Age of Participants**	**Participants Consents**
Interviews [x]	[x] Face-to-face [ ] Online with camera (synchronous live discussion with camera) [ ] Audio only (synchronous live discussion without camera, i.e., via phone)	[x] Open-ended questions [x] Close-ended questions [ ] Both open- and close ended questions [x] Includes section related to demographics	325	Male [x] Female [x]	From 20 To >60	[x] Physical (completion of the actual consent form) [ ] Retrieved online (through the questionnaire for instance) [ ] Guardian Informed Consent
Focus Groups [x]	[x] Face-to-face	[x] Open-ended questions	12	Male [x]	From 30	[ ] Physical (completion of the actual

	☐ Online with camera (synchronous live discussion with camera) ☐ Audio only (synchronous live discussion without camera, i.e., via phone)	☐ Close-ended questions ☐ Both open- and close ended questions ☒ Includes section related to demographics		Female ☒	To >60	consent form) ☐ Retrieved online (through the questionnaire for instance) ☐ Guardian Informed Consent

A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Select the tools to be used in your study	**Select how the tools selected in column A will be administered (select one or more)**	**Select what types of questions will be included in the tools previously selected in column A (select one or more)**	**Number of Participants Participating**	**Gender of Participants**	**Age of Participants**	**Participants Consents**
Questionnaire [x]	[x] Face-to-face self–administered questionnaire [ ] Online i.e., via phone or any other platform. The researcher reads the questions to the participants [ ] Online asynchronous self–administered questionnaire (i.e., via email)	[ ] Open-ended questions [ ] Close-ended questions [x] Both open- and close ended questions [ ] Includes section related to demographics	337	Male [x] Female [x]	From 20 To >60	[x] Physical (completion of the actual consent form) [ ] Retrieved online (through the questionnaire for instance) [ ] Guardian formed Consent

Experiments ☐	☐ Face-to-face self–administered questionnaire ☐ Online i.e., via phone or any other platform. The researcher reads the questions to the participants ☐ Online asynchronous self–administered questionnaire (i.e., via email)	☐ Open-ended questions ☐ Close-ended questions ☐ Both open- and close ended questions ☐ Includes section related to demographics		Male ☐ Female ☐	From ☐ To ☐	☐ Physical (completion of the actual consent form) ☐ Retrieved online (through the questionnaire for instance) ☐ Guardian Informed Consent

A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Select the tools to be used in your study	**Select how the tools selected in column A will be administered (select one or more)**	**Select what types of questions will be included in the tools previously**	**Number of Participants Participating**	**Gender of Participants**	**Age of Participants**	**Participants Consents**

		selected in column A (select one or more)				
Tests ☐	☐ Face-to-face self – administered questionnaire ☐ Online i.e., via phone or any other platform. The researcher reads the questions to the participants ☐ Online asynchronous self – administered questionnaire (i.e., via email)			Male ☐ Female ☐	From ☐ To ☐	☐ Physical (completion of the actual consent form) ☐ Retrieved online (through the questionnaire for instance) ☐ Guardian Informed Consent
Other (i.e. observation Check list)						

UU_IC - Version 2.1

Informed Consent Form

Part 1: Debriefing of Participants

Student's Name:

Student's E-mail Address:

Student ID #:

Supervisor's Name:

University Campus:

Program of Study:

Research Project Title

Date:

Provide a short description (purpose, aim and significance) of the research project, and explain why and how you have chosen this person to participate in

The above named Student is committed in ensuring participant's voluntarily participation in the research project and guaranteeing there are no potential risks and/or harms to the participants.

Participants have the right to withdraw at any stage (prior or post the completion) of the research without any consequences and without providing any explanation. In these cases, data collected will be deleted.
All data and information collected will be coded and will not be accessible to anyone outside this research. Data described and included in dissemination activities will only refer to coded information ensuring beyond the bounds of possibility participant identification.

I, _____, ensure that all information stated above is true and that all conditions have been met.

Student's Signature: _____

UNICAF UNIVERSITY

Informed Consent Form

Part 2: Certificate of Consent

This section is mandatory and should to be signed by the participant(s)

Student's Name:

Student's E-mail Address:

Student ID #:

Supervisor's Name:

University Campus:

Program of Study:

Research Project Title:

I have read the foregoing information about this study, or it has been read to me. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and discuss about it. I have received satisfactory answers to all my questions and I have received enough information about this study. I understand that I am free to withdraw from this study at any time without giving a reason for withdrawing and without negative consequences. I consent to the use of multimedia (e.g. audio recordings, video recordings) for the purposes of my participation to this study. I understand that my data will remain anonymous and confidential, unless stated otherwise. I consent voluntarily to be a participant in this study.

Participant's Print name:

Participant's Signature:

Date:

If the Participant is illiterate: I have witnessed the accurate reading of the consent form to the potential participant, and the individual has had an opportunity to ask questions. I confirm that the aforementioned individual has given consent freely.

Witness's Print name:

Witness's Signature:

Date:

Gatekeeper letter

Address:

Date:

Subject:

Dear XXXX,
I am an/a [undergraduate, postgraduate, doctoral] student at Unicaf University [insert the name of the University, e.g. Malawi / Zambia].
As part of my degree I am carrying out a study on [insert project / research topic and area].
I am writing to enquire whether you would be interested in/willing to [insert request for assistance, participation, permission to recruit etc.] in this research.
Subject to approval by Unicaf Research Ethics Committee (UREC) this study will be using [mention the research activity / activities].
[Describe the project briefly and state its title and the name of your supervisor.]
[Describe what would be required of the person, for example, sending an e-mail on your behalf, allowing you to recruit on their premises, giving you access to personal data after participants have consented, allow children to complete experiments during school hours etc. Include the estimated time for the engagement of this person.]
Thank you in advance for your time and for your consideration of this project. Kindly please let me know if you require any further information or need any further clarifications.

Yours sincerely,

Student's Name:

Student's E-mail:

Student's Address and Telephone:

Supervisor's Title and Name:

Supervisor's Position:

Supervisors E-mail:

Appendix D: Articles On Research Studies

No.	Research title/ Author(s) / Year	Results and Conclusion
1	History of Modern Philanthropy, John Gardner, 2016.	Industry of Giving was more organized, specialized, diversified and professional but needed mutual partnership among players.
2	Market Watch, 2021, Harvard Kennedy School, 2018	Philanthropy industry was diversified: Foundations (250,000 (154,271 in Europe, 91,850 in north America) across 38 different countries); Charitable organizations (28% religion, 15% education, 14% human services, 12% grant-making foundations and 10% public-societies); Individuals and families; volunteers; Donor-Advised Funds; corporations and inheritance.
3	Charity Giving USA Annual Report, National Philanthropic Trust, 2021	Financial endowments for Foundations in high income countries was higher than low income countries.
4	Women's Philanthropy Institute, 2018, Indiana University.	Giving was influenced by inherited traits, individual (religious) belief, compassion, ergonomics and legacy.
5	National Philanthropic Trust, 2020	Individuals gave 69% of US$471.44 billion earned.
6	National Centre for Charitable Statistics (NCCS), 2019, Corporation for National and Community Service, 2021	Source of charity funds included service revenues, government contracts/grants, fees, contributions, gifts, dues, special event income, rental income, sales and voluntary support (time, talents.
7	Donor Advised Fund Report 2020, National Philanthropic Trust, 2020.	Charitable organizations built own endowment. If the money was made available, there would be high impact.
8	Drivers of Strategic Approach to Philanthropy in the Czech Republic, (Kubickova, 2020)	Corporate giving increased reputation, employee and customer commitment, networks and partnerships.

Source: Field data's compilation. Table 2.4 indicated the various studies undertaken in the study phenomena and provided the arguments on specific issues.