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FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

POLITICS AND PUBLIC MANAGEMENT DEPARTMENT

POVERTY ALLEVIATION THROUGH LAND REFORM: THE CASE OF CENTRAL
ESTATE RESETTLEMENT IN CHIRUMHANZU 2004-2014.

BY

NIRVANA ZVANDIKONA (R122556X)

A Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for BSc in Politics and Public
Management Degree at Midlands State University.

Zvishavane

September 2015

SUPERVISED BY Mrs. F. Mutasa



MIDLANDS STATE UNIVERSITY

Politics and Public Management Department

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NAME OF AUTHOR: NIRVANA ZVANDIKONA REG # (R122556X)

TITLE OF THE DISSERTATION: *POVERTY ALLEVIATION THROUGH LAND REFORM:
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*POVERTY ALLEVIATION THROUGH LAND REFORM: THE CASE OF CENTRAL ESTATE
RESSETTLEMENT IN CHIRUMHANZU 2004-2014*

Submitted by: NIRVANA ZVANDIKONA (R122556X) in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the Bachelor of Social Sciences Honours Degree in Politics and Public Management.

SUPERVISOR: MRS. F. MUTASA

Signed _____ Date _____

CHAIRPERSON: PROFESSOR P. CHIGORA

Signed _____ Date _____

Declarations

I, Nirvana Zvandikona of registration R122556X declare that this is my original research project and has not been presented to any university before. All sources are properly cited. It is being submitted in partial completion of the requirements for the BSc Honours Degree in Politics and Public Management, in the faculty of Social Sciences at Midlands State University.

Signed by

.....

Date

.....

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate my work to the Almighty God who is the giver of all wisdom and understanding.

Also to my grandmother Mrs. Zvandikona.

Abstract

This study was aimed at finding out whether land resettlement indeed achieved poverty eradication, using the case of Central Estate Resettlement in Chirumhanzu, to ascertain whether or not resettled farmers in Central Estate in Chirumhanzu have managed to eradicate poverty through accessing land and produce cash crops. A couple of literature on sustainable livelihoods, including relevant model, was reviewed focusing on aspects such as community assets, adaptive strategies and technologies contributing to livelihood systems, and the analysis of cross-sectorial policies and investment requirements to enhance livelihoods. A sample of 60 respondents were randomly selected, comprising respondents from village households who were given questionnaires to complete. Harvests were generally low with only 12 respondents (20%) indicated that they attain an average of the 900 kg of cotton harvest per hectare in the three years, and that only 5 respondent households (8.3%) indicated that they had more than 5 herd of cattle. One of the main conclusion was that agricultural inputs are not readily available and affordable to FTLRP beneficiaries and this constrains farmer's potential to achieve huge harvest due to inadequate availability of inputs. Also other environmental factors like low rainfalls, droughts and land degradation were minimizing farmers' potential to gain more mileage in alleviating poverty through land, hence the need to adopt more scientific methods to farming. However, this would need more capital and with the prevailing strained economic environment in Zimbabwe, it would take more time to realize poverty eradication in its whole. Among other things, the study recommended that the government should urgently address crop and livestock productivity through enacting policies that focus on sustainable availability and accessibility of inputs to resettled farmers. However, it is noteworthy that poverty alleviation through land is very crucial as it is the most means of production provides a key to sustainable livelihoods in Zimbabwe, if implementation is effective, efficient, accountable and transparent. On a general note upon reflection of Zimbabwe's history whereby the indigenous people were subjugated by white minority, government's initiative to empower its citizens through land is a progressive step to realize poverty reduction as it assists the citizens to be self-dependent and succumb social and economic hardships.

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List of Acronyms

AGRIBANK.....	Agricultural Bank of Zimbabwe
AGRITEX.....	Department of Agricultural Technical and Extension Services
AREX.....	Department of Agriculture and Rural Extension
CA.....	Constitutional Amendment
CAADP.....	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Program
DFID.....	International Institute for Sustainable Development
ESAP.....	Economic Structural Adjustment Programme
FTLRP.....	Fast Track Land Reform Programme
GMB.....	Grain Marketing Board
Goz.....	Government of Zimbabwe
HDI.....	Human Development Index
IISD.....	International Institute for Sustainable Development
IRB.....	Institutional Review Boards
LAA.....	Land Acquisition Act
LP.....	Land Policy
LRP.....	Land Reform Programme

LSCF..... Large Scale Commercial Farming
LSCF..... Large Scale Commercial Farming
MLR.....Ministry of Lands and Resettlement
NHDR..... National Human Development Report
SA.....Southern Africa
SA.....South Africa
SLA.....Sustainable Livelihoods Approach
SLF.....Sustainable Livelihoods Framework
SSA.....Sub-Saharan Africa
UN.....United Nations

1 CHAPTER ONE- INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides background information related to land resettlement in Zimbabwe as a poverty alleviation strategy. The case study of Central Estate Resettlement in Chirumhanzu was used as the case study. The topics covered in this chapter include background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, main research question, sub research questions and justification of the study. Other sub-topics covered include significance of the study, delimitations, and limitations of the study, research design, and data gathering methods, ethics and structure of the study.

1.2 BACKGROUND

According to a National Human Development Report (Zimbabwe NHDR, 1999), 60 per cent of Zimbabwe's population was earning less than US\$1 a day, 80 per cent of whom live in the rural areas, while 25% were unable to meet basic needs, mainly as a result of the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP). Due to frequent droughts, between 1.5 and 5 million people require food relief every 3 to 5 years. Zimbabwe ranks 130th on the Human Development Index. Rural poverty was exacerbated by reduced remittances to the rural areas from urban relatives, due to retrenchment of urban workers. Still categorised as a medium-income country, Zimbabwe is among 16 Sub-Saharan African countries that experienced reversals in human development since 1990 (Economist Intelligence Unit, 3rd quarter 1999). Poverty is predominantly rural given that 70% of Zimbabwe's population resides there (CSO, 2002).

Rural livelihoods are mainly agricultural and depend on access to land and related resources for example water and woodlands, among others. About 65% of the population lives in "communal areas", as a differentiated peasantry, facing the second highest poverty levels surpassed only by rural farm labourers (comprising 12% of the population) until 2000. This class of citizens depended heavily on smaller scale food crop cultivation in both communal and commercial areas, given their low wages and insecure land rights. But, a large part of the urban population mostly with incomes below the poverty datum line, straddles the rural-urban divide, and also depends on land for their livelihoods within the rural, peri-urban and urban areas. Rural-urban income and food transfers,

define livelihoods strategies intended to secure precarious social conditions. Therefore, over 80% of Zimbabwe's rural and urban populations, have continued since 1980 to depend on farming and therefore access to increasingly overcrowded land in communal areas, given the stagnation and decline of employment in the secondary and tertiary sectors, and the slow land redistribution process.

Small farming incomes remained low as a result of low productivity and poor returns to sold outputs, reflecting a long legacy of biased allocations of economic incentives towards large farmers. Land policies since 1980 had failed to redress the need among the poor for the effective control of productive assets, such as fertile land and related access to public irrigation water infrastructures, and of natural resources for consumptive and productive use.

At independence in 1980, whites who constituted 3% of the population controlled 51% of the country's farming land (44% of Zimbabwe's total land area), with about 75% of prime agricultural land under the Large Scale Commercial Farming (LSCF) sector (Weiner et al 1985) and hence inaccessible to black majority (Marongwe et al 2008). On the other hand, the majority of the indigenous Zimbabweans survived on 16.4 million hectares of leased and overcrowded communal lands (Government of Zimbabwe, 2001). As a result of this historical background, land reform programme was accepted by both the government and landless peasants as an effective strategy to alleviate poverty and improve the livelihoods of the less marginalized citizens.

The major drive of land reform in Zimbabwe was de-congestion of the overcrowded rural areas, improving the landless access to fertile land in regions with favourable rainfall patterns (GoZ, 2001). As noted above, decongestion of the communal lands and poverty alleviation were the main objectives of land reform programme. However, there were also political reasons for land reform. Moyo (2004), argued that there were three main purposes of land reform, the social, economic and political reasons. He argued that land reform was socially necessary to improve social welfare of the landless, and economic version was of the view that land reform would produce a vibrant small commercial farmers, while maintaining large commercial farmers. Lastly, he argued that land reform was necessary politically to challenge the political power of the white minority and transform the entire agrarian structure in line with the objectives of the liberation struggle (Moyo, 2004). The key right holder were recognized as the landless or those with inadequate land to sustain

themselves as well as their dependents, less privileged, and returning refugees (Government of Zimbabwe, 1985: 23-24). Thus, as Chaguta (2007:5), argued “land reform in Zimbabwe since 1980 was informed by a Sustainable Livelihoods Approach and people-centred poverty reduction strategy, which was characterized by a multi-dimensional understanding of people’s lives, and focused on empowerment of the marginalized, reduction of poverty and promotion of the security of the poor’s livelihoods”.

Land allocation in Zimbabwe has gone through three stages with distinct approaches. During the decade 1980-1990, the willing-buyer-willing-seller method was used and was market based land acquisition model. Under the second phase (1990 to 2000), facilitated by legislation such as the Land Acquisition Act of 1992, the government appropriated land compulsorily. The third and last phase which began in 2000, legislation such as Constitutional Amendments Number 16 and Number 17, the landless occupied farms on their own, and government had no option except to condone the process which has become known as the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (Chaguta 2007). As Chitsinde (2003) put it, an initial target for land distribution set in 1980 was to resettle about 18,000 families on 1.5 million hectares of land over a five-year period, which was revised in 1982 to 162,000 families on 9 million hectares, and through the new Land Policy of 1990 the hectare was further revised to 8.3 million hectares, maintaining the same target population (Chitsinde 2003). These set targets were in fact missed by government's willing-buyer-willing-seller land distribution model. Chitsinde (2003:4), further observed that throughout the different phases of land distribution, the concept of sustainable livelihoods continued to inform the objectives of land distribution. He stressed that among others, the objectives included to “...extend and improve the base of productive agriculture in the peasant farming sector, ...and also to improve the standard of living of the largest and poorest sector of the population of Zimbabwe” (Chitsinde 2003: 5). Although other authors do not mention livelihoods, there seems to be general agreement that land reform would improve the standards of living. Zihkali (2010:1), quoting Roy (2007), argued that land reform programmes that redistribute land from landowners to the landless are often used to achieve egalitarian, political and economic objectives (Ghatak and Roy 2007).

In addition, it is vital to also note that various pieces of legislation were put in place before FTLRP, to facilitate land distribution in Zimbabwe. These include, the Land Acquisition Act (1985), and the 1990 Constitution of Zimbabwe Amendment Act, the 1992 a new Land Acquisition Act; and

the Constitutional Amendments Number 16 and Number 17 of 2005 (GoZ, 2001). The main reason for these numerous pieces of legislation and amendments to the constitution was to improve the amount of land to be given up for resettlement. Eventually, the Government of Zimbabwe, realized that the willing-buyer-willing-seller method was slow and had to abandon it together with the need to pay compensation for the acquired land except for infrastructural improvements. In fact FTLRP came about as a result of the disgruntlement by the landless people about the sluggish nature of the previous methods of land distribution (GoZ, 2001). However, it is important to realize that although the land distribution occurred in various phases, the central objective remained that of broadening and enhancing the base of productive agriculture as well as to improve the general standard of living of the erstwhile marginalized and landless citizens.

In 2000, FTLRP was unrolled in earnest, and a lot of landless villagers were given access to land, including those in Baru Section, near Mvuma Resettlement area in Chirumhanzu District, which comprise approximately 600 households. Sukuma (2011), argues that across the country, the formal land re-allocation since 2000 has resulted in the transfer of land to nearly 170,000 households by 2011. He observed that two main 'models' of resettlement have been at the centre of the process of land reform in Zimbabwe. Firstly, the small holder production model, referred to as the A1 scheme or the villagized model with smaller plots are given to beneficiaries. Secondly, the other model comprises self-contained farms which focuses on commercial production activities and have bigger plots. The FTLRP has had diverse and debatable consequences, especially on beneficiaries' livelihoods, and as a result there are questions on what is its actual implications. As Sukume et al (2011) put it, most media coverage and analysts insist that agricultural production after land reform almost totally collapsed, that food insecurity has become rampant, that rural economies are in decline, and also that farm labour has been displaced. According to Mwando (2013), land seizures under the FTLRP led to a rapid decline in farming productivity, since the new farmers have little or no expertise in farming, and that most of them do not stay at the plots, they are "cell phone farmers". However, as Sukume et al (2011 argued, the truth is much more complex.

From the background information given above, it is apparent that Zimbabwe land redistribution policy was envisioned not only as changing racial composition of access to land, landholding sizes, land use norms (exports versus food) and of tenure systems, but also as a poverty eradication strategy. Poverty benefits tended to be defined in general terms of more equitable land and natural

resources ownership and deracialised “commercial” farming. However, there has not been much of evaluating the resettlement areas to find out whether poverty eradication was actually achieved. Thus, this study, using the Central Estate Resettlement in Chirumhanzu seeks to find out whether poverty eradication was achieved.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

According to a National Human Development Report (Zimbabwe NHDR, 1999) 60 per cent of Zimbabwe’s population was earning less than US\$1 a day, 80 per cent of whom live in the rural areas, while 25% were unable to meet basic needs, mainly as a result of the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP). To address this poverty situation, the government of Zimbabwe unrolled the land reform since 1980, which started as willing-buyer-willing-seller, and ended as fast track land reform in 2000. This study is aimed at finding out whether land resettlement indeed achieved poverty eradication, using the case of Central Estate Resettlement in Chirumhanzu.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

- To establish the land sizes given to land reform beneficiaries in Central Estates in Chirumhanzu.
- To determine the main farming activities in the resettlement areas of Central Estate in Chirumhanzu.
- To establish the livelihoods status or poverty level of Central Estate resettled farmers in Chirumhanzu

1.5 MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION

The study was guided by the following research question:

- ❖ To what extent has accessing land through land reform or fast track land reform in Zimbabwe has assisted the beneficiaries in reducing or addressing poverty and attaining sustainable livelihoods.

1.6 SUB RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- ❖ Did the land beneficiaries get adequate pieces of land.
- ❖ How knowledgeable are the resettled farmers in the modern methods of farming.
- ❖ Can the land reform beneficiaries afford to acquire the required inputs on their own or are there any government sponsored programmes to assist farmers to get inputs.
- ❖ What level of agricultural productivity has the farmers attained in the past ten years in the areas of crop and livestock production.
- ❖ What revenue can the farmers actually or potentially generate.
- ❖ Have the farmers attained food security at household level.
- ❖ How vulnerable are the farmers to the effects of droughts, floods and changes in prices of cash crops, among others.
- ❖ Have the farmers gained income or revenue to enable them to access basic needs such as health, education and food security.

1.7 JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

The research is very much justified because of the following reasons:

Firstly, there is raging debate and disagreement on whether resettlement programme assisted or improved people's livelihoods and address poverty in Zimbabwe. One opinion is that resettlement areas increased poverty, while there are others of the view that, through land reform beneficiaries have improved their revenue generations, have attained food security at households level and their livelihoods are sustainable. This study sought to address lack of consensus by finding out the poverty status of resettled farmers in Chirumanzu.

Secondly, year in and out resettled farmers across Zimbabwe have been failing to access agricultural inputs and their asset base or possession has been viewed as marginal.

Through this study it would be discovered how poor and marginalised are the resettled farmers in terms of possession of key or critical assets such as livestock, and farm implements which defines the poverty status of farmers.

Thirdly, access to land has been viewed as a means to escape poverty. The study sought to confirm or reject this conventional opinion using the case study of Chirumanzu resettled farmers in Zimbabwe.

Lastly, resettlement farmers in Zimbabwe are still generally being affected by a number of challenges such as droughts, high prices of inputs, lack of farming knowledge, factors which have been said or sighted as causing poverty among resettlement dwellers. The study is justified as it will assist in empirically finding out the actual situation on the ground in Chirumanzu Midlands Province in Zimbabwe.

1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

First and foremost, the research will enable the researcher to partially fulfill the requirements for the Honors Degree in Politics and Public Management. Furthermore, the researcher will enhance and sharpen her research skills.

Secondly, the study will add to a body of knowledge on how to address poverty through accessing land and produce crops to generate revenue to improve the livelihoods of the people.

Thirdly, institutions such as Ministry of Agriculture, Department of Agriculture and Rural Extension, and civil society organizations will benefit from enhancing their understanding of challenges affecting farmers in the resettlement areas. Farmers would also find the study vital as it would inform them on challenges and opportunities to reduce poverty.

1.9 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The research will cover resettlement areas that stretch from Mvuma town to Lalapanzi comprising of the following villages 2,5,8,17,23,45 47,48,50 and 54, sampled from the 60 villages in the area.

The resettlement area concentrate on maize production and cattle husbandry and has an

approximate population of 15 000 and stretches for approximately 40km up-to Hwahwa Prison.

The study will be confined to finding out the level of poverty and state of vulnerability faced by the resettled farmers. Thus, the research would interrogate the livelihoods attained by land reform beneficiaries in the areas of the assets that they acquired, their knowledge and capability of agriculture and their livelihood being affected by incidences such as droughts and shock of prices of their products as well as their accessibility to inputs.

The study is concerned about how they have reduced poverty and to what extent, since they were resettled ten years ago.

1.10 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are a number of limitations that affect the study:

The student had no adequate time to travel to Mvuma since she was based in Zvishavane, so that would impact on data gathering from residents of the resettled areas.

The student is not employed, so had challenges of raising travelling costs, expenses yet she was supposed to go to Mvuma on several occasions to gather data.

Some respondents were not willing and eager to honestly respond and give adequate information on constraints facing their farming activities and their state of poverty.

Since land reform has been viewed as a political event in Zimbabwe, some respondents were reserved, this would negatively limit the data and information the researcher would get from respondents.

To address some of the above mentioned limitations, the researcher made travelling arrangements with her lecturers and got financial assistance from her parents and well-wishers to cover travelling costs. The various categories of respondents also ensured that the researcher had balanced data.

1.11 RESEARCH DESIGN

Giddens (1993), defines research design as a structure of research. He says that, research design provides the format that gives shape to the research project together. It provides the whole structure of the research study. Some authors differentiate research methods from research methodology. Research methods are the real methods of investigation used to study the research problem and research study objectives. Crawford (1995), differentiates three different research designs that is exploratory research; descriptive research; and causal research. This study used the case study research design.

1.12 THE CASE STUDY RESEARCH METHOD

In this research study, the case study research design was used, since it is found most suitable because it “...provides tools for researchers to study complex phenomena within their contexts” (Baxter, et al 2008). Baxter et al (2008), define qualitative case study as “...an approach to research that facilitates exploration of a phenomenon within its context using a variety of data sources”. Their argument is that this research approach ensures that the issue that is being researched on or studied, will be explored through a variety of lenses, thereby allowing for multiple facets of the phenomenon to be fully revealed and understood by the researcher. According to Yin (2003), a Case Study Design should be considered when the focus of the study is to answer “how” and “why” question and also when the researcher wants to cover contextual conditions that he or she believes are relevant to the phenomenon under study, and also when the boundaries are not clear between the phenomenon and context. In this study, the question was whether or not resettled farmers in Central Estate in Chirumhanzu have managed to eradicate poverty through accessing land and producing cash crops.

1.13 ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF CASE STUDY RESEARCH DESIGN

Case Study Research Design is widely used for data gathering and collection, but it has also its own weaknesses and strengths as discussed below.

1.13.1 ADVANTAGES

- Case studies allow a lot of detail to be collected that would not normally be easily obtained by other research designs. The data collected is normally a lot richer and of greater depth than can be found through other experimental designs (<http://psud43.wordpress.com>: 22 August 2015).
- Provides context-dependent and practical knowledge as opposed to context-independent and theoretical knowledge which social science has difficulty with.
- Within the Case Study, scientific experiments can be conducted.
- Case studies can help experimenters adapt ideas and produce novel hypotheses which can be used for later testing (<http://psud43.wordpress.com>: 22 August 2015).

1.13.2 DISADVANTAGES

- The data collected using the Case Study methodology cannot necessarily be generalized to the wider population and this leads to data being collected over longitudinal case studies not always being relevant or particularly useful.

- Some case studies are not scientific.
- There is also the problem of case studies being open to bias since usually one experimenter collects the data, and this can negatively influence results more than in other designs.
- When using case study it is difficult to draw a definite cause-and-effect.

1.14 SAMPLE OF PARTICIPANTS

According to Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:12), a population is the entire set of objects and events or group of people, which is the object of the research and about which the researcher wants to determine some characteristics. Target Population is the population that is being studied or researched upon (Macionis, 1989: 43). The researcher will take a sample of 60 participants from different villages in Central Estate resettlement in Chirumhanzu.

1.15 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

In this study a sample of 60 respondents were randomly selected, that is from village households, and 5 from Grain Marketing Board. Firstly, 20 households from the following villages, namely village number 2, 5, 8, 17, 23, 45, 47, 48, 50, and village number 54, were selected at random. From each village two (2) villages were selected at random. In turn, from each household only two (2) adult respondents were selected at random to complete the questionnaires given. 10 questionnaires were given to AGRITEX officials, 5 questionnaires to Care International, and 5 to GMB, and the respondents were selected at random. Names of officials were written on pieces of paper and put in a box and they were mixed thoroughly. Then names of those selected were picked at random.

Random selection procedure was used to select all the respondents. All villages in Baru Section have numbers. In addition, all households in Baru Section occupy plots with

numbers. The villages were selected first, followed by households, and then lastly, the actual respondents from each household were selected, randomly as well since any willing two adult persons would complete the questionnaire.

The numbers of all the villages were put in a box and mixed, and numbers of 20 villages that were to participate in filling the questionnaires were selected. After that, the numbers of all the households in the selected villages were also written on pieces of paper and again mixed. Then the numbers of the households selected for questionnaires completion were picked at random. At each of the 20 selected households any two adult respondents willing and ready to fill the questionnaires were given questionnaires to complete.

1.16 DATA GATHERING INSTRUMENT: QUESTIONNAIRE

Both primary and secondary data was gathered in this research study. The main data gathering instrument used in this study was the questionnaire. The distribution was done by hand, so as to ensure that the questionnaires get to their respondents .

1.16.1 THE ADVANTAGES OF QUESTIONNAIRES.

- Large amounts of information can be collected from a large number of people in a short period of time and in a relatively cost effective way.
- Gathering data using questionnaires can be carried out by the researcher or by any number of people with limited effect to its validity and reliability.
- The results of the questionnaires can usually be quickly and easily quantified by either a researcher manually, or through the use of a computer software package.
- The data gathered through questionnaires can be analysed more 'scientifically' and objectively, than the data gathered through other forms of instruments.

1.16.2 THE DISADVANTAGES OF QUESTIONNAIRES.

It is argued that data gathered through questionnaires is inadequate especially in seeking to understand some forms of information such as changes of emotions, behaviour, or feelings.

- Phenomenologists argue that state that quantitative research, which usually uses questionnaires to gather data, is simply an artificial creation by the researcher, because questionnaires ask only a limited amount of information without explanation.
- Questionnaires have no way to tell how truthful a respondent is when completing the questionnaire forms.
- It is often argued that respondents may read differently into each question in the questionnaires, and therefore, their responses may be based on their own interpretation of the question.
- The other argument leveled against the use of questionnaires is that there is a level of researcher imposition, meaning that when developing the questionnaire, the researcher makes their own decisions and assumptions as to what is and is not important.

1.16.3 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The researcher will obtain written permissions to submit questionnaires in Mvuma and Lalapanzi from local council authorities. Thereafter the researcher will collect completed questionnaires on a later date.

1.17 DATA PROCESSING AND ANALYSIS

All the data collected from the respondents will be sorted manually. The data will then be tallied, grouped in tables and pie charts. This will enable the researcher to make key findings from the study as well as conclusions and recommendations.

1.18 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

1.18.1 VALIDITY

According to Van Dalen (1979:201), “Validity refers to the ability of an instrument to measure what it claims to measure.” A data-collecting instrument such as the interview guide should be valid. Being valid means capable of generating the information required by the researcher. It is therefore, the researcher's responsibility to check and ensure that the data-collecting instrument is valid before employing it in the research process. In this research, the researcher will employ the semi-closed questionnaire guide, which will be tested through pilot study.

1.18.2 RELIABILITY

Babbie (1975), says reliability refers to the consistency, accuracy or suitability of the results given by a data gathering instrument that has been repeated two or more times with the same population. In this research, the structured interview guide was used to collect the data from the respondents. The researcher finds this type of interview very reliable as a data collecting tool, due to the fact that it gives uniform instructions to all the respondents involved in the research, thereby producing uniformity and consistency in the results from the responses.

1.18.3 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE INTERVIEW GUIDE: PILOT STUDY

A pilot test uses a group of respondents who are part of the intended test population, but will not be part of the sample that will participate in the real data gathering exercise. For this study, a pilot test will be carried out to test the interview guide's validity and reliability as a data gathering instrument. Three (3) interviews will be conducted for the pilot study to test the following components of the interview guide:

- How long it will take to complete the questionnaire?
- Whether the instructions on the questionnaires are clear?
- Which questions will remain unanswered and why?
- Whether any major topics have been omitted?
- Whether the layout of the questionnaire is clear or attractive to the respondents?

This would enable the researcher to revise the interview guide before the main interviews are done.

1.19 ETHICS

The ethical issues in human subjects' research have received increasing attention over the last 50 years. Institutional Review Boards for the Protection of Human Subjects (IRB's) (www.american.edu/irb: 21 August 2015), have been established at most institutions that undertake research with humans. The main ethical issues in human subjects' research that must be considered when designing research include the following:

- The primary concern of the investigator should be the safety of the research participant. This is accomplished by carefully considering the risk or benefit ratio, using all available information to make an appropriate assessment and continually monitoring the research as it proceed.
- The investigator should obtain informed consent from each research participant. This should be obtained in writing.
- The investigator will have to consider how privacy and confidentiality concerns will be approached.

In this research, the researcher will protect the interests of participants as well as their guard against risks associated with their participation in the research, such as being accused of divulging confidential information.

1.20 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter gave an introduction, background to the study undertaken by the researcher which is ‘Poverty alleviation through Land Reform: The Case of Central Resettlement in Chirumhanzu 2004-2014.’ It also covered the following; statement of the problem, research questions, significance of the study, limitations, delimitations of the study, and other topics that will be covered will include research design, sample of participants, research instrument, validity and reliability, pilot study, sample and sampling procedure, and data collection procedure.

1.21 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

The study was presented in four chapters. Chapter 1.0 provided background information on poverty levels in Zimbabwe and land reform as poverty alleviation strategy. The chapter covered topics that include background to the study, statement of the problem, research questions, significance of the study, limitations, delimitations of the study, and other topics that will be covered will include research design, sample of participants, research instrument, validity and reliability, pilot study, sample and sampling procedure, and data collection procedure and summary of chapter. Chapter 2.0 reviews literature, definition of terms related to poverty and land reform poverty alleviation models. Chapter 3.0 presents data gathered, analyse and interpret the findings of the study. The last chapter, Chapter 4.0 presents conclusion and recommendations.

2 CHAPTER 2

2.1 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.2 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews literature related to poverty and vulnerability and how access to land can improve people's livelihoods through the concept of sustainable livelihoods framework. The topics covered include, Definition of Poverty, Poverty and Vulnerability, Sustainable Livelihoods, and Access to Land and Poverty Reduction.

2.3 DEFINITION OF POVERTY

The World Bank (2011), has defined poverty as whether households or individuals have adequate resources or abilities today to meet their requirements or the unfairness in the distribution of income, consumption or other attributes across the population. Poverty has also been defined as a condition where people's basic needs for food, clothing, and shelter are not being met (<http://www.businessdictionary.com>: 5 October 2015). Poverty is generally of two types. First, absolute poverty is synonymous with destitution and occurs when people cannot obtain adequate resources, which experts measure in terms of calories or nutrition to support a minimum level of physical health (<http://www.businessdictionary.com>: 5 October 2015). Second, relative poverty occurs when people do not enjoy a certain minimum level of living standards as determined by a government and as enjoyed by the bulk of the population, but it varies from country to country, sometimes within the same country.

In the case of Zimbabwe, soon after independence, poverty was defined by the concept of dual economy, where urban sector was developed while the rural community was underprivileged, because the majority black people had been deprived of the sources of livelihoods, being the land. Dual economy is still continuing today, although land has been allocated to the blacks. Most of the less privileged land users could and still cannot afford to get their basic needs for their consumption requirements. The income which the majority blacks were and still are generating from their land cannot meet their needs, and income distribution is highly unequal.

2.3.1 POVERTY AND VULNERABILITY

There is a relationship between poverty and the concept of vulnerability. The World Bank (2011), defines vulnerability as the probability or risk today of being in poverty or falling deeper into poverty. Vulnerability is also defined as the probability or risk today of being in poverty or to fall into deeper poverty in the future (<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNA>: 5 October 2015). It is a key dimension of welfare since a risk of large changes in income may constrain households to lower investments in productive assets, when households need to hold some reserves in liquid assets, and in human capital (<http://web.worldbank> 5 October 2015). High risk can also force households to diversify their income sources, perhaps at the cost of lower returns. Vulnerability may influence household behaviour and coping strategies and is thus an important consideration for poverty reduction policies. The fear of bad weather conditions or the fear of being expelled from the land they cultivate can deter households from investing in more risky, and higher productivity crops and affect their capacity to generate income (<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNA>: 5 October 2015). Vulnerability is difficult to measure: anticipated income or consumption changes are important to individuals and households before they occur—and even regardless of whether they occur at all—as well as after they have occurred. The probability of falling into poverty tomorrow is impossible to measure, but one can analyse income and consumption dynamics and variability as proxies for vulnerability. Such analysis could be replicated for specific non-monetary variables likely to fluctuate, for example health status, weight, asset ownership, (<http://web.worldbank.org>: 5 October 2015).

Vulnerability is rampant in Zimbabwe. Although many people in Zimbabwe are either in possession of a piece of land or are employed, the harvests, for instance, that they yield from their pieces of land does not assure them sustainable source of income and livelihoods to meet their basic needs. Changes in prices, fluid and fragile economic macro-fundamentals continue to threaten to throw the majority of people into worse poverty. This is why, as Chaudhuri (2003) argued that poverty is an ex-post measure of a household's well-being or lack thereof, since it shows a current situation of

deprivation, of lacking the resources or capabilities to satisfy current needs. This is to say that adequate food today, for instance, does not imply that there would be enough food tomorrow. Chaudhuri (2003), also defined vulnerability as an ex-ante measure of well-being, reflecting not so much how well off a house-hold currently is, but what its future prospects are. There is always that danger that if sustainable livelihoods are not in place, the poverty condition has potential to exacerbate. This is common within communities which depend on subsistence agriculture in less developed countries.

The difference between poverty and vulnerability is the level of risk. Chaudhuri (2003), views risk as the uncertainty that households face about the future. He argued that this uncertainty stems from multiple sources, which include aspects such as that harvests may fail, food prices may rise, or that the main income earner of the household may become ill or die. Chaudhuri (2003) explained if such risks were absent and the future were certain, then there would be no distinction between what he termed ex-ante vulnerability and ex-post poverty which measures well-being. His argument was that poverty is a stochastic phenomenon, and that today's poor may or may not be necessarily be tomorrow's poor. In fact, those households which are well off today, but which face a high probability of a large adverse shock, may actually experience the shock and become poor tomorrow. As the World Bank (2011:1) put it, insecurity "... is an important component of welfare and can be understood as vulnerability to a decline in well-being". The World Bank postulated that the shock triggering the decline can occur at the micro level (household) due to illness or death, or at community level such as riots, as well as at the national or international level due to disasters. The World Bank (2011), defines the concept of vulnerability as the probability or risk today of being in poverty or to fall into deeper poverty in the future. The concept of vulnerability is a critical dimension of welfare because a high risk of changes in income constrains individuals and households to lower investments in productive assets, forcing households to hold their financial reserves in liquid assets. Vulnerability to a greater extent, influences household coping strategies and thus it is an important factor for consideration for poverty reduction policies. Vulnerability is not the same as poverty, marginalization, or other conceptualisations that identify sections of the populations which are deemed to be disadvantaged, at risk, or in other

ways in need. Poverty is a measure of current status: vulnerability should involve a predictive quality: it is supposedly aware of conceptualising what may happen to an identifiable population under conditions of particular risks and hazards

2.3.2 SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOOD APPROACH

The sustainable livelihoods approach is an integrated development method, which brings individual approaches together to achieve sustainable development. It involves an assessment of community assets, adaptive strategies and technologies contributing to livelihood systems, and the analysis of cross-sectorial policies and investment requirements to enhance livelihoods. The International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD), 1999, defines a 'livelihood' as the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable, if it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain and enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation. According to Morse et al, (2009), the concept of Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA) to development intervention programmes was introduced in the 1990s when it formed the core of the United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DFID). One definition of the concept of SLA given by Chambers and Conway (1992) postulates: "A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living; a livelihood is sustainable which can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation; and which contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in the short and long-term." Chambers and Conway (1992: 7).

There are several tenets that are important to identify the concept of SLA from the definition aforementioned. More importantly, the requirement that livelihoods should be able to recover from "stress and shocks". Furthermore, livelihoods should "maintain and enhance" capabilities and assets into the future. The common factor in the two aspects is the resilience "to stress and shocks is the diversification of elements

that encompass livelihood”. Carney (1998), provides a simpler version of the concept of SLA: “A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living.” When merged with sustainability, the definition will read: “A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base.” Carney (1998). Hence, SLA can be regarded as 'multiple capital' approach where sustainability is seen in terms of accessible capital, namely, natural, human, social, physical and financial. Deliberation will be done of the vulnerability context, that is, trends, shocks and stresses, in which these assets will be. It is imperative to describe the five groups of capital on which the SLA is premised, which are the natural, social, physical, economic or financial, and the human capital. It is also essential to show how using the SLA framework, the resettled farmers would improve their sustainable livelihoods. Farmers should uphold viable livelihoods which should not be easily affected by shocks such as droughts, floods, and illness of the household head.

As Morse (2009:4) puts it, the natural capital comprises of natural resource stocks such as soil, water, air, genetic resources, just to mention a few, as well as environmental services which include hydrological cycle. Resettled farmers should access land which has good fertile soils, receiving regular rainfall or should use irrigation system to maintain constant and reliable supply of water. The social capital involves networks, social claims, social relations, affiliations, and associations. In this view, it is important that resettled farmers should belong to farmers associations and, or unions which would assist in the transmission of farming knowledge and information and also in gaining access of key inputs. The physical capital includes infrastructure such as buildings, roads and also the production equipment and technologies. This aspect is important in allowing farmers not only to use the machinery to mechanize their operations, but to use buildings to properly store their produce, use road to easily access their markets without much expenses. The economic or financial capital includes the cash, credit, savings, and other financial or economic assets. Cheap credit facilities are critical to farmers in order for them to buy the vital inputs that they require such as fertilizers, labour, chemicals and certified seeds.

Lastly, the human capital include the skills, knowledge, labour, good health and physical capability, which all farmers require in order for them to carry out tasks at hand.

Morse (2009), further explains once these five principal assets have been identified, it is also necessary to assess their contribution to community sustainable livelihoods in the vulnerability context in which they exist.

Morse (2009), emphasised on the need to understand the trends, patterns, shocks and stresses, at micro- as well as macro-level. Frequent droughts, for example, tend to have a bearing upon the natural capital and this, in turn, will lessen crop harvests, but will have little influence on other capitals. On the other hand, floods may damage both the physical and the natural capital, while having less effect on the others. Therefore, it is apparent that these categories of capitals vary in terms of their resilience to different kinds of shocks. In addition to that, Morse (2009), claimed that it is also crucial to analyze the policy and institutional context within which these capitals exist.

2.3.3 POVERTY MITIGATION THROUGH ACCESS TO LAND

Rural poverty is strongly associated with poor access to land, either in the form of landlessness or because of insecure and contested land rights (Quan 2009). Economic analysis has long recognised the importance of secure property rights for growth, and therefore for the poverty reduction which growth can bring. Increased land access for the poor can also bring direct benefits of poverty alleviation, not least by contributing directly to increased household food security. In countries where agriculture is a main economic activity, access to land is a fundamental means whereby the poor can ensure household food supplies and generate income (Quan, 2009). Land is an asset of enormous importance for billions of rural dwellers in the developing world (Quan, 2009). The nature of property rights and their degree of security vary greatly, depending on competition for land, the degree of market penetration and the broader institutional and political context (Quan, 2009). The picture is hugely diverse and complex within and between countries and regions.

Nevertheless, some general trends and common challenges can be identified.

Promoting equitable access to land requires dynamic and effective implementation of ongoing land redistribution programmes, and a systematic assessment of the appropriateness of the institutional arrangements used in those programmes (Quan, 2009). Securing land rights requires developing and implementing policy, legal and practical tools that are appropriate for different groups and circumstances, and that pay special attention to the specific land tenure security needs of poorer and more vulnerable groups; supporting democratic land institutions and land administration systems that are decentralised and problem centred, and that make links with existing indigenous and customary mechanisms for managing land; and improving access to effective systems of land dispute resolution, including courts, alternative dispute resolution and customary procedures (Quan, 2009).

Groenewald (2003), discovered the conditions vital for successful implementation of land reform in Africa. These conditions are closely linked to the important characteristics of SLA previously discussed. He highlighted that there are essentially two key objectives in most, if not all land reform programmes, namely land ownership equity and productivity. He explained that agriculture should contribute to development through not only producing enough food but also that its ownership should be fairly and equitably shared. The six (6) vital conditions which Groeneald (2003) singled out as necessary were institutional framework; fiscal planning; that successful farmers should select; provision of services and infrastructure; proper prioritizing; and lastly, suitable land tenure reform is necessary. These conditions apply in the FTLRP exercise that took place in Zimbabwe since 2000.

Good institutional framework is needed where different state and non-state actors are allowed to play their part. Such actors may include government agencies such as the Ministry of Lands and Resettlement, and private entities like Agricultural Bank of Zimbabwe (Agribank). Furthermore, fiscal planning is needed because land reform is capital intensive, and the government and other stakeholders should determine the cost and time frame of the exercise. In fact, the government may be required to mobilize

funds through subsidies. According to Lewis (1954), success in new agricultural development and settlement depends on conditions such as choosing the right place, the right settlers, preparation of the site and provision of settlers' capital. In addition to that, he also pointed out that there was a requirement for proper organization of group activities and also putting in place the right land tenure system.

Groenewald (2003), also referred to human capital, putting forward the argument that, since resettled farmers have to struggle with challenges such as limited resource base, limited experience as well as lower levels of education, there is need for human capital development in the form of extension, adult education and training and other advisory services. According to Fremy (2000), agricultural extension services all over Sub Saharan Africa are woefully inadequate in terms of numbers, training and the needed infrastructure and other necessities. In addition to that, complementary services and infrastructure which include adequate supply of inputs, marketing services, financial services as well as research are equally critical. Also vital is the need for transport infrastructure, whose absence or poor state of roads can be a stumbling block for agricultural production (Groenewald (2003). These conditions which are considered necessary for successful land reform, closely correspond with the SLA's (5) capital requirements, namely: the natural capital comprises of resource such as soil, and water; the social capital involve social networks; the physical capital such as buildings, roads and production equipment; the financial capital include cash and credit, and lastly, the human capital include the skills, knowledge, and labour.

Since colonial times, most rural areas in Africa, including Southern Africa have been in deep poverty and are vulnerable. As Moreda (2012) argues, Africa endured the challenges of mass poverty under colonial rule in the twentieth century. After independence, most African countries made attempts on addressing poverty through broadening access to health services, education, civil liberties and political participation. This raised incomes of citizens as they got employed and also exports, and investments (World Bank 2000: 7, Heidhues et al. 2004). Despite these efforts African communities continue to face mounting development challenges and widespread poverty, food insecurity, as well as climatic change and environmental

degradation (Ellis 2006). As a result, poverty has become not only an individual phenomenon, but also become a social and political one which negatively affects national economies and societies of third world countries in many ways (World Bank 2000).

Addressing poverty, reducing risk and vulnerability has become top priority in less developed countries, including Zimbabwe. The challenge of rural poverty continues to be the most pressing development problem in sub-Saharan Africa (Mueller 2011). In addition, it has been noted that even though, there is urban poverty, poverty remains primarily a rural phenomenon, (Dercon 2009, Mwabu and Thorbecke 2004, IFAD 2010). As Ravallion et al. (2007: 693) put it, approximately three-quarters of poor people in developing countries live in rural areas. Moreda (2012), noted that a comparative study of rural livelihoods and poverty reduction among four sub-Saharan African countries which included Uganda, Kenya, Tanzania and Malawi, carried out by Ellis and Freeman (2004: 6), found that poverty incidence were higher in rural rather than in urban areas.

It is against this background that a number of authors, which include Dercon (2009), Staatz and Dembele (2007), made the proposal that it is imperative for governments and development practitioners to focus on access to land, agricultural growth and rural development as the primary thrust of poverty eradication policies. This is so because, as Moreda (2012) argued, that food insecurity has remained one of the most pressing development challenges recurring in many regions and has continued to occupy the centre stage in development discourse.

The World Food Summit noted that “food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life” (FAO 1996: 2). Therefore, land is viewed as a fundamental economic resource and asset as also a critical element in the formation of individual and group identity, intricately linked to the cultural, political and social fabric of rural people (IFAD 2008:5). In fact, as Moreda put it, access to productive land is critical not only for ensuring food security,

but for poverty reduction as well.

The agriculture sector in sub-Saharan Africa to which Zimbabwe belongs, “...provides a means of living for millions of smallholders, generating 34 per cent of GDP and 65 per cent of employment” (Quan 2011: 2). However, although land is a key factor in fighting poverty and improving the livelihoods of rural people, it has been noted that current trends and patterns seem to indicate that access to this key asset in many African countries, especially among poor rural households has been in decline. The reason for this has been attributed to growing demographic pressure, worsening land degradation, and land alienations (FAO 2010). It has also been noted that this unequal land access is actually a crucial bottleneck to poverty reduction and economic growth in many developing countries. Implied in this perception is that when people gain equitable and secure access to productive land, development and shared economic growth will be registered in such societies.

Moreda (2012) concurred with other authors such as (Moyo 2000), that Southern African countries, including Zimbabwe until 2000, still experience inequitable land ownership patterns due to the historical legacy of racially-based policies of colonial rule in the region. Examples given include, the white South Africans, who constitute only 5 per cent of the population of the country, yet possess about 87 per cent of the country’s productive land, demonstrating the skewed nature of land distribution in South Africa (Moyo 2000. As noted earlier on, before FTLRP the pattern of land distribution in Zimbabwe was approximately 4500 white farmers holding about 42 per cent of the country’s agricultural land, while 41 per cent of the land was held by 1.2 million farming families (Moyo 2000.)

A link has been established between access to land of an individual or household and the level of poverty being experienced by the respective household. Jayne et al. (2003), argued that, the general poverty in most developing and sub-Saharan countries is due to lack of access to land by the majority of citizens in those countries. The observation was that there are large inequalities in the distribution of land within the small scale farming sector in Eastern and Southern African countries. In a study carried out

between 1990 and 2000 covering Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda, Mozambique, and Zambia, Jayne et al (2003), found out that farm landholding size was constantly declining overtime. The other finding was that there was a positive association between household per capita land holdings and per capita income in each of the countries stated above. For instance, the study found that an increase in landholding from zero to 0.25 hectares resulted in an increase in per capita income by more than 40 per cent in Rwanda and about 30 per cent in Ethiopia (Jayne et al 2003: 270).

It is in light of these findings where access to land by households resulted in increased agricultural productivity, and improved household income, that it has been consistently argued that improving access to land especially among the severely land-constrained small holder households, that effective poverty reduction would be attained (Jayne et al. 2003: 271). In concurrence, Moyo (2004), underscored that poverty trends in sub-Saharan Africa are linked to the fundamental question of land access). He argued that “access to a diminishing land resource base and insecure land tenure has most profound effects on the livelihoods of the majority, defining the African character of the land question under dry land farming conditions using backward technologies” (Moyo (2004: 32).

ADDRESSING POVERTY THROUGH ACCESS TO LAND IN MALAWI

More than 80 percent of the population in Malawi is rural, and since independence in 1964 agricultural activities continue to form the bulk of households' livelihood strategies. As Mellor (1966) observes, the potential for agricultural development to increase welfare in low-income countries derives from the fact that large proportions of the population engage in farming for subsistence needs and to generate cash incomes. There are several ways through which agricultural development will affect the welfare of the population. First, the landless or near landless may benefit from agricultural development through paid employment opportunities in off-farm activities created by technological change. Secondly, those who have land may benefit from higher productivity brought about by technological change.

Malawi has pursued an agricultural-led development strategy since its independence in 1964. This agricultural-led development strategy was based on the promotion of a dual agricultural system comprising estate (large-scale) production mainly for cash (export) crops and smallholder agricultural production mainly to support the food security needs of the population. In the post-independence era the objectives of an agricultural strategy were four fold: to raise agricultural productivity and accelerate growth and export performance; to diversify the export base from the dominance of tea exports; indigenise estate (large-scale) agriculture and to encourage production by smallholder farmers (Kaluwa et al., 1992). In the early years of independence, government policy was biased towards estate-led agricultural development. Nonetheless, smallholder agriculture remains an important source of livelihoods for a majority of the rural population and approximately 84 percent of agriculture value-added comes from 1.8 to 2 million smallholder farmers who on average own only 1 hectare of land (World Bank, 2003). Various policies in the 1960s and 1970s were implemented to support smallholder agricultural development including guaranteed produce prices through the state marketing agency, government administered agricultural input credit, promotion of technologies and subsidies on key agricultural inputs.

To address food insecurity and spur agriculture-led growth, the government of Malawi has developed a National Nutrition Policy and Strategic Plan, closely linked to its Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Program (CAADP) plan, and the Agriculture Sector-Wide Approach, which together coordinate food security programming at the national and community levels, (<https://www.usaid.gov>: 4 October 2015). In recent years, Malawi has met its CAADP targets for budgetary allocations to agriculture and agriculture sector growth rates, committing at least 10 percent of its budget to agriculture and exceeding the annual agriculture sector growth rate of 6 percent. In July 2011, Malawi joined the global United Nations - led Scaling up Nutrition movement and launched its own 1,000 Days campaign to reduce stunting among children. Malawi was the first African country to launch its own 1,000 Days campaign, recognizing that adequate nutrition in the 1,000 days from the onset of pregnancy to age 2 has the biggest impact on a child's physical and cognitive

development, and that under nutrition before age 2 can result in stunting, that is irreversible levels, (<https://www.usaid.gov> 4 October 2015).

However, although structural adjustment programs have resulted in removing policy linked distortions in the agricultural sector to a larger extent (Chirwa and Zakeyo, 2003), the agricultural sector still experiences problems of physical access to domestic markets, access to rural credit facilities, low productivity and inequitable distribution of land. Kaluwa et al. (1992), also notes that, although the reforms were necessary to halt the further deterioration in the economy, they were not sufficient for increasing the incomes and growth potential for a majority of the Malawian population. Smallholder production, especially in maize yields, and expansion of acreage has been devoted to food production rather than diversification into high value or export crops. The disappointing performance of the agricultural sector is at variance with intentions of the many economic reforms and policies aimed at enhancing the productivity of smallholder agriculture that have been implemented by the government. The Malawi case show that mere access to land may not be panacea to poverty eradication. The success in poverty eradication still remain incomplete.

2.4 SUMMARY

This chapter reviewed literature related to rural poverty, risk, vulnerability, access to land and the concept of sustainable livelihoods framework. The topics covered in this chapter included the concept of poverty, risk and vulnerability, as well as Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA). The review has found interesting trends and challenges that are encountered in achieving sustainable livelihoods through accessing land both in cases in Zimbabwe and Malawi. Lack of expertise, lack of adequate agricultural inputs, poor extension services, adverse climatic conditions, as well constraints located in the broader economy, were identified as some of the challenges that make it difficult to attain sustainable livelihoods. The next Chapter 3, outlines and discusses the methodology used in the study.

3 CHAPTER 3

3.1 DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

3.2 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents, interprets and discusses the data that was gathered through questionnaires. Further, the chapter analyses and interprets the findings on the effects of access to land on the FTLRP beneficiaries livelihoods. The data gathered was sorted in terms of similarity of responses and then frequencies of similar responses were tabulated and calculated and presented in tables. The findings are detailed in this chapter with the necessary illustrations of tables and graphs. The analysis was based on the assumption that the respondents gave their honest opinions to the questions raised. Questionnaires were used to collect data from respondents. A total of 60 respondents were given questionnaires to complete. The presentation and the findings are crucial as they enable the researcher to derive conclusions on research questions and suggest recommendations in Chapter 4.

Respondents comprised 60 respondents from the following villages in Chirumhanzu Resettlement areas near Lalapanzi namely, villages' numbers 2, 5, 8, 17, 23, 45, 47, 48, 50, and 54. The presentation was done in parts indicating the following: personal attributes of respondents; characteristics of resettled farmers in Chirumhanzu Resettlements, Lalapanzi; Quality and sizes of plots occupied by resettled farmers; farming knowledge and skills of the new farmers in Baru; agricultural inputs readily accessible to farmers; the level of farmers' agricultural productivity.

3.3 PRESENTATION OF DATA AND FINDINGS

3.3.1 ATTRIBUTES OF RESPONDENTS

Table 1: Overall response rate

Sample of respondents	Number of questionnaires	Total number of responses	Percentage
Female respondents	5	5	8.3
Male respondents	35	35	58.3
Total	60	60	100

Source; Survey data, 2015

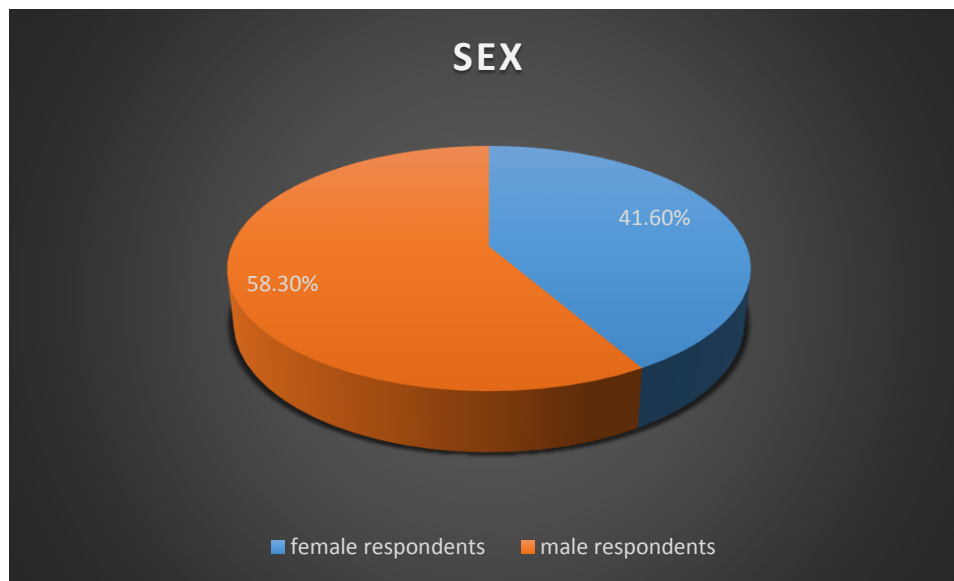


Figure 1 gender

The response rate from questionnaires, as shown by Table 1 above, was 100%, since the researcher was physically handing over questionnaires to respondents. In terms

of gender distribution of the respondents, the table shows that 25 respondents (41.6%) were females and 35 male respondents (58.3%) were males. The reason for more male than female respondents was reflective of the fact that women tended not to cooperate with the researcher in a survey. This is because culturally women are restrained from talking to strangers or visitors about issues to do with their household or agricultural operations. Usually such matters are left for the male head of the family. Male members of households were more willing to participate in data gathering than females.

Also even when a woman was willing to respond to the questionnaires, their male counterpart rushed to question the woman, "...who own the land, let me do it, unless you saying you the father of the house now." Some of the women who answered are not necessarily the head of the householder or owner of the property, but were sometimes delegated by their partners or answered the questions on their males' behalf. From this view one can draw that, as men in patriarchal societies are the heads of the households, it have a bearing on who own the land or the one with the title deeds. Though women are key producers at household level, it appears they still have to fight further for equal ownership of critical resources as many seem to be servants rather than land owners.

3.3.2 AGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS

Table 2: Age distribution

Age Group	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 25 years	5	8.3
26 - 30 years	10	16.6
31 – 45 years	20	33.3
46 – and above	25	41.6
Total	60	100

Source; Survey data, 2015

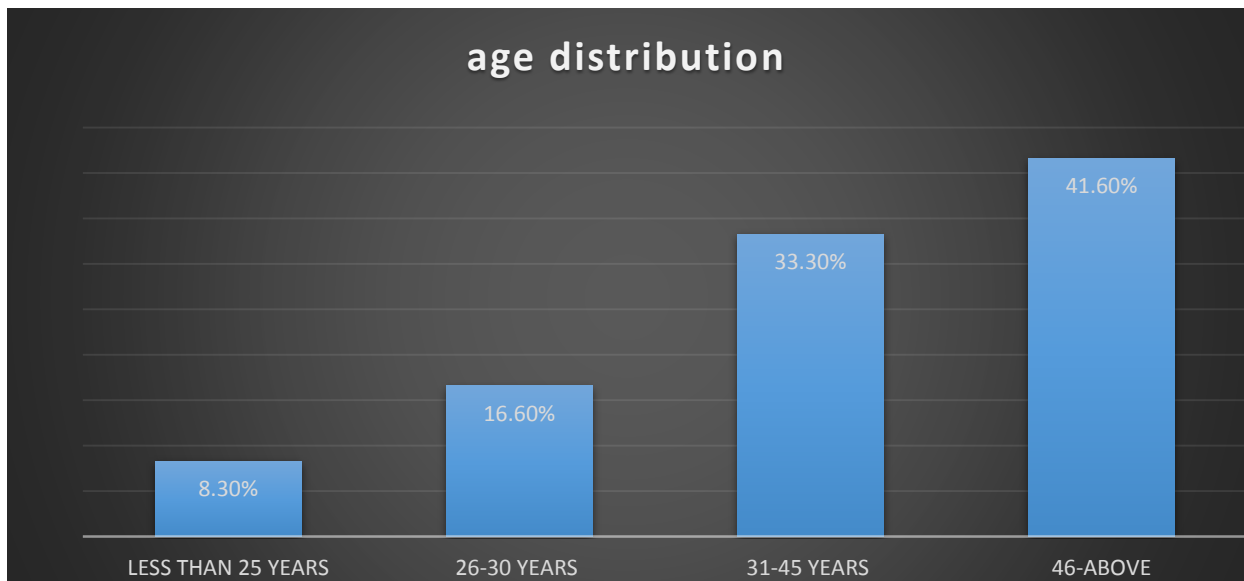


Figure 2 age distribution

Respondents comprised of people of different ages. As indicated by Table 2 the respondents in the age group ranging from between 31 to 45 were 20 (33.3%), those who were in the 46 years an above, constituted the modal class, were 25 (41.6%). The age group ranging

from 26 to 30 years were 10 (16.6%). The fourth group of respondents was constituted by those less than 25 years of age, who were only 5 respondents (8.3%). The age group distribution reflects the demographic structure of the residents in Baru section in Mvuma resettlement areas, especially those who are the owners of plots.

Also it signifies that the elderly own much of the land than the youths. This shows that the government still has a lot of work to cover to empower youths for securing sustainable livelihoods for the future generations. It is usually difficult for the elderly to give land as inheritance to the young as land is usually regarded as a symbol of wealth. And so in the rural areas, the younger people are disadvantaged, many drop out school and are poor and usually spent time herding livestock and some bored with the situation seeks better opportunities and cross the border looking for jobs. Also it can be noted that labour is a challenge to many households as usually in a household there usually is the man and woman and no child at home or with a grandchildren. This has a negative bearing on production as there is inadequate labour.

3.3.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF RESETTLED FARMERS

Table 3: characteristics of farmers

Socio-economic characteristic	Response	Frequency	Percentage
Marital status	Single	3	5
	Monogamously married	49	81.6
	Polygamously married	10	6.6
	Divorced/separated	3	5
	Widowed	3	5
	Total	60	100
Highest Level of Education Attained by Household Head	Adult education	5	8.3
	Primary education	5	8.3
	Vocational training	6	10
	Secondary education	24	40
	No formal education	2	3.3
	Tertiary education	18	30
	Total	60	100
Sex of head of household	Male	55	91.6
	Female	5	8.3
	Total	60	100

Source: Survey data, 2015

Respondents were asked to indicate their socio-economic characteristics. As Table 3 above shows, the majority household heads, 55 (91.6%), were males. Only 5 (8.3%) households' heads were females. This meant that the majority of the FTLRP beneficiaries were males. In terms of education, it was found that the majority of the farmers had at least primary school education. The majority 24 respondents (40%), had attained secondary as their highest education level attained. 18 respondents (30%), had reached tertiary education. 6 respondents (10%), had attained vocational training level. 5 respondents (8.3%), had done adult education, the other 5 (8.3%), had primary education as their highest level of education. Only 2 respondents (3.3%), had not done any formal education. With this level of education, it means that if complemented with agricultural extension services, the farmers' farming techniques could be greatly improved. In terms of marital status, the majority 49 household heads (81.6%), had one spouse. 3 household heads (8.3%), were single. 4 household heads (6.6%), were polygamous married. 3 (5%) were also divorced, while the other 3 (5%) were widowed.

3.3.4 SIZES AND QUALITY PLOTS GIVEN TO FARMERS

New farmers can only reduce poverty and achieve sustainable livelihoods, if they are given access to huge pieces of land that is also suitable for the purpose for the land which is used. First, respondents were asked to confirm whether they had been given at least 5.5 hectares of land. Second, they were also supposed to confirm the fertility of the plot that they were given.

Table 4: Plot sizes and soil types

Plot characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 5.5 hectare/sand soils	3	6
Less than 5.5 hectares/clay/fertile soils	6	10
5.5 hectares or more/sand soils	7	11.6
5.5 hectares or more /clay/fertile soils	44	73.3
Total	60	100

Source: Survey data, 2015

Respondents were asked to indicate plot sizes and the quality or soil types of the land. As indicated by Table 4 above the majority 44 respondents (73.3%), indicated that their plot sizes were more than 5.5 hectares, and were of clay and or fertile soils. 7 respondents (11.6%), indicated that their plots were more than 5.5 hectares, but had sand soils. 6 respondents (10%), said that their plots were less than 5.5 hectares, but the soils were fertile or clay. Only 3 respondents (6%), said that they had less than 5.5 hectares and that the soils were sandy. Therefore, in terms of access to land, the FTLRP beneficiaries in Baru section of Mvuma resettlement areas got enough land to practice their crop production.

3.3.5 FARMING KNOWLEDGE OF NEW FARMERS.

Farming knowledge and skills are critical for new farmers to be able to produce abundantly, generate high income through selling of their produce. Skill constitute part of human capital. This is how poverty would be reduced and sustainable livelihoods attained. Without farming skills, access to land alone would not make the new farmers achieve high productivity and

reduce their vulnerability to poverty. Through knowledge of conservation farming, natural methods of protecting soils such as mulching and use of cow dung manure, the farmer would be able to make their farming sustainable, protect their soils and environment, and also that future generations would be able to also farm the same fields and produce high yields.

Table 5: Farming techniques

Farming technique used	Count	Percentage
Mulching	5	8.3
Trenches or contours	6	10
Water harvesting	3	5
Irrigation	6	10
Conservation Farming	4	6.6
Animal manure	10	16.6
Crop rotation	3	5
Chemical fertilisers	8	13.3
Hybrid maize	9	15
Plant spacing	6	10

Source: Survey data, 2015

Respondents were asked to indicate the adaptive agricultural methods and techniques which they often use in their farming practices to address the challenges of chronic poverty and vulnerability. As shown by Table 5 only 5 respondents (8,3%), said they use mulching; only 6 respondents (10%), indicated that they use contours or trenches to control soil erosion; 3 respondents (5%), said that they practice water harvesting; 6 respondents (10%), indicated that they were practicing irrigation; only 4 respondents (6.6%), mentioned that they were practicing conservation farming; 10 respondents (16.6%), said that they were using animal manure as fertilizers; 3 respondents (5%), indicated that they were doing crop rotation; 8 respondents (13.3%) indicated that they were using chemical fertilizers; 9 farmers (15%), said that they used hybrid maize seeds; and lastly, 6 farmers (10%) indicated that they practice plant spacing. The use of adaptive farming methods is key to agricultural productivity and achieving sustainable livelihoods. The generation, dissemination and diffusion of adaptive agricultural technology hold the key to tackling rural poverty and making agriculture the bedrock of the development process (Feder et al. 1985; Kinsey 1993). Therefore, newly resettled farmers should make use of improved farming methods adapted to their farming systems and reduce further poverty.

NEW FARMERS ACCESS TO INPUTS

Ready access to inputs which are affordable are vital for farmers to be able to use and produce their yields. They constitute a form of economic capital. Inputs that that are too expensive make it difficult for farmers to access them, so farmers will not be able to produce much. In fact, if farmers remain dependent on inputs hand- outs without themselves building their cash reserves, from sale of crops, to buy their own inputs from open markets, they will remain vulnerable and poor.

Table 6: Respondents access to inputs

Response	Frequency	%
Fertilizers, seeds, credits facilities, chemicals always available and affordable	10	16.6
Fertilizers, seeds, credit facilities; chemicals fairly always available and affordable	15	25
Fertilizers, seeds, credit facilities, chemicals not always available and affordable	35	58.3
Total	60	100

Source: Survey data, 2015

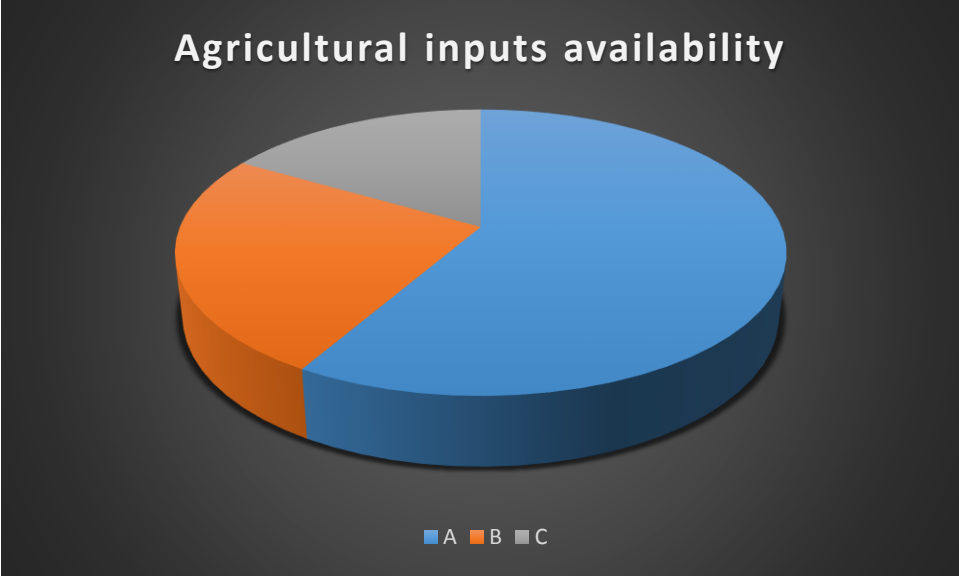


Figure 3: Agricultural inputs availability

- A-** Fertilisers, seeds, credit facilities and chemicals are not always available
- B-** Fertilisers, seeds, credit facilities and chemicals are always fairly available
- C-** Fertilisers, seeds, credit facilities and chemicals are always available and affordable

Respondents were asked to indicate whether farming inputs were always available and affordable in Baru section, Mvuma resettlement area. As indicated by Table 6 and Figure 3 , three answers came out of the respondents' perceptions. The majority 35 respondents (58.3%), indicated that “Fertilizers, seeds, credit facilities, chemicals are not always available and affordable”; 15 respondents (25%), said that “Fertilizers, seeds, credit facilities; chemicals are always fairly available and affordable”, only 10 respondents (16.6%) indicated that “Fertilizers, seeds, credits facilities, chemicals always available and affordable”.

Table 7: Access to farming information

Farming Techniques used	Responses and frequencies			
	Yes		No	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
A member of farmers group	12	20	48	80
Visit by extension agent	13	21.6	47	78.3

Source: Survey data, 2015

Information of farming methods and crops prices is gained through the social capital, which is the network of institutions and relations with different associations, or through extension agencies. Respondents were asked to indicate whether they belong to farmers' groups and or have visits from extension agencies. As shown by Table 7, only 12 respondents (20%), indicated that they belonged to some farmers associations; and only 13 respondents (21.6%), said that they had been visited by extension services officer from Agritex. As Chamunorwa (201:14) put it: "Increasing evidence shows that social cohesion is critical for societies to prosper economically and for development to be sustainable". Thus, farmers in Baru section of Mvuma resettlement should improve their social network on farming matters to enhance information flow and sharing.

3.3.6 CROP AND LIVESTOCK.

Table 8: crop productivity: maize

Responses on levels of crop productivity	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 150-200 kg per hectare	9	15
Less than 150-200 kg per hectare	51	85
Total	60	100

Source: Survey data, 2014

Using an accepted international standard maize productivity rate of between 150-200 kg of maize per hectare, respondents were asked to indicate their productivity level for the maize crop, which is the main crop produced in Baru section, Mvuma resettlement areas. As shown by Table 8 above only 9 respondents (15%), indicated that they attain 150 kg maize harvest per hectare, in the past three years.

Table 9: Crop productivity: Cotton

Responses on levels of crop productivity	Frequency	Percentage
More than 900 kg per hectare	12	20
Less than 900 kg per hectare	48	80
Total	60	100

Source: Survey data 2014

Using an accepted international standard cotton productivity rate of at least 900 kg per hectare, respondents were asked to indicate their productivity level for the cotton crop, which is the main cash crop produced in Baru section, Mvuma resettlement areas. As shown by Table 9

above, only 12 respondents (20%), indicated that they attain the 900 kg of cotton harvest per hectare in the past three years. The results showed that the new farmers level of productivity, both of maize and cotton which are the main cash crops, is very low. Thus, their ability to generate revenue through selling their produce was also limited, meaning that it would be difficult for them to break their circle of poverty. This is further complicated by the fact that cotton prices had been very low in the previous three years.

Table 10: Livestock ownership

Responses on levels of crop productivity	Frequency	Percentage
More than 5 herd of cattle	5	8.3
Less than 5 herd of cattle	40	66.6
Nil	15	25
Total	60	100

Source: Survey data, 2014

Livestock is an important component of the agriculture production in the country, and its contribution is next to crops in agriculture. Respondents were asked to indicate the number of cattle they had on their livestock cards. As Table 10 shows, only 5 respondent households (8.3, indicated that they had more than 5 herd of cattle. 40 respondents (66.6%), said that they had less than 5 herd of cattle. 15 respondents (25%), said they had no cattle at all. This meant that the livelihoods of farmers in Baru section is still fragile, because with cattle there would be provisions for food for humans, plants manure, draught power for farms and cash income for the households. The results showed that most new farmers do not have livestock, especially cattle, which is a source of wealth and draught power. Without cattle or tractors cultivation becomes expensive for the ordinary new farmer, and that complicates their poverty circle. This makes new farmers households vulnerable to poverty, because

cattle is a status symbol, crucial form of property, and is actually used as a 'bank' in times of need, since cattle can be sold to generate revenue. They will be forced to hire tillage services. If they fail to secure modern fertilizers they also cannot use cow dung manure because they do not have livestock, this further makes new farmers vulnerable to changes affecting even prices of fertilizers. Such households also do not have access to milk which is a vital component of diet.

3.3.7 STATE OF FARM-TO-MARKET ROADS

Table 11: State of roads and access to markets

Responses on levels of crop productivity	Frequency	Percentage
State of farm-to-market road is satisfactory	10	16.6
State of farm-to-market road is fairly satisfactory	11	18.3
State of farm-to-market road is not satisfactory	39	65
Total	60	100

Source: Survey data, 2014

Respondents were asked to indicate the state of roads which they use to get to the nearest market place. As shown by Table 11 the majority 39 respondents (65%) said that the “*State of farm-to-market road is not satisfactory*”; 11 respondents (18.3%) said that the “*State of farm-to-market road is fairly satisfactory*”, while 10 respondents (16.6%) indicated that “*State of farm-to-market road is satisfactory*” It appears that the new farmers do not have good infrastructure at their disposal such as roads which are critical in costs related to transport services as they take their produce to the market.

Thus, if the new farmers remains vulnerable to expensive transports costs, it may mean that they will not make profits or much profits from selling their crops.

3.3.8 CATEGORIES OF RESPONDENTS

The sample comprised of the resettled farmers. This meant that the data could suffer from lacking broad perspectives and also prone to much bias. So to succumb this challenge the researcher had side discussions with officials from Agricultural Technical and Extension Services (Agritex), Care International, Grain Marketing Board and . However, side discussions did not produce statistics as the officials incidentally all would give an excuse. But basic information from the jotted notes the researcher took on their perspectives from their experiences in dealing with the resettled farmers are the following:

GMB official responded that poverty alleviation through land reform is notable and helpful due to the fact that when the country receives better rainfalls, the board receives surplus from the resettled farmers which could be reserved for hard times. However, recent years drought has been raging, therefore, the government in partnership of donors was in frequent distribution of maize to assist households not to feign in poverty. Also another challenge GMB was facing is payment of farmers who sell their maize to them as the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development usually is financially strapped. This has a negative implication on the farmers as it takes time for the farmers to get ready for the next season and so affects their yields. But overally the GMB official was happy with the government initiative as it was empowering resettled farmers to empower themselves in having food reserves.

The official from Care International recommended the need to improve farming methods used by farmers, as regularly it donates food and other basic needs to farmers to supplement their nutrition. The official, however praised the government of Zimbabwe saying poverty alleviation through land reform was a positive step which ushers development.

The official from Agritex was of the view that poverty alleviation through land reform was working, but more work still need to be done in transmitting knowledgeable information on better ways of farming. The official further said that Agritex in partnership with the Government and other government ministries like Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanisation and Irrigation Development, they usually have outreaches to help farmers in agricultural skills. But the challenge to alleviate poverty highly was due to inadequate funds to implement especially scientific methods in farming.

3.4 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

3.4.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF FTLRP BENEFICIARIES IN BARU SECTION, MVUMA

- The majority household heads, 55 (91.6%) were males. Only 5 (8.3%) households were females, meaning that the majority of the FTLRP beneficiaries in Baru section, Mvuma resettlement areas were males. Women need to also have equal access to land as they are a vulnerable group to poverty and need to feign for their children and families.

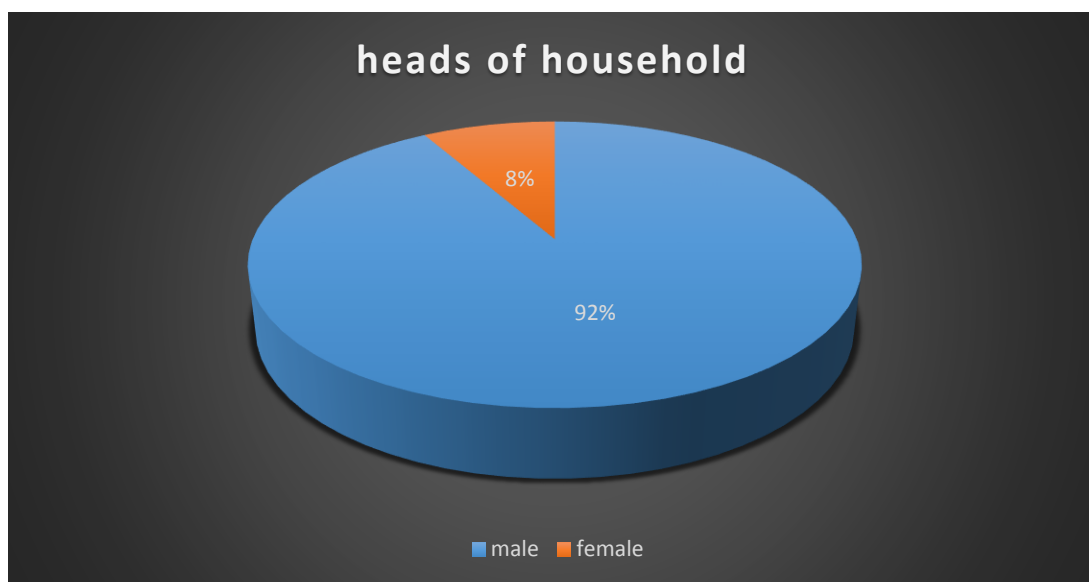


Figure 4: Sex of household head

- In terms of education, it was found that that the majority of the farmers had at least primary school education, with the majority 24 respondents (40%), having attained secondary education, and 18 respondents (30%), had reached tertiary education. At least the farmers are not ignorant people, but need to be further empowered with technical knowledge on farming, so that the poverty alleviation strategy cannot go in vain and also that they can be more productive and boost the economy of the country.

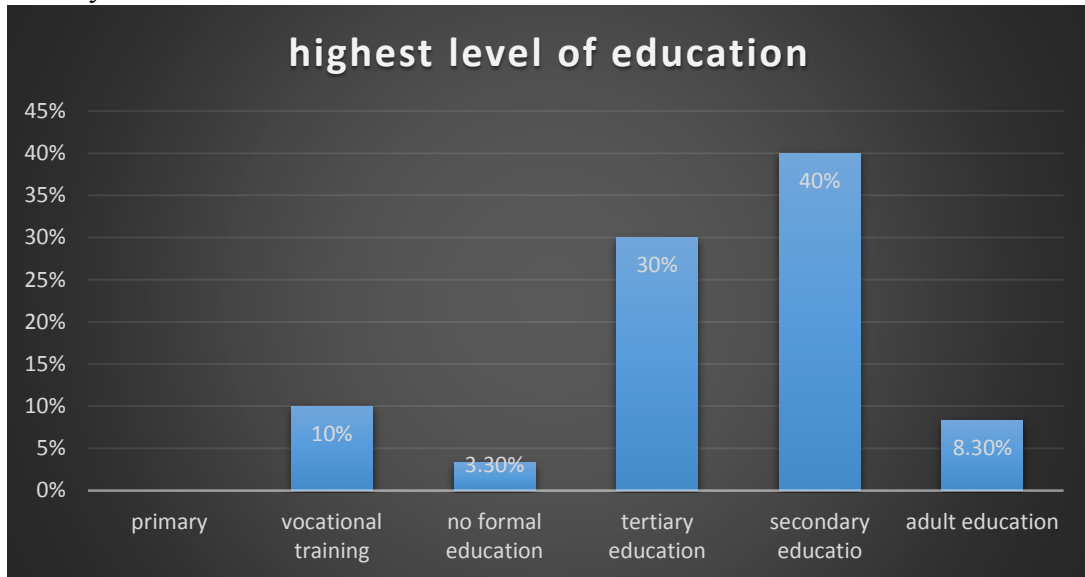


Figure 5: Highest level of education attained by the household head

- In terms of marital status, the majority 49 households' heads (81.6%), were monogamously married. This shows that land is crucial for family families to

alleviate poverty as they have big families.

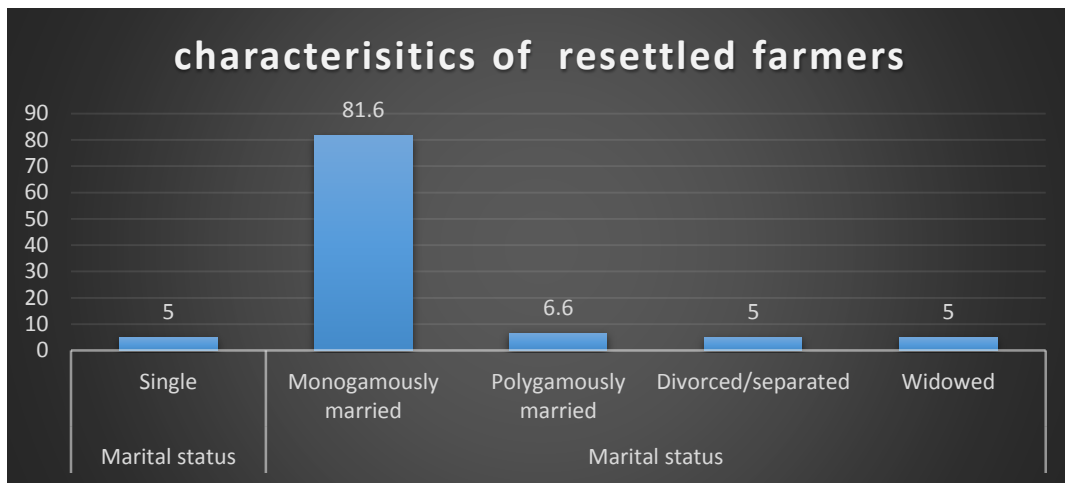


Figure 6: Marital status

3.4.2 QUALITY AND SIZES OF PLOTS OCCUPIED BY RESETTLED FARMERS

The majority 44 respondents (73.3%), indicated that their plot sizes were more than 5.5 hectares and were of clay and or fertile soils. Farmers need to maximise their land for more crop output.

3.4.3 FARMING KNOWLEDGE OF THE NEW FARMERS IN BARU SECTION, MVUMA

- only 5 respondents (8.3%), said they use mulching;
- only 6 respondents (10%), indicated that they use contours or trenches to control soil erosion;
- 3 respondents (5%), said that they practice water harvesting;
- 6 respondents (10%), indicated that they were practicing irrigation;
- only 4 respondents (6.6%), mentioned that they were practicing conservation farming;

- 10 respondents (16.6%), indicated that they were using crop rotation.
- 3 respondents (5%) indicated that they were doing crop rotation;
- 8 respondents (13.3%) indicated that they were using chemical fertilizers;
- 9 farmers (15%), said that they used hybrid maize seeds;
- 6 farmers (10) indicated that they practice plant spacing.

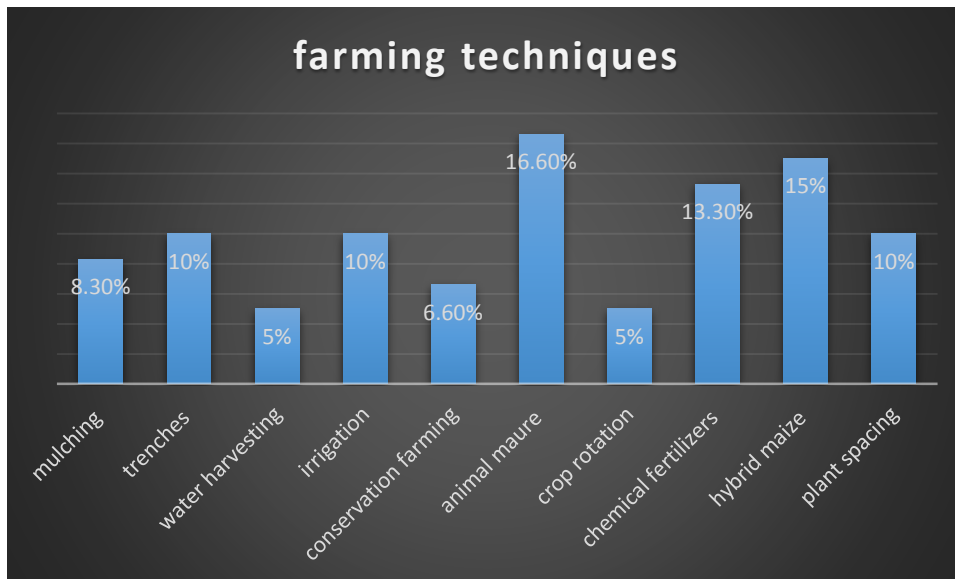


Figure 7: Farming techniques and methods usually used by the resettled farmers

Both traditional and scientific methods to farming are critical and need to be used hand in hand so that land use to reduce poverty can gain more footage.

3.4.4 AGRICULTURAL INPUTS READILY ACCESSIBLE TO FARMERS IN BARU SECTION, MVUMA RESETTLEMENT AREAS

The majority 35 respondents (58.3%), indicated that “Fertilizers, seeds, credit facilities, chemicals not always available and affordable”. This shows that the farmers are not yielding more surplus to gain income for farming preparedness. Hence though land is a key to poverty alleviation farmers need more capital to develop their farms, so that they can

minimise being volatile to poverty.

Resettled farmers do not get enough farming information since only 12 respondents (20%), indicated that they belonged to some farmers associations. Only a few resettled farmers are proactive, there is need to make awareness to people to be part of farmers' organisations which can assist them with being more creative to sustain their livelihoods through exploitation of land.

Agritex officers can be commended to approach more farmers in resettled areas, as the data collected showed that only 13 respondents (21.6%), said that they had been visited by extension services officer from Agritex.

3.4.5 CROP AND LIVESTOCK PRODUCTIVITY.

- Only 9 respondents (15%), indicated that they attain 150 kg maize harvest per hectare, in the past three years.

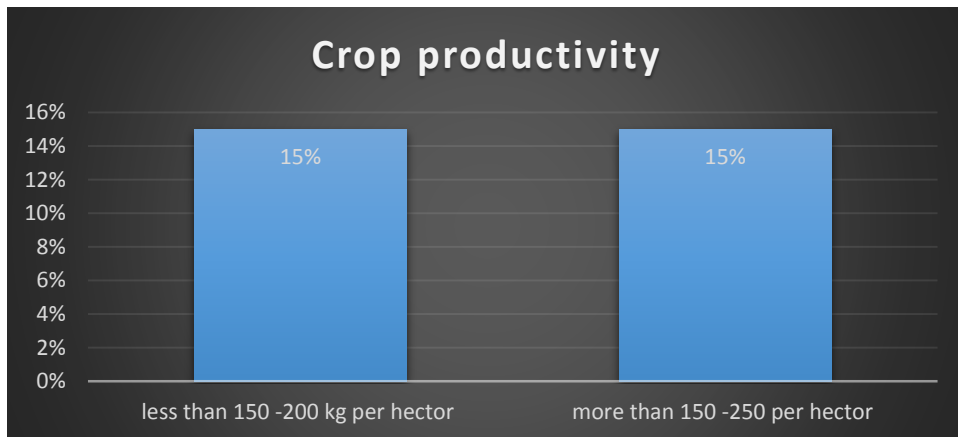


Figure 8: Crop productivity: Maize

- Only 12 respondents (20%), indicated that they attain the 900 kg of cotton harvest per hectare in the three years.

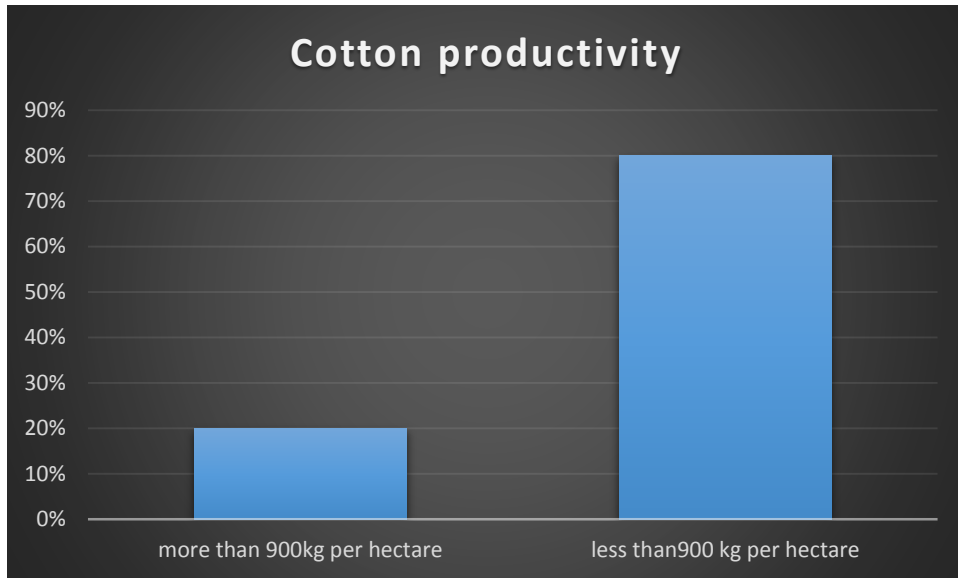


Figure 9: Crop productivity: Cotton

- Only 5 respondent households (8.3%), indicated that they had more than 5 herds of cattle.

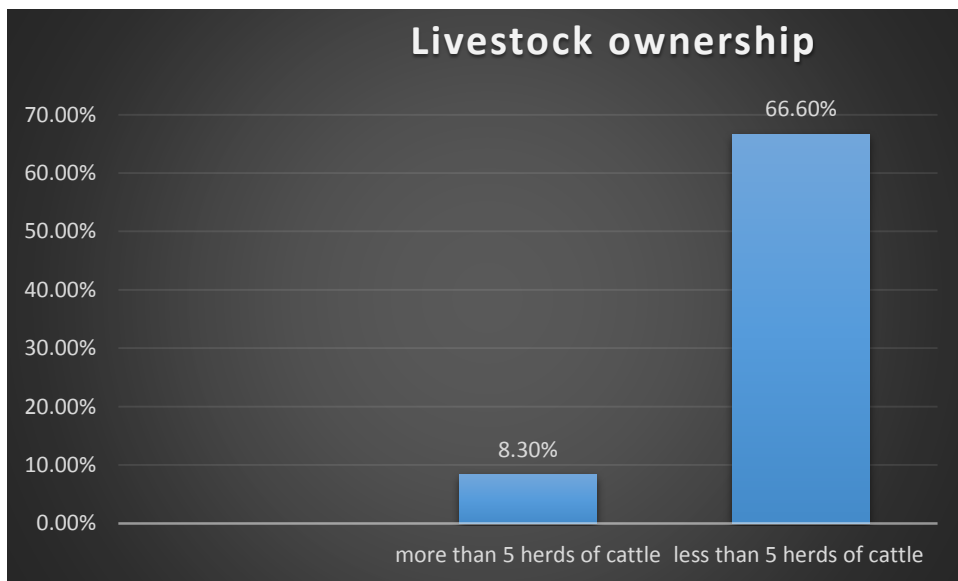


Figure 10: Livestock ownership

- The majority 40 respondents (66.6%), said that they had less than 5 herds of cattle. Livestock and crop production can be increased, so that poverty alleviation through land use can be maximised.

3.4.6 STATE OF FARM-TO-MARKET ROADS.

The statistics of roads status to market places showed that ZINARA still has a long way to building better roads as the majority 39 respondents (65%), said that the “state of farm-to-market road is not satisfactory” and 11 respondents (18.3%), said that the “State of farm-to-market road is fairly satisfactory.” 10 only said its satisfactory, showing the way people view something differ from one person to another. Poverty alleviation through land has many other considerations which need to be employed, so that it can be easy to be fulfilled.

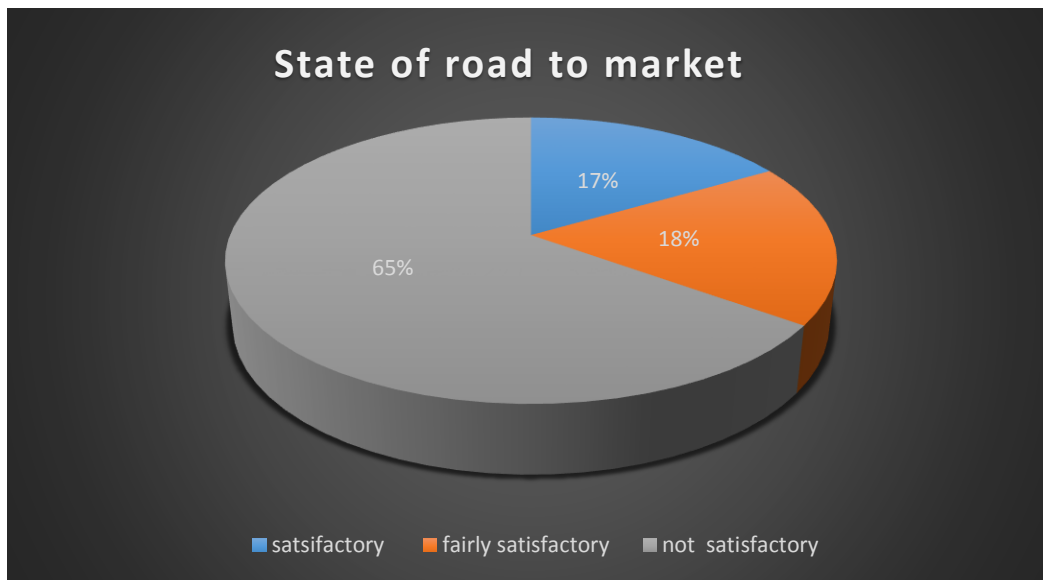


Figure 11: State of roads and access to markets

4 CHAPTER 4

4.1 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

4.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1 provided background information on land reform in general and FTLRP in particular, with focus on access to land as a strategy to alleviate poverty and vulnerability of rural communities using the case of Mvuma resettlement areas, Chirumanzu District. The topics covered in that chapter included background to the study, statement of the problem, research questions, significance of the study, limitations, and delimitations of the study. The other topics included research methodology used in the study, the research design, target population, sample and sample design, data gathering instruments, target population and sampling techniques, data gathering instruments, validity and reliability of data gathering instruments, pilot study and research ethics and summary.

Since 1980 the Government of Zimbabwe has been engaged in land reform to correct unfair land ownership structure in which the white commercial farmers owned at 15.5 million hectares in total, while there were only 8,500 small-scale commercial farmers. On the other hand, the majority of the indigenous citizens subsisted on 16.4 million hectares of leased and congested communal lands (GoZ, 2001). It was also discussed that, the purpose of land reform in Zimbabwe, was to de-congest the overcrowded rural areas, to improve the landless access to fertile land in regions with favourable rainfall patterns. Thus, the FTLRP which included the settling of communal farmers in Baru section of the Mvuma resettlement areas was meant to improve their livelihoods.

Then chapter 2 reviewed literature related to rural poverty, risk, vulnerability, access to land and the concept of sustainable livelihoods framework. The topics covered in this chapter include purpose of Literature Review, Defining Poverty, Risk and Vulnerability, Sustainable Livelihoods: A Conceptual Framework, Linking Access to Land and Sustainable Livelihoods, and Selected Cases of Access to Land and Poverty Reduction, with a focus on selected cases in Zimbabwe and Malawi. The chapter ends with a summary.

Chapter 3 presented, interpreted and analysed the data that was gathered through

questionnaires and interviews. The data presentation was guided by the following objectives of the study:

- To find out the characteristics of newly resettled farmers in Baru section in Mvuma.
- To determine the plot sizes occupied by resettled farmers.
- To establish the level of farming knowledge and skills that the resettled farmers have in Baru section in Mvuma resettlement area.
- To find out agricultural inputs readily accessible to farmers;
- And to establish the general level of farmers agricultural productivity.

To facilitate the presentation and the discussion, there was extensive use of tables and graphs to analyze the data. Respondents were sampled from the FTLRP beneficiaries from the following villages in Mvuma resettlement areas of Baru section, namely, villages' numbers 2, 5, 8, 17, 23, 45, 47, 48, 50, and 54. The presentation was done in parts: personal attributes of respondents; characteristics of resettled farmers in Baru section in Mvuma; Quality and sizes of plots occupied by resettled farmers; farming knowledge and skills of the new farmers in Baru; agricultural inputs readily accessible to farmers; the level of farmers' agricultural productivity.

4.3 CONCLUSIONS

- ✚ Basing on the objectives, research questions of the study and in view of the research findings, the study made a number of conclusions.
- ✚ FTLRP beneficiaries got adequate quality and big plots occupied by resettled farmers. This gave the resettled farmers an opportunity to produce huge harvest and sell surplus to generate adequate income from their households. However, though the land may be big reluctance to use scientific methods to farming may implicate poverty and worsen the status quo.

- ✚ The resettled farmers in Baru section, Mvuma did not have enough information on agricultural adaptive methods such as mulching, use of contours or trenches to control soil erosion, water harvesting, irrigation and conservation farming. They prevent the farmers from attaining sustainable livelihoods, as they would remain vulnerable to shocks such as droughts, floods, and changes of prices and even inflation.
- ✚ Agricultural inputs are not readily available and affordable to FTLRP beneficiaries in Baru section. Thus, this constrains farmers' potential to achieve huge harvest due to inadequate availability of inputs. This has a negative bearing on poverty alleviation.
- ✚ Key support schemes and facilities which were used in the old resettlement areas, such as increased extension, credit support, fertilizers provision, are missing elements in Baru section, Mvuma, and this casts doubt on the potential of the programme to reduce poverty on a higher rate and attain sustainable livelihoods for the beneficiaries.
- ✚ There is evidence of agricultural crop and livestock productivity and property accumulation in FTLRP resettlement area of Mvuma, however, considering the rate at which this is taking place, this will take a long time to translate into net poverty reduction and improved livelihoods at household level.
- ✚ General infrastructure such as roads to market places and other service centres are in a bad state and this makes it difficult and costly for farmers to take their produce to markets. Poverty reduction through land need to be supported with other key structures like roads.
- ✚ The success of poverty alleviation through land and attainment of sustainable livelihoods depends on addressing challenges related to supply of inputs, provision of extension services, as well as the security of the tenure, and the adoption of adaptive agricultural methods.

4.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

- ❖ The government should urgently address crop and livestock productivity through enacting policies that focus on sustainable availability and accessibility of inputs to resettled farmers.
- ❖ Labour is a major constraint affecting most resettled farmers, farmers should therefore adopt modern methods of weeding such as the use of herbicides or chemicals to cut on the labour required.
- ❖ The government should improve general infrastructure such as roads and transport network to efficiently facilitate the farmers' access to markets in a cheap and cost effective means.
- ❖ The government to urgently invigorate extension services, which should provide critical farming practices which should include helping newly resettled farmer to engage in adaptive methods, such as conservation farming, controlling soil erosion, and use of organic fertilizers, among others.
- ❖ Resettled farmers should form vibrant farmers associations through which critical farming information could be disseminated.
- ❖ Government should set aside funds to improve the state of roads through resurfacing gravel roads services in order to cut high transport costs for farmers.
- ❖ Since labour is a critical constraint affecting most resettled farmers, there is need to educate FTRLRP beneficiaries on the use of herbicides and timeliness in weeding operations.

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<http://psud43.wordpress.com/> Advantages and disadvantages of Case Studies

www.american.edu/irb/ Ethics

<http://www.usaid.gov/> Malawi's Nutrition Policy and Strategic Plan

<http://www.businessdictionary.com> Poverty definition

<http://web.worldbank.org/> WBSITE/EXTERNA/ Poverty and Vulnerability

home.iitk.ac.in/~shalab/ Simple Random Sampling

APPENDIX

I Nirvana Zvandikona I am a student at the MSU doing Politics and Public Management. I am carrying out a study on “*Poverty Alleviation through Land Reform: The case of Central Resettlement in Churumhanzu.....*”

I kindly ask you to complete the questionnaire guide as openly and as frankly as possible. No names or any identification marks are required. Please feel free to respond honestly. The information you are going to supply will be used for the purpose of this study only and will be treated with strict confidentiality.

Characteristics of FTLLRP Beneficiaries

1.0	Indicate your sex	Male	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.0	Indicate age group	Below 25 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
		26-30 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
		31-35 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
		36-40 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
		41 and above	

3.0 Highest level of education qualification attained.

- ZJC
- “O” level
- “A” level
- Tertiary

- 4.0 Marital status
- Never married
 - Married/monogamous
 - Married/polygamous
 - Divorced
 - Widowed

Quality and sizes of plots occupied by resettled farmers

5.0 Indicate the plot size and soil type that you occupy

More than 5.5 hectares/sand soil

Less than 5.5 hectares/clay/fertile soils

Other (specify) _____

Farming knowledge of the new farmers

6.0 Indicate the main method, from those listed below or others not in the list, that

you normally use

- Mulching
- Use of contours/trenches
- Conservation farming
- Use of cow manure
- Irrigation
- Plant spacing
- Other (specify).....

Agricultural inputs readily accessible to farmers

7.0 In your opinion, indicate the state of inputs available and affordable

Fertilizers, seeds, credit facilities, chemicals not always available and affordable

Fertilizers, seeds, credit facilities, chemicals fairly always available and affordable

Fertilizers, seeds, credit facilities, chemicals satisfactorily always available and affordable

Other (specify).....

Crop and livestock productivity.

8.0 Show the level of maize harvest per hectare that you normally have

More than 150kg per hectare maize/ 900kg cotton per hectare

Less than 150kg per hectare maize/900 cotton per hectare

Other specify

9.0 In terms of livestock, indicate the average heard per household in resettlement areas from those stated below

More than 5 herd of cattle

Less than 5 herd of cattle

Nil

State of farm-to-market roads

10.0 Indicate the state of the farm to market roads in your area

Farm-to-market road is in a satisfactory state

Farm-to-market road is in a bad state

Farm-to-market road is in a fairly satisfactory state

