CHALLENGES FACING URBAN COUNCILS IN ZIMBABWE. A CASE STUDY OF MARONDERA MUNICIPALITY FROM 2009-2013

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my late mother, Eunice Chinove.
Acknowledgements

I would like to thank God for giving me the grace, wisdom and strength to produce this dissertation. My sincere gratitude to my supervisor Mr Muchemwa who inspired me to think outside the box. Lastly I would like to thank my family and friends for their love and support may God bless them abundantly.
Abstract

This study sought to analyse the challenges facing urban councils in Zimbabwe. The objectives of this study were to analyse the nature of service delivery in Marondera, analyse the factor influencing urban poverty in Marondera and to analyse the nexus between rapid urbanisation and waste management. The study employed qualitative methods of data collection and analysis. Data was collected with the use of two interview guides, one was for council officials and the other one was for the residents. 10 council officials and 9 residents were interviewed. Using the results obtained from the study the researcher was able to analyse the challenges faced by urban councils. A lot of factors contributed to poor service delivery among these were: dilapidated infrastructure, corruption, debts and theft, these factors affected human security. Findings from the study showed that poor service delivery causes pollution which is one of the factors which cause global warming and climate change, this leads to environmental insecurity. Diseases and deaths resulting from accidents and other diseases threaten health security, crime leads to community insecurity. Refuse dumping is a threat to health and environmental security. Hence there is need to improve and change some aspects of how council operates so as to foster a conducive environment where people will be secure, there is sustainable development and peace.

Key terms: Human Security, Service Delivery, urbanisation and poverty.
Acronyms

ADB- Asian Development Bank

AIDS- Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

CBD- Central Business District

CHS- Commission on Human Security

HDR- Human Development Report

HIV- Human Immuno-deficiency Virus

ILO- International Labour Organisation

MDGs- Millennium Developmental Goals

NCC- Namibian City Council

NGO- Non Governmental Organisation

OCHA- Office of Human Affairs

RBM- Result Based Management

UN- United Nations

UNDP- United Nations Development Programme

UNICEF- United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund

WHO- World Health Organisation

ZINWA-Zimbabwe National Water Authority
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CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Most cities and towns in Zimbabwe are struggling to deliver quality services. Water challenges hit Zimbabwe’s urban areas during Zimbabwe National Water Authority’s era (ZINWA) and residents hardly maintained hygienic living conditions. According to Hove and Tirimboi (2011), the peak of service deterioration was manifested in a cholera epidemic which gripped many parts of the country with 191,164 reported cases and 4,047 reported deaths for the period 15 August 2008-17 March 2009 (Office of Humanitarian Affairs ‘OCHA’, 2009 cited in Hove and Tirimboi 2011). Some writers argue that the causes of the outbreak of cholera were not limited to lack of water to flush toilets, lack of clean water supply but to failure to collect refuse, increasing population, institutional incapacity, little rainfall and bursting sewerage pipes among other factors. (Jonga and Chirisa 2009).

Rapid urbanisation is one of the major challenges facing urban councils. Rural to urban migration is the major cause of this growth in urban population. Usually people move from the rural areas in search for employment and jobs are scarce for the rural migrants who are usually lacking in terms of skills. Some of these unemployed people end up living with relatives and this affects the city’s ability to meet service delivery since the number of people living on one house hold would have exceeded the original planned for by the town planners. Others survive through engagement in the informal economy (Obeng Odoom 2011). This group form the urban poor, the urban poor find insecure
shelter in overcrowded slums where there is lack of water, sanitation, electricity, employment, security and social inclusion are the norm (Berger 2006).

Widespread and increasing levels of poverty and unemployment are fuelling the frustrations of ordinary people who live in abject poverty, as well as increasing the number of people dependent on basic and indigent services. This makes further demands on scarce resources of municipalities with large, impoverished communities. Outstanding debt payment for municipal services from residents, businesses and government departments, the burden of debt carried by many municipalities is making it more and more difficult for them to meet their obligations in terms of services delivery. Political factionalism and infighting breeds nepotism, fraud and corruption which in turn, impacts heavily on the ability to deliver quality services.

Another issue is that of a bloated labour force, some urban council like Marondera municipality are over staffed with workers who have salary arrears as a result most of their budget consists of salaries and expenses, this affects the ability of the town council to deliver quality services (The Worker 2011). Msemwa (2008) discusses a number of factors which were hindering the provision of clean water to Zimbabwe’s urban areas, particularly Harare, Gweru, and Mutare. The underlying causes are; economic decline, poor local governance structures, political interference, corruption, population growth, dilapidation in water supply infrastructure, and sheer disregard of water quality standards and laws

1.2 Statement of the problem

Zimbabwe’s urban areas have been experiencing water, refuse collection and other problems for the past years but the worst scenario was in 2009 when the economy came to a standstill when the Zimbabwean dollar collapsed. Researches show that service
delivery has been deteriorating from the late 1990s to the present day (Jonga and Chirisa 2009, Musemwa 2008). Water problems have resulted in people using alternative unsafe sources of water like rivers and contaminated springs; people are now dumping rubbish everywhere because the city fathers are not collecting refuse in time. These dumping sites become breeding ground for diseases especially in the rainy season thereby affecting the security of the individual. This has prompted the researcher to ask whether the measures taken to alleviate poverty, improving the water situation are being fully implemented. Hence, this research aimed at analysing the challenges facing Marondera Municipality specifically water, poverty and refuse collection, the measures which have been undertaken in a bid to solve these problems and possible solutions.

1.3 The aim

To analyse the challenges facing Marondera Municipality in service delivery and its impact on human security.

1.4 Research objectives

1. To examine the factors hindering quality service delivery by Marondera Municipality.
2. To analyse the nature of service delivery in Marondera.
3. To analyse the factors influencing urban poverty in Marondera.
4. Analyse the link between rapid urbanisation and waste management.

1.5 Justification

From 2009 when the economy of the country collapsed affecting all sectors including local government there have been notable improvements, however a lot still needs to be done. Analysing utility’s social performance warrants attention if political leaders,
utility managers, citizens and other stakeholders are to have a good understanding of the quality of service offered. In addition, this study will motivate the policy planners to monitor and adjust sector institutional set ups and water policies to improve water services in urban areas. This study can also be of use to local authorities to remedy their inability to collect refuse and embrace other alternatives of handling solid waste.

Resultantly, this research can be an entry point for other actors with alternative water sources other than surface and find new strategies to further improve service delivery in effort to achieve the MDGs. Overall, it is expected that findings from this study will provide basis for intervention from various stakeholders and bring more sustainable solutions to the challenges of service delivery in Zimbabwe.

1.6 Research questions

1. What are the factors hindering quality service delivery by Marondera municipality?

2. What is contributing the most to urban poverty?

3. What are the effects of poor service delivery on human security?

1.7 Assumptions of the study

- The researcher assumed that service delivery would improve as a result of the economic stability brought about by the introduction of the multi-currency system in 2009; however that was not the case with most urban councils.

- The researcher had the assumption that unemployment was contributing a lot to urban poverty.

- The researcher also assumed that obtaining the information from council employees and residents of the selected areas was going to be easy.
1.8 Limitations

The study dwelt much on service delivery as it is a critical aspect in human insecurity. Availability and the quality of water determines how secure people will be, that is when water is not available people use alternative sources which are not always safe for human consumption. Dirty water causes diseases.

The people from the low residential areas are not always available due to busy schedules. This makes it difficult to obtain information from them thereby causing delays in the study.

1.9 Delimitations

The researcher has got access to prominent people within the Municipality of Marondera and can verify data empirically. The area of study is familiar to the researcher hence making it easy to interact with local residents.

1.10 Definition of key terms

Human security according to Alkire (2003:2) “is to safeguard the vital core of human lives from critical pervasive threats, and to do so without impeding long term human flourishing.”

According to the UNDP (2006) human security is the protection from the threat of disease, hunger, unemployment, crime, social conflict, environmental hazards and political repression.

The world summit on social development in Copenhagen 1995 agreed to define poverty as “a condition characterised by severe deprivation of basic human needs, including food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education and information.”
1.11 Project structure

Chapter 1 – introduction

Chapter 2 – literature review

Chapter 3 - Methodology and instruments

Chapter 4 - Data presentation and analysis

Chapter 5 - Conclusion
CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
This chapter covers the theoretical framework whereby the theory of human security which influences this research has been explored in a bid to link theory with observed facts, existing literature in the field under study has also been analysed and the nexus between these past researches and human security have been examined in order to establish the knowledge gap. Lastly, the chapter was concluded with the chapter summary.

2.2 Theoretical Framework
Human security is a concept that links together different issues and allows one to look at power, politics, and the contextual factors that create insecurities. It is considered an emerging theme among international institutions, encompassing issues related to human development, human rights, and environmental sustainability (Gasper 2005 cited in O’Brien and Leichenko 2007). The discourse on human security has developed since the early 1990s, when the first Human Development Report was published by UNDP, with the explicit goal of putting people at the centre of the development process. The notion of human security has been increasingly promoted as an integrative concept that focuses on both protection and empowerment. The Sen-Ogata Commission’s 2003 report “Human Security Now” raised the visibility of human security, and the concept has been widely used in policy circles, particularly in the United Nations system, but
also in the Human Security Network, which is made up of 14 countries that identify important themes or issues of concern that are linked to a human security agendas (O’Brien and Leichenko 2007).

For Thomas Hobbes cited in Liotta and Owen (2006), the classic state-centred realist, an individual’s insecurity sprang from a life that was “solitary, poor, nasty, brutish and short.” The state protected the individual from threats, whether these threats came at the hands of a local thief or from an invading army. For this protection, the citizen basically surrendered individual rights to the state, as the state was the sole protector. Thus, in contrast to principles embedded in documents such as the US Declaration of Independence and Constitution, security always trumped liberty. Clearly, in an age where terrorism and extremist violence are constant challenges and where legislation such as the US Patriot Act and individual surveillance measures continue unabated in what are considered “open” societies, the conflict between collective/individual security and individual liberty remains (Liotta and Owen 2006). Indeed, Benjamin Franklin’s saying remains an uncomfortable dilemma even today: those who give up their personal liberty for increased security deserve neither. In more recent history, human security has been bifurcated by both broad and narrow definitions.

According to Liotta and Owen (2006), a broad approach to human security is based on the concept of “freedom from want” and the narrow approach on “freedom from fear.” While these categorizations are, admittedly, rather simplistic in their labels, they do prove useful in illustrating how different advocates of human security follow quite different paths in pushing for human security action. The 1994 United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Human Development Report (HDR) is generally seen as the first significant attempt at articulating the broad approach to human security. “Human security can be said to have two main aspects. It means, first, safety from
such chronic threats as hunger, disease and repression. And second, it means protection from sudden and hurtful disruptions in the patterns of daily life – whether in homes, in jobs or in communities. Such threats can exist at all levels of national income and development (Liotta and Owen 2006).” The report concedes that the definition is broad, but explains that this is simply a reflection of the number of significant harms that go unmitigated. As a conceptual structure, the UNDP proposes seven components of human security: economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community and political security. Economic security threatened by poverty; Food security threatened by hunger and famine; Health security threatened by injury and disease; Environmental security threatened by pollution, environmental degradation and resource depletion; Personal security threatened by various forms of violence; Political security threatened by political repression; Community security threatened by social unrest and instability.

According to Liotta and Owen (2006:42), the broad conceptualization of human security is different from the realist view of security which is state centred in the sense that it brings humanitarian considerations into the security discourse. This has serious implication. The Canadian approach represents another end of the spectrum of human security-the narrower conception. By relying primarily on violent threats, the Canadian Approach separates human security from the much broader and already established field of international development (ibid). As Owen notes in earlier work, [T]he Canadian government acknowledges the UNDP conception as a phase in the development of human security, but envisions a much more focused definition, one centred on violent threats, as an instrument of policy. The Canadian definition, therefore, largely restricts the parameters of human security to violent threats against the individual. This can come from a vast array of issues, including the drug trade, landmines, ethnic discord, state failure, and trafficking in small arms.
The Human Security Centre (part of the Liu Institute for Global Affairs at the University of British Columbia) clearly expresses the purposes of this approach: “Since the end of the Cold War, armed conflicts have increasingly taken place within, and not between, states. National security remains important, but in a world in which war between states is the rare exception, and many more people are killed by their own governments than by foreign armies, the concept of ‘human security’ has been gaining greater recognition. Unlike traditional concepts of security, which focus on defending borders from external military threats, human security is concerned with the security of individuals. For some proponents of human security, the key threat is violence; for others the threat agenda is much broader, embracing hunger, disease and natural disasters. Largely for pragmatic reasons, the Human Security Centre has adopted the narrower concept of human security that focuses on protecting individuals and communities from violence.”

Liotta and Owen (2006) argue that the narrow approach on human security emphasizes the more immediate necessity for intervention capability rather than long-term strategic planning and investing for sustainable and secure development. Given the choice of being broad and ideal, or narrow and operable, by focusing on violence only which is a small component of human vulnerability the Canadian government has clearly sided with pragmatism. Despite clear differences, both human security approaches rely on non-coercive methods as much as on having the ability to intervene effectively and swiftly. Some of these non-coercive measures include security sector reform, sustainable economic development, preventive diplomacy, post-conflict state building and mediation, and negotiation efforts by parties external to conflicts. Human security, nonetheless, may rest uncomfortably on the horns of a dilemma.

The required focus should perhaps not be on either a narrow or broad definition, but both. Indeed, for example, protection from human rights violations is only one
component of ensuring human security. Individuals also need protection from poverty, disasters, conflict, and disease. Put another way, protection from gross violations of human rights is a necessary but not sufficient condition of human security. Yet human security could be said to be a necessary but not sufficient precondition for human development. If human security could cover the most urgent threats, development would then address societal well-being. Moreover, human rights should be seen as one of many components of human security a necessary but not sufficient condition. Just like some, but not all, environmental disasters cross the threshold of severity to become human security threats, so too do some, but not all, human rights abuses.

Ultimately, while the effort to promote human security in the arena of “high politics” on the part of the Canadian and Norwegian governments since the 1990s is well known, there is a tempting sense of proselytizing righteousness as well. Such so-called “middle power” states, after all, can exercise significant moral clout by emphasizing that the rights of the individual are at least as important as protecting the territorial and sovereign integrity of the state (Liotta and Owen 2006).

“Human security describes a condition of existence in which basic material needs are met, and in which human dignity, including meaningful participation in the life of the community, can be realized. Such human security is indivisible; it cannot be pursued by or for one group at the expense of another” (Thomas and Wilkins 1999:3). “While material sufficiency lies at the core of human security, in addition the concept encompasses non-material dimensions to form a qualitative whole.” “The quantitative aspect refers to material sufficiency.” “… [t]he pursuit of human security must have at its core the satisfaction of basic material needs of all humankind. At the most basic level, food, shelter, education and health care are essential for the survival of human beings. In Zimbabwe urban councils have clinics, schools and are responsible for the
provision of housing in this regard urban councils meet some of the requirements needed for human security to be achieved although this can be hindered by the quality of the services provided. The qualitative aspect of human security is about the achievement of human dignity which incorporates personal autonomy, control over one’s live and unhindered participation in the life of the community. Emancipation from oppressive power structures, be they global, national or local in origin and scope, is necessary for human security. Human security is oriented towards an active and substantive notion of democracy, one that ensures the opportunity of all for participation in the decisions that affect their lives. Therefore it is engaged directly with discussions of democracy at all levels, from the local to the global”, (Thomas 2000:6-7).

The Commission on Human Security (CHS) (2003), in its final report Human Security Now, defines human security as: “…to protect the vital core of all human lives in ways that enhance human freedoms and human fulfilment. Human security means protecting fundamental freedoms – freedoms that are the essence of life. It means protecting people from critical (severe) and pervasive (widespread) threats and situations. It means using processes that build on people’s strengths and aspirations. It means creating political, social, environmental, economic, military and cultural systems that together give people the building blocks of survival, livelihood and dignity” (CHS: 2003: 4). Urban councils provide a wide range of services that are necessary for the survival of the community that they serve like water, sanitation, clinics and land for economic project thereby reducing human insecurities.
2.3 Empirical evidence

This refer to the past researches that are similar to the present study. The purpose of this section is to show how previous studies relate or differ with the current study in order to establish the knowledge gap.

2.3.1 Urban councils in Africa

Many Municipalities in Africa are facing problems, which in turn affect their ability to deliver quality services. A lot of literature on urban local governance shows the importance attached to effective and efficient provision of urban services. The services, which are provided by urban councils, enhance people’s quality of life and contribute to urban development. According to Mushamba cited in Madzivanyika (2011) “poor service delivery is attributed to poor performance. The law is very clear as to what the urban councils are mandated to do…performance often lags behind the legislated intentions.” According to Joseph (2002), one of the legacies of apartheid in South Africa is the enormous infrastructure backlog that it created for the vast majority of the population. Under-investment in municipal infrastructure in black areas under apartheid deprived millions of people of access to basic services including roads, water, refuse collection and sanitation resulting in human insecurity due to the various threats emanating from poor service delivery.

Africa is struggling to provide quality services to its people and this negatively impact household water security. Studies show that only 64% of Africa’s population had access to safe water supply in 2006, (UNICEF and WHO, 2008 cited in Hove 2013). UNICEF, (2009) noted that fulfilling acceptable targets in developing countries remains an area of concern as over 884 million still lack safe drinking water sources. Projections by UNDP, (2006) cited in Water Operators Partnership (WOP), (2009) show that Sub-
Saharan Africa would only reach the MDG targets for water services by 2040, and those for sanitation by 2076 (Hove 2013). The major setback is the inefficiencies of water utilities and the problem is magnified in urban areas due to limited alternatives. The Asian Development Bank (ADB), (2009), singled out government crisis which is often associated with how countries manage their water resources as the major limitation.

In many countries there are many institutions that are involved in the provision of urban services and some of their activities overlap (Leduka 1991; Mwafongo 1991). Invariably, most of them are controlled by the central government and there is limited devolution of authority to local government; there is no clear division of functions between the various levels of government and there is lack of coordination of their various activities. In Lesotho, the Maseru city council was torn between the central government, the councillors, and the council administration, resulting in dissipated efforts (Leduka 1991). In Malawi, a study showed that there was a multiplicity of agencies delivering urban services and there was no coordination between them (Mwafongo 1991). On the other hand, in Abidjan, the council was weak because power was concentrated in the hands of the mayor, whose style of management was management by crisis (Attchi 1989). In discussing the situation in Kinshasa. Even where devolution appears to have taken place and participatory institutions exist, the centre tries to exert some control. Musandu-Nyamayaro (1991: 5) has noted with respect to Harare that: "Despite the municipality possessing power and authority to act without referring to the Minister for approval, the centre maintains control and influence through a number of traditional avenues." The problems plaguing the management of Nairobi's urban services can be traced to both local and central levels of government. Staff at both levels suffer from a lack of decision-making authority, a lack of experience, a lack of accountability and heavy volumes of work due to under-staffing (Smoke, 1994: 128).
There is also a lack of inter-local government cooperation in projects where a coordination in planning and construction of infrastructure projects would result in significant cost savings (Ibid. 124). Smoke also identifies several financial problems that plague local authorities: out-dated land rates, neglect in the collection of taxes, dishonesty of revenue collectors, inadequate enforcement authority, political pressure on officers to be less aggressive in revenue collection, and payment delinquency on the part of many government agencies and parastatals. Moreover, user fees for some urban services may be heavily subsidized to the point that the service is operated at a net loss (Bubba and Lamba, 1991: 41).

These problems are exacerbated by political difficulties at the city level. Councillors are more concerned with the private accumulation of wealth than with the efficient management of urban services (Bubba and Lamba, 1991: 42). There are also poor relations between the politicians and chief officers. The Nairobi City Council (NCC) has been at the centre of these controversies. In 1983, the City Council was dismissed because of gross mismanagement and failure to provide urban services. In its place, a commission was set up to run the city. Between 1983 and 1991, there were five different chairpersons and three different commissions: each was dissolved because of its inability to serve City Hall or to provide residents with services (Ibid., 46-47). These organizational, fiscal and political problems faced by central and local government in Kenya have resulted in an inability to cope with the staggering rates of population growth and rural to urban migration. There is excessive strain on existing facilities and under-investment in new ones. Education, health facilities, and urban services (including waste management) are especially affected.
2.3.2 Zimbabwe urban councils

Urban local authorities in Zimbabwe are reputed for providing the broadest and widest range of services compared to many other parts of the developing world (Chikumbu et al). According to Hove (2012) Zimbabwean urban councils have been experiencing service delivery challenges since 2000. The effective delivery and management of services is a pre-requisite for productive investment and economic growth in urban areas (World Bank 2000 cited in Hove 2012). Effective service delivery can be achieved when service provision responds to effective demand and all residents have access to the services provided.

Zimbabwe’s urban areas have been experiencing water supply challenges for the past years under the management of urban councils and ZINWA. Research show that, the water service delivery has been deteriorating from the late 1990s up to the present day especially in the large cities of Harare and Bulawayo (Jonga. and Chirisa, 2009 cited in Hove 2012). However, in the city of Harare, poor performance by ZINWA resulted in persistent water shortages (Zimeye 7 June 2009 cited in Hove 2012). The most affected areas were low income residential areas for instance Mabvuku, Tafara and Budiriro due to limited alternative sources of water and high population densities (Musemwa 2008). Nonetheless, high income suburbs located in the eastern area for example Greendale, Glen Lorne, Chisipite and Park Meadowlands also suffered from this crisis. Water challenges worsened in Zimbabwe’s urban areas during ZINWA’s era and residents’ lives were endangered by the looming threat of water borne disease as they resorted to unsafe sources of water such as rivers, streams and open wells. Such a development led to loss of lives due to the outbreak of cholera whose epi-centre was Budiriro a high density residential place in Harare. The outbreak of a cholera epidemic took a toll across the country with 191, 164 reported cases and 4,047 reported deaths for the period 15
August 2008 to 17 March 2009 (OCHA 2009). The water challenges resulted in a cholera epidemic which the World Health Organisation (WHO) declared the worst in Africa in the past 15 years.

Failure to provide services is related to the problems local authorities are experiencing as a result of rapid population growth, rising unemployment and lack of investment in the formal sector and stagnation or decrease of municipal budgets. The rate of population growth in the country in general and in urban areas in particular is higher than economic growth.

2.3.3 Nature of service delivery in Marondera

According to The Worker (2011) Marondera council has been hard-hit by myriad political and economic problems since time immemorial. The then mayor, Farai Nyandoro complained that much of council problems shoot from political blunders made by the former ZANU PF city fathers; “our problems are inherited; former Marondera executive mayor, Alderman ChimaniKire brought ZANU PF youths and flooded the council with 500 workers when the Council just needed about 275 employees and that paralyzed the council…” The mayor explained that Marondera is agro-based and “as agriculture just collapsed, Marondera industry resultantly declined”. Marondera residents are allegedly failing to pay their bills because they have no adequate, reliable and consistent monetary sources. The Council got financially sick when workers' wages became more than available revenue. The struggle for workers' demands and consequent service delivery has affected Marondera council for a long and tiresome period.
According to The Zimbabwean (18-11-11) residents in Marondera face serious shortage of social services, from clean water to a reliable refuse collection service. Marondera has a population of more than 100 000 people and over 40% of them go without clean water. The Municipality of Marondera struggles to provide basic services due to a number of reasons but the most dominant one is that the workers lack motivation since they are not getting paid, as a result sewer flows in the streets and refuse can go for a month without collection leaving people insecure in terms of health. Illegal vendors take advantage of the state of affairs in council as a result the CBD is filled with illegal structures. The workers are divided to the extent that there are more than two workers unions as a result settling payment issues with the management becomes impossible and all this affects the ability of council to provide quality services to the residents and stakeholders in Marondera.

2.3.4 Poverty in Africa

The urbanisation of poverty is one of the most dramatic developments on the African continent, yielding contrasting images of affluent residential and business districts and utter misery in sprawling shantytowns or slums (Geisler et al.2005). Namibia has one of Africa’s highest urban growth rates, taking thousands of women and children into towns in search of a better life. The large majority of these end up in poverty stricken settlements in urban areas. Urban poverty has many dimensions and causes. Its main characteristics are deprivation and exclusion. In the anonymous and impersonal setting of cities, poverty has dimensions of both material and psychological deprivation. The growing numbers of the urban poor find insecure shelter in overcrowded slums where lack of water and sanitation, electricity, employment, security and social inclusion are the norm (Berger 2006). Other features of urban poverty include hunger, poor health due to nutritional deficiencies and unhealthy living conditions as well as limited access
to school and health services. Survival has become the major concern of the urban poor. Women and children are often the most vulnerable.

According to Hove (2013), one consequence of escalating urban poverty is the growing number of street children in African cities. While some of these children have homes and families but survive by begging or casual work, many have been deserted or orphaned and have no alternative but to live on the street. Their survival is tremendously precarious, and, without schooling, they have little hope for any meaningful future and are extraordinarily vulnerable to abuse. For many, prostitution and crime are the only means to survive. In post-conflict countries, street children are one of the most visible legacies of armed conflict. In particular, child soldiers, who are often alienated, traumatized and habituated into violence, present a daunting challenge (Rakisits 2008 cited in Hove 2013).

According to Mpofu (2012) is important to focus on urban poverty because of the ever declining urban living conditions, decreasing formal employment opportunities, declining real wages, acute low cost housing shortages, and rising food and fuel prices. Urbanisation trends in developing countries have also pointed to a growing concentration of people in cities as a result of natural urban increases and also because of the traditional rural to urban migration to escape rural poverty even though recent research has established that in most Sub-Saharan African countries rural urban migration has slowed down due to lack of economic opportunities in larger towns and the resultant increasing urban-rural migration in search of livelihood security. Yet, in spite of a general influx of the population into the cities, central governments, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and donor agencies tended to focus their poverty
alleviation programmes mainly on rural areas. This was because of the “urban bias” idea that the scale of the rural/urban income gap was too large, and that this was caused by inefficiencies in resource allocation, a labour aristocracy thesis that argued that the urban sector in sub-Saharan Africa was characterised by high wages and many privileges (for example, subsidised food and housing).

According to Mercado et al (2007), the issue of urban poverty is not new, but it is often narrowly viewed as an economic issue that is best addressed by economic policies and interventions. Urban poverty today, as driven by globalization and rapid uncontrolled urbanization, also needs to be recognized as a social, political, and cultural process that has profound impacts on public health. Exclusion of the urban poor from the benefits of urban life fosters discontent and political unrest. Within the broader context of health and human development, rapid urbanization of poverty and ill health have been characterized as a new human security threat.

The United Nations estimates that the number of urban residents will increase by more than two billion people by 2030, whereas the rural population will decline by about 20 million. Of the many risks to health that are linked to rapid urbanization, none is more compelling than the rise of urban poverty, manifested by the growth of informal settlements. Whereas rising urban poverty is evident in the developed world, this trend is more pronounced in developing countries. UN-HABITAT cited in Mercado 2007 states that the global urban slum population is expected to double from one billion (estimated in 2002) to nearly two billion by 2030 (from 32% to 41% of the world’s urban population), and to approximately three billion by 2050. Among the one billion people who live in informal settlements today, one-third of households are headed by women. Hundreds of millions of children and youth live and work in depraved conditions in urban areas. According to the latest Global Report on Human Settlements
cited in Mercado et al (2007), 43% of the urban population in developing regions lives in slums. In the least developed countries, 78% are slum-dwellers. The scale and speed of this phenomenon pose serious and compelling worst affected is the (largely sub-Saharan) African Region, where two-thirds of its urban inhabitants live in informal settlements. It is also experiencing the world’s fastest rates of urbanization. Northern Africa is the only developing region where the quality of urban life is improving: here, the proportion of city dwellers living in slums has decreased by 0.15% annually (Mercado et al 2007). The urban setting in a globalized world is increasing exposure to unhealthy environments, disasters, climate change, violence and injuries, tobacco and other drugs, and epidemics including HIV-AIDS. Without access to adequate shelter, health care, and resources, the urban poor face the greatest threat. Given current demographic trends, the majority of all urban inhabitants in years to come will suffer disproportionate exposure to the triple burden of ill health: injuries, communicable diseases, and non-communicable diseases.

2.3.5 Growth of poverty in Zimbabwe’s urban areas

The World Bank estimated urban poverty in Zimbabwe in 1990/91 to be 12 percent while the 1995 Poverty Assessment Study found urban poverty to be 39 percent. In January 2009, Save the Children estimated that 10 out of 13 million Zimbabweans, over 75 percent of the population, were living in ‘desperate poverty.’ In April 2010, UNICEF noted that 78 percent of Zimbabweans were “absolutely poor” and 55 percent of the population, (about 6.6 million) lived under the food poverty line while New Zimbabwe estimated that more than 65 percent of Zimbabweans lived below the poverty datum line in December 2009. Recently, commentators have argued that it is very clear that poverty is increasing in the country. The sense we get from the above statistics is that
some agencies have defined certain percentages of Zimbabweans as poor, below some abstractly conceived poverty lines.

The International Labour Organization (ILO) reported in June 2005 that 3 to 4 million Zimbabweans earned their living through informal sector employment, supporting another 5 million, while the formal sector employed about 1.3 million people (ZCTU 2005 cited in Hove 2013). Productivity in the informal economy is low, and a considerable proportion of the urban workforce employed in the sector represents disguised unemployment. Women are active participants in the informal economy. In some instances, poor women who lack other employment opportunities often resort to operating as commercial sex workers, exposing themselves to danger of diseases like HIV and AIDS, abuse and other wise exacerbating their vulnerability.

2.3.6 The impact of poverty in Marondera

Marondera is agro-based after the land invasions most of the local people who were employed in farms lost their jobs when their white employers lost their farms. Most of these people are now employed in the informal sector and their income is unpredictable as a result bills go unpaid as people struggle to get food and shelter. The industry in Marondera declined and most of the companies closed down after the economic meltdown in 2009 leaving most of the residents jobless. Due to the high levels of unemployment the space set aside by council for the informal sector is shrinking with each passing day as a result applications for business places are no longer being processed. The residents are now erecting illegal structures during the night in the CBD so as to earn a living despite the threat of penalties and eviction by the municipal police. According to Hove (2013) other features of urban poverty include hunger, poor health due to nutritional deficiencies and unhealthy living conditions as economy include: ease of entry, reliance on indigenous resources, individual or family ownership of
enterprises, small-scale operation, labour intensive and adapted technology, skills acquired outside the formal school system or training programs and operations within unregulated and non-competitive markets. The realities of the informal economy mean that many municipal authorities are faced with a dilemma regarding informal economic actors. While they recognize that informal sector activities are the only means of livelihood for many of the urban poor, local governments are often also concerned about the contribution of such activities to other urban problems. As a result, their response has been to either largely ignore the informal sector or to resort to periodic campaigns targeting their activities (ibid).

2.3.7 Urbanisation and waste management in Africa

Rapid urbanisation is one of the major challenges facing urban councils. Rural to urban migration is the major cause of this growth in urban population. Usually people move from the rural areas in search for employment, jobs are scarce for the unskilled rural migrants. Some of these unemployed people end up living with relatives and this affects the city’s ability to meet service delivery. Others survive through engagement in the informal economy (Obeng Odoom 2011). This group form the urban poor, the urban poor find insecure shelter in overcrowded slums where there is lack of water, sanitation, electricity, employment, security and social inclusion are the norm (Berger 2006).

Uncollected solid waste is one of Nairobi’s most visible environmental problems: The municipal service which seems to fail most strikingly is garbage collection and disposal because it causes littering and untidiness which has an immediate adverse psychological impact. The lack of adequate garbage disposal in an area often results in negative attitudes that contribute to a general deterioration of community development and cohesion (Mwaura, 1991: 35). One half of the solid waste generated in Nairobi consists of organic matter. Toxic materials are estimated to be 0.2 percent of the total. For
households alone, it is estimated that three-quarters of the waste is organic material (Syagga, 1992: 28-29). Estimates for the daily generation of solid waste for the city as a whole range from 800 tonnes (Syagga 1992) to 1000 tonnes (Personal communication, Nairobi City Council (NCC) Cleansing Section). Daily disposal capacity of the NCC is about 400 tonnes: less than fifty percent. The NCC estimates that private companies are disposing about 50 tonnes a month. Waste collection services are provided only sporadically to low-income areas because of poor accessibility and very high waste generation which cannot be handled with available vehicles and equipment. Other problems encountered by the NCC Cleansing Section include inadequate financing, a lack of recognition of the importance of satisfactory and effective waste management by the policy makers, and inadequate training of managers (Personal communication, NCC Cleansing Section).

Privatization as an alternative to publicly provided waste management has been explored for developing countries. Bartone et al. (1991 cited in Peters 1998) conclude that the private sector can operate more efficiently than the public sector in providing municipal solid waste services, while Cointreau-Levine (1994) concludes that it is a possible opportunity, not a panacea, for improving solid waste management in developing countries. For example, in Nairobi, two formal sector companies provide private waste collection services. However, only upper-income residents and businesses are able to afford the monthly fee. Neither company ventures into the informal settlements since they are unable to collect fees from residents. The NCC has no official policy towards the privatization of waste collection, nor do they provide any assistance to private companies to enable them to operate in informal settlements (Personal communication, NCC Cleansing Section).
The NCC also lacks a policy on waste reduction at the source, and on involving community groups in waste management (though it does participate in several notable efforts). Cleansing Section officials recognize the need to reduce waste at its source, to conduct mass media Campaigns, and to develop clear and enforceable policies and bylaws promoting waste reduction, recycling, and community participation, but there is a lack of political will to do so (Personal communication, NCC Cleansing Section).

Because of poor financing and management, senior managers in the NCC Cleansing Section envision their future role as one of coordinating all actors in the waste management sector, including their own limited resources, the private sector, and the community sector.

2.3.8 The nexus between waste management and urbanisation in Zimbabwe

In developing countries, including Zimbabwe, the problem of Solid Waste Management is becoming complicated and requires long term and sustainable programmes for its solution. According to UN-Habitat (2006) cited in Mudzengerere and Chingwenya 2012, less than 20% of urban solid waste is collected and disposed of properly thereby risking people’s lives through diseases. In an effort to solve the problem of refuse, communities had been empowered through the Community Based Organisations (CBO) to manage waste in their areas.

Refuse collection is affected by social, economic and political factors. Rapid urbanisation caused by massive exodus of people to cities has caused some municipals to strain their budgets through refuse collection and waste management. According to the UN-Habitat report (2006) cited in Mudzengerere and Chingwenya (2012), management of solid waste in developing countries consumes 20 to 40 percent of municipal revenue. Refuse collection in urban areas is erratic with most of it remain uncollected especially in the high density areas. Third world cities lack funding to
purchase up to standard equipment for refuse collection. Equipment and manpower needed for refuse collection is usually inadequate and in most cases old and obsolete. Despite the fact that municipals charge for refuse collection, their charges are very nominal and in some cases fail even to cater for the operational costs. Government funding and donor community play a crucial role in subsidising the operations of cities and yet the funding is not consistence with the operations and this result in them failing to deliver the services (Thomas-Hope, 1998 cited in Mudzengerere and Chingwenya 2012). Most of the operational plans are imaginary and theoretical as they are imposed by the government or adopted from other towns or countries yet they do not suit the prevailing situation. Zimbabwe having been colonised by Britain has a tendency of adopting most operations which may not suit the conditions and hence the resources for the operations are not readily available.

2.3.9 Waste management in Marondera

Refuse collection in Marondera is erratic, most residents have adopted alternative means of dealing with garbage. Leonard and Morell (1981) cite a lack of spare parts and tools to maintain vehicles, which meant that vehicles were working below their capacity. Marondera municipality has one vehicle for refuse collection and this affects the ability of the council to collect refuse timeously. Illegal dumping sites are now common in some areas like Dombotombo and Rujeko with limited spaces due to the sizes of the stands. These illegal dumping sites are a health hazard to the community, some children see these places as playgrounds were they get toys to play with. The rubbish at the dumping sites range from used sanitary pads, condoms, disposable nappies among other things. Most of these dumping sites are breeding grounds for diseases and rodents. Due to erratic waste collection some people have resorted to burning the waste, which causes an environmental concern. Open burning of waste
releases a complex mix of contaminants into the air, together with the smoke and particulates. The health effects associated with burning waste are known in South Africa, but not in other parts of the world. Burning dumps have been found to produce dioxins, one of the deadliest chemicals known (Booth, 1997). Hence this shows how lack of or poor service delivery leads to improper disposal of waste leads to pollution which causes environmental insecurity.

2.4 Summary

This chapter analysed the existing literature on human security and the nexus between human security and the existing literature on urban councils, the various approaches to human security mainly the broad approach by the UNDP and the narrow approach from the Canadian school. The literature that was reviewed in this chapter established that there is a gap within the existing literature on waste management in Marondera and poverty, however at national level there is a wide range of work written on the subject under study. This research will try to bridge the gap within the existing literature. The next chapter will examine the methodology used in this research.
CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction
This chapter outlined the research design that was used by the researcher and the methodology. The instruments that were used in the research and the reasons why they were chosen are also part and parcel of this chapter. The steps that were taken by the researcher to obtain data and the presentation and analysis procedures of data, ethical considerations.

3.2 Research design
Research design has been defined as a systematic, empirical observation of quantifiable properties as noted by (Creswell, 1998). Durrheim (2006:34) defines a research design as “a strategic framework for action that serves as a bridge between research questions and the execution or implementation of the research”. A research designs need to provide a plan that clearly specifies how the research is going to be executed in such a way that it answers the research question. Hence, in formulating a research design, Durrheim argues that “the researcher must make a series of decisions along four decisions (1) the purpose of research, (2) the theoretical paradigm informing the research, (3) the context or situation within which the research is carried out, and (4) the research techniques employed to collect and analyse data” (2006:37). This means that central to research design is combining the four decisions in order to maximize the validity of the findings. The study adopted a descriptive research design in the form of
a case study. The researcher used this design in-order to have a better understanding of the topic under study.

3.3 Research methodology

The research employed the qualitative method of data collection. The researcher used this technique because it was suitable for the purposes of this research since the researcher wanted to work with a small sample and also to obtain rich information since qualitative methods are in-depth. Triangulation method is when qualitative and quantitative research methods are used together, it was used in structuring the questions for the interview guide. Qualitative research is a process of inquiry with the goal of understanding a social or human problem from multiple perspectives, conducted in a natural setting with the objective of building a complex and holistic picture of the phenomenon of interest.

3.4 Research instruments

The researcher used interviews as the main data collection instrument. Interviews are a more personalized form of data collection method than questionnaires, and are conducted by trained interviewers using the same research protocol as questionnaire surveys (i.e., a standardized set of questions). Interview scripts may contain special instructions for the interviewer that is not seen by respondents, and may include space for the interviewer to record personal observations and comments. In addition, unlike mail surveys, the interviewer has the opportunity to clarify any issues raised by the respondent or ask probing or follow-up questions. However, interviews are time-consuming and resource-intensive. Special interviewing skills are needed on part of the interviewer. The interviewer is also considered to be part of the measurement instrument, and must proactively strive not to artificially bias the observed responses (Bhattacherjee 2012). The researcher used face to face interviews.
Semi structured interviews are conducted on the basis of a loose structure made up of open-ended questions defining the area to be explored. In-depth (also referred to as qualitative or unstructured) In-depth interviews are less structured than semi-structured ones and may cover only one or two issues (a topic guide may not be used, or may just have a few broad questions on it). This type of interview is used to explore in detail the respondent’s own perceptions and accounts. This method is used on topics for which little is known and where it is important to gain an in-depth understanding. (Quinn Patton and Cochran 2002).

3.5 Population, sample and sampling techniques

The population was stratified into low, medium and high density residential areas represented by Winston Park, Morning Side and Rujeko; these areas had a total population of 2176. The researcher used these areas because they did not have mixed stands a good example is Rusike which is composed of both medium and high density hence it was challenging to use such places. A sample of 10 council officials and 9 residents was selected using stratified purposive sampling. Three residents were interviewed from each area. According to Patton (1990) the logic and power of purposive sampling lies in the selection of information rich cases for study in-depth, that is, cases that are selected purposefully to fit the study. Information rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the study, hence the term purposive sampling (Patton, 1990). Marondera municipality has been chosen not only because of its proximity to the researcher but because it has been featured in the media countless times on allegations of poor service delivery.
3.6 Data collection procedures

Hoggan (2002) defines data collection procedures as the steps or activities that describe the general way data was gathered. The researcher started by seeking permission to conduct the study from the authorities at Marondera Municipality. The authorities agreed and told the researcher to go and ask for permission from the respondents themselves. The researcher then spoke to the respondents themselves seeking their permission to interview them, she did get their consent before collecting the data. The researcher started by introducing herself to the respondents. She then explained the purpose of the research. She also explained the issue of taking notes and confidentiality. The researcher informed the participants that the information from the interviews was going to be used for academic purposes only. The researcher informed the participants that they were not obligated to respond to the questions and that they were free to terminate the interview at any time without explanations.

3.7 Data presentation and analysis procedures

Data analysis is unlocking information hidden in raw data and transforming it into something meaningful Monette et al (1990). Data analysis will involve group classifying, coding the data and categorising the responses. Coding refers to an analytical process in which data in both quantitative forms such as questionnaires results and qualitative such as interview transcripts are categorised to facilitate analysis. Data will be analysed using thematic analysis and bar graphs, pie charts, tables and pictures will be used to present data. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), thematic analysis is a qualitative analytic method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns within data. Thematic analysis was chosen because it allows the organization and description of data set in rich detail. It also helps interpret various aspects of the research topic.
3.8 Ethical Issues

The participants in the study were aware that their participation was voluntary. The researcher informed the participants that they were free to withdraw from the study without any harmful consequences. The researcher guaranteed the respondents that their identities will remain confidential. The researcher informed the participants about the nature and the purposes of the study before gathering data so as to help them decide if they wanted to participate or not.

3.9 Validity and reliability

Validity and reliability was ensured by conducting a pilot study in order to test the interview guide and make corrections that were necessary. A pilot study is a small preliminary study carried out before the main research in order to check the feasibility or to improve the instrument (Campbell et al 2000). The interview guides were pre-tested with 2 interviews with some workers of the municipality and 2 interviews with the residents, these were not used in the main study. However no corrections were made.

3.10 Summary

This chapter provided a detailed description of how the study was carried out by the researcher, the research design which was used, the methodology, the instruments used in the research and the steps taken to get permission from the respondents. The chapter also covered data presentation and analysis procedures and ethical issues were by the researcher informed the participants about confidentiality, voluntary participation and disclosure.
CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the presentation of data that was gathered through interviews with a selected number of council officials and residents of Marondera. Data analysis was conducted through the use of themes that emerged from the information that was gathered in the field, tables’ graphs and pie charts were also used to present demographic data. Findings from the research are also discussed whereby the researcher was linking results from the field and the literature that was reviewed and the chapter was concluded by the chapter summary.

4.2 Data presentation

4.2.1 Response rate for council officials

Figure 4.2.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meetings planned</th>
<th>Meetings held</th>
<th>Response rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The response rate was 100% hence this justifies the use of the findings obtained to make recommendations.

4.2.2 Demographic data on council officials

Figure 4.2.2
Source: primary data

Chart 4.2.2 shows that 90% of the participants were male, this came to being because men hold positions of power which were relevant to the study and women hold less influential positions and job titles like secretaries and cleaners. Only one woman has an influential position at the council.

4.2.3 Employment period

Figure 4.2.3

Source: primary data
The results show that most of the participants had more than 10 years’ work experience and have in-depth knowledge about their organisation thereby justifying the sampling technique that was used by the researcher. All the participants had more than 4 years working experience and this was beneficial to the research contributing to quality responses.

4.2.4 Factors hindering quality service delivery

The results from the interviews indicate that 60% of the participants agreed that corruption is one of the main factors that affects quality service delivery. All of the participants agreed that lack of funding was heavily crippling the utility’s performance however the reasons were varied. Some blamed the financial status to sanctions arguing that all external credit lines were terminated and that, the government was no longer issuing out grants which used to assist local authorities. 30% of the participants concurred that the revenue collected could not meet the required amount and this affected the budget leading to poor service delivery. 90% of the participants agreed that non-payment of workers was also affecting service delivery in the sense that most of the work that council workers do: street cleaning, garbage collection and repairing burst sewerage pipes is dirty without motivation workers neglect their jobs resulting in raw sewerage flowing in the street and late responses to complaints. Another issue which was common among the respondents was that of politics, the workers are divided according to political parties to such an extent that there are two workers unions as a result the management refused to acknowledge all of them as a result salary negotiations keep getting postponed. Dilapidated infrastructure is also affecting the quality of service delivery, one participant said that:

“ infrastructure that is used at the water treatment plants was built in 1972 based on technology from the 1930s. The water works are now old but they are serving an excess
of 100 000 people. 30% of the water is lost through leakages due to aged infrastructure. The pipes are clogged because the pipe networks are old. The water treatment equipment works with electricity as a result it is affected by load shedding as a result the municipality cannot be solely blamed for water problems because another utility is in-charge of electricity.”

Some participants mentioned that theft is also inhibiting the provision of service like street lighting when cables are stolen and sewerage tanks are left exposed when precast iron covers are stolen. These things are very expensive as a result some of them are not replaced due to financial strains. Disruption of services due to government programs like rallies was identified as one of that factors contributing to poor service delivery. Some of the participants identified lack of skilled labour as one of the factors affecting quality service delivery, One of the participants said that: “most of the workers are not educated they just have work experience”.

Ministerial directives was another factor which 40% of the participants agreed to as hindering quality service delivery. One of the participants said:

“the minister gave a directive to all local authorities to erase all the debts that were owed by the residents and the council lost more than 6 million US dollars and that money was never paid and this crippled the budget because there were loans which wanted to be paid, accounts which wanted to be settled and salaries.”

Hence this shows that ministerial directives left the council 6 million short and most of the residents are no- longer paying their bills waiting for the minister to erase them when the next election comes and this affects the revenue base for the council.
4.2.5 Effects of poor service delivery on human security

One of the questions that this research seeks to answer is to find see how poor service delivery affects human security. 40% of the participants concurred that the refuse disposal system was not up to standard. One of the participants stated that:

“There is lack of proper refuse disposal system, we only have a dump site although it is located far away from residential areas. The garbage is not sorted and it produces methane gas which causes veld fires as a result every week the fire department deal with fires at the dump site. There is pollution of ground water due to improper disposal of refuse.”

Pollution is a threat to environmental security which is one of the components of human security according to the 1994 definition of human security by the UNDP. One of the participants mentioned that:

“Bins are not always available and residents end up dumping and using back yard pits. These places become breeding grounds for rodents resulting in diseases like typhoid”

Health security according to the 1994 definition of human security is threatened by injury and disease. One of the participants noted that:

“Poor road networks can cause damage to vehicles and the people that drive them. Roads are in a bad state and this has seen an increase in road accidents, we are responsible for road maintenance but financial strains have made it impossible.”

4.2.6 Factors influencing urban poverty

90% of the participants correspond that unemployment is contributing the most to urban poverty in Marondera. Rural to urban migration was one of the factors that was identified by the respondents as a major factor influencing urban poverty. 30% of the respondents coincided that HIV/AIDs was one of the factors influencing urban poverty.
One of the respondents said: “when the bread winners in the family usually the father or mother dies of HIV the children are left in abject poverty and even in circumstances when the responsibilities are transferred to the immediate family economic hardships are everywhere the threat of poverty will be looming in the shadows.”

Some of the respondents indicated that poor investment is one of the factors influencing urban poverty.

4.2.7 Impact of poverty on council

80% of the respondents agreed that unpaid bills are increasing due to poverty. Some of the participants stated that: “illegal structures in the central business district are appearing at an alarming rate because desperate people are trying to earn a living. Street kids are now appearing because of hunger and starvation.”

Some of the participants agreed that due to factors which are poverty driven like rural to urban migration there is pressure on resources and infrastructure. One of the respondents noted that: “Unskilled rural migrants with no plan of survival end up living with relatives after failing to secure jobs putting pressure on resources and there is shortage of housing.”

One of the Participants noted that: “Poverty results in non-payment of bills which leads to non-payment of salaries. We fail to meet the budget receiving less than 30% of the revenue due to poverty”

4.2.8 Response rate for residents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Planned meetings</th>
<th>Meetings held</th>
<th>Response rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.9 Demographic data on residents

Figure 4.2.9

Source: primary data

4.2.10 Term of residence

Source: primary data

Most of the respondents have lived in Marondera for more than 10 years and are well aware of the service delivery patterns of Marondera municipality.
4.2.11 Employment status

Figure 4.2.11

![Employment sector chart]

Source: primary data

Figure 4.2.11 shows that most of the respondents were employed in the informal sector, their income is unstable as a result this might affect their ability to pay bills and rentals.

4.2.12 Availability of water

Figure 4.2.12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residential area</th>
<th>Hours water is available per day</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Winston park</td>
<td>3 hrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morning side</td>
<td>3hrs(evening)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cherima</td>
<td>3-4 hrs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: primary data

Figure 4.2.12 shows that in all 3 residential areas water is usually available for three hours and in some cases in the evening. Some of the respondents were arguing that
“Water is only available in the evening before or after midnight and one is forced to
wake up to fetch water despite the dangers posed, you never know what is lurking the
dark.”

4.2.13 Effects of poverty on human security

60% of the respondents concurred that poverty caused an increase in crime rate. Some
respondents argued that poverty leads to conflicts, when resources are scarce like food
people tend to compete for food. 30% of the respondents agreed that prostitution has
increased due to poverty and this threatens health security and puts people at risk of
contracting HIV/ AIDs. Poverty leads to unhealthy living standards. One of the
participants noted that:

“6 people end up sharing one room in order to accommodate relatives who came from
the village to look for employment. Stress, malnutrition that is people cannot afford
healthy meals and death either due to HIV/AIDS or other diseases are some of the factors
that come to being due to poverty.”

4.2.14 Effects of poor service delivery on people’s lives

Most of the respondents concurred that lack of street lights promoted crime and that the
number of people who have been robbed during the night has increased and poor
lighting facilitates this kind of behaviour. Some of the respondents stressed that:

“The water situation has prompted us to seek alternative sources of water and this has
proved to be expensive drilling a well costs about US$400 at the same time paying
municipal bills this strains their budget leading to people living in poverty struggling
to get their next meal.”

60% of the participants coincided that bad roads are contributing a lot to the increase in
road accidents. One of the participants said:
“The roads have not been repaired in all the years I have stayed in Marondera considering the fact that I was born in this town that leaves a lot to be desired. It is very hard to distinguish between a tarred road and a dust road, accidents have increased and this can be attributed to the poor state of the roads. Most of the drivers involved in these accidents stated that they could not see on-coming traffic due to dust.”

60% of the respondents agreed that failure to collect refuse has led to refuse dumping in street corners and in the bushes. Some of the residents said:

“The council leaves us with a limited number of choices its either we burn the rubbish, dump it or dig back yard pits. Children end up playing with harmful materials like sanitary pads and condoms and this puts them at risk of contracting diseases.”

Figure 4.2.14 ) Backyard pit in Morning side

Source: field photograph

4.3 Discussion of the findings

It has been deduced from the findings that both the residents and council officials agree that the services that are being provided by Marondera Municipality are far from satisfactory. Council officials give their own reasons why they fail to provide quality services to the community of Marondera and in some cases when a utility has problems
like the ones that Marondera municipality has it is very difficult to reach customer satisfaction. These findings are linked to the research by Hove (2013) where limited alternatives cripple organisational performance. The water situation will not change as long as the council continues to use the treatment plant that was built in 1972 at the same time money is needed for such a change to occur. The findings managed to answer the question on the factors hindering quality service delivery by Marondera Municipality.

The data that was obtained shows that urban poverty affects the operations of council. Residents were failing to pay rates because of poverty, squatters and illegal settlements increased because of the same issue. Council failed to pay its workers because the revenue collected could not meet the required targets. Rural to urban migration also contributed to the many problems affecting council by putting pressure on resources and increased the number of people who depended on the services provided by the council. A study by Mercado et al in (2007) which stressed how rapid urbanisation and globalisation is one of the major drivers of poverty is in line with the findings from this research.

The findings from this research shows that poor service delivery impacts negatively on human security. Poor service delivery by the municipality of Marondera left the residents vulnerable to diseases, accidents and other life threatening issues. Pollution which resulted from uncollected and improper disposal of refuse by council is one of the factors that cause climate change. Climate change is a threat to human security and sustainable development as it affects rainfall patterns and way of life of thousands of people and this is linked to a study carried out by the UN (UN Habitat Report 2006) which states that refuse collection in third world countries is erratic and that most of the refuse is left uncollected especially in high density areas.
4.4 Summary.

This chapter focused on the presentation and analysis of data that was collected in the field. Thematic analysis, pie charts, picture, tables and graphs were all used in a bid to simplify the findings in this research. The study managed to address the objectives in this research and answer the research questions posed earlier chapters in the research. The next chapter will focus mainly on the summary conclusions and recommendations.
CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction
This chapter gives a summary of the whole research that is; findings from the study, the methodology that was used to obtain data, theory and influences and the limitations. Recommendations and suggestions needed for further study shall also be a part of this chapter and the chapter will be concluded by the chapter summary.

5.2 Summary
The research analysed the challenges facing urban councils in Zimbabwe. The aim of the research was to analyse the challenges facing Marondera Municipality in service delivery and its impact on human security. The purpose of the present study was to (1) To examine the factors hindering quality service delivery by Marondera Municipality. (2) To analyse the nature of service delivery in Marondera. (3) To analyse the factors influencing urban poverty in Marondera. (4) Analyse the nexus between rapid urbanisation and waste management. The sample consisted of 19 participants (10 council officials and 9 residents) who were selected using purposive sampling. Information was gathered using face to face interviews.

Findings from the study indicated that unemployment, HIV/AIDS, poor investments and rapid urbanisation were some of the factors influencing urban poverty in Marondera. Findings from the study also indicated how these factors affect the council’s ability to provide quality services. Results from the study also indicated that corruption, non-
payment of workers, dilapidated infrastructure, theft, disruption of services by government programs, ministerial directives, debts, lack of finances, lack of skilled labour and poverty are the factors that hindered quality service delivery by Marondera Municipality.

Findings from the study showed that poor service delivery causes pollution which leads to climate change, diseases, deaths resulting from accidents and other diseases, crime and refuse dumping and this creates human insecurities and threatens sustainable development and peace.

5.3 Conclusion

The purpose of this section is to answer the research questions that were raised in chapter 1 using the results of the research indicated in chapter 4.

Service delivery by Marondera Municipality is affected by corruption, non-payment of workers, dilapidated infrastructure, theft, disruption of services by government programs, ministerial directives, debts, lack of finances, lack of skilled labour and poverty.

Urban poverty in Marondera is caused by unemployment, HIV/AIDS, poor investments and rapid urbanisation. Poor service delivery causes pollution which leads to climate change, diseases, deaths resulting from accidents and other diseases, crime which leads to fear and instability and refuse dumping which leads to environmental insecurity all these are threats to the security of the individual.

These results concur with the UNDP (1994) Human Development Report which proposes seven aspects of human security: economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community and political security. Economic security threatened by poverty and results from the study shows that poverty affects the ability of the council to provide
quality services. In turn poor service delivery affects health security which is threatened by diseases.

The results from the study confirm the assumption that unemployment is contributing a lot to urban poverty. The results also dispute the assumption that service delivery was going to improve.

5.4 Recommendations

In light to all the issues that have been analysed in this research the researcher makes the following recommendations:

- The utility should make efforts rehabilitate all dilapidated water infrastructure and install leak detectors so as to avoid water loss.
- The utility should make efforts to purchase a new refuse truck so as to have a solution to the refuse collection crisis.
- Residents should be given incentives for reporting theft of precast iron covers and cables.
- Marondera municipality should consider partnering with stakeholders in the community and inviting the residents to the budget hearing.
- Marondera Municipality must improve the up keep of the town so as to attract investors in order to revive the dying industry.
- The utility must adopt mechanisms to dispose refuse that are acceptable under environmental laws in Zimbabwe.
- The utility must come up with projects to help alleviate their financial situation like introducing pre-paid parking disks in the CBD.
- The council should strengthen recruitment processes so that they employ qualified people and use of Result Based Management (RBM).
5.5 Suggestions for further study

This research concentrated on a single case study and its main focus was on human security. Possible future research may include use of multiple case studies and investigations on how poor service delivery damages the environment and affects sustainable development. There is need for further study on other factors that have a bearing on service delivery.

5.6 Summary

This chapter summarised the contents of the entire research the aim, objectives, sampling technique and the research findings. Recommendations and suggestions for further study were also part and parcel of this research.
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APPENDIX I

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR ACADEMIC RESEARCH ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN URBAN COUNCILS.

My name is Tabeth Chinove. I am a 3rd year student at Bindura University of Science Education. I am undertaking a research titled: Challenges facing urban councils in Zimbabwe. A case study of Marondera Municipality from 2009-2013.

This is in partial fulfilment of my studies. Your co-operation on the subject is greatly welcome and all responses will be treated in their extreme confidentiality they deserve and will only be used for academic purposes. Thank you in advance for your assistance.

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR RESIDENTS

1. GENDER

   Male □    Female □

2. Age category of respondents

3. How long have you been a resident of Marondera?

4. Which location do you stay in Marondera?

5. What is the tenure status of your household?

6. How many people usually live in this household?

7. Employment status of respondent

8. How would you describe the quality of the services provided by the council?

9. If you are not satisfied with the quality of services provided what do you think should be done by key stakeholders, residents, town council, civil society organisations and the private sector to improve the services offered?
10. For how many hours do you have water per day?

11. How frequent does the municipality collect refuse?

12. How many meals do you eat per day?

13. Are you aware of urban poverty?

14. What is contributing the most to urban poverty?

15. To what extent does poverty affect people’s lives?

16. What are the effects of poor service delivery on your lives (human security)?

THE END

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION
APPENDIX II

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR ACADEMIC RESEARCH ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN URBAN COUNCILS.

My name is Tabeth Chinove. I am a 3rd year student at Bindura University of Science Education. I am undertaking a research titled: challenges facing urban councils in Zimbabwe. A case study of Marondera Municipality from 2009-2013

This is in partial fulfilment of my studies. Your co-operation on the subject is greatly welcome and all responses will be treated in their extreme confidentiality they deserve and will only be used for academic purposes. Thank you in advance for your assistance.

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR MARONDERA COUNCIL OFFICIALS

1. GENDER

   Male   Female

2. Age category of respondents

3. When did you join Municipality of Marondera?

4. What is your current position in the Municipality?

5. What is the council’s total labour force?

6. What are the factors hindering quality service delivery by Marondera municipality?

7. What suitable strategies can be adopted to enhance service delivery?

8. What are the effects of poor service delivery on human security (people’s lives)?

9. Are you aware of urban poverty?
10. What is contributing the most to urban poverty?

11. What is the impact of urban poverty on your organisation?

12. To what extent does urban poverty affect the revenue base of your organisation?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION