Available online at http://www.journalcra.com

International Journal of Current Research
Vol. 9, Issue, 08, pp.55985-55992, August, 2017

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF CURRENT RESEARCH

ISSN: 0975-833X

REVIEW ARTICLE

FAST TRACK LAND REFORM PROGRAMME AND FOOD SECURITY IN ZIMBABWE: A CASE OF DATMOOR FARM IN SEKE DISTRICT

***Pepukai Perpetua Maruve and Leonard Chitongo**

Department of Rural and Urban Development Great Zimbabwe University, P.O. Box 1235 Masvingo, Zimbabwe

ARTICLE INFO

Article History:
Received 13th May, 2017
Received in revised form
25th June, 2017
Accepted 19th July, 2017
Published online 31st August, 2017

Key words:

Food security, Resettlement, Livelihood, Rural development.

ABSTRACT

The continuous food insecurity in rural areas despite efforts by non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and the government to reduce it through food distribution schemes and many development projects has become a threat to rural development. The research sought to assess the contribution of the fast track land reform programme (FTLRP) to food security at Datmoor farm in Seke District. A mixed method approach was adopted were both qualitative and quantitative for data analysis. Stratified random sampling was used to come up with a sample of 50 households from a population of 525. Data were collected using questionnaires, focus group discussions (FGDs), key informant interviews, observations and documentary research. The quantitative data were analysed in SPSS V 16 and MS Excel environments to produce tables and graphs. The researcher concluded that 72% of farmers at Datmoor farm are food insecure. Whilst the greatest challenge to enhance production is finance. The paper recommends an increase in provision of government funded extension services, capitalisation as well as infrastructural development in order to achieve sustainability and food security.

Citation: Pepukai Perpetua Maruve and Leonard Chitongo. 2017. "Fast track land reform programme and food security in zimbabwe: a case of datmoor farm in seke District", *International Journal of Current Research*, 9, (08), 55985-55992.

INTRODUCTION

Historically resettlements were both voluntarily or involuntarily, spontaneous or planned and resulted mainly due to migration, expansion policies, colonization, and many other activities (Hooper, 2003). Resettlement began with the movements of Homo erectus out of Africa across Eurasia about a million years ago, moved out of Africa 70 000years and had spread across Australia, Asia, Europe by 40 000 BCE (Malcolm, 1988). In some places, substantial cultural transformation occurred following the resettling of relatively small elite populations, Turkey and Azerbaijan being such examples (Tamara, 2004). Also historically, resettlements were due to many factors such as climatic flactuations, landscape and inadequate food supply (UN, 2003). Colonialism was also a drive to resettlement, notably in places such as Silicity and Marseille (Tamara, 2004). In addition, Europe resettlements resulted mainly due to two waves of migrations and spatial diffusion dominated the demographic distributions and colonialism, that of the Celtic people and of the later migrant period from the North and East, both being possible examples of general cultural change sparked by primary elite and warrior migration (Hooper 2003). The shift of centuries meant also the change of livelihoods which had both negative and positive impacts on food security in different rural areas. Also, the 19th century resettlements were also formed due to migration, for example 240 000 Europeans entered American ports leading to formation of new settlements (Malcom, 1988). Furthermore, the beginning of industrialization made millions of agricultural workers to leave the countryside and moved to cities causing unprecedented levels of food insecurity in rural areas where most active rural population had resettled in urban areas (UN, 2003). Many countries such as Tanzania, Ethiopia, Mozambique and South Africa have under-gone through rural land reforms leading in shifts of thousands people to new settlement. In South Africa resettlement was mainly due to Land Tenure reform. In 1994, at the end of Apartheid, almost 90 percent of the land in South Africa was owned by white South Africans who make up less than 10 percent of the population (Cousins, 1997). However, to date less than 7 percent of land has been redistributed and most of the disadvantaged up to date have remained marginalized when it comes to land reform because of lack of capital and skills (Edward, 2001). According to Chambers (1983), many resettlement schemes in Africa found it expensive to provide settler groups with facilities like roads, schools and clinics. This lack of important facilities in rural resettled areas led to promotion of diseases such as cholera, typhoid, dysentery and many other diseases leading to death of many people in rural areas which impacted negatively on the crop production and this have led to food insecure in most resettled areas.

****Corresponding author: Pepukai Perpetua Maruve,***
Department of Rural and Urban Development Great Zimbabwe University, P.O. Box 1235 Masvingo, Zimbabwe

In Zimbabwe before 1890, land belonged to the black people of Africa, who practiced crop rotation as well as animal husbandry on nomadic basis. Zimbabwe's armed struggle was crystallised around unacceptable levels of white oppression and deprivation of blacks from land. According to Weiss (1991), during colonial period, blacks were removed from Zimbabwe's fertile soils and resettled in arid areas such as Gwai and Shangani in Matabeleland. Oppressive Land Husbandry Act, Land Apportionment Act, Land Tenure Act and many others were colonial tools of unjustified land grabbing with whites settling on fertile soils and blacks in reserves. Alexander (2006) notes that, there were still highly visible racial divisions of land after independence with roughly 6 000white farmers owning approximately 42% of the land in the country and high populations of blacks were still located in communal areas. Moyo (1995), explained that despite population increase, the figure of 162 000 households to be resettled by the government soon after independence, remained the planning target more than ten years after it was proposed.
These disparities in land distribution and continuous food shortages in communal areas motivated the Fast track resettlement in Zimbabwe which triggered equal land distribution (Alexander, 2006). The Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP) started in July 2000, with vicious invasions of white owned large scale commercial farms (LSCFs) According to Zikhali (2009), the Government of Zimbabwe passed legislation to institutionalise the FTLRP and adopted two key implementation models, namely A1 and A2 Models. The land reform programme aimed at achieving land equity through rural development schemes such as resettlement, a strategy hoped to ensure food security in Zimbabwe through improved livelihoods (Magaramombe, 2010).

Statement of the problem

Continuous food insecurity in rural areas has become a threat to rural development in Zimbabwe. Agriculture policy development has taken centre stage to reduce poverty and increase food security. Despite the efforts by the Government and NGOs to enhance or promote food security in rural areas through food distributions programmes, mechanization programmes and many other development projects such as irrigation schemes and resettlement schemes, food insecurity has remained a topical issue among rural populations in developing countries.

Aim of the study

To assess the contribution of the fast track land reform programme to food security at Datmoor farm Seke District.

Objectives

- To identify the livelihoods of Datmoor farmers.
- To assess the contribution of the fast track resettlement programme to food security at Datmoor Farm
- To examine challenges faced by Datmoor resettled farmers.

Study Area

Datmoor farm is in Seke District of Mashonaland East Province in Zimbabwe and it lies approximately 30km South-East of the capital city Harare (Mandizadza, 2010). The area is mainly composed with white clay loam soils which are suitable for agricultural purposes. The vegetation which is mainly found in the area is miombo woodland and the dominant species are brachstegia and Julbernadia (Chamunorwa, 2010). Most parts of Datmoor farm is covered by arable lands. Before resettlement, it was meshed with vegetation but with the encroachment of this scheme, the site is sparsely populated. There are also network of streams that runs across gently sloping terrains. The farm measures approximately 2 000hectares (MoLRR, 2013). Prior to resettlement Datmoor was owned by a white farmer who practiced commercial farming and mainly concerned with livestock keeping (cattle ranching) and tobacco and maize farming. During the Fast track resettlement the farm was invaded by the war veterans and peasants occupying the farm. The farm was later gazetted and was subdivided into hundred subdivisions under the recent A1 villagised model. Most resettled farmers at the farm engage in crop production.

Conceptual Framework

Land reform involves the changing of laws, regulations or customs regarding land ownership. According to Tshuma (2012), land reform is a purposive change in the way in which agricultural land is held or owned, the methods of cultivation that are employed, or the relation of agriculture to the rest of economy. Reforms such as these may be proclaimed by a government, by interested groups, or by revolution. The need for land reform in many parts of the world in order to realize human rights, including the right to an adequate standard of living and the right to food has been acknowledged by human rights experts (Moyo 1995). Land reforms seek to increase land productivity thus leading to poverty reduction and food security. FAO (2016) identifies four conditions towards ensuring food security, adequacy of food supply or availability, stability of supply without fluctuations or shortages from season to season or from year to year, accessibility to food or affordability, and quality and safety of food. In Zimbabwe land reform and resettlement is divided into two broad phases. There are various models which try to explain the resettlement process and these resettlement models include the models A, B, C, and D and these were formed in the first decade after independence, and the recent models that were formed under Fast track resettlement which includes AI and A2 models (Magaramombe, 2010). However, the research is going to focus mainly on the A1 and A2 model since the farm under research was occupied in the phase of fast track resettlement programme.

Resettlement models soon after independence

In the initial phase of resettlement in Zimbabwe, the main resettlement models used in land allocation were Model A, Model B, Model C and Model D, and each of these models emphasized specific aspects (Palmer, 1990). Auret (1990) explained that resettlement of communal farmers was done according to different models which can be defined as idealised representation of realities that is intended to demonstrate certain properties of real world. Priority was given to at the establishment of essential services such as schools and infrastructure and marketing facilities. Model A scheme comprises on intensive nucleated village settlement with individual small holder with arable units of 5hactares, a residential plot and communal grazing land of between 10 to 30hactares per household. Model B is an intensive co-

operative settlement with communal living. Model C involves individual holder production on state farm, which provides services in exchange of labour. This was done under willing buyer, willing seller arrangement (Palmer, 1990). Model D is a labour addition which entails rotation use of land, resettled land for livestock grazing by peasants in the drier communities. Model D also designed for the drier agro-ecological regions IV and V, providing grazing for use by communal areas. Each of these has the potential to ensure food security in the country, though the model B for instance, has largely been disbanded (Tshuma, 1997).

Resettlement Models of the Fast Track Resettlement Programme

In 2000, the Government's accelerated Land Reform and Resettlement Implementation Plan or 'Fast Track' resettlement, initiated a new phase in land occupation process (Moyo et al 2009). According to the land policy statement of the government of Zimbabwe adopted in 1990, which still applies, the criteria for identifying land to be acquired for redistribution are that the land is: derelict, underutilized, owned by a farmer who also has other farms, foreign owned, or contiguous to communal lands (Government of Zimbabwe 2003a). Fast track eventually encompassed by two models A1 model or small-holder farming, to be undertaken on a 'villagised' basis with communal grazing lands or within self-contained units and A2 which was intended for medium and large scale commercial farming aimed at those able to mobilize resources (Alexander, 2006). Mandizadza (2010) notes that, Model A1 is simply a modification of the original model A while the A2 model is commercial. Twenty percent of all resettlement plots under the model A1 pattern are officially reserved for war veterans, repeating a commitment made by the government since the early 1990s (Sadumba, 2008).

These resettlement models was also done as a way to increase food security in the country through offering the peasant much bigger pieces of land than what they used own in communal areas (Scoones and Wolmer, 2002). Also due to the fact that the communal areas which the farmers used to own had been degraded due to overuse, the models A1 and A2 which had fertile soils aimed at enhancing food security in rural areas. The support extended by government in form of provision of inputs, seeds and fertilizes, through GMB, AGRIBANK was aimed also at improving food security on rural population (Mandizadza, 2010). However, according to Chambers (1983), many resettlement schemes in Africa found it expensive to provide settler groups with facilities like roads, schools, electricity and clinics. Thus FTLRP is not exceptional to this statement. Moreover the government has not engaged in any speedy process to guarantee security of tenure on land allocated for resettlement: settlers on A1 model farms are in theory being issued temporary permits as occupation licenses, expected to be converted into proper leases (Mandizadza, 2010). Thus this has de-motivated the farmers with fear that they might evicted, leading food insecurity in most resettled areas.

The Nature of Pre and Post resettlement crop outputs

The resettlement programmes especially in African countries were usually characterised by high rates of decline of outputs. The resettlement programmes affects food programs leading to decline in crop outs in areas where people have been resettled (Tekere, 2009). This is usually the case of developing countries since developing countries usually have no capacity to recover from shocks which are usually encountered during the resettlement process. For instance, the case of Ujama in Tanzania led to severe decline crop outputs (Gerrit, 1971). This was because, the resettlement programme forced people to move away from subsistence farming to growing of cash crops and those crops which people were not familiar with (Goran 1980). This lack of motivation led to detriment labour in crop production leading to decline in crop output. Also, the case of Zimbabwe was similar to that of Tanzania. According to Moyo etal (2009), the war veterans were given 20% of the A2 plots which were taken from the white settlers. Most of these war veterans had no capacity to effectively utilise the farms which they resettled in and this impacted negatively on crop production leading to decrease in output quantity (Raftopoulous, 2009). Also Kelly (2003) notes that, people were resettled but were not given enough inputs to enhance crop production and also led to decline in crop production. Therefore, the resettlement outputs before resettlement experienced by Tanzania and Zimbabwe were more than those which they now produced after the resettlement programmes. For some other countries, it took them several years to regain the outputs which they experienced before resettling and in some countries there are still in the process of recovering the crop outputs takes years for it to be accomplished (Scoones, 2010). Therefore, it is the purpose of this study to assess the contribution of resettlement to food security at Datmoor farm.

The relationship between resettlement and food security

In generally resettlement is anticipated to have positive impacts to food security. The main objective of the resettlement fell on the emphasis in improving productivity. According to Mandizadza (2010), the resettlement programme is referred to as an important element of the strategy of the government with equity and transformation. Tshuma (1997) notes that, resettlement is designed to enhance food security by improving productivity within modified status-quo. Moyana (1984) states that, resettlement aims at extending and improving the base for productivity in agriculture for peasants, thereby improving standard of living of the largest and poorest sector of the population in a given area. Resettlement in African countries especially those who were under European colonies had a similar objective which was to reform Land Tenure and aiming to call for land equity (Weiss: 1991). Therefore, if equity of land is enhanced, it means there are higher chances of improved crop yields in the resettled areas. Also resettlement usually in most countries is backed up by mechanization which also accelerates food security in rural areas. Also usually resettlement is backed up by food distribution especially by politicians as a campaigning tool. Cliffe (1998) noted that**,** along with the resettlement programme in Zimbabwe the government gave assistance to the 60% of people who remained in agro-ecological zones IV and V. They received a combination of marketing, credit, extension services and agricultural inputs. This assistance by government though it had its own setbacks was a way to enhance food security. Therefore, resettlement aims at enhancing food security since when people are resettled under reform programmes the idea is to improve standard of living through giving people access to land thereby enhancing development.

Positive contributions of resettlement programme to food security

Agriculture remains the largest sector in most developing countries and is crucial for food security (Scoones and Wolmer, 2003). It is quite relevant to evaluate the land reform programme in Zimbabwe in terms of its contribution to food security. After being allocated plots under fast track resettlement programme, beneficiaries engaged in activities ranging from cop production to other non-land based activities despite the challenges they faced and some areas have better yields than they would have enjoyed without land (Mandizadza, 2010). According to Moyo (2009), he noted that arguably the programme is said to have addressed to some extend the worrisome legacy of historic injustice and economic, social and racial inequalities and broadened the base of economic participation it was associated with significant increase in crop production considering that the resettled farmers owned much larger pieces of fertile land than what they used to own in communal areas (Mandizadza, 2010). The shift from communal lands with increased hectrage of land to the settled people contributed much to the food security in rural areas especially to those who were resettled in areas where soil was fertile and to those who managed to get aid inform of farm equipment and loans from the government.

Negative contributions of resettlement programme to food security

There were positive and sustainable results from the resettlement process, though problems beset the resettled communities who lacked infrastructure and support networks, whether from governmental or from their previous communities. By 1997, there was no big change in land distribution in Zimbabwe (Raftopoulous, 2009). Thus, in the period 1980-1990, very little was achieved in terms of tangible changes in terms of land ownership and poverty alleviation in the country (Owens et al 2003). Although the government made policies to assist the newly resettled farmers, such policies of support to farmers were thus not sufficient to solve the problem of poverty (Cliffe, 1998). In 2003, there was a huge increase in food insecurity in Zimbabwe. For instance, the IFAD Report (2003) indicated that the proportion of households in the very poor category (those below the FPDL) had increased from about 20 percent in 1995 to about 48% in the year 2003 due to food insecurities. Whereas previously food insecurity was understood as a rural phenomenon (Kinsey, 1999), the situation in urban areas has deteriorated sharply mainly because of the declining macro-environment, especially hyper-inflation, negative GDP growth and the shrinking formal job opportunities (Government. of Zimbabwe 2003a).

The above problems of food insecure in most rural areas have been triggered by disorderly process of fast track resettlement. Sadumba (2008) noted that, it appeared that most people who had moved in the plots during this era could not produce at maximum due to the fact that they were worried about the lack of certainty that their title will be secured and thus this also discouraged many from taking up plots. Others, according to UN (2003), had not taken the opportunity because they did not have the resources to cultivate the land and there was no government support to assist new settlers. The absence of legal security and government assistance could leave them vulnerable to hunger and displacement.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The researcher used mixed methods approach were both qualitative and quantitative data were collected (Terell, 2012). Thus the research used both qualitative and quantitative in research, quantitative research methodologies helped to quantify yields and tonnes obtained before and after people were resettled so as to assess the contribution of resettlement to food security to resettled households in the area under the study. Qualitative methodologies gave the researcher an insight on livelihood strategies employed by resettled farmers, the challenges resettled people faces that increases their vulnerability to food security and what they think can be done to improve their food security in that resettled areas. The researcher saw the need of using these methods because of its reliability and credibility (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996). The study population consisted of 527 people (ZIMstat 2012). However the research was carried at household level and 100 households made up the study population (MoLRR, 2013). A sample of 50 households was randomly selected using random number tables. The sample was further stratified according to proportional to gender since 76 household were male headed, the sample proportional to gender were 38 males and 12 females (Masvongo, 2013). Research instruments have their limitations thus the researcher used 50 researcher administered questionnaires, 2 FGDs, 3 key informant interviews and observations in order to increase validity. Secondary sources were also used for cross referencing. For the purpose of collecting data, the researcher sought authority from the Ministry of lands and Rural Resettlement, Seke District Administrator, Seke District Councillor and Seke traditional leaders. The researcher used SPSS V16 and Microsoft Excell 2013 to analyse and present data in the form of tables and figures.

Research findings and analysis

Most beneficiaries of the fast track land reform are war veterans who are above 60 years. Household headship is 76% males this shows the gendered nature of the fast track land reform programme (Gaidzanwa, 2011). This affects production since, FAO (2010) asserts that smallholder farming in Zimbabwe is influenced by gender. As a result, most of the agricultural activities are carried out by women, though decisions on land use and ownership have remained a patriarchal affair (Chitongo, 2017). The majority of famers 67% do not have training in farming**.** There is need for human capital development in order to enhance sustainability of farming at Datmor. Human capital encompasses the education level, knowledge and farming skills which the farmers acquire (Chitongo, 2017). In Indonesia smallholder tobacco farmers acquire tobacco farming knowledge and information on adverse weather patterns from extension officers.

Livelihoods strategies employed at Datmoor farm

Figure 1 below shows livelihood strategizes of farmers

On-farm livelihood strategies

Crop production and livestock rearing are the on-farm livelihood strategies. The major crop grown is maize. A 1 farm does not exceed 6 hectares making it difficult to practice extensive livestock production (Wolmer, 2003). Hence small livestock such as goats and poultry are dominant in most

households. Cooperative gardens are another livelihood strategy being practised at Datmoor farm where vegetables, maize, tomatoes and onions are grown.Cooperative gardens as a strategy by Help German has greatly improved the standards of living of Rushwaya community. The community`s capitals have improved through selling products from the garden. One can note that, food insecurity has been reduced since the intervention of Help German in the community (Chitongo and Magaya, 2013:213). These cooperative gardens are strategically located near water sources. This concurs to Rukuni and Eicher (1984) who assert that, cooperative gardens are a livelihood diversification strategy since crops grown provide a food which act as a buffer against food insufficiency prior to main harvest.

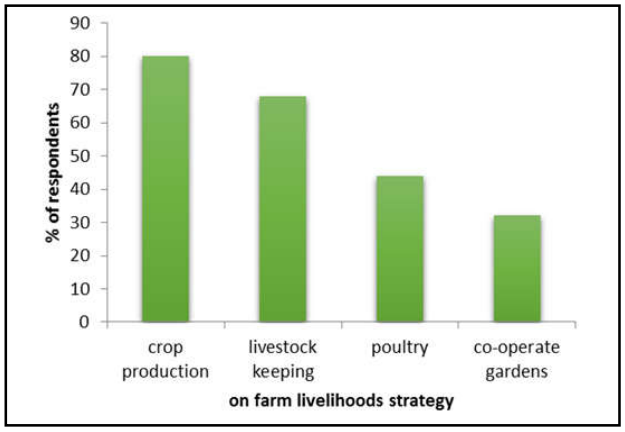

Figure 1. On-farm livelihood strategies

Non-farm livelihood strategies employed at the farm

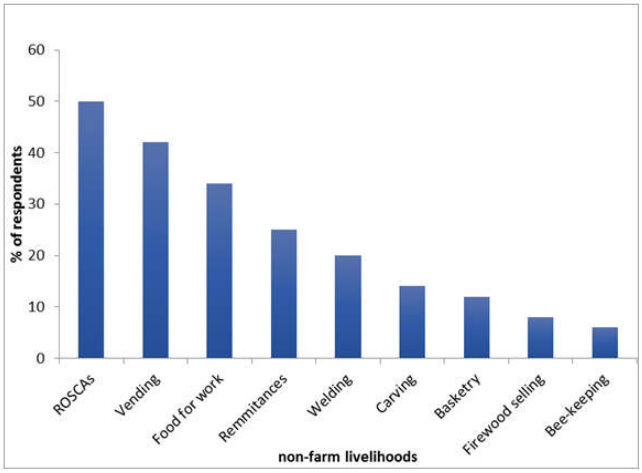

Figure 2. Non-farm livelihoods strategies employed at the farm

Rotational Savings (ROSCAs) and vending are the major off farm livelihood strategies practiced at Datmoor farm. People re-invest their incomes they get from crop production and livestock selling. This is supported by Potter et al (2002) who describes ROSCAs as the, "poor man's bank, the money in the scheme is not idle for long but changes hands rapidly, satisfying both consumption and production needs. ROSCAs provide a means for the utilisation of surplus funds and savings for low income households which gives a window of opportunity for members to save, at the same time maximizing return.

Contributions of Resettlement to Food Security at Datmoor farm

Crops grown at Datmoor farm: The majority of farmers at Datmoor grow maize. Seke district is in natural farming region 2 which is intensive farming average annual rainfall is 760mm (Chamunorwa, 2010). This concurs to what Moyana (1984) postulated that, types of crops grown depend on environmental conditions, market demands, and preference.

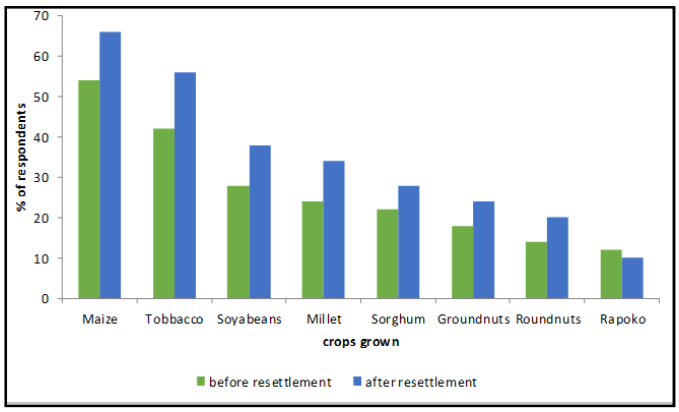

Figure 3. Crops grown before and after resettlement

Tobacco production is also popular at Dartmor it has a high market demand and value than maize. Interest in tobacco farming is growing rapidly in Africa with many small scale farmers taking up tobacco farming as a way of supplementing their household incomes (Marawanyika, 2011). Tobacco farming can be used as a strategy for attaining food security, even though tobacco farming is not an edible crop. Households can raise sufficient income from tobacco farming to meet household food requirements. Keyser (2002) argues that tobacco farming provides small scale farmers with an important safety net against increased climate variability. Drought resistant crops such as sorghum, millet and rapoko are also grown as a coping strategy during dry seasons.

Average yields per household annually before and after resettlement

Table 1. Average annual yields per household before and after resettlement

Crops grown	Average yield per hectare (in tonnes) annually *before resettlement	Average yields per hectare per (in tonnes) annually **after resettlement
Maize	0.38	0,42
Tobacco	0,32	0,38
Soya beans	0,001	0,015
Groundnuts	0,007	0.008
Round nuts	0,007	0,005
Sorghum	0,001	0,003

*Before resettlement 1999 ** after resettlement 2015

Results show that there is a small increase in output in all crops after resettlement. Area under production, farming experience influence production (Masvingo, 2013). The fast track land reform provided farmers with increased arable land. However extension services still remain limited resulting in low yields. Mandizadza (2010), notes that, the support extended by government in form of provision of inputs, seeds is inadequate to transform Zimbabwe's land reform into an agrarian reform. The increase in production has resulted in increased income.

Livestock ownership by respondents

Table 2. Average livestock ownership per household before and after resettlement

Livestock owned	Before resettlement	After resettlement
Cattle	3	5
Goats	4	7
Pigs	2	4
Donkeys	2	3

Results show a slight increase in livestock ownership. Livestock production was affected by the 2002 drought. This was also exacerbated by the economic decline of 2006-2009. Thus farmers tended to trade their livestock in exchange of maize (Keyser, 2002).

Challenges Encountered at Datmoor Farm

Financial constraints: The 99 year lease proved by the government does not provide collateral security for farmers. Thus they cannot acquire loans from financial institutions. The World Bank defines a poor person as one who leaves on less than 1 US$ per. One farmer noted:

- *Most of people on Datmor farm are poor peasants that are less privileged who can hardly afford a day's meal.*
- Hence, lack of finance by resettled farmers triggers high chances of food insecurity.

Water scarcity

Findings indicate that, both portable and irrigation water is scarce. Farming is rain-fed hence in the event of a drought farmers do not have a safety net to stay food secure. *Extreme weather conditions which include low rainfall and high temperatures in Seke District has affected water supply.*

Noted one farmer

A respondent from one focus group discussion indicated that, dams dry up during the year. Thus farmers have to walk long distances so as to access portable water for domestic use which means more time is wasted which should have been used for tilling their lands. An Arex officer highlighted that:

There are no boreholes within the resettled farm.

Chambers (1987) who noted that, many resettlement schemes in Africa found it expensive to provide settler groups with facilities like roads, boreholes, and schools.

Inadequate skills and knowledge in farming practice

Since most farmers have limited farming Knowledge. They lack capacity to fully utilise the assets they have to enhance productivity. Thus they fail to convert their endowments into entailment's (Mutami, 2015). The researcher observed that, most farmers engage in poor farming methods such as stream bank cultivation and overgrazing which lead to siltation of rivers and environmental degradation.

Most of the maize at the farm was inadequately weeded which made maize susceptible to pests, insects and diseases thereby affecting yields leading to most farmers attaining less yields than anticipated which is a threat to food security.

Plate 1. Inadequate weeded maize at Datmoor farm

Poor road networks

Poor road infrastucture is a challenge that is encountered by many plot holders at the farm. Poor road networks has led spatial marginalisation which has led to high transportation costs. Thus increasing vulnerability and reducing effectiveness of production systems.

Conclusion

The major on-farm livelihood strategy employed at Datmoor farm is crop farming. Maize is the most popular crop grown, though some drought tolerant crops are also grown as a resilient strategy. However, these crops are grown in smaller quantities, thus making it difficult for them to curtail the challenge of food insecurity. The community has come together through cooperative gardens to enhance their household income. However, due to water scarcity these cooperative gardens do not produce much as a safety net in poverty alleviation. Off-farm and non-farm livelihood strategies include, internal savings and lending clubs, vending, food for work, remittances, welding, basketry, firewood selling and bee-keeping. These strategies help in enhancing food security to resettled farmers. They also are part of a livelihood diversification strategy which helps during times of shocks and stress. As noted by Bernstein et al (1991), off farm production activities augment agricultural yields, reduces households dependence on unreliable rain fed agriculture and provide them with something to lean back on if agriculture fails to meet some or all their nutritional requirements. Thus non-farm activities also help in reducing vulnerability to food insecurity during drought years.

Households at Datmoor farm in Seke District are food insecure. This has been partly influenced by the socio economic environment which affected agriculture supply chain. This has affected farming inputs, infrastructure development and even marketing policies. Even though farmers have access to land they still have inadequate resources to fully utilise the land. Despite efforts to come up with adaptive and coping strategies the sustainability of these strategies has been questioned as they tend to degrade the biophysical environment. These strategies have been inadequate such that they have not been significant in

alleviating food insecurity. The problem has been exacerbated by the following challenges financial constraints, water scarcity, poor farming methods, and poor

Recommendations

- The government should ensure that resettled farmers get tittle deeds so that they act as surety. Thus enabling farmers to be able to get loans which will help to finance production.
- The Zimbabwe government needs to increase research and extension services by expanding and capacitating AGRITEX.
- An Intergrated Approach is needed for water resource management. This can be achieved through water harvesting techniques, Irrigation development and management systems should be put in place.
- The mechanisation policy should be fully implemented so as to improve efficiency and effectiveness of agricultural production.
- The government should also provide markets that subsidise farmers in order to protect smallholder farmers. For example the price per tonne must be increased so that most resettled farmers do not concentrate on tobacco which have high market value but also concentrate on maize as a staple crop to enhance food security.
- The government should be installation of irrigation schemes in resettled areas so that people will be able to farm throughout the year, thereby reducing of dependency on non-farm activities during off farming seasons. Also, irrigation activities will help to increase incomes for resettled areas thereby lessening vulnerability of food insecurity in rural areas
- Government and non-governmental organisations should enhance implementation of water and sanitation programmes in order to reduce the prevalence of diseases.
- Environmental policy for natural resource conservation should be implemented.

REFERENCES

Alexander J. 2006. The Unsettled Land State Making and the politics of Land in Zimbabwe 1893-2003 Harare: Weaver Press

Auret D 1990. A Decade of developing Zimbabwe 1980-90 Gweru: Mambo Press

Bernstein, H., Crow, B. and Johnson, H. 1991. Rural Livelihoods. Cries and Responses Oxford University Press, Oxford

Chambers R, 1987. Sustainable Rural Livelihoods. A strategy for people, environment and development. An overview paper for Only One Earth: Conference on Sustainable Development, 28–30 April 1987 London: IIED

Chambers R. 1983. Rural Development- Putting the Last First New York: Longman

Chamunorwa A. 2010. Comparative Analysis of Agricultural Productivity between Newly Resettled Farmers and Communal Farmers in Mashonaland East Province. Harare: Institute of Development Studies.

Chitongo L, and Magaya E.V., 2013. Cooperative Gardens and Rural Development the Case of Help German in Gutu Ward 25 *Zimbabwe Journal of Agriculture and Sustainability* Vol 4, No. 2, 2013, 191-217

Chitongo L. 2017. The Efficacy of Smallholder Tobacco Farmers on Rural Development in Zimbabwe Phd thesis University of the Free State, South Africa

Cliffe, L 1988. The Prospects for Agricultural Transformation in Zimbabwe, in C Stoneman ed), Zimbabwe's Prospects: Issues of Land, Class, State and Capital in Southern Africa London: McMillan.

Cousins B 1997. How do rights become Real? Formal and Informal Institutions in South Africa's Land Reform IDS Bulletin 28 (4)59-68

Edward L. 2001. Land Reform in South Africa. Is it meeting the Challenge Policy No.1 Cape Town Programme for Land and Agrarian Studies, School of Government, University of the Western-Cape

FAO, 2016. (Strategic work of FAO to Reduce Rural Poverty) Retrieved June 27, 2015, from www.fao.org/3/a-i5720e.pd. Accessed 10/08/2016

FAO. 2010. Gender dimensions of agricultural and rural employment: Differentiated pathways out of poverty - Status, trends and gaps. the Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations, the International Fund for Agricultural Development and the International Labour Office.

Gaidzanwa R B. 2011. Women and Land in Zimbabwe, Paper presented at the Conference "Why women matter in agriculture" Sweden, April 4-8, 2011.

Gerrit, H. 1971. The Ujama village programme in Tanzania: New forms of Rural Development The Hague Institute of Social Studies

Goran, H. 1980. Beyond Ujama in Tanzania: Underdevelopment and an uncaptured peasantry Berkely University of California

Government of Zimbvabwe, 2003a. Report of the presidential land review committee on the implementation of the fast track land reform programme, 2000–2002 'The Utete report' Harare: Government Printers

Haralambos M and Holborn M 1991. Sociology, Themes and Perspectives London: Collins

Hooper P L. 2003. Forced Population Transfers in Early Ottoman Imperial Strategy. A Comparative Approach Princeton University

IFAD, 2003. Internal Fund for Agricultural, Rural Poverty London: ZED Books

Kelly V, Adesiana A and Gordon A, 2003. Expanding Access to Agricultural inputs in Africa volume 28 no 4

Keyser, J. C. 2002. The Costs and Profitability of Tobacco Compared to Other Crops in Zimbabwe. Economics of Tobacco Control Paper No.1 HNP Discussion Paper, World bank.

Kinsey, BH. 1999. Land reform, growth and equity: emerging evidence from Zimbabwe's resettlement programme, Journal of Southern African Studies

Magaramombe G., 2010. Agrarian displacements, replacements and resettlement, displaced in place, farm workers in Mazowe District Journal of Southern African Studies volume 36 No. 2 361-75

Malcom M. 1988. New Zealand Historical Atlas Journal of Urban History

Mandizadza S. 2010. The Livelihoods after Land Reform in Zimbabwe Working Paper 2 Project PLAAS Cape town

Marawanyika, G. 2011. Bloomberg Business Week. Retrieved 6 2011, from www.businessweek.com/news/2011-07-

06/zimbabweconsidering-applications-to-start-tobacco-auctions.html

Masvongo J, Mutambara J, and Zvinavashe A 2013. Viability of tobacco production under smallholder farming sector in Mount Darwin District, Zimbabwe Journal of Development and Agricultural Economics, volume 5 No 8 295-301

Moyana H V, 1984. Land and Tenure Change in Mashonaland Province Harare: Sapes

Moyo S 1995. The Land and Agrarian Question in Zimbabwe Harare: Sapes

Moyo S, Chambati W and Murisa T, 2009. Fast Track Land Reform Trends and Tendencies African Instutute for Agrarian Studies Harare

Moyo S. 2009. Agrarian Reform and Prospects for Recovery Harare: African Institute for Agrarian Studies

Mutami, C. 2015. Smallholder agriculture production in Zimbabwe: A survey consilience. The Journal of Sustainable Development, 14(2), 140-157

Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996. Research Methods in the Social Sciences. New York: St Martin's Press

Owens T, Hoddinont J and Kinsley 2003. The impact of agricultural extension on farm production in resettled areas of Zimbabwe. Economic development and Cultural Change volume 51 no.2 337-57

Palmer R 1990. Land Reform in Zimbabwe 1980-1990 African Affairs London: Heinemann

Potter L. 2002. Learning about Livelihoods. Insights from Southern Africa Oxford: Oxfarm

Raftopoulous B. 2009. The Crisis in Zimbabwe 1998-2008 in B Raftopolous and A Mlambo (eds) Becoming Zimbabwe. A History from the pre-colonial period to 2008 Harare: Weaver Press

Rukuni M and Eicher C. 1984. Food Security for Sourthern Africa Harare: University of Zimbabwe

Sadumba W.Z. 2008. War Veterans in Zimbabwe's Land Occupations in an African Post- Colonial Settler Society PhD Dissertation Netherlands: Wageningen University Netherlands

Scoones I and Wolmer K. 2002. Pathway of Change in Africa. Cros, Livestock and Livelihoods in Mali, Ethiopia and Zimbabwe James London: Currey Oxford

Scoones I and Wolmer K. 2003 Livelihoods in Crisis, challenges for rural development in Southern Africa IDS Bulletin volume 34

Scoones I. 2010. Livelihoods perspectives and rural development Journal of Peasant Studies volume 36

Tamara S. 2004. A brief History of Islam Blackwell Publishing Limited 1SBN 1-4051-0900-9

Tekere G. 2009. Ethiopian Revolution War in the Horn of Africa New Haven Yale University

Terell, S. R. 2012. Mixed-methods research methodologies. The Qualitative Report, 17(1), 254–280.

Tshuma L 1997. A Matter of 'In' justice, law, state and Agrarian Question in Zimbabwe Harare: Mount Pleasant

UN, 2003. Levels and Trends of International Migration to selected countries United Nations Publications

Weiss P. 1991. Focus on Geography- Book 3. The Physical Environment of Southern Africa Mazongororo Convertors, Harare

Zikhali, P. 2009. Investment in land during land reform, Pretoria, Natural Resources Forum.

ZIMStat 2012. Poverty and poverty datum line analysis in Zimbabwe 2011/2012, Harare Zimstat

****