The Prospects and Challenges of the Rural Non-Farm Economy (RNFE) in Zimbabwe: A Case of Seke Rural District

By

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, Delight Mukozho, hereby declare that the contents of this dissertation are my original work and have not been and will not be submitted to any other academic institution for such a purpose as this.

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Signature Date

DEDICATION

To my husband, Tongai Mukozho and my son, Joshua F. Mukozho. Thank you so much for your love, support and encouragement.

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First and foremost, I would like to thank the Lord God, Almighty for giving me the opportunity to come this far and the strength to work towards achieving my goals. I would also like to express my heartfelt gratitude to my supervisor, Prof. A. Rahim, for his guidance, patience and assistance during the course of this study. it was not easy but by his guiding hand made this journey possible.

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

BNA	Basic Needs Approach
CD	Compact Disc
CSO	Central Statistical Office
DVD	Digital Versatile
E	East
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organisation
RNFE	Rural Non-Farm Economy
RNF	Rural Non-Farm
S	South
SADC	Southern African Development Committee
SLA	Sustainable Livelihoods Approach
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences

ABSTRACT

The Rural Non-Farm Economy (RNFE) is a concept that has gained significance quite recently. Its significance has been prompted by the realisation that agriculture alone cannot sustain the poor subsistence farmers in Zimbabwe. This realisation comes amid the growing concern over increased hunger and poverty in the country's rural areas due to a decline in agricultural production. Drawing on the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA) this study postulates that RNFE is a livelihood strategy that can address rural poverty and social transformation in Zimbabwe. Such an approach to rural development can take up the slack and provide the much needed income for the rural communities to survive. However, RNFE has not yet been used as a social mechanism for poverty alleviation in Zimbabwe. Therefore, this study has undertaken with the objective of investigating the prospects and challenges of the RNFE in Seke District.

Although the study is focusing on Zimbabwe, the study may also address the problem of rural development in other countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. The study revealed that only a few household heads in Seke were engaged in both traditional and non-traditional activities. However, the study noted that the household heads encountered many challenges which include; poor market, low income obtained, shortage of inputs, no access to credit and no support from government or other development agencies.

Overall, it was recognised that the household heads engaged in RNFE were not realizing the full benefits of RNFE. Therefore, in order to promote the growth of RNFE and make it more productive, the study posits the following key points to be take into consideration by the various stakeholders in rural development; agricultural

development, infrastructural development, rural town development, improving access to financial services, facilitating rural-urban linkages and the implementation of development projects aimed at promoting self employment in the non-farm sector.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Zimbabwe is a country which is situated in the Southern region of the African continent. It has an area of 390 760 square kilometres and extends from latitudes of 15 ^{o}37'S to 22 ^{o}24'S and from longitudes of 25 ^{o}14'E to 33 ^{o} 04'E (Muregerera, 2003; Zimfarmer, 2011). "The country is landlocked, bordering Mozambique to the east, South Africa to the south, Botswana to the west and Zambia to the north" (Muregerera, 2003:90). Altitude ranges between 197 m and 2592 m and about 80% of the land is higher than 600 m and less than 5% is above 1500 m, with the highest part in the Eastern Highlands (Muregerera, 2003:90). The country has three major rivers namely; Zambezi river, Save river and Limpopo river. The country has a population of approximately 14 million people on a total land area of about 39,600 million hectares (Mudzonga and Chigwada, 2009; Munyanyi, 2005). Eighty-five per cent of the country is agricultural land, and the balance is occupied by national parks, forests and urban settlements" (Mudzonga and Chigwada, 2009:2).

Climatic conditions are mainly tropical with dry winters and wet summers (Zimfarmer, 2011). Conversely, much of the Highveld and Eastern Highlands have a subtropical to temperate climate due to the modifying effect of altitude (Muregerera, 2003:90). Muregerera further states that three seasons are recognised in the country and they are as follows: a hot, wet season from mid-November to March known as summer; a cold, dry season from April to July known as winter, and lastly, a hot, dry season from August to mid-November known as spring. "Maximum temperatures are lowest in winter and these usually occur in either June or July.

During this period mean daily temperatures range between 11 and 20 degrees Celsius. On the other hand, maximum temperatures are highest in spring and these normally occur in the month of October. Interestingly enough mean maximum daily temperatures can exceed 32 degrees Celsius during this time of the year. Frost may occur in most areas between May and September, with the highest incidence occurring in June and July" (Muregerera, 2003:90).

The country experiences a rather short rainy season which lasts about four months between November and March (Zimfarmer, 2011). This is the season when agricultural activities, particularly rainfed crop production, are at their peak (Munyanyi, 2005:29). This is followed by eight months of dry weather conditions (Muregerera, 2003:90). Even though that is the case, there has been a shift in the weather patterns due to climate change effects. As a result, the country has been receiving delayed and erratic rains over the past few years.

Zimbabwe has a dual agrarian structure which is composed of large-scale commercial farming and smallholder farming (which includes small-scale commercial farmers, communal area farmers and resettlement area farmers) (Mudzonga and Chigwada, 2009:2). Of interest is the fact that large-scale commercial farming occupies some 40 percent of the country's total land area and was historically dominated by white farmers who owned and operated farms that covered one-third of the country's most productive farmland (Encyclopaedia of Nations, 2010). On the other hand, small-scale farming is both commercial and subsistence in nature and covers most of the less reproductive parts of the country and this is the form of agriculture that is practiced by the majority of the rural communities in the county. This group occupies 42 percent of the total land area in the country. Mudzonga and Chigwada (2009) indicate that over one-third of the

country's population lives in urban areas, while the rest resides in rural areas and are engaged in small-scale subsistence and commercial agricultural activities. From this it can be deduced that the most productive land was distributed between a small group of people whilst the rest of the country was forced to fork out an existence on the less productive land.

In light of the information provided above, it can be noted that agriculture plays a central economic and social role in Zimbabwe. The following are some of the roles played by agriculture in the country. Firstly, the agricultural sector is responsible for providing adequate and affordable food for the ever increasing population. Secondly, the agricultural sector provides relatively cheap food for the growing industrial labour force. Thirdly, agriculture is important for the provision of employment and income to a large percentage of the country's population. Lastly, the agricultural sector supplies raw materials to the growing domestic industrial sector.

Without doubt agriculture has been and it can be argued that it continues to be the primary source driving the country's economy. Statistics show that agriculture contributes 16.1 percent to Gross Domestic Product (GDP), 22.8 per cent of foreign exchange earnings and 23 per cent to formal employment (Southern African Development Committee, 2009). However, despite the above assertion, agriculture's contribution to the country's GDP has been fluctuating since the mid-1980s. Statistics indicate that in 1985 agriculture's contribution to GDP was 17 percent, 12 percent in 1990, 14 percent in 1996, 28 percent in 1998, 18 percent in 2001 and 16.1 percent in 2009 (Encyclopaedia of Nations, 2010). This fluctuation was dependent upon the agricultural output received in the respective years. Where agricultural output was high agriculture's contribution to GDP was high and where production was low contribution to GDP was also low. It is also important to note that

the decline in agricultural production and its contribution to GDP at this time was dependent upon the impact of drought and the level of world prices for export crops. At present agricultural output today is on the decline and agriculture's contribution to the country's economy has been greatly reduced

Although agriculture is on a downward spiral presently, in the past Zimbabwe used to have a "well-developed and diversified agricultural sector, producing food crops, cash crops, and livestock" (Encyclopaedia of Nations, 2010). As such, the country was able "to produce much of its own food, except in years when drought affected the production of maize which is the staple food of the country and wheat" (Encyclopaedia of Nations, 2010). Although maize was and continues to be the staple food, other cereal crops were produced including barley, millet, sorghum, and wheat. This attribute made Zimbabwe the breadbasket of Southern Africa during the 1980s and 1990s.

The farming exploits of Zimbabwe did not end with the production of food crops only. Zimbabwe was once among the world's biggest exporters of tobacco. In 1997 tobacco exports comprised 23 percent of merchandise exports and this was the highest percentage ever reached (Encyclopaedia of Nations, 2010). According to the Encyclopaedia of nations the other main exports were sugar and cotton, and in years of surplus, maize was also exported. The Encyclopaedia of Nations further state that horticulture also grew rapidly in the late 1990s and Zimbabwe became the world's third-largest exporter of roses during this time. In addition to this, "Zimbabwe is one of a few sub-Saharan African countries ever allowed to export beef to the European Union. Exports began in 1985; however, Zimbabwe could not keep up with its quota, and exports dwindled over the years' (Encyclopaedia of Nations, 2010). Despite all these achievements, food production in the country has remained

below subsistence levels since the year 2000 and has been on a steady decline for the past two decades and today there are fears that agricultural production will continue to decline.

Notably also is the fact that since 1991, Zimbabwean agriculture has undergone a fundamental transition away from artificial producer and consumer prices, which were set far below world market levels (Encyclopaedia of Nations, 2010). As a result of this, many commercial farmers changed from corn (maize), cotton, and oilseed production to tobacco and horticultural activities because the government refused to permit producer prices to keep pace with rising input prices. This meant that most commercial farmers moved away from food production to cash crop production and this move contributed greatly to the decline in food production in the country. During this time, drought, coupled with the transition away from food production, severely affected the output of every crop except tobacco and statistics indicate that corn (maize), wheat, cotton, oilseed, coffee, and sugar outputs all declined by at least 75% (Encyclopaedia of Nations, 2010). “Contrary to this, tobacco production continued to increase and in 2001 production totalled approximately 172,111 tons. Conversely, in the period between 1996 and 1999 maize production declined by as much as 42 percent and statistics show that maize production in 1999 totalled only 1,520,000 tons, down from 2,609,200 tons in 1996” (Encyclopaedia of Nations, 2010). This decline indicates how food production was affected by this transition. Because of this and other reasons, food production in the country continued to decline and the country was forced to rely on food imports in an effort to feed the country’s growing population and this predicament has continued up to this day.

In the period between 1999 and 2001 cereal production (production of grains such as maize, sorghum, millet, wheat and rice among others) was 2.175 million tonnes

on average (Encyclopaedia of Nations, 2010). Unfortunately, in the period between '2001 and 2002 cereal production fell by as much as 57 percent due to poor harvests which were a result of insufficient rainfall received in the country at that time. In the period between 2002 and 2003, reports indicated that the country was facing an estimated total cereal deficit of 1,869,000 metric tonnes. In 2004 reports showed that the country faced an estimated cereal gap of more than 1 million metric tonnes and was in need of a potential net import requirement of approximately 800,000 metric tonnes for the people to survive throughout that year" (Munyanyi, 2005:40). In the period between 2000 and 2007 production declined by as much as 51 per cent (Bafana, 2009). Moreover, in 2008 maize harvested was less than half a million tons, a figure which is five times less than the amount required to feed the whole nation (Food and Agriculture Organisation, 2010). The situation improved slightly is the 2009 which saw 1.2 million tonnes of maize being harvested (The Zimbabwe Situation, 2011). Currently, even though food security was said to have improved, the country has had 1.35 million tons of maize harvested in 2010, and this figure is below the 2.09 million tonnes which was required to feed the nation through early months of 2011 (Zulu and Schlein, 2010). Today the country is faced with yet another bout of hunger due to due a recent drought.

This decline in agricultural output has also been a result lack of investment in the agricultural sector, including in research and development (Mudzonga and Chigwada, 2009:2). Added to this, is a lack of public–private partnership investment in the rural and agricultural commodity sector - a prerequisite and important catalyst for agricultural development and food production in developing countries (Mudzonga and Chigwada, 2009:2). Mudzonga and Chigwada also add that foreign direct

investment has been limited to date, as less than three per cent in 2005 was invested in agriculture and food industries worldwide.

In addition to this, the land reform programme which took place in the year 2000 to seize white owned farms and redistributing the land to landless blacks also contributed to a decrease in crop production. The land reform programme saw more than 4 000 out of the 4 500 productive white farmers losing their land (Encyclopaedia of Nations, 2010). It is important to note that after colonial independence in 1980, most of the productive farmland in the country remained in the hands of whites, and through the 1990s the government worked to shift the ownership by seizing and redistributing land without compensation (Mudzonga and Chigwada, 2009:2). As hundreds of farms were taken over, commercial farms were vandalised and the production and export of grains collapsed. This was particularly because of the fact that a large proportion of the redistributed farms were being underutilised and were thus no longer productive under the new ownership. The Zimbabwe-based African Institute for Agrarian Studies (AIAS) estimates that the land reform programme reduced agricultural production and land use intensity by over 40 percent (Bafana, 2009). Although, new forms of financing agriculture, including credit and sub-contracting, new joint ventures and state credit and support schemes were made available after the land redistribution, these were and continue to be limited in area coverage and most resettled farmers today lack the necessary support services to be more productive (Mudzonga and Chigwada, 2009:3). Worse still, the old system was geared to large-scale farming and the transition to small scale farming has been slow and painful.

The decline in agricultural output has also been attributed to supply-side constrains. Some of the supply-side constraints include power shortages, lack of credit facilities,

high fuel prices and shortages that made agriculture production expensive and delayed timeous land preparation, shortages of foreign currency to meet farmers' requirements of inputs, and the deteriorating land quality (through poor agricultural practices, soil erosion, salination, acidification and nutrient depletion) (Mudzonga and Chigwada, 2009:3).

Bafana (2009) states that poor supply of inputs and poor weather have impacted greatly on smallholder farmers as the staple maize has, in particular, suffered from an acute shortage of fertiliser and seed. Farmers who have been able to access these inputs have frequently received these late in the season and this, together with early heavy rains followed by a dry spell, has contributed to potentially the most serious cereal shortages since land reform started (Bafana, 2009). Others farmers have raised complaints of these inputs falling in the hands of the elite rural folk who, after receiving them, would then sell the inputs to them at very exorbitant prices. This was also fuelled by the economic crisis in the country which saw the prices of inputs escalating to prices beyond the reach of the majority of the rural farmers in the country. In most instances, the farmers were thus forced to use some of the grain set aside for food as seed.

The decline in food production has also been attributed to incessant rains and intra-season dry spells due to climate change effects and in the drier regions of the country water scarcity is a major challenge for farmers (Makunike, 2009). Climate change poses one of the most serious food security challenges in the 21st century for the country. According to the Zimbabwe Meteorological Office in Harare, rainfall has declined by about five percent and rainfall events have become more intense while mid-season dry spells have become more frequent and, extreme events are becoming more intense and of longer duration coupled with periodic shift in the

onset of rains (Makunike, 2009). Statistics show that the country has received six warmest years on record since 1987 and an increase in the frequency of droughts since 1990 (90/91; 91/92, 92/93, 93/94, 94/95, 97/98, 01/02, 02/02, 04/05, 06/07) and this has impacted greatly on food production (Makunike, 2009).

It is important to point out that the 1991-2 drought was the most severe and affected the whole Southern African Region. The drought struck ten countries and greatly contributed to the decline in agricultural production, particularly food production. Out of the 10 countries affected, 6 countries namely, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe were left with approximately 13 million people facing a severe food crisis which took a long time to recover from (Munyanyi, 2005:39). In Zimbabwe, the drought affected the entire economy and the real GDP per capita shrunk by almost 12% in that year (Central Statistical Office, 2002). Other experts have predicted that agricultural productivity in Zimbabwe could decrease by up to 30 percent because of increases in climate extremes (Makunike, 2009).

The worst part of all this is that the poor rural communities who constitute sixty percent of the country's total population and are primarily engaged in subsistence agriculture are the worst affected (Todaro and Smith, 2009). The decline in agricultural output has left them intensely vulnerable and greatly exposed them to the danger of starvation.

1.2. Statement of the problem

The decline in agricultural output has resulted in increased hunger and poverty in Zimbabwe's rural areas where the majority of the rural folk are engaged in subsistence farming activities. Similarly, rural households in Zimbabwe as in most countries have a higher poverty rate than urban households. In addition, most farm

incomes and production are inadequate to meet the farmers' own subsistence and food shortages are rising with each coming year.

Although food security was said to have improved in the year 2010, the available grain was not enough to feed the millions of Zimbabweans in the country. As a result, the country was faced with a bout of hunger and millions of people were faced with the danger of starvation due to erratic rains experienced during the farming season. Reports indicated that 2.8 million people in the country – almost a third of the population - were in need of food aid last year (Nkomo, 2010).

Recent reports show that there the country is facing critical food shortages in 6 of the 10 in the country among them are Manicaland Province, Masvingo Province, Matebeland Province and metropolitan Bulawayo and there are fears that the food shortages might be widespread (Nyaira, 2011). Reports indicate that about 1.2 million people out of a total population of about 12 million people need food aid. These food shortages are particularly due to the fact that the country suffered a prolonged dry spell between February and March which led to a crop failure in most parts of the country (The Zimbabwe Situation, 2011). As a result of that, the United Nations and the Food and Agriculture Organisation indicated that the country could need up US$300 million dollars to meet national food requirements (Nyaira, 2011). With the shifting weather patterns in the country due to climate change effects there are fears that agricultural production will continue to decline in the years to come.

The decline in agricultural production and the subsequent hunger and poverty in the country's rural areas draw attention to the fact that agriculture alone cannot sustain the poor rural communities, particularly the subsistence farmers, in the country. Therefore, there is need for an alternative way to address this issue. An alternative

is to emphasize the Rural Non-Farm Economy (RNFE) which comprises all non-agricultural activities which generate income to rural households either through waged work or self employment (Davis, 2003:7). Some of these activities include traditional activities such as brick-making and blacksmithing and, non-traditional activities such as tailoring and knitting, basket-making, carpentry, and repairing and servicing, among others. At this point, however, the question that needs to be addressed is; can the rural non-farm economy take up the slack and provide the much needed income for the rural people in Zimbabwe to survive?

From this perspective, it is the view of this study that RNFE can make a significant contribution towards the rural economy for its productive and employment effects, and the income it provides to rural households represents a substantial and growing share of rural incomes (Davis, 2003:7). Davis further asserts that there is also evidence that non-farm economic activities have become increasingly significant for food security, poverty alleviation and farm sector competitiveness and productivity in many parts of the world.

Relying on this evidence, it can be argued that the promotion of RNFE in the country's rural areas seems to be a good alternative. However, little is known about the nature of RNFE in Zimbabwe's rural areas and whether it can sustain the poor rural communities in the country. This study, therefore, hypothesises that RNFE can make up the slack and provide the much needed income for the poor rural communities to survive.

1.3. Objectives of the study

Considering the importance of the rural non-farm economy in the development perspectives of Zimbabwe, in general and realising the expected role of this sector

in view of reducing the problems of hunger and poverty in rural areas of the country, the main objective of this study is to analyse the rural non-farm economy in Zimbabwe's rural communities. This was done in an effort to determine the prospects and challenges of the rural non-farm economy in these communities. In order to achieve this, an analysis of RNFE in Seke Rural District was carried out.

The study attempted to address the following questions:

- What non-farm activities are the people involved in and why are they engaged in those activities?
- What are the impacts of RNFE on household livelihoods? Is the impact of any significance to household livelihoods?
- What constraints are they facing as they pursue these activities and what are the opportunities of RNFE and what needs to be done to help boost RNFE in the chosen areas and in the various rural areas in the country?

1.4. Significance of the study

The traditional image of farm households in Zimbabwe has been that they focus almost exclusively on subsistence farming and undertake little rural non-farm activity (Reardon, 2002). Recently it has been recognised that agriculture alone is hardly in a position to sustain rural livelihoods (Mehta, 2002:10). This has been evidenced by increased hunger and poverty in the country due to continued decline in agricultural output and consequently food production. Today efforts are being made to find the best way forward for the subsistence farmer. Although the promotion of RNFE seems to be a good alternative, little is known about the RNFE in the country's rural areas in terms of the types of activities people are engaged in, the nature of their

operation and the prospects and challenges of RNFE. Therefore, there is need to gather substantial information on RNFE in the country's rural areas and know the actual situation on the ground before giving solutions and recommendations and this the core of this study.

In the light of this, this study also draws the attention of the government, donors and development agencies to the issue of RNFE activity in the country and its importance for agricultural and rural development as well as poverty alleviation; with a view to furthering the growth of the RNFE sector in Zimbabwe's rural areas. Although the income obtained by the rural people represents only a portion of income obtained by rural households, this study focused on RNFE so as to enable a closer examination of what can be done within rural areas themselves in an attempt to increase overall economic activity and boost employment creation in rural areas..

In addition to this, there is also need for development planners, policy-makers, decision-makers and various other stakeholders in rural development in the country to incorporate RNFE in their policies. For this to have the desired effects there is even a greater need to base these on an adequate understanding of RNFE in the country. In the light of this, it is hoped that this study will provide the information that will help ensure that this goal is achieved.

Studies have been carried out on RNFE in some parts of Sub-Saharan Africa and in other parts of the world in the form of large scale and formal sample surveys. However, such surveys relied on secondary data collected for other purposes and were thus not a true representation of the actual situation on the ground. This goes on to show that there is need to conduct actual field research in order to collect data specifically for RNFE and hence determine the actual situation on the ground basing

on the primary data obtained instead of relying on secondary data which has been collected for other purposes. This study, therefore, addresses this by conducting actual field visits and talking to the subsistence farmers themselves in order to get a picture of what is really going on.

In addition, there is also little information on the studies about RNFE and its impacts carried out in Sub-Saharan Africa, particularly Zimbabwe. For this reason, it is hoped that this study will be a significant addition to the existing body of literature on Rural Development in Zimbabwe and in Africa.

1.5. Delimitation of the study

It is not always possible for reasons of resources and time pressures, however, accurate livelihood research should involve repeat visits to the same households at different points across the calendar year, both to verify recall data collected previously, and to gain an insight into the seasonality characteristics of livelihood strategies (Ellis, 2001:45). Ellis also adds that, even with one-visit surveys provision for several repeat visits spread over several days to follow up on matters of detail with different household members is much likely to result in much better results than from a single visit. This study, however, was based on a one-visit survey and this is likely to impact on the accuracy of the results obtained.

Zimbabwe comprises of five different agricultural regions which are characterised by annual rainfall received (Zimfarmer, 2011). Annual rainfall is more than 750 mm in Region I, is more than 1000mm in Region II, varies between 650 and 800 mm in Region III, varies between 650 and 800 mm in Region IV and Region V receives too low and erratic rainfall to sustain even the most drought resistant crops (Muregerera, 2003:91). Therefore, reasons for engaging in RNFE and the nature of RNFE are

bound to differ as per region. It is also important to note that the distance from the city centre is bound to affect RNFE; some areas will have a well developed rural economy whilst in some areas it might be non-existent or poorly developed. As a result, it might be difficult to generalize the research findings to a national level but it is believed that this study will be a stepping stone paving way for future research.

1.7. Conclusion

Zimbabwe used to have a well developed agricultural system but over the years agricultural production, particularly food production, in the country has been on a steady decline. This has been due to several factors which include; the transition away from food production to cash crop production, the land reform programme, the economic crisis in the country, supply-side constrains, frequent droughts and the erratic rains due to climate change effects.

This decline has severely affected the poor rural communities in the country, most of whom are engaged in subsistence agricultural activities. These farmers have been exposed to great hunger and poverty. This has clearly shown that agriculture alone cannot sustain the livelihoods of the poor rural communities in the country. Therefore, there is need for an alternative. In this regard, this study hypothesises that RNFE can provide the much needed income for the rural people to survive.

In response to this, this study analyses the rural non-farm economy in Seke Rural District in an effort to show its prospects and challenges with the hope of generalising the findings at the national level. This was done because little is known about RNFE in Zimbabwe and there is need to know the actual situation on the ground before the country can take full advantage of the rural non-farm economy in an effort to help the poor subsistence farmers in the country.

In addition to this, this study was also carried out with the hope of providing the information that will help to make RNFE work for the rural communities in the country and thus help in boosting the country's economy. In addition to that, it is also the view of this study the information will also help in increasing access of the poor rural communities to high return employment or business options (Ashley and Maxwell, 2001).

1.8. Organisation of the study

The study consists of five chapters. Chapter 1 is the introductory chapter and consists of the background to the study, statement of the problem, objectives, significance of the study, delimitation of the study and the ethical issues to be taken into consideration by the study.

Chapter 2 covers the literature review and focuses on the theoretical and conceptual frameworks taken into consideration by this study. The chapter also takes a closer look at the empirical view of this study.

Chapter 3 is the methodology chapter and it gives an elaboration of the research procedures and techniques employed by the study. The chapter focuses on the various methods of collecting and analysing data adopted by the study and also provides an insight on the reasons for choosing and using the selected research methods.

Chapter 4 gives a presentation of the research findings and then goes on to focus on the analysis and interpretation of the presented data and information in line with the research objective and questions.

Chapter 5 is a presentation of the conclusions to the study. The chapter also highlights the key suggestions and recommendations made by the study.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL OVERVIEW OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT

2.1. Introduction

"Over, 3.3 billion people lived in rural areas in 2007 world-wide. In Sub-Saharan Africa rural dwellers have been found to constitute 65 percent of the total population and statistics indicate that 60 percent of the population live in rural areas in Zimbabwe (World Bank, 2007:73). Another fascinating aspect is that most, if not all, development efforts target rural areas and there is talk of development in these areas the world over.

The rural areas consist of a wide range of economic activities namely farming and formal or non-formal activities. However, the majority of the people in rural areas are engaged in farming activities. Studies have shown that well over two-thirds of the world's poorest people reside in rural areas and are primarily engaged in subsistence agricultural activities (World Bank, 2007; United Nations, 2006)). So much attention has been given to farming to the extent that the formal and/or non-formal activities which constitute what is known as the Rural Non-Farm Economy have been given little recognition

2.2. Defining Rural Non-Farm Economy

The Rural Non-Farm Economy is a concept that emerged quite recently as a potential feature of significance in the theory and practice of rural development. This is because the traditional image of farm households in developing countries has been that they focus almost exclusively on farming and undertake little rural non-

farm (RNF) activity (Reardon, 2002:1). This image persists and is widespread even today. As a result of this, the rural development debate still tends to equate farm income with rural incomes, and rural/urban relations with farm/non-farm relations. As a result, Ministries of Industry have focused on urban industry and Ministries of Agriculture on farming, and there has been a tendency even among agriculturists and those interested in rural development to neglect the RNF sector and such has been the trend in most developing countries, particularly in African countries (Reardon, 2002:2).

Davis (2003:7) defines RNFE as comprising all those non-agricultural activities which generate income to rural households (including income in-kind and remittances), either through waged work or in self-employment. These activities can fall into two categories namely home-based production activities, trade and commerce, services and transportation. Home-based production activities are concerned with the production of goods and some of the activities include basket-making, brick-making, carpentry and tailoring. Trade and commerce activities are mostly to do with buying and selling activities these include shop-keeping and setting up refreshment and eating stalls. Those who specialised in service provision are concerned with offering personal services to rural communities such as photography and shoe mending (cobbler). Transportation activities basically have to do with providing different kind of transport to the rural communities and transport can be either petrol/diesel operated of animal drawn. These activities fall into two main categories which are traditional activities and non-traditional activities. Traditional activities thrive on locally available resources, particularly natural resources and these include brick-making, basket-making and rope making. Non-traditional activities, on the other

hand, are dependent upon resources which are not found within that particular area but are mostly found in nearby or towns or locations

The rural non-farm economy is of great importance to the rural economy for its productive and employment effects and the income it provides to rural households represents a substantial and growing share of household incomes (Davis, 2003:7). Davis also points out that it has been shown often that this share is particularly high for the rural poor. In addition to this, there is evidence that these contributions are becoming increasingly significant for food security, poverty alleviation and farm sector competitiveness and productivity (Davis, 2003:7). This is a major contribution which will go a long way in assisting poor rural households in that RNFE may also help prevent rapid or excessive urbanization as well as natural resource degradation through overexploitation (Reardon, 2002:1).

Today, most poor rural communities in developing and transitional economies have been found to derive important income shares from rural non-farm activities. For instance, Ellis (2001:20) indicates that between 30 and 50 percent of rural household income in Sub-Saharan Africa is derived from non-income sources. Ashley and Maxwell (2001:408) also indicate that non-farm sources of income account for 40-45 percent of average household income in Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America. The Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO), on the other hand, gives a mean figure of 42 percent for SSA, 32 percent for Asia and 40 percent for Latin America (FAO, 1998:33).

Rural people have been found to turn to RNFE for different reasons. In poor rural areas some households will make a positive choice to take advantage of opportunities in the rural non-farm economy, taking into consideration the wage

differences between the two sectors and the riskiness of each type of employment (Davis, 2003:9). In addition, Davis also points out that other households are pushed into the non-farm sector due to a lack of opportunities on-farm, for example, as a result of drought or smallness of land holdings. In the Zimbabwean context the advent of drought conditions and the political and economic crisis in the country, the land reform programme and the subsequent low agricultural productivity is what has motivated more and more people to turn to RNFE.

Nonetheless, studies have been carried out on the prospects and challenges of RNFE in developing countries but nothing was ever done in the Zimbabwean context. This study, therefore, investigates the prospects and challenges of the rural non-farm economy in Zimbabwe's rural areas with the aim of providing country specific solutions and alternatives. For this to be achieved the study took into consideration various theoretical perceptions.

Based on the above understanding, this chapter, therefore, focuses on the theoretical aspects taken into consideration by the study. The chapter draws attention to the different theoretical perceptions of rural development namely: the modernisation approach to rural development, the basic needs approach and the sustainable livelihoods approach. This section also shows how these various ideas have evolved over time. Lastly, the chapter also highlights the theoretical view adopted by the study which is the sustainable livelihoods approach and also outlines why the approach was chosen over the other two.

2.3. Theoretical perspectives of Rural Development

Rural development has been, and still is, central to the development effort, but as pointed out by Broadbent (1990:49), there is no commonly accepted view of what it

really constitutes, or how it is best promoted and the debate is on-going. Due to these different views, different schools of thought exist and most of them are based on national situations and normative views of what really constitutes development (Broadbent, 1990:49). However, for many years the dominant view was that rural residence implies reliance on farming as a means of income (Reardon, 2002). This view was widely accepted despite the fact that the rural economy comprises of farming activities and other formal or non-formal activities. Rural areas were seen as the primary production of agriculture and rural development was seen as a derivative of agricultural development. As a result, policies for the development of rural areas focused solely on farming and neglected other rural economic activities and this in turn influenced rural development practices (Long, 2001). Long also adds that perceptions and visions about farming have long been dominated by this line of thinking which stemmed from the paradigm of agricultural modernisation.

While farming certainly is an important factor in rural development, rural areas contain a diverse range of economic activities. It is only in recent years that it has been universally recognised that agriculture alone cannot sustain communities that a new paradigm of rural development emerged: one that takes into consideration a broader view of the rural economy, incorporating economic activities other than farming, while highlighting the broad diversity of rural development processes (Long, 2001).

Based on this understanding a review of three theoretical approaches to rural development; modernisation approach, basic needs approach and the sustainable livelihoods approach (SLA); and how they have evolved over time will provide more insight into the current scenario. Of these three approaches, the basis of this study is

the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach and the following discussion will provide more insight on why this approach has been chosen as the theoretical framework for the study over the other two approaches to rural development.

2.3.1. The Modernisation approach to rural development

The modernisation approach to rural development emerged in the 1950s and was embodied in the dual economy models of rural development (Ashley and Maxwell, 2001:440). The most prominent model was the model developed by Arthur William Lewis in 1954 which became known as the Lewis model. The Lewis model became the general theory of the rural development process in the surplus Third World during most of the 1960s and early 1970s and it still has adherents today (Todaro and Smith, 2009:115).

This model divides the economy into two sectors; the capitalist sector and the subsistence sector. The capitalist sector is defined as “that which uses reproducible capital and pays capitalists for the use thereof” (Lewis, 1954:146). The subsistence sector, on the other hand, refers to that part of the economy which is not using reproducible capital and which is also traditional and overpopulated (Lewis, 1954:146). According to Lewis the model posits that labour from the subsistence sector is gradually transferred into the capitalist sector, also known as the modern sector. Pertinent to this, the model also envisaged that the subsistence sector possessed negligible prospects for rising productivity or growth, and therefore could only play a passive role in the process of economic development by supplying resources to the capitalist sector of the economy (Ashley and Mawell, 2001:440).

It is important to note that the primary focus of the model is on the process of labour transfer and the growth of output and employment in the modern sector. The model assumes that labour transfer and modern-sector employment are brought about by expansion in that sector. Lewis makes two assumptions about the subsistence sector. Firstly, the model states that "there is surplus labour; this meant that the marginal product is zero" (Lewis 1954:120). An important aspect to take into consideration is the fact that this economic model assumed that unlimited supplies of cheap labour were available in the rural areas and that the expansion of the capitalist sector could be boosted by the supplies of cheap labour from the subsistence agricultural sector and that profits in the industrial sector could create a growing supply of savings which could finance the formation of an increasing stock of industrial capital (Lewis, 1954:142). Lewis further assumes that as the growing capital stock raises the marginal product of labour in the industry, it becomes profitable to draw workers from agriculture. This brings out the second assumption Lewis made which states that all workers share equally in the output so that rural real wage is determined by the average and not the marginal product of labour as in the modern sector.

Although, the model is simple and roughly reflects the historical experience of the West, critics of the model argued that its assumptions do not fit the institutional and economic realities of most contemporary developing countries (Todaro and Smith (2009:55). To start with, the model assumes that the rate of labour transfer and employment creation in the modern sector is proportional to the rate capital accumulation in the modern-sector. Todaro and Smith argue that this is contrary to the actual situation on the ground as there is the risk that all the extra income would accrue to capitalists as profits and be distributed to a few owners of capital, while

income and employment levels remain unchanged. They also argue that although total Gross Domestic Product would increase there would be little or no improvement in aggregate social welfare in terms of more widely distributed gains in income and employment.

Leeson (1982:3) also argues that "although the Lewis model portrays a smooth process of transfer of labour from under-employment in rural areas to full employment in a growing modern industrial urban sector, the actual situation on the ground is massive and un- and underemployment in urban areas with very little surplus labour in the countryside". Furthermore, Todaro and Smith (2009:44) add that there are seasonal exceptions to this rule (parts of China and the Asian sub-continent where this applies) but they stress that development economists today agree that Lewis' assumption of rural surplus labour is generally not valid. It is apparent that the Lewis' model was based on an 'outsider's' perception because it was not representative of the actual situation on the ground. Had his perceptions had been on point he would have captured what was actually happening at that time and catered for it in his model.

Todaro and Smith go further to argue that Lewis' notion of a competitive modern sector labour market that guarantees the continued existence of constant real urban wages up to the point where supply of rural surplus labour is exhausted is unreal. Todaro and Smith emphasize that prior to the 1980s a striking feature of urban labour markets and wage determination in most developing countries was a tendency for these wages to increase substantially over time, both in absolute terms and relative to average rural incomes even in the pressure of rising levels of open modern sector unemployment and low/zero marginal productivity in agriculture. This clearly shows that Lewis' assumption was at odds with the actual situation on the

ground. Another concern is the model's assumption of diminishing returns in the modern industrial sector. The surprising thing is that prior to the 1980s there was evidence that increasing returns prevailed in the modern sector.

Some critics, however, argued with Lewis' assumption of the marginal product of labour in the subsistence sector being zero (Lewis, 1981:2). Lewis argues that a zero marginal product of labour ensures that labour transfer occurs without loss of output. This implication is false because in actual fact labour transfer affects output in the subsistence sector (Lewis, 1981:3). Lewis asserts that even if marginal product is zero or low, labour transfer would result in a rising average income amongst the remaining sectoral members, hence the logic of the model should indicate a rising labour supply from the start.

To some critics the policy implications of the Lewis model appeared to be that "industrialisation could, and should, be accomplished without the need to pump extra resources into agriculture, that development via private capitalism is both necessary and desirable, and that rising inequalities are an inevitable process" (Leeson, 1982:4). Rural development thinking and practice has been long influenced by this line of thinking. Leeson go on to add that the critics of the model argued that priority should be given to agriculture and small-scale enterprises as this leads to greater equality and more immediate eradication of poverty. Leeson also points out that far from being economically stagnant and economically rational there are many ways of increasing rural output if farmers are given cheap outputs, better prices for output and appropriate institutional reforms. This is the greatest challenge that exists today, but many African leaders are not willing to take that step.

It can also be argued that the dual-economy models tend to focus more on productivity in the capitalist sector at the expense of the subsistence sector. As a result, poor rural communities continued to suffer and the capitalist continued to benefit. For instance, Lewis (1954:129) asserts that the record of every imperial power in Africa in modern times is to impoverish the subsistence economy, either by taking away land or labour or imposing taxes which force people to work for capitalists.

Above all, one thing that is hypothetical about the Lewis model is that the model is based on assumptions and it lacks evidence of what was really happening at the time and many of the criticisms of the model stemmed from this. The fact that the model fell into disuse, though it still has some adherents today, is an indication that there is need to base future models on knowledge of the actual situation on the ground as this solidifies and grounds the output.

The modernisation approach to rural development can be further exemplified in the Green Revolution. The driving force of this strategy during the 1960s was the dissemination of high-yield grain varieties of food grains with the aim of increasing productivity (Broadbent, 1990:49). In addition to increasing yields per crop, the new seed varieties and the accompanying technology had several advantages as pointed out by Griffin (1979:207). To start with, they were found to permit shorter cropping cycles and thus enabling the farmer to economise on water and amount of water required per unit was found to be reduced in the case of wheat and rice. Secondly, the short cycles were found to permit multiple cropping and this in effect economised on land, something that most poor rural people lacked. In addition to that, it was also discovered that under optimal conditions the new seeds utilised more labour per unit of land and thus increased farm employment.

Nonetheless, critics of this strategy argue that “this optimism could not be justified by the facts as no miracle has occurred or is likely to occur” (Griffin, 1979:209). Pertinent to this, Griffin (1979:209) argues that although there was great optimism at first, however, the new seeds were found to have several serious disadvantages. It was noted that the high-yielding varieties were more delicate than indigenous plants and required a great deal more care on the part of the cultivator. Griffin further states that the new seeds were generally less-resistant to drought and flood and thus required sophisticated irrigation and water control facilities. Griffin also points out that the high-yielding varieties were found to be more susceptible to diseases and infestation by insects and thus required more applications of herbicides and pesticides. For instance, there was a severe outbreak of tungro in the Philippines in 1970 and 1971 due to lack of plant protection. Griffin elaborates that for these new varieties to be more productive than the local varieties there was need to apply large quantities of fertiliser. Above all, the application of this new technology was very expensive in terms of the inputs required; fertiliser, irrigation and pest control. This meant that this technology could only be utilised by those who had the money. In other words, this new technology was discriminatory (Griffin, 1979:213). Griffin points out that the ‘new’ seeds and the accompanying technology were found to accelerate capitalist agriculture, hasten the demise of subsistence (peasant-oriented) farming, encourage growth of wage labour and increase the power of land-owners. This in turn has resulted in greater inequality and polarization of classes and the poor rural communities continued to be marginalized.

Apparently, “the main objective of these models was to achieve high rates of aggregate growth and the assumption was that human welfare would be enhanced over the long run as the benefits trickled down to those at the bottom of the income

scale" (Crosswell, 1981:2). However, as Crosswell points out, over the last decade it has been realised that although growth encouraged development in some segments of the economy, it left large portions of the population untouched. This realisation resulted in the emergence of a notion which focused not only on production but also on the question of the fulfilment of basic needs.

2.3.2. Basic Needs Approach (BNA)

The Basic Needs Approach dominated development discourse in the 1970s and shifted focus from industrialisation and trickle-down to the rural sector and redistribution (Marc, 2010). This approach was put forward by the International Labour Office in 1976 in an attempt to focus particular attention on the specific needs of the poor in developing countries (Broadbent, 1990; Streeten, 1981). It stemmed from the realisation that growth and equity issues must be pursued simultaneously if economic development and a more equitable distribution of benefits of development are to be achieved (Broadbent, 1990:49). This approach was based on a bottom-up blue print model and it introduced two important ideas to rural development strategy. "The first idea was that there was a target group on whom rural development should focus; the poor. The major aim was to place the poor rural people at the centre of development. Secondly, there was the acknowledgement that poverty results from a series of causes, thereby necessitating that rural development involve the interaction of a large number of inter-related activities" (Broadbent, 1990:49) .

The main objective of BNA was "to ensure that all human beings should have the opportunity to live full lives" (Streeten, 1981:16). In order to achieve this, the approach focused on securing access to minimum levels of basic goods and services. In other words, "the approach focused on the tangible necessities of life-

food, water, clothing, shelter and so forth- without which a person has little or no chance of survival" (Crosswell, 1981:3). Accordingly, the components of BNA include: (1) minimum consumption of food, shelter, and clothing; (2) access to services such as safe water, sanitation, health, family planning, and public transportation; and (3) participation of people in decisions that affect them (Streeten, 1981:16; Lewis, 1981:31).

It is also important to note that the basic needs approach links this objective with more tangible objectives having to do with employment and income among the poor (Lewis, 1981:31). Hence the basic needs strategy is aimed at the lowest absolute income group in a given country; those people having inadequate purchasing power to satisfy their basic needs (Streeten, 1981:18). This clearly shows that the BNA favours rural areas, where services such as health and family planning are less likely to be available, than urban areas. This was a great step towards initiating change in the life of the poor rural communities previously neglected by the previous perceptions of rural development. It can be seen, therefore, that this approach is more people-centred as compared to the modernisation approach.

However, "during the late 1970s and early 1980s there was concern over the potential hypocrisy of using such a strategy and suspicion about the intentions of aid-giving governments and international agencies" (Streeten, 1982:17). Streeten indicates that these concerns and suspicions are justified because some donors have misinterpreted and abused the concept. The misconceptions have taken several forms. To start with, "the approach has been interpreted as a substitute for growth, modernisation, industrialisation and self-reliance. Industrialisation brought wealth and power to the North, yet it was felt that the rich wanted to prevent the developing countries from following the same path. Others felt that the slogan of

basic needs has been used to justify reduced foreign aid for lack of projects and absorptive capacity in the poorest countries" (Streeten, 1981:18). "Some also pointed out that middle income countries feared that the approach would be used to reduce aid to them under the pretext of concentration on the poorest countries" (Crosswell, 1981:5). An interesting aspect about these misconceptions is that they stemmed from developing countries which were the ones to benefit from the approach. It seems they did not see how they were to benefit from the implementation of this concept and thus they failed to embrace it altogether.

The above-mentioned misconceptions led to the approach being subjected to great criticism. Critics of this approach argued that BNA was nothing new – that rural development efforts have been concentrating on issues like employment, income distribution and rural development for some time so that the approach is just simply a different label attached to the same product (Lewis, 1981:30). Some critics, on the other hand, viewed the approach as a little more than a slogan that expresses a worthy intention but offers no concrete policy guidance. In addition, some critics acknowledged that BNA has content but they argued that to them the approach views policies for meeting basic needs as unfavourable to growth (Lewis, 1981:30). Not only that, Lewis further asserts that among some basic needs is considered as an improper focus for a co-operative (donor/recipient) development effort.

"Other critics of this approach pointed out that although this approach seeks to act on the situation of the poor with the view of improving it, it preserves the underlying structures of society which determine the conditions of their existence. They argue that it is determinate relations that give rise to poverty and impoverishment and reproduce them at even higher levels" (Boradbent, 1990: 50). As a result of the

failure to attack these relations of production, effects not causes are attacked and the poor continue to suffer.

Another aspect to take into consideration is the fact that the approach proceeds from the implementation of projects accompanied by a few proposals for reforms which are usually quite vague. As a result of this, though the approach was meant to be a bottom-up approach, the implementation process ended up being top-down because the poor meant to benefit were never involved in the formulation of the projects but only the implementation stage. There was also fear that the projects for the poor would end-up profiting the rich even more at the expense of the poor who continued to suffer. The critique of this approach led to the emergence of yet another approach to rural development.

2.3.3. Sustainable Livelihoods approach

It is only in recent years that a new paradigm of rural development emerged. This paradigm is known as the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA). The approach came into being in the late 1990s and is based upon evolving thinking about poverty reduction, the way the poor and vulnerable live their lives and the importance of policies and institutions (Ellis, 2001:30; Ashley and Carney, 1999:6). The SLA is not only a response to modernisation perspectives but it also critically engages with the lively debate on development theory and perspectives that have been on-going since the early 1980s (Long, 2001). “The concept of Sustainable Livelihoods (SL) is an attempt to go beyond the conventional definitions and approaches to poverty eradication. These have been found to be too narrow because they focused only on certain aspects manifestations of poverty, such as low income, or did not consider other vital aspects of poverty such as vulnerability and social exclusion” (Krantz,

2001:1). Krantz also points out that it is now recognized that more attention must be paid to the various factors and processes which either constrain or enhance poor people's ability to make a living in an economically, ecologically, and socially sustainable manner and the SL concept offers a more coherent and integrated approach to poverty.

Of late, two scholars have been working on SLA and expanding on the approach and these are Ian Scoones and Frank Ellis. The following discussion will show their approaches to the sustainable livelihoods concept and also show the perspective adopted by the study

Drawing on work conducted by Ian Scoones at the Institute of Development Studies (IDS) the concept of sustainable livelihoods is explained. In 1998 Scoones proposed the following definition of sustainable livelihoods: "A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities, assets and activities both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base" (Scoones, 1998:5).

This definition is the one that is currently being used by most international agencies and it is the definition that is adopted by this study. The rationale for adopting this definition is that it is realistic. In addition, the definition not only looks at livelihoods but it goes on to show what a sustainable livelihood encompasses, an aspect that is left out by some definitions. Chambers and Cornway (1992:55) point out that the issue of sustainability is very important in any form of development and should be

captured by definitions linked to any aspect of development as all developmental efforts should take into consideration the aspect of future generations.

Following the definition of sustainable livelihoods Scoones and his team went on to outline a framework for analysing sustainable livelihoods known as the sustainable livelihoods framework (see Figure 1).The framework is depicted around five key elements namely contexts, conditions and trends; livelihood strategies; institutional processes and organisational structures; livelihood strategies and livelihood outcomes. As demonstrated in Figure 1, important aspects of the context include policies, historical and political factors, climate and environment, and patterns of social differentiation. The construction of livelihoods by rural households is determined to a large extent by this context. What this means is that the previous and present events define and limit to some degree the options available to rural households to construct their livelihoods. For example, the past policies, infrastructural issues, and forms of administration all play an important role in shaping the livelihood options open to different households. All these factors may widen or narrow the options available.

As indicated in the framework, the livelihood of any household is built around the livelihood resources, also known as capital assets; the household is exposed to or has access to. Krantz (2001:8) defines livelihood resources as the basic material and social, tangible, and intangible assets that people use for constructing their livelihoods. The assets in Figure 1 are depicted around four categories of capital; human capital, social capital, economic / financial capital, natural capital. However, Scoones (1998:8) clearly indicates that this list is not an exhaustive list and that other forms of capital can be identified.

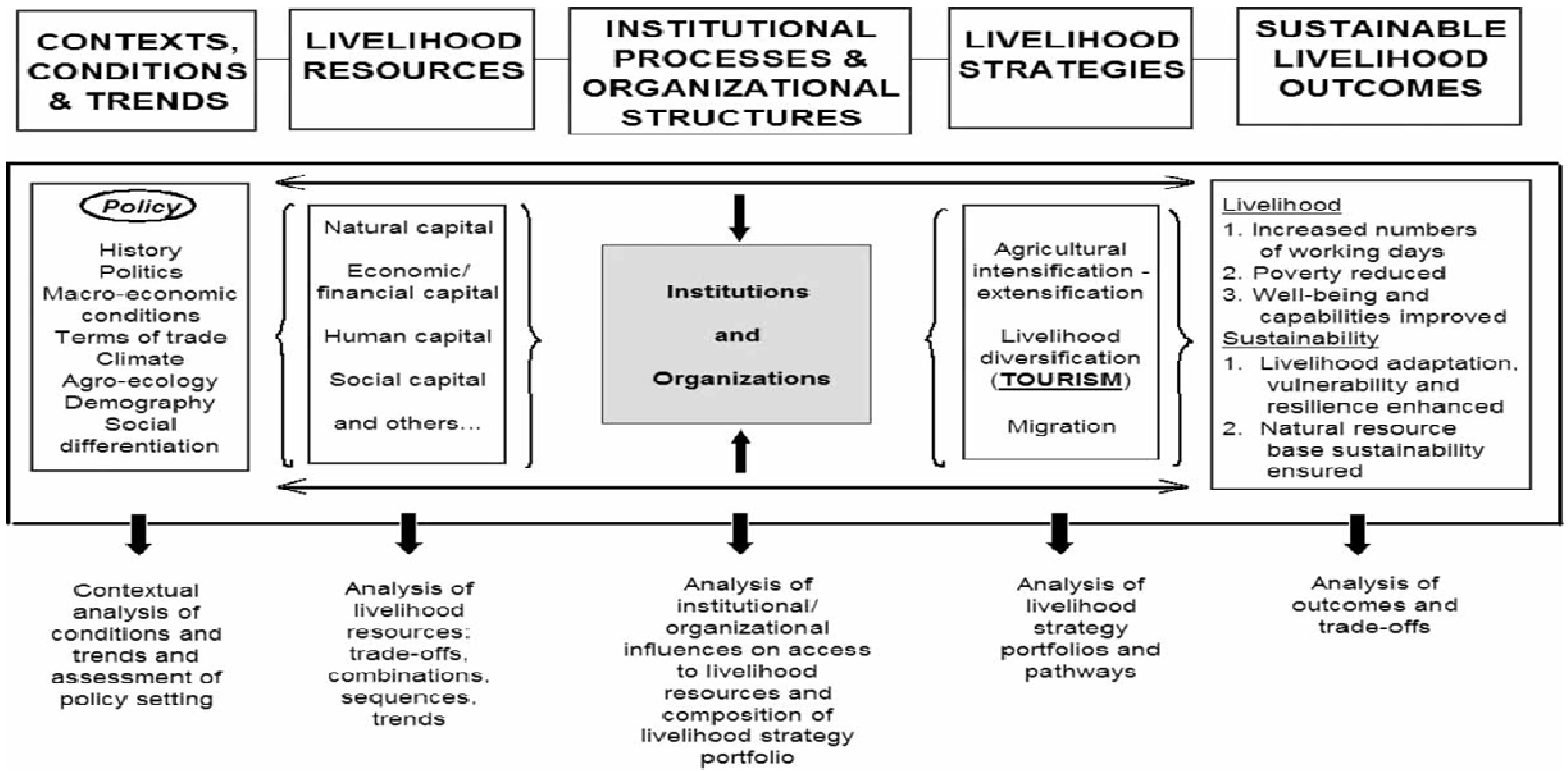


Figure 1: Sustainable Rural Livelihoods: A Framework for Analysis (Scoones, 1998:4).

Scoones (1998:8) offers the following simple definitions of the different forms of capital. Natural capital is defined as the natural resource stocks (soil, water, air, genetic resources, among others) and environmental services (hydrological cycle, pollution sinks, among others) from which resource flows and services useful for livelihoods are derived. Economic financial capital refers to the capital base (cash, credit/debt, savings, and other economic assets, including basic infrastructure and production equipment and technologies) which are essential for the pursuit of any livelihood strategy. Human capital refers to the skills, knowledge, ability to labour and good health and physical capability important for the successful pursuit of different livelihood strategies. Lastly, social capital – the social resources (networks, social claims, social relations, affiliations, associations) upon which people draw when pursuing different livelihood strategies requiring coordinated actions.

The combination of these two elements (the assets and the conditions, contexts and trends) in turn determine the livelihood strategies pursued by the household. Within the sustainable livelihoods framework (see Figure 1), three broad clusters of livelihood strategies are identified. These are: agricultural intensification/extensification, livelihood diversification and migration. Broadly, these are seen to cover the range of options open to rural people. Scoones (1998:10) points out that livelihoods can be obtained from agriculture (including livestock rearing, aquaculture, forestry etc.) through processes of intensification (more output per unit area through capital investment or increases in labour inputs) or extensification (more land under cultivation), or from the diversification to a range of off-farm income earning activities, or moving away and seeking a livelihood, either temporarily or permanently elsewhere (migration). Of these, the most common strategy is the pursuit of a combination of strategies together or in sequence.

The livelihood strategies adopted in turn allow different outcomes to be realised. In Figure 1, five key elements (outcomes) of a sustainable livelihood are recognised. The first element, creation of working days, relates to the ability of a particular combination of livelihood strategies to create gainful aspects of employment, be it income (salary and wage) or production (consumable output) (Scoones, 1998:5). The second element, poverty reduction, is a key criterion in the assessment of livelihoods (Scoones, 1998:5). Scoones also indicates that both quantitative and qualitative measures are used to assess poverty and that the most common quantitative indicator used is income or consumption level. The third element, capabilities and wellbeing, as Scoones points out, is seen as what people can do or be with their entitlements. Basing on Scoones' perspective the concept, therefore, encompasses far more than the material concerns of food intake or income. According to Scoones, the fourth, element, livelihood adaptation, vulnerability and resilience refers to the ability of a livelihood to be able to cope with and recover from stresses and shocks. In this regard, Scoones asserts that assessing resilience and the ability to adapt or cope requires an analysis of a range of factors, including an evaluation of historical experiences of responses to various shocks and stresses. Lastly, Scoones elucidates that the fifth element of natural resource base sustainability refers to the ability of a system to maintain productivity when subject to disturbance forces.

Scoones (1998:5) points out that the first three focus on livelihoods, linking concerns over work and employment with poverty reduction with broader issues of adequacy, security, well-being and capability. Scoones indicates that the last two elements, on the other hand, add the sustainability dimension, looking, in turn, at the resilience of livelihoods and the natural resource base on which, in part, they depend.

In addition to this, Scoones points out that unless there is an understanding of the social structures and processes through which sustainable livelihoods are achieved, a description of the relationships between variables and outcomes is somewhat limiting. For this reason, the framework outlined in Figure 1 has given particular emphasis to the study of institutions and organisations.

Scoones (1998:13) defines institutions as 'regularised practices (or patterns of behaviour) structured by rules and norms of society which have persistent and widespread use thus institutions maybe both formal and informal. Scoones also points out that institutions are also dynamic and are continually shaped and reshaped over time.

Institutions and organisations are an important part of people's livelihoods as pointed out by Scoones (1998:12). To start with, Scoones explains that understanding institutional processes allows the identification of restrictions/barriers and opportunities (or 'gateways') to sustainable livelihoods. Not only that, as Scoones points out, an institutional approach sheds light on the social processes which underlie livelihood sustainability. In addition to this, Scoones stresses that an approach which emphasises both formal and informal institutions and underlying rules and norms suggests a complex and 'messy' institutional matrix mediating the processes of livelihood change

Drawing on work conducted by Scoones, Frank Ellis developed the framework shown in figure 2 which is basically a variation of Scoones' framework. However, Ellis argues that Scoones' SLA is a version of the assets-mediated processes-activities framework. The framework regards the asset status of poor individuals or households as fundamental to understanding the options open to them, the

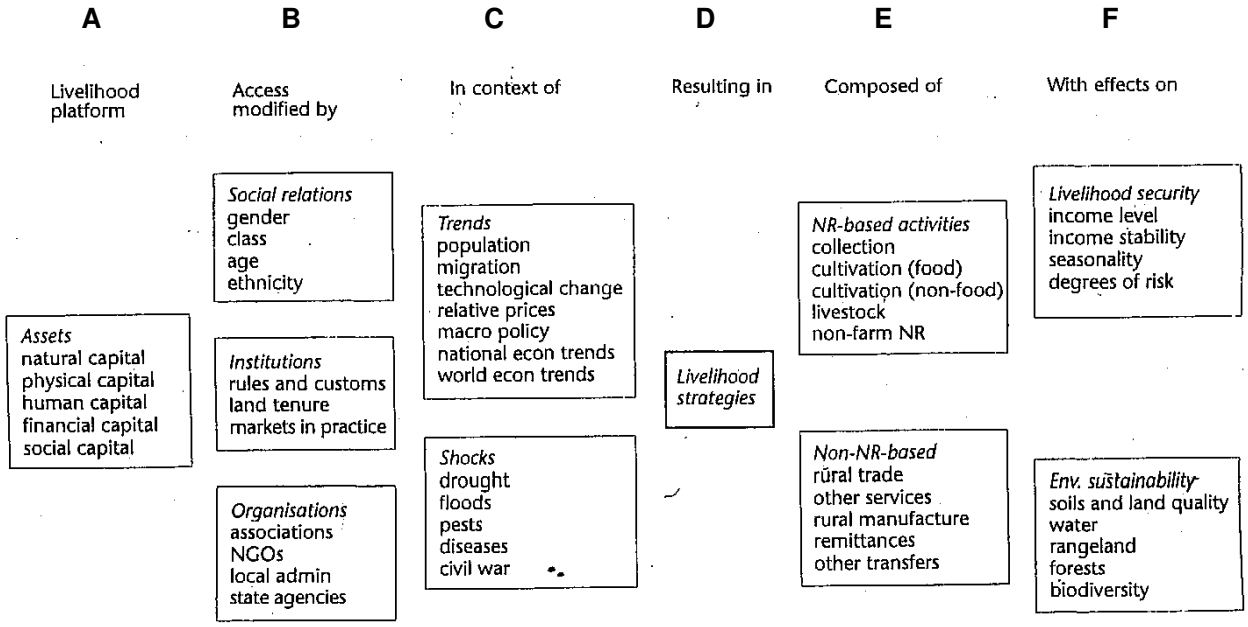


Figure 2: Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (*Ellis (2001):30)*

strategies they adopt for survival, and their vulnerability to adverse trends and events (Ellis, 2001:28). According to Ellis, this type of framework concurs that rural development efforts should be about raising the asset status of the poor subsistence farmers or enabling existing assets that are idle or under-utilised to be utilised productively. In other words, Ellis explains that the approach "seeks to identify what people have rather than what they do not have and to strengthen people's own inventive solutions, rather than substitute for, block or undermine them". the framework that is adopted by Ellis, on the other hand, is known as the assets-access-activities framework and it pays particular attention to the access that individuals have to different types of capital, opportunities and services and how that access is mediated by structures and processes (Ellis, 2001:51),

In an effort to bring out the issue of access more strongly Ellis introduces his own definition of what a sustainable livelihood is. According to Ellis (2001:10) a livelihood comprises the assets (natural, physical, social, financial. and human capital), the activities, and the access to these (mediated by institutions and social relations) that together determine the living gained by the individual or household.

The framework is built around three key dimensions namely; capital assets, mediating processes which influence access to those assets and the use to which they can be put, and the livelihood strategies adopted by the poor for survival (Ellis, 2001:51). The capital assets in Ellis' framework are depicted around five categories of capital. To start with, human capital which is concerned with the importance of labour as a resource is emphasised in circumstances where there is little or no labour market, when large household size has its advantages as it reduces risk to livelihood security of illness and permits more diverse occupational strategies to be

pursued (Ellis, 2001:33). Secondly, financial capital which is very important as it is the driver of most economies today and whatever activity the rural people engage in the sole purpose is to earn income to be used for livelihood security and / or survival (Ellis, 2001:34). Thirdly, social capital which is found to be more linked to the structures and processes and a look at the structures and processes will help in providing more insight into this form of capital.

Fourthly, natural capital and of interest in most rural development contexts are renewable resources which Ellis (2001:31) describe as those that replenish themselves over time such as fishery stock or trees used for firewood; or that are managed to ensure their renewal such as soils in farmers' fields or water in irrigation canals. Ellis also indicates that natural capital also encompasses non-renewable resources that may be important to rural livelihoods in some locations or in indirect ways and this refers mostly to extractive resources such as ores, metals and oils.

Lastly, there is physical capital which focuses on capital that is brought into existence by economic production processes in the form of roads, buildings, machines and land improvements like terraces and irrigation (Ellis, 2001:33). An important class of physical assets that facilitate livelihood diversification are infrastructural assets such as roads, power lines and water supplies (Ellis, 2001:33). Roads facilitate the movement of people between places offering different income earning opportunities, create markets that would otherwise be non-existent and they play a major role in transfer of information between rural centres and remote settlements (Ellis, 2001:33). Ellis points out that the availability of electricity has a severe impact on the diversity of rural activities and on the relative integration of rural areas into the national economy. Ellis also indicates that the provision of piped water

also saves labour time and helps avoid the emergence of illness and diseases if clean drinking water is supplied.

It is important to note that frameworks of this kind recognise that the translation of a set of assets into a livelihood strategy composed of a portfolio of income earning activities is mediated by a number of contextual social, economic and policy considerations (Ellis, 2001: 37). Therefore, the layout in figure 2 draws on these insights to distinguish key categories of factors that influence access to assets and their use in the pursuit of viable livelihoods. The primary distinction made in the framework is between social relations, institutions and organisations, on one hand, and trends and shock factors on the other. These two groups are known as mediating processes. The former category consists of social factors that are predominantly endogenous to the social norms and structures of which households are a part, while the latter category consists entirely of the exogenous factors of economic trends and policies and unforeseen shocks with major consequences on livelihood viability (Ellis, 2001:38).

Social relations refer to the social positioning of individual and households within society (Ellis, 2001:38). According to Ellis, this social positioning consists of factors such as gender, age, class, ethnicity and religion. Institutions, on the other hand, are defined by Ellis as the formal rules, conventions and formal codes of behaviour that comprise constrains on human interaction. Examples include laws, land tenure arrangements and the way markets work. Ellis (2001:38) points out that institutions tend to change slowly and incrementally rather than in discontinuous jumps. Ellis goes on to define organisations as groups of individuals bound by some common purpose to achieve objectives and these include government agencies such as

police force ministry of agriculture, administrative bodies such as local governments NGOs, associations and private companies. An important aspects of these structures and processes is that they play a vital role in determining who gains access to which assets and the value of those assets (Ashley and Carney 1999:6). They also encompass the agencies that inhibit or facilitate the exercise of capabilities by individuals or households.

The relationship between the assets and the structures and policies is only viable in the context of the trends and shocks that affect livelihoods. An important aspect of these trends and shocks is that they shape the environment in which people exist. In other words, people's livelihoods and the availability of assets are fundamentally affected by critical trends and shocks. Trends are defined as pressures which are typically continuous and cumulative and therefore to some extent predictable. Some of the important trends include national economic trends, international trends, relative prices and migration. It is also important to note that the relative importance of trends for different rural locations varies greatly (Krantz, 2001:7).

Shocks on the other hand, represent a particular challenge to livelihood sustainability and are defined by Krantz (2001:7) as impacts which are typically sudden, unpredictable and traumatic. Some of the shocks mentioned in figure 2 include drought, floods pests diseases and civil war. Ellis (2001:40) points out that shocks destroy assets directly; for example crops in the field in the event of drought and houses and fields in the event of cyclones and they also result in the erosion of assets.

The asset status of the household, mediated by the structures and processes and the trends and shocks results in the adoption and adaption of various livelihood

strategies. Ellis (2001:40) asserts that livelihood strategies are composed of activities that generate the means of household survival and they are dynamic; respond to changing pressures and opportunities and they adapt accordingly. In figure 2, the livelihood strategies are divided into two groups; natural resource based activities and non-natural resource-based activities. The natural resource based activities include collection or gathering, food cultivation, livestock rearing and non-farm activities (Ellis, 2001:41). Non-natural resource based activities include rural trade (marketing of farm outputs, inputs and consumer goods), other rural services such as vehicle repair, rural manufacture and remittances (Ellis, 2001:41). The activities in all categories represent potential contributions to survival of rural households though the strategies pursued may differ between individuals and households depending on the asset ownership, income levels, gender, age, caste and social or political status.

The livelihood strategies adopted in turn impact on livelihood security and environmental sustainability. These two categories refer to the outcomes of the livelihood strategies adopted. The first is livelihood security which is defined in Figure 2 as containing a combination of income level, income stability, reduction of adverse seasonal effects and reduction in degrees off risk to the income portfolio. This in turn helps people to better manage adverse trends or cope with shocks. Environmental sustainability refers to in stability of resources such as soil, water, forests and biodiversity. Most importantly, whatever strategy is adopted it is in the hope that there will be more income, improved well-being, reduced vulnerability, improved food security and more sustainable use of the natural resource base.

At this point it is important to note that these two models essentially share the same principle components and interrelations between the components but with differing degrees of emphasis on different components. The major difference is that, while Ellis brings out the issue of access more strongly, Scoones pays direct attention to the links between assets and the options people possess in practice to pursue alternative activities that can generate income (Ellis, 2001:7). Based on this understanding, this study adopted Scoones' SLA model and also took into cognisance the additional dimension brought in by Ellis as highlighted above. Therefore, apart from looking at the links between assets and the options subsistence farmers in Seke Rural District possess in practice to pursue alternative activities that can generate income the study also looked at how institutions, organisations and social relation influence access of the farmers to capital assets.

According to Scoones (1998:3): "the key question to be asked in any analysis of sustainable livelihoods is – given a particular context(of policy setting, politics, history, agroecology and socio-economic conditions), what combination of livelihood resources(different types of 'capital') result in the ability to follow what combination of livelihood strategies(agricultural intensification/extensification, livelihood diversification and migration) with what outcomes?"

In the light of this, this study focused on subsistence farmers in the country who have been exposed to the danger of hunger and starvation due to declining food production as a result of supply-side constrains, the political and economical crisis in the country, the land reform programme and incessant rains due to climate change effects and this constitutes the vulnerability context. For this reason most rural households in the country have been found to depend on a diverse portfolio of activities and income sources, among which crop and livestock production feature

alongside many contributions to family well being (Ellis 2001: 3). In other words, in line with the SLA framework, the subsistence farmers in the country have adopted this livelihood strategy in response to the failure of agriculture to solely sustain them.

This study, therefore, analyses the non-farm activities, which constitute the rural no-farm economy, the subsistence farmers are engaged and in doing so determine what livelihood resources are of importance to them as they are pursuing these activities. All this was done in order to determine the outcomes of their pursuits. This was achieved through looking at some of the outcomes listed in figure 2. Some of the aspects taken into consideration include determining whether RNFE results in increased income, increased well-being, reduced vulnerability and improved food security among others. This was done in an effort to show the prospects and challenges of RNFE in the country with the aim of showing whether RNFE can indeed provide the much needed income for the poor rural communities to survive and whether the livelihood strategy is worth promoting in the country's rural areas.

At this point, it is important to note that the SLA framework is not intended to be an exact model of reality but to provide a structure to help build the understanding of livelihoods that is necessary to ensure that external support is congruent with people's livelihood strategies and priorities ((Ashley and Carney, 1999). Ashley and Carney also point out that the framework also stresses the importance of understanding the various livelihood components and factors including: the priorities people identify; the different strategies they adopt in pursuit of their priorities; the institutions and organisations that determine access to assets; their access to different forms of capital and the context in which they live. Most importantly, the

approach simply provides a way of thinking about livelihoods that is more representative of what is happening in real life.

Despite all that, it is also important to note that this approach was met with its fair share of criticism. To start with, the following direct criticisms of the framework are made: “that people are invisible, that it is unclear on how to analyse and measure capital assets, that it requires more recognition of socio-economic, historical and cultural factors, the overall concept is not easily translatable, it is not sufficiently directed at alleviating poverty and that it is inoperable unless assets can be directly compared” (Tao and Wall, 2009:140). Others also argued that the approach does not address the issue of how to identify the poor to be assisted and does not pay attention to the issue of social dominance and power within communities (Krantz, 2001:24). Another aspect to take into consideration is the fact that if the SL approach is applied consistently, it might be beyond the practical realities of many local development administrations, with the risk that this approach remains an initiative of donors and their consultants (Krantz, 2001:26). That is the main debate today because the SLA is mainly and initiative of donors and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) (CARE International, OXFAM) and many government officials are yet to incorporate the concept in their projects. This means that in order to make the approach a success there is need to incorporate the government and governmental agencies from the beginning when discussing how such a strategy should be applied, and to train them to use the approach.

This study is fully aware of the limitations of the SLA, nonetheless, it is the approach adopted by this study because it places the rural people at the centre of development and it improves the understanding of their livelihoods. ‘The approach also makes the connection between people and the overall enabling environment

that influences the outcomes of livelihood strategies. It also brings attention to bear on the inherent potential of people in terms of their skills, social networks, access to physical and financial resources, and ability to influence core institutions' (Serrat, 2010). In other words, the approach organizes the factors that constrain or enhance livelihood opportunities, and shows how they relate.

The most important aspect of SLA is that the approach seeks to show the complexity of the survival process in rural areas and in doing so it brings into the picture an aspect of the rural economy that was traditionally considered to play a passive role in people's livelihoods, the Rural Non-Farm Economy, which is the core of this study. At the time when the concept of the rural non-farm economy is gaining precedence, this study seeks to analyse RNFE in Zimbabwe's in an effort to determine its prospects and challenges in the country's rural areas. All this make the SLA a worthy approach for use by the study.

2.4. Conclusion

This chapter provided a comprehensive description of the various views of rural development since the 1950s and how they have evolved up to this present day. The chapter looked at three approaches to rural development namely; the modernisation approach, the basic needs approach and the sustainable livelihoods approach.

The modernisation approach to development dominated rural development thinking during the 1950s and focused on productivity in the capitalist sector at the expense of the subsistence sector. The approach can also be exemplified by the green revolution which focused on productivity by the use of new seed varieties. The subsequent critiquing of this approach led to the emergence of yet another approach

in the 1970s. This approach is known as the basic needs approach which focused on redistribution and fulfilment of basic needs. This approach had its fair share of criticisms and the most prominent being that the approach was nothing but a new label to an already existing idea

The major weakness of these approaches was their failure to address the issue of poverty and bring about change in the world's rural areas, and the poor continued to suffer. The SLA goes a long way to address this and places the poor at the centre of the development process. The SLA, although it has had its fair share of criticisms, is the basis of the study because the approach places the poor at the centre of the development process. It also shows the complexity of the livelihoods of the poor and aims to determine how they construct their livelihoods using various capital assets such as human, social financial, physical and natural capital as mediated by certain structures and processes and in the context of various trends and shocks.. The approach also shows that rural life is not centred on agriculture alone but a diverse range of activities. In so doing, the approach introduces the concept of the rural non-farm economy which is the core of the study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

Rural Non-Farm Economy (RNFE) is a concept that has only emerged quite recently as a potential feature of significance in the theory and practice of rural development worldwide. In Zimbabwe today, apart from crop and livestock production, most rural households now depend on a diverse portfolio of non-farm activities as contributions to their well-being (Ellis, 2001:30). In an effort to determine whether RNFE can provide the much needed extra income for the poor rural communities in the country to survive, this study investigates the prospects and challenges of the rural non-farm economy in the country's rural areas. The study also seeks to find means and ways on how RNFE can be enhanced.

The study was prompted by the fact that agricultural production in the country is declining and this decline has greatly exposed the poor subsistence farmers in the country to the danger of starvation. Since not much is known about RNFE in the country, this study provided the basis of showing the actual situation on the ground before solutions and recommendations can be prescribed. For this to be achieved this, the study underwent the process of collecting, analysing and interpreting data on the non-farm activities the subsistence farmers in Zimbabwe are engaged in. The data captured information pertaining to the following aspects; the non-farm activities the subsistence farmers in Seke district (this is the study area and more information about the area is provided in the next section) are engaged in, the reasons why they are engaged in those activities, the impact (both negative and positive) of these

activities on their livelihood and the constraints and opportunities being encountered in pursuit of these activities.

This chapter basically focuses on giving an outline of the various procedures implemented by the study. Basing on this understanding, the chapter provides an insight on the different research approaches taken into consideration by the study and draws attention to the research approach adopted by the study as well as the research methods employed during the investigation process. Pertinent to this, the chapter also provides the rationale for the choice of each of these. Furthermore, the chapter provides detailed information on the study area, the units of analysis of the study and on the data collection methods and the data analysis procedures employed by the study.

3.2. Description of study area

The study was conducted in Seke Rural District (see Figure 3) which is situated in Mashonaland East Province, one of the 10 provinces in Zimbabwe. The area is situated about 40km south-east of the country's capital, Harare, and is adjacent to Chitungwiza Town which is the country's second largest metropolitan area (Makunike, 2009; Muregerera, 2003:109). Seke is composed of approximately 16,409 households and has an estimated population of about 77,840 (Central Statistical Office, 2002). In addition, Seke has an estimated population density of about 29 persons per kilometre (CSO, 2002).

This area was chosen because the district is one of the major cropping and livestock producing areas in the country (Department of Agricultural Research and Extension, 2006). The area also has a potential land area of approximately 164,169 hectares that can be used for crop production under optimum conditions, taking into

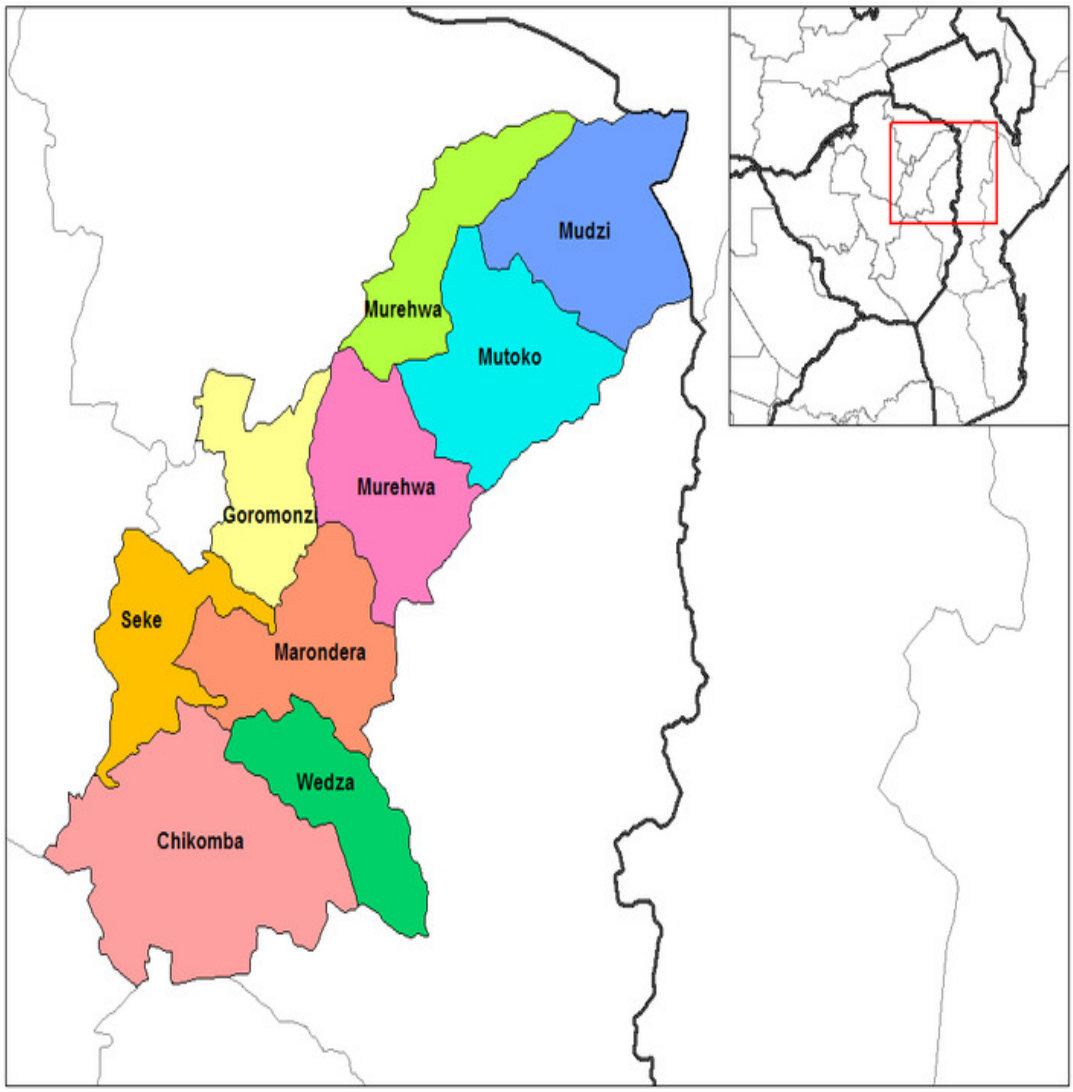


Figure 3: Districts in Mashonaland East Province and the location of Seke District (Wikipedia (2010))

consideration issues such as availability of inputs and rotational limitations amongst others (Department of Agricultural Research and Extension, 2006).

This area covers only 4.15 percent of the country's total land area and it encompasses large-scale, small-scale commercial farms and communal farms. The majority of the population (85 percent) in this area, however, are engaged in subsistence farming activities (Department of Agricultural Research and Extension, 2006). Despite the fact that there is improved yield in the country today, the district is one of the areas that have experienced massive drop in crop yields over the past 10 years. For instance, statistics indicate that in the period between 2000 and 2007, food production in Seke declined by as much as 50 percent (Mudzonga and Chigwada, 2009).

Zimbabwe is divided into five different agro-ecological regions which are mainly characterised according to the amount of annual rainfall received in these areas (see Figure 5 which is a map showing the agro-ecological zones in the country) (Zimfarmer, 2011). The amount of rainfall received in each zone determines the agricultural activities conducted in these different regions. However, an aspect of interest is that, only 37 percent of the country receives rainfall considered to be adequate for rainfed crop production (Muregerera, 2003:90). This is further accentuated by the fact that rainfall intensity and reliability decreases from the North to the South and from the East to the West (Zimfarmer, 2011). This means that in other parts of the country cultivation is dependent upon irrigation whilst for the other areas where crop production is not feasible; livestock production is the only feasible form of agriculture practiced. The natural or agro-ecological regions range from Natural Region I through to Natural Region V.

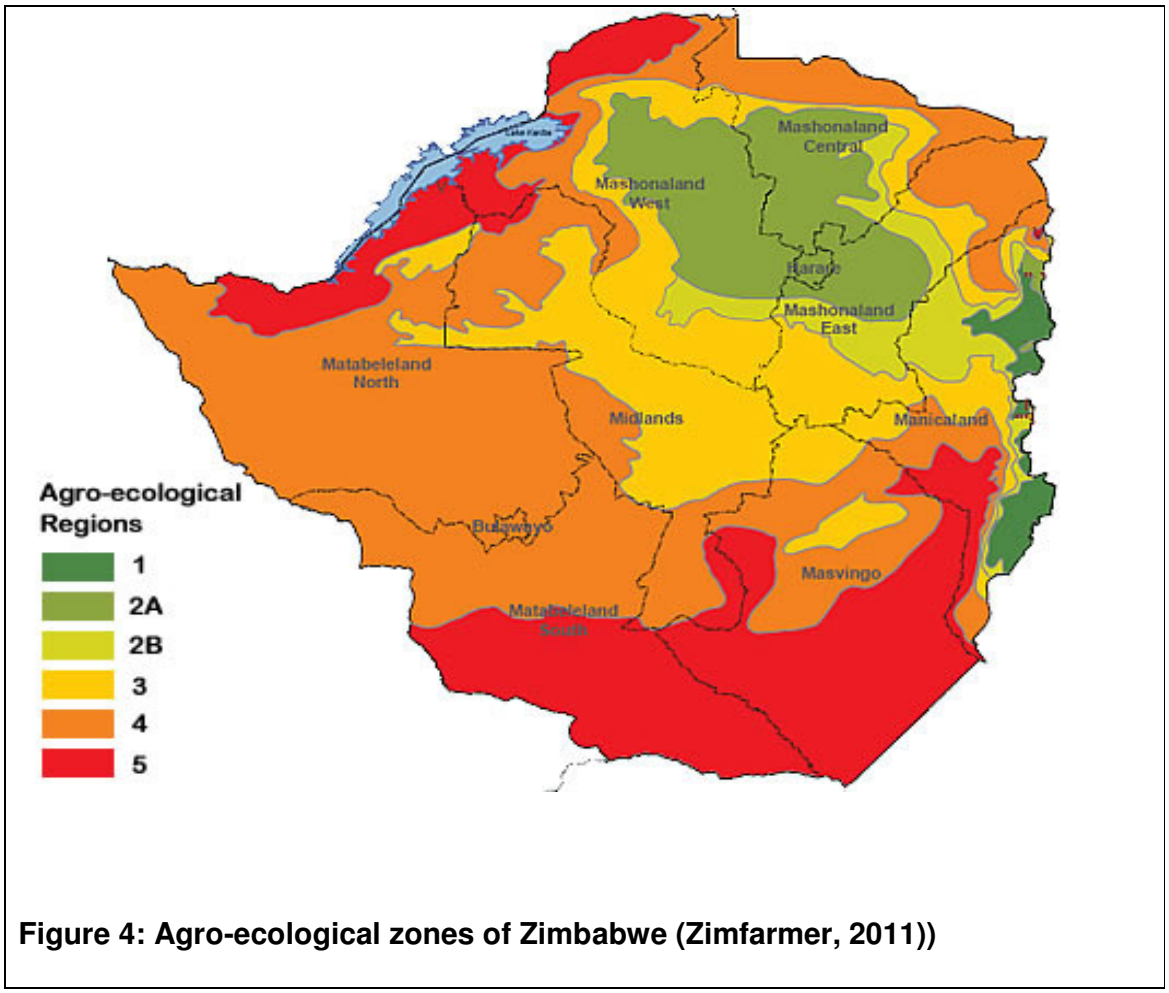


Figure 4: Agro-ecological zones of Zimbabwe (Zimfarmer, 2011))

Region I covers 1.56 percent of the total land area in the country and it is located in the eastern part of the country (Zimfarmer, 2011). Annual rainfall in Region I is high (more than 1 000mm per annum in areas lying below 1 700m altitude, and more than 900mm per annum at greater altitudes), normally with some precipitation in all months of the year (Muregerera, 2003:92). Muregerera also add that temperatures in this region are normally comparatively low and the rainfall is consequently highly effective. The area is suitable for intensive and diversified farming and important agricultural activities include the production of coffee, tea, deciduous fruits, market

gardening (potatoes, pees, and other vegetables), flowers and dairy farming (Zimfarmer, 2011).

Region II covers 18.68 percent of the area of Zimbabwe and is located in the middle of the country (Zimfarmer, 2011). The region extends over three provinces: Mashonaland East, Mashonaland Central and Mashonaland West" (Zimfarmer, 2011). Rainfall in this region is confined to summer and is moderately high (750 -1 000mm) (Muregerera, 2003:91). This region receives an average of at least 18 rainy days per season and normally enjoys reliable conditions, rarely experiencing severe dry spells in summer and it is the most productive region of the country (Muregerera, 2003:92). The region is suitable for intensive systems of farming based on crops and/or livestock production. However, 75 - 85 percent of the area is planted with crops (Zimfarmer, 2011). Farming is mostly diversified and specialised and the main agricultural activities include forestry, fruit production, crop production and intensive livestock rearing and major grown crops are tobacco, maize and wheat (Munyanyi, 2005:29)

Region III covers 17.43 percent of the country's land area and accounts for 15 percent of arable land (Zimfarmer, 2011). In this region farming is semi-intensive, annual rainfall varies between 650 and 800 mm and the area is characterised by mid-season droughts (Munyanyi, 2005:30)**.** Munyanyi indicates that the main agricultural activities include livestock breeding, fodder and cash crops (mainly cotton). However, as pointed out by Munyanyi, this area has a marginal production of maize, tobacco and cotton.

Region IV comprises 33.03 percent of the country's land area and this area forms the largest part of the geographical regions in the country (Munyanyi, 2005:30;

Zimfarmer, 2011). Annual rainfall in Region IV ranges between 450 and 650 mm with frequent droughts and farming is intensive (Munyanyi, 2005:30). In addition, "the area has one of the least favourable climatic conditions for agricultural production. The specializations of this area include extensive livestock breeding and production of drought-resistant crops, particularly small grains which include millet, sorghum and rapoko" (Munyanyi, 2005:31).

Lastly, Region V comprises 26.5 percent of the country's land area (Zmfarmer, 2011). "The area covers the low veldt areas below 900mm above sea level in both the north and south of the country. The area receives too low and erratic rainfall ((less than 450mm) to sustain even the most drought resistant crops and farming is based entirely on the utilisation of the veldt alone" (Muregerera, 2003:92). For this reason, this region is thus primarily suitable for livestock production alone. Therefore, the main agricultural activities in this area include extensive cattle and game ranching (Zimfarmer, 2011).

Of these five regions, Seke District falls in Natural Region II which is a wet agro-ecological region and is one of the most productive regions in the country (Muregerera, 2003:110). Recent studies by the Meteorological office in the country, however, indicate that, the new natural region II is different from the previous classified region and areas such as Chinhoyi, Chibero and their surroundings now have agro-climatic zone conditions similar to those found in natural Region III (Makunike, 2009). This change, though not yet of great significance, has been attributed to changes in the temperature and weather patterns country-wide as a result of climate change effects which have affected the severity and frequency of rainfall, access to water and the use of the land countrywide. Consequently, extreme events are becoming more intense and of longer duration coupled with periodic shift

in the onset of rains and there are fears that this is likely to adversely affect food production in Seke and other Districts in the province.

Nonetheless, Seke District "is suitable for intensive systems of farming based on crops and/or livestock production" (Muregerera, 2003:110). Cattle, goats and chickens are the chief forms of livestock and they are generally kept for household consumption rather than for commercial purposes. Apart from livestock production, some of the major crops grown in Seke include maize, tobacco, cotton, groundnuts, sunflower, paprika and horticultural crops (leafy vegetables, tomatoes and onions among others) (Department of Agricultural Research and Extension, 2006). Most of the farmers, however, are more into food production than cash crop production and cultivation in this district and most parts of the country is dependent upon the uncertainties of variable rainfall. Generally, this means that crop production in Seke is primarily rainfed and this is further prompted by the lack of dams and perennial water sources in the area.

Close proximity to large city centres (Harare and Chitungwiza) enables market gardens to flourish thus providing a livelihood for many while also making it possible for the majority of the people in the area to be gainfully employed (Muregerera, 2003:110). For this reason some commute daily to their places of work. On the other hand, many inhabitants of Seke used to work on neighbouring commercial farms before the land reform programme. However, after the land reform programme the majority of those working on commercial farms were left unemployed and were left to rely entirely on subsistence farming activities for survival as they failed to secure gainful employment elsewhere.

3.3. Research Design

"A research design describes the procedure that the researcher follows for collecting and analysing data" (Shepard, 2002:54). Before that can be done, the first part of this section will look at the different approaches to social science research. Generally, there are three major approaches to social research namely; the quantitative approach, the qualitative approach and the mixed methods approach.

A quantitative approach is one in which the investigator primarily uses 'post-positivist claims for developing knowledge (Creswell, 2003:18). Positivism basically refers to the use of scientific observation and experimentation in the study of social life (Shepard, 2002:13). Babbie (2008:61) supports this statement by stating that positivism assumes that rules governing social life can be discovered scientifically. To the contrary, post-positivism, is all about thinking after scientific observation and experimentation. This means that researchers cannot be positive or entirely sure about their claims of knowledge when studying human actions or behaviour but there is need for further inquiry after obtaining results in order to be entirely sure of the findings. In other words, with post-positivism, the researcher does not just accept research findings as they are after making scientific inquiries (as with positivism approach) but questions or challenges his/her own findings in order to determine their logic and applicability to real life before being sure or accepting the findings. Generally, this means that the researcher, in pursuit of knowledge, incorporates the following; "cause and effect thinking, reduction to specific variables and hypotheses and questions, use of measurement and observation and the test of theories" (Creswell, 2003:18).

This approach is sometimes referred to as the positivist approach, the experimental approach or the empirical approach (Cresswell, 2003:6). This type of approach is used to answer questions about relationships among measured variables with the intention of explaining, predicting and controlling phenomena. In other words, quantitative research methods focus attention on measurements or amounts (more or less, larger or smaller, often and seldom, similar and different) of the characteristic displayed by the people and events in the researcher's study. The quantitative approach employs strategies of inquiry such as surveys and experiments, and collects data on predetermined instruments that yield statistical data (Creswell, 2003:18).

Surveys basically include cross-sectional studies (observations of a sample, or cross-section of a population at a single point in time) and longitudinal studies (permit observations over an extended period of time) using questionnaires or structured interviews for data collection (Creswell, 2003:14). This is usually done with the intent of generalising from a sample to a population. A questionnaire is a document containing a set of questions and other type of items designed to solicit information appropriate for analysis and is usually answered by the respondents themselves (Babbie, 2010:256). An interview, on the other hand, involves the asking of questions by one person (an interviewer) of another (a respondent) and it may be conducted either face-to-face or by telephone (Babbie, 2010:274). In this case, the interviewers ask the questions and record the respondent's responses (Babbie, 2010; Shepard, 2002)). Questionnaires or interviews may be composed of either closed-ended or open-ended questions or both (Shepard, 2002:46). Survey questionnaires are normally composed of closed-ended questions and are thus known as structured questionnaires. Those comprising a combination of both

closed-ended and open-ended questionnaires are known as semi-structured questionnaires.

Closed-ended questions are those in which the respondent is asked to select an answer from among a list of predetermined responses provided by the researcher (Babbie, 2010; Shepard, 2002). Since participants must choose from rigidly predetermined responses, it is important to note that these types of questions sometimes fail to elicit the respondent's underlying attitudes and opinions (Shepard, 2002:46). The advantage, however, as pointed out by Shepard is that they make answers easier to quantify and compare. These types of questions are popular in survey research because they provide a greater uniformity of responses and are more easily processed than open-ended questions. With open-ended questions, the respondent answers questions in his or her own words (Babbie, 2010:256). Although, these types of questions are able to capture the respondent's underlying attitudes and opinions, they responses are not easy to quantify and the researcher may end up distorting the meaning of the respondent's response by rephrasing them (Shepard, 2002:46).

In experiments, social researchers typically select a group of people, do something to them and observe the effect of what was done (Babbie, 2010:251). Experiments are carried out mostly in laboratories and away from any form of contamination or influence from the outside world (Shepard, 2002:43). Shepard also points out that experiments, though rarely used, are grounded in the concept of causation and are an excellent vehicle for the controlled testing of causal processes. Like surveys, experiments do have their own strengths and weaknesses. The major weakness of experiments is artificiality (Babbie, 2010:251). This means that what happens in an experiment might not be a true representation of what happens in the real world. On

the other hand, the strengths of experimentation include the isolation of the independent variable; which permits causal inferences; the relative ease of replication; and scientific rigour (Babbie, 2010:251).

The quantitative approach has several strengths and weaknesses. The major strength of this approach is that quantitative research allows for a broader study, involving a greater number of samples, which in turn permits more detailed analysis and thus enhancing the generalisation of results and variables in surveys can be quantified (Shepard, 2002:46). However, the major weakness of the quantitative approach is that the research methods tend to provide numerical descriptions rather than detailed narrative and generally provides less elaborate accounts of human perception. In addition to this, the quantitative data obtained tends to overlook motivations, feelings, options and attitudes of the people being interviewed and those carrying out the research, an aspect than can be captured when qualitative research is employed (Shepard, 2002:46). Shepard also adds that implementing the quantitative approach is expensive because of the large samples usually involved.

A qualitative approach, on the other hand, “is one in which the enquirer often makes knowledge claims on constructivist perspectives (that is, the multiple meanings of individual experiences, meanings socially and historically constructed, with an intent of developing a pattern or theory) or advocacy/participatory perspectives (that is, political, issue-oriented, collaborative or change-oriented) or both” (Creswell, 2003:18). In general, this means that the researcher, as s/he seeks to understand the world in which people live and work, rather than starting with a theory (as in post-positivism) generates or inductively develops a theory or pattern of meaning. This approach is also referred to as the interpretive, the naturalistic or the constructivist approach (Creswell, 2003:8). The qualitative approach is typically used

to answer questions about the nature of different phenomena with the purpose of describing and understanding the phenomena from the participants' point of view (Babbie, 2010; Creswell, 2003).

The researcher collects open-ended, emerging data with the primary intent of developing themes from the data and in most cases this data is usually in the form of words (Creswell, 2003:18). Generally, qualitative research provides a detailed picture to be built upon about why people act in certain ways and their feelings about these actions. In this regard, the qualitative research procedures are informed by collection of open-ended data, the analysis of text or pictures, representation of information in figures and tables and personal interpretation of the findings (Creswell, 2003: xxiv).

The qualitative approach uses strategies of inquiry such as narratives, ethnographies, grounded theory studies or case studies and can generally be used for research topics and studies that defy simple quantification (Babbie, 2010; Creswell, 2003). An ethnography is a study of social life that focuses on the detailed and accurate description rather than explanation (Babbie, 2010:304). Such a study involves going to live among a group of people in order to fully learn about their social life and then providing a report afterwards. Grounded theory is the study of social life that attempts to derive theories from an analysis of the patterns, themes and common categories discovered in observational data (Babbie, 2010:307). Finally, there are case studies which are the most popular mode of inquiry used in qualitative research. In other words, case studies are the basis of qualitative research. A case study is a thorough investigation or in-depth investigation of a small group, incident or community (Creswell, 2003; Shepard, 2002). Case studies

are accomplished primarily through intensive observation, information obtained from informants, and informal interviews (Shepard, 2002:49).

Qualitative research has the advantages of the depth of understanding of the characteristics of people and events it can provide, being flexible and usually its lack of costs. Qualitative research also permits the study of social behaviour which is not possible with quantitative research methods (Babbie, 2010; Shepard, 2002)). However, the major setback of this approach is that qualitative research is not appropriate for arriving at statistical descriptions of large populations and the research measurements generally have more validity and less reliability (Babbie, 2010:329).

Finally, “a mixed methods approach is one in which the researcher tends to base knowledge claims on pragmatic grounds (for example, consequence-oriented, problem-centred and pluralistic)” (Creswell, 2003:18). With this approach, it is the problem not the method that is most important. This type of approach is also known as triangulation, multi-method, convergence method, integrated method or combined method. “It employs strategies of inquiry that involve collecting data either simultaneously or sequentially to best understand research problems” (Creswell, 2003:18). The data collection process also involves gathering both numeric information (for example, on instruments) and text information (for instance, on interviews) so that the final database represents both quantitative and qualitative information (Creswell, 2003:20).

In other words, this approach is simply a combination of the quantitative and qualitative approach and these two approaches are used simultaneously in the process and the biases inherent in one method can neutralise or cancel the biases

of the other method. The mixed methods approach is used in events when the research entails the collection of both numerical and non-numerical data. There are three general strategies of inquiry employed in the mixed methods approach namely sequential procedures, concurrent procedures and transformative procedures (Creswell, 2003:16).

In sequential procedures, as Creswell points out, the researcher aims to elaborate on or expand the findings of one method with another method. “This may begin with a qualitative method for exploratory purposes and following up with a quantitative method with a large sample that the researcher may generalise results to a population. Alternatively, the study may begin with a quantitative method in which theories and concepts are tested, to be followed by a qualitative method involving a detailed exploration with a few individuals or cases” (Creswell, 2003:16).

With concurrent procedures, the researcher combines both quantitative and qualitative data in order to provide a detailed analysis of the research problem. During this process, the researcher collects both quantitative and qualitative data simultaneously and then integrates the information in the interpretation of the overall results (Crewell, 2003:16).

Finally, when incorporating transformative procedures, the investigator uses a theoretical lens as an overarching perspective within a design that is composed of both quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell, 2003:16). Creswell elaborates that this lens acts as a frame work for topics of interest, methods of collecting data, and outcomes anticipated by the study. Creswell further asserts that of importance is the fact that, within this framework could be a data collection procedure that involves either a sequential or a concurrent approach.

Of these three, the study adopted the quantitative research methodology approach. The approach was adopted by the study because quantitative research, unlike qualitative research, allows for a broader study, involving a greater number of respondents. In addition to this, quantitative research ensures comparability over time by applying standard questions to the same or statistically comparable samples of households over time. Even though that is the case, it is also important to note that the approach is not without its drawbacks. Some of these include; the approach produces quantitative data which tends to overlook motivations, feelings, options and attitudes of the people being interviewed and thus fails to capture detailed accounts of human perception, an aspect than can be captured when qualitative research is employed,

Of the two data collection methods (surveys and experiments) primarily employed in quantitative research, the study adopted a survey-based research. The study opted for this method because surveys allow for a broader study and this enables the collection of data from a large sample. This in turn permits a more detailed analysis and the attainment of more substantial results. This offers advantages in terms of economy and the amount of data that can be collected (Babbie, 2010:329). Nonetheless, survey research however, has the weakness of being somewhat artificial, potentially superficial and relatively inflexible (Babbie, 2010:293). Furthermore, it is also difficult to use surveys when dealing with the context of social life. In addition, as Babbie points out, survey research is comparatively weak on validity and strong on reliability.

Since information was not going to be collected from the entire population in Seke, due to costs and time, the study had to choose a sample population from which the required information was to be obtained. A sample is a limited number of people

drawn from a larger population (Shepard, 2002:45). The sample population was chosen using the simple random sampling technique. “This is a type of probability sampling in which the units composing a population are assigned numbers. A set of numbers is then generated and the units having those numbers are selected” (Babbie, 2010:211). This sampling technique was chosen because every household head had an equal opportunity of being selected which is independent of any other event in the selection process, thus eliminating bias during the selection process. The technique also ensures that the research data obtained can be generalised to the entire population within a computable margin of error (Tashakkoni and Teddi, 2002).

It is important to note that there are generally three ways of collecting data: asking people questions, observing behaviour and analysing existing materials and methods (Shepard, 2002:54). The first two result in the acquisition of what is known as primary data (raw or unprocessed information), whilst the latter is referred to as secondary or pre-collected data. Of these three, this study collected information through asking people questions and this was achieved by conducting individual face-to-face, formal interviews using a standardised semi-structured questionnaire which was administered to each of the sampled household heads in Seke district. Face-to-face interviews were chosen because they generally produce fewer incomplete questionnaires, they typically achieve high completion rates and they also enable the researcher to make important observations aside from the responses to the questions being asked in the interview (Babbie, 2010; Shepard, 2002). All interviews were conducted by the researcher because such an action enabled the researcher to interact with the respondents first-hand and ensured that there was uniformity in the way the questions were asked.

Questionnaires were chosen because they offer confidentiality to respondents; are generally easier to analyse and turn into quantitative results; and they enable information to be obtained from a large sample and this reduces the margin of error (Hofstee, 2006:40). The questionnaire was a semi-structured questionnaire and it was composed of both closed-ended and open-ended questions. This permitted the attainment of both quantitative and qualitative information. It is important to note that the major setback of closed-ended questions is that, the use of such questions often gives rise to the criticism that they force respondents to express ideas they may not have, in words they would not normally use, and that they are thereby misrepresented (Gomm, 2008:217). Nonetheless, closed-ended questions were chosen because they make answers easier to quantify and compare but sometimes they fail to capture in-depth responses and the respondent's opinions and attitudes. The open-ended questions, though difficult to quantify and compare, allowed for more in-depth responses when required.

The collected information was presented and then analysed using a statistical analysis programme known as the Social Sciences Statistical Package (SPSS). This package was chosen because it is easier to use and enables the researcher to import and export data from different programmes thus enabling the researcher to manipulate the data accordingly.

3.4. Units of analysis

The units of analysis are the core of any research. They are those things that are observed to in order draw an explanation about particular social phenomena of interest. Units of analysis can be anything depending on the type of research. They include individuals, groups of individuals, formal social organisations and non-

human entities which include text books, government documents and reports. Units of analysis are also termed units of observation (Babbie, 2010:121). In other words, they are things or items that are examined in order to summarise a description of all such units and to explain the differences between them (Babbie, 2010; Gray 2004). Generally, in social science research the most typical units of analysis are individual people.

For purposes of this study, the household is regarded as the most appropriate social unit for investigating the prospects and challenges of RNFE in Zimbabwe. There is no concrete definition of a household but it is conventionally regarded as the social group which resides in the same place, shares the same meals and makes joint or co-ordinated decisions over resource allocation and income pooling (Ellis, 2001:18). This means that the household is the site in which particularly intense and social and economic interdependencies occur between a group of individuals (Ellis, 2001:18) In other words, the household is the primary unit of production in rural areas and this is regarded as the major reason why information was collected at the household level.

This study targeted subsistence farmers in Seke district and for purposes of this study, the household heads were the primary units of analysis. The study defines a household head as the person who makes economic decisions in the household or a breadwinner. Household heads were chosen to be the units of analysis because it is the view of that study that these people were better placed to provide the required information by virtue of their position in the household. The household heads furnished the study with the information on crop production; the non-farm activities people are engaged in, the impact of the activities on livelihoods and the reasons for engaging in those activities in order to determine the prospects and challenges of the non-farm economy in Zimbabwe's rural communities.

It is important to note that in Zimbabwe there are some people who dwell in rural areas but are not engaged in any farming activities but are primarily involved in non-farm activities. These people rely entirely on formal for survival. This study, however, focused only on those households who specialise in subsistence farming and are only involved in non-farm activities in order to obtain additional income in order for them to meet basic needs.

3.5. Data collection

The interview survey was conducted in the months of December 2010 and January 2011 and it involved visiting the chosen participants in their homes. Before the survey was conducted a letter authorising the research was obtained from the Ministry of Public Works and Local Government. This letter was shown to all those in authority in the areas visited before visiting the respondents in order to authenticate the research.

During the survey, individual interviews were conducted by the use a standardised questionnaire which was administered by the researcher to sampled household heads. The survey commenced with a pre-test, also known as pilot study, which was carried out in one of the villages in Seke District. This was done in order to test the broad applicability of questions, sequence and layout of the questionnaire, fieldwork arrangements and analysis procedures. The questionnaires were administered to 10 respondents who were selected using the purposive sampling technique. This is a type of non-probability sampling in which the units to be observed are selected on the basis of the researcher's judgement about which ones will be most useful or representative (Babbie, 2010:193).

The sampling technique involved identifying 10 subsistence farmers in the chosen village and then interviewing them individually. This technique was chosen because it enabled the researcher to reach the targeted sample quickly. It is important to note that the findings of this pre-test did not represent any meaningful population, the study was meant to effectively uncover any peculiar defects in the questionnaire and make the necessary adjustments before proceeding with the actual study.

Thereafter, data were collected from three villages in Seke District. The three villages were purposively selected to represent differing degrees of remoteness from public infrastructure and services, so that effects of location on income portfolio could be highlighted. One village was in the peri-urban area, the other in the middle countryside and the third one was in the remote rural area. This was done because different kinds of rural areas have a comparative advantage in different kinds of activities depending on the distance from the city centre (Ashley and Maxwell, 2001). Based on this understanding, the study sought to determine whether distance from the city centre has any impact on the non-farm activities the subsistence farmers were engaged in. This also ensured that there was a balance in the information obtained.

Interviews were conducted with a total of 102 household heads. This is because the minimum sample size for any given population is 100 (Sudman, 1970). Since participants were selected from three villages there was need for the number of participants to be equal in all three villages and a sample size of 100 did not allow for an equal distribution of questionnaires and the next possible number that allowed for that to be achieved was 102. Therefore, 34 interviews were conducted with the sampled household heads in each of the three villages respectively. These interviews captured information on biographical particulars (gender, age, marital

status, educational qualifications and so on), landholdings, crop and livestock production, food security, physical asset ownership and the non-farm activities the people are engaged in.

Male household heads and female household heads engage in different non-farm activities. Therefore, in order to determine that male and female households engage in different non-farm activities by virtue of gender, the interviews were held with an equal number of male and female household heads, 17 male and 17 female household heads, in each of the three villages respectively. The respondents were chosen using the simple random sampling technique. The sampling process involved assigning each member of the population a number and then drawing numbers from a container after they have been thoroughly scrambled until the required number of respondents was reached. This was done for all the three villages. A list of all subsistence farmers in Seke Rural District collected from the Department of Agriculture and Rural Development was used as the sampling frame. A sampling frame is the list or quasi list of elements from which a probability sample is selected (Babbie, 2010:208).

Throughout the study observations were made in order to verify some of the data (for example farming land area and type of house the respondent dwells in) being given by the respondents. Observations are important because they provide the research with an opportunity to have a picture of the actual livelihood of the subject under study. In other words, observations help researchers to have a deeper and fuller understanding of the social phenomenon under investigation. Furthermore, observations also help researchers to identify nuances of behaviour and attitude which might be missed by other research methods. These observations helped in

checking the truthfulness of some the information being given by the respondent as some respondents tend to give false information.

3.6. Data analysis

Data analysis is a process which involves the process of breaking data down into smaller units to reveal their characteristics, elements and structure (Babbie, 2008:13). The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) is the statistical analysis programme which was used for the data analysis process. This package was chosen because it is simple, easy to work with and was specifically designed for social science research.

SPSS was used to produce descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics refer to information that can be organised, summarised and presented in rather simple and direct ways (Shepard, 2002:49). These include statistics such as percentages, ratios, proportions, frequencies, charts, tables and graphs. These descriptive statistics were used to interpret and explain the results obtained. The produced statistics were also used to show and explain the various trends obtained. Cross-tabulations were also produced and these helped in showing the relationships between the various elements being analysed, for instance they were used to show the relationship between gender and the types of non-farm activities engaged in.

The data entry process, however, was conducted using another statistical analysis programme known as Microsoft Excel. This was due to the fact that the programme is much easier to use for this process unlike SPSS which is more complex for the data entry process and also because it was readily available. All this information was then used to draw inferences about the subsistence farmers in Seke district and the

whole country who are engaged in rural non-farm activities and to help illustrate suitable recommendations.

3.7. Ethical considerations

Research is basically a human activity and this makes the issue of ethics very important. The term 'ethical' is defined as conforming to the standards of a given profession or group (Babbie, 2010:64). Although this definition might not be all encompassing, it is particularly true in this regard because different groups tend to have different codes of conduct. Therefore, when it comes to research, this simply means that anyone involved in any form of research needs to be very much aware of and abide by the general agreements shared by researchers about what is proper and improper in the conduct of scientific inquiry. In general terms, researchers worldwide have an ethical obligation to ensure that the participation of participants in research is voluntary, to protect participants' privacy and to avoid deceiving or harming participants.

The researcher abided by the ethical principles of the University of Fort Hare which include; ensuring that the universal values of justice, integrity, discipline, love, kindness, non-injury and concern for the wellbeing of others shall serve as a source of our thought, speech and action; to respect and affirm the dignity, equality, freedom and rich cultural diversity of all human beings as the basis for peace and social justice; and to endorse and encourage the endeavour for academic success as being critically linked with the striving towards an ever deeper expression of our humanity (University of Fort Hare, 2010).

Basing on the above understanding, before the interviews were conducted, the research participants were fully and accurately informed about the reasons, aims and purpose of the study. They were also informed on exactly what was involved and what will happen to the information generated. In addition to this, the study ensured that participation of the respondents was entirely voluntary and no coercion was used. Every effort was also made to ensure that data collected was used purely for academic purposes without defaming any character. No names were recorded during the data collection process and no names are mentioned in this write-up to avoid implicating any individuals or exposing them to public scrutiny, thereby protecting those who participated in the research.

3.8. Conclusion

In social science research there are three basic approaches to research and these are as follows; quantitative approach, quantitative approach and the mixed methods approach. Of these three, the study adopted the quantitative research methodology and a survey research was used to collect primary data from the sampled households in Seke district. The study chose these two because they permit the collection of data from a large number of people and this in turn permits more detailed analysis and the attainment of more substantial results. Data were collected from three villages in Seke District. Data were collected from household heads, who were the primary units of analysis. The data collection process involved conducting individual interviews with the sampled household head using a standardised semi-structured questionnaire which comprised closed-ended and open-ended questions.

The survey was conducted in the months of December 2010 and January 2011. Before the actual research was conducted, a pilot study was carried out and 10

questionnaires were distributed to respondents in one village in Seke. These respondents were chosen using the purposive sampling technique. Thereafter, the actual research began and interviews were conducted with a total 102 respondents with the interviews being held with 34 household heads in each of the three villages respectively

Respondents were selected using the simple random technique and a list of all subsistence farmers in Seke district collected from the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development acted as the sampling frame. This sampling technique was chosen because every household head had an equal chance of selection, thus eliminating bias during the sampling process.

Analysis of the primary data obtained after the survey was done using a statistical analysis programme known as the Statistical Packages for Social Scientists (SPSS). SPSS was used to produce descriptive statistics with which inferences were made to the entire population. The descriptive statistics produced include frequencies, charts and bar graphs. Microsoft Excel (another statistical analysis programme), on the other hand, was used for the data entry process.

Lastly, the study abided by the ethical principles of the University of Fort Hare. Before conducting the research, the respondents were made fully aware of the aims and purpose of the study and what was to happen to the information obtained. Participation of the respondents was entirely voluntary and no names are mentioned in this write-up so as to protect the respondents.

The following chapter focuses on the presentation of the results obtained by the study. In addition to this, the presented data will be interpreted in relation to the

research questions and the theoretical framework. Thorough discussions of the results will also be made.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

The concept of RNFE has been neglected for a long time by development planners and practitioners. However, recently it has proved to be a livelihood strategy that can help sustain rural communities and evidence shows its contribution towards production and employment creation and hence poverty reduction. Even though that is the case, not much is known about RNFE in Zimbabwe. Due to this omission, this study seeks to provide a picture of what the situation is like in the country's rural areas with the hope of sensitising the government, NGOs and the private sector on measures that can be taken to help boost RNFE in order to make it more productive. Seke District was used as a point of reference. The information thus obtained captured the following aspects; the non-farm activities the subsistence farmers were engaged in, the reasons why they were engaged in those activities, the impact of the activities on livelihood, and the challenges being faced in the process.

The purpose of this chapter, therefore, is to present, review and critically analyse the results obtained from the small-scale interview survey conducted in three villages in Seke Rural District in the months of December 2010 and January 2011. The research findings are presented in the form of cross-tabulations and descriptive statistics which include frequencies, percentages and charts. These statistics help in providing a summary of the research findings and they also to help explain the research findings.

4.2. Household characteristics of the study area

4.2.1. Gender distribution

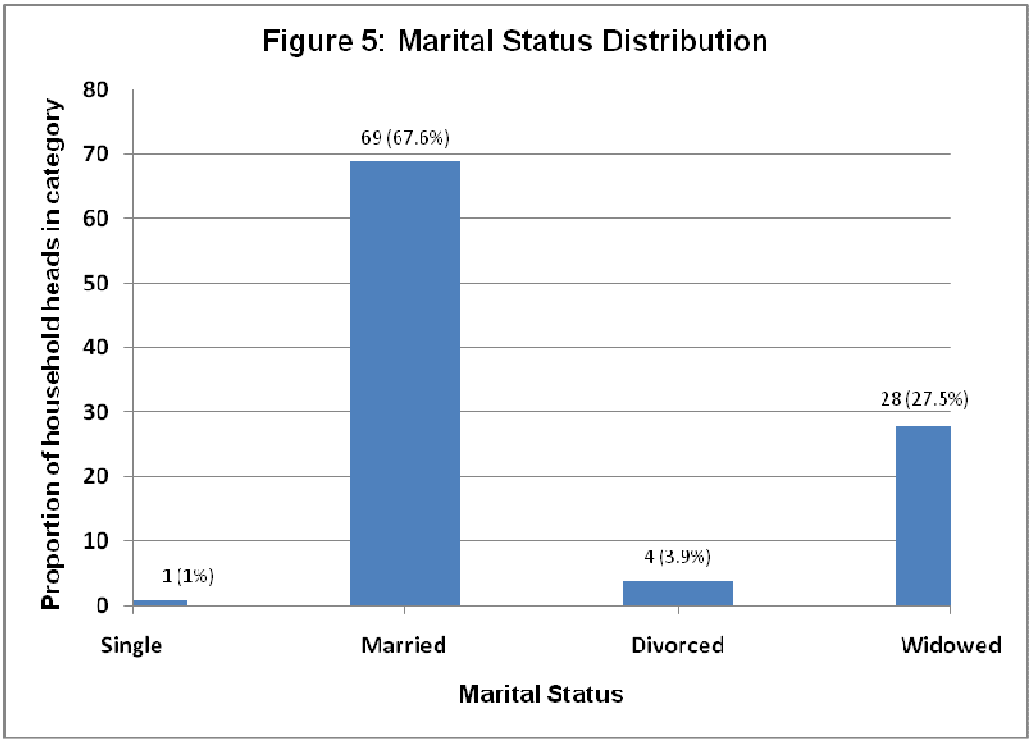
Table 1: Gender distribution of the sampled household heads

Village	Number of female household heads selected	Number of male household heads selected	Total
Village 1	17	17	34
Village 2	17	17	34
Village 3	17	17	34

It is the view of this study that "a gender perspective adds significant insight into rural poverty and livelihood issues" because "gender is an integral and inseparable part of rural livelihoods" (Davis, 2003:13; Ellis, 2001:234). Gender has proved to be very important because it has emerged as an important factor influencing participation patterns and trends in RNFE. In other words, it is one of the factors that help define the kind of activities an individual engages in and the opportunities available to an individual. Generally, males and females engage in different rural non-farm activities because they have different access to resources and opportunities. Therefore, interviews were conducted with an equal number of male and female household heads (see Table 1 which shows the gender distribution in the three villages) in order to determine whether males and females engage in different non-farm activities by virtue of gender status. Based on this understanding, interviews were conducted with 17 male household heads and 17 female household heads within each of the three villages.

4.2.2. Marital status

There were four categories of marital status namely single, married, divorced and widowed. Out of these four categories, the study showed that the majority of the respondents (64) were married and they represented 67.6 percent of the sampled household heads (see figure 5). Figure 5, which is a summary of the marital status distribution of the sampled household heads, illustrates that there was only 1 household head was single, 4 were divorced and 28 were widowed.



Out of the 69 household heads who were married, 50 of them were male whilst the remaining 19 were female (see Table 2). It is also important to note that the single household head was female. Of the males sampled none was divorced. This

indicates that males rarely live unmarried for long periods of time after either a divorce or the death of the wife as indicated by 0 divorced males and 1 widowed male. This is unlike women who can stay alone even after death of a husband or divorce as indicated by the 4 divorced females and 27 widowed females who are in old age.

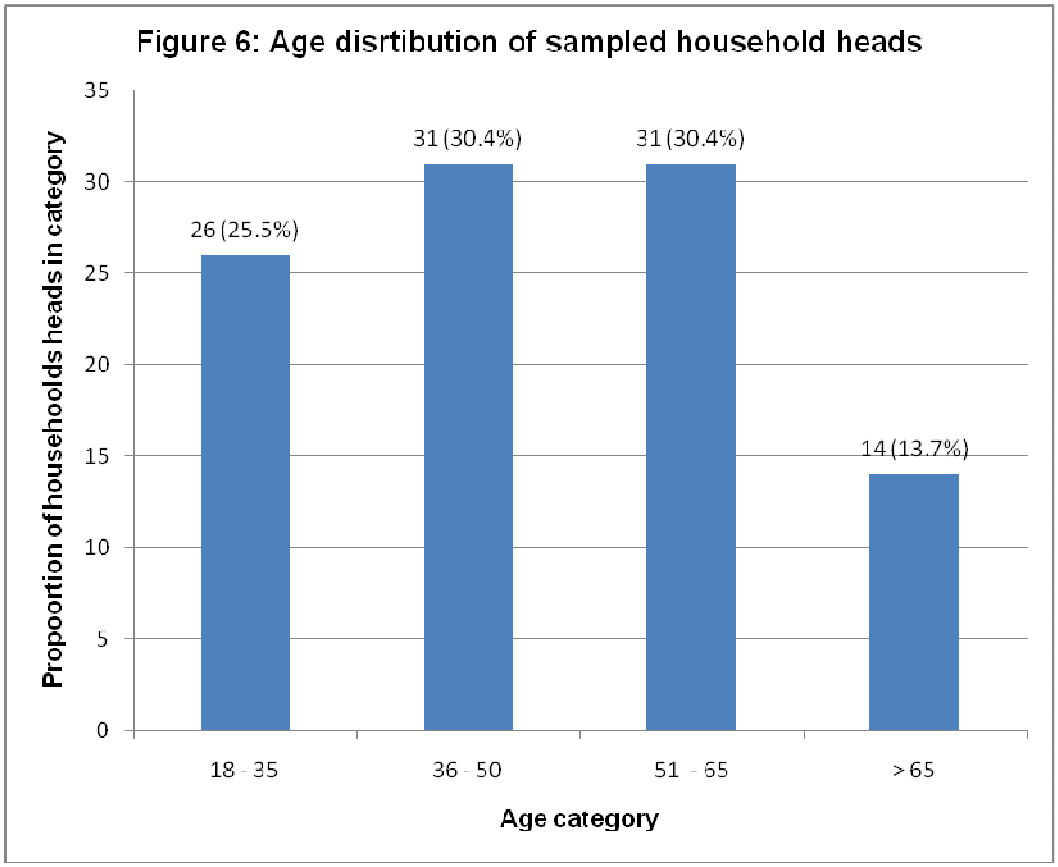
Table 2: Relationship between gender and marital status

Gender	Marital status				Total
	Single	Married	Divorced	Widowed	
Male	0	50	0	1	51
Female	1	19	4	27	51
Total	1	69	4	28	102

4.2.3 Age distribution

There were four age categories looked at by the study and these are as follows; 18 – 35 years, 36 – 50 years, 51 – 65 years and greater than 65 years. The majority of the sampled household heads (30.4%) (as shown in figure 6 which shows the age distribution of the sampled household heads) were in the 36 – 50 and 51 – 65 age-groups respectively. Normally, people in the 36 – 50 years age group usually work and reside in urban areas. The high incidence of people in this age group in rural areas could be a result of them having failed to secure gainful employment in urban areas and are thus residing in rural areas and relying on agriculture for survival.

This can also be a result of the nation-wide clean-up campaign known as Operation Murambatsvina which was carried out in 2006 and aimed at clearing all illegal housing structures in the country. This operation saw thousands of people in various towns countrywide homeless and forced the majority of them to relocate to their rural homes. The incidence of people in the in the age categories of 51 – 65 and above 65 years shows that the majority of the people in Seke were mostly retired people who have decided to settle in their rural home and work on their homesteads for survival as they are past the employment age.

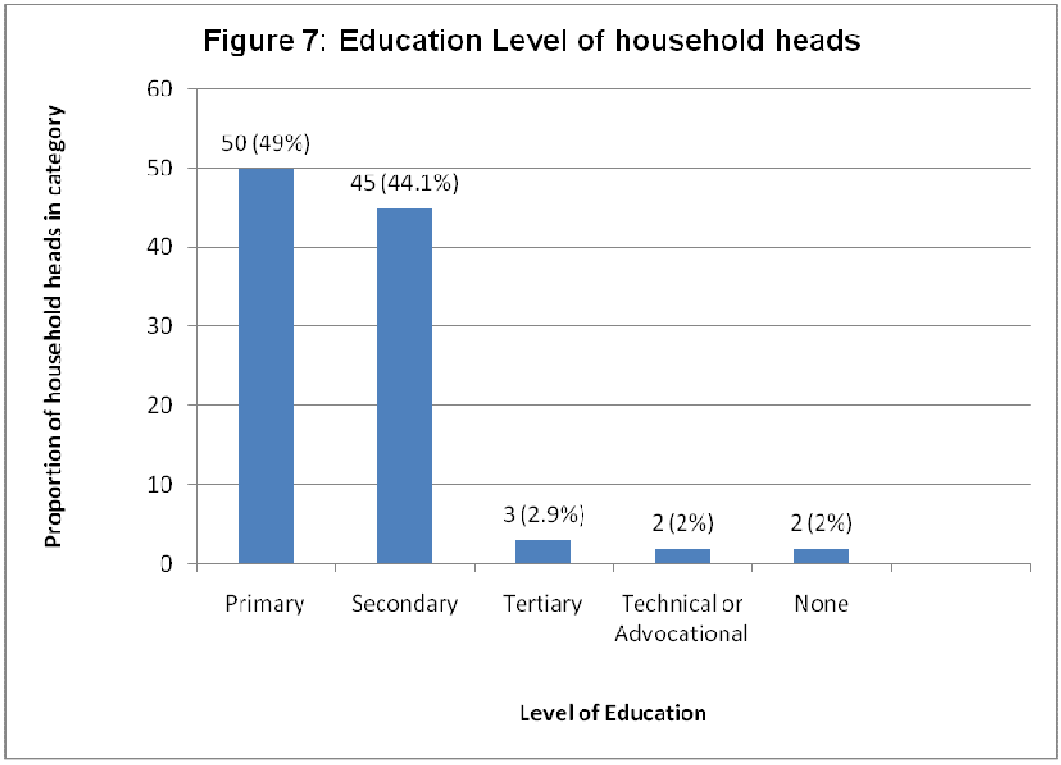


Another aspect to take into consideration is that the males were found to be mainly concentrated in the 18 – 35 years age group (see Table 3 which shows the relationship between gender and age). This group represents the economically active group and who are supposed to be working in the nearby centres of consumption. The fact that these people were residing in rural areas and not employed in the nearby towns can be explained by the fact that these household heads could be those who used to work at nearby farms and were left unemployed by the land-reform programmes and thus failed to secure gainful employment elsewhere. Overall, it can be deduced from Table II that women are dominating in the other age-groups. It is the view of this study that, this was the case because it mostly women who make up a substantial majority of the rural population whilst the males are employed and reside in urban areas whilst leaving the women to tend the home.

Table 3. The relationship between age and gender

Gender	Age					Total
	< 18	18 - 35	36 - 50	51 – 65	> 65	
Male	0	19	13	15	4	51
Female	0	7	18	16	10	51
Total	0	26	31	31	14	102
Percentage	0	25.5	30.4	30.4	13.7	100

4.2.4. Level of Education



Education is often the most valuable asset for rural people to pursue opportunities, obtain skilled jobs, start businesses in the rural non-farm sector and migrate successfully (World Bank, 2007:9). There were five categories which depicted the level of education of the sampled household heads namely; primary, secondary, tertiary, technical or advocational and none (no formal education) (see figure 7). Although education levels are generally very low in rural areas, the study revealed that nearly all sampled household heads had attained some form of education. The results of the study revealed that 50 of the sampled household heads only managed to reach the primary level. This represents 49 percent of the sampled household heads. 45 household heads (44.1 percent) reached secondary level with 3 and 2

reaching tertiary and technical or advocational levels respectively. Only two people did not have any form of education.

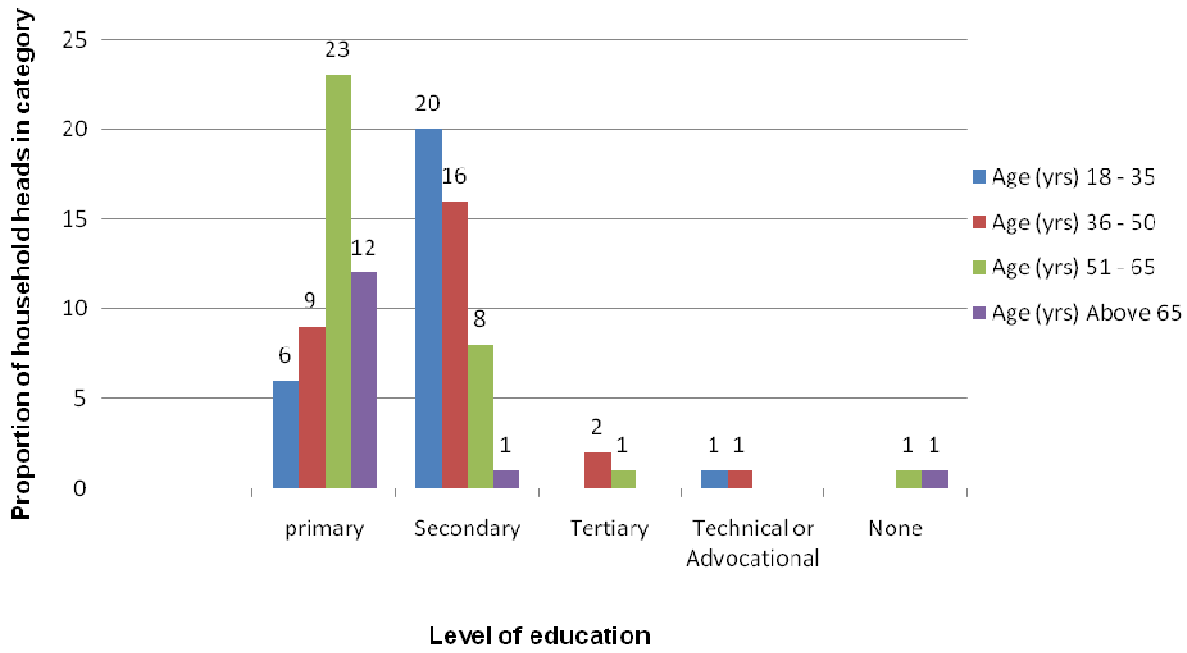
Table 4. Relationship between education level and gender

Education Levels	Gender		Total
	Male	Female	
Primary	21	29	50
Secondary	26	19	45
Tertiary	2	1	3
Technical or Advocational	2	0	2
None	0	2	2
Total	51	51	102

From Table 4 above, which shows the relationship between the level of education and gender, it can be noted that the majority of the people who have some form of education no matter how minimal were males and who are represented in all four categories of education levels. This shows how disadvantaged women are in terms of education. This is further accentuated by the fact that out of the 51 women interviewed 29 of them, approximately 57 percent of the women, reached only primary level. 19 reached secondary school level whilst only 1 managed to reach tertiary level.

With regards to those household heads who lacked any form of education it is only women who were found in this category. This shows that the country still has a long way to go in improving basic education in rural areas and ensuring that women are educated. This is a major cause for concern because as the situation stands today the education of women in rural areas is not valued at all. This is because most rural people still believe that a woman's place is in the home and thus there is no need for her to go to school. This is contrary to the views about male children who are viewed as breadwinners and so need education for them to be able to work and take care of the family.

Figure 8: Relationship between Level of Education and Age group



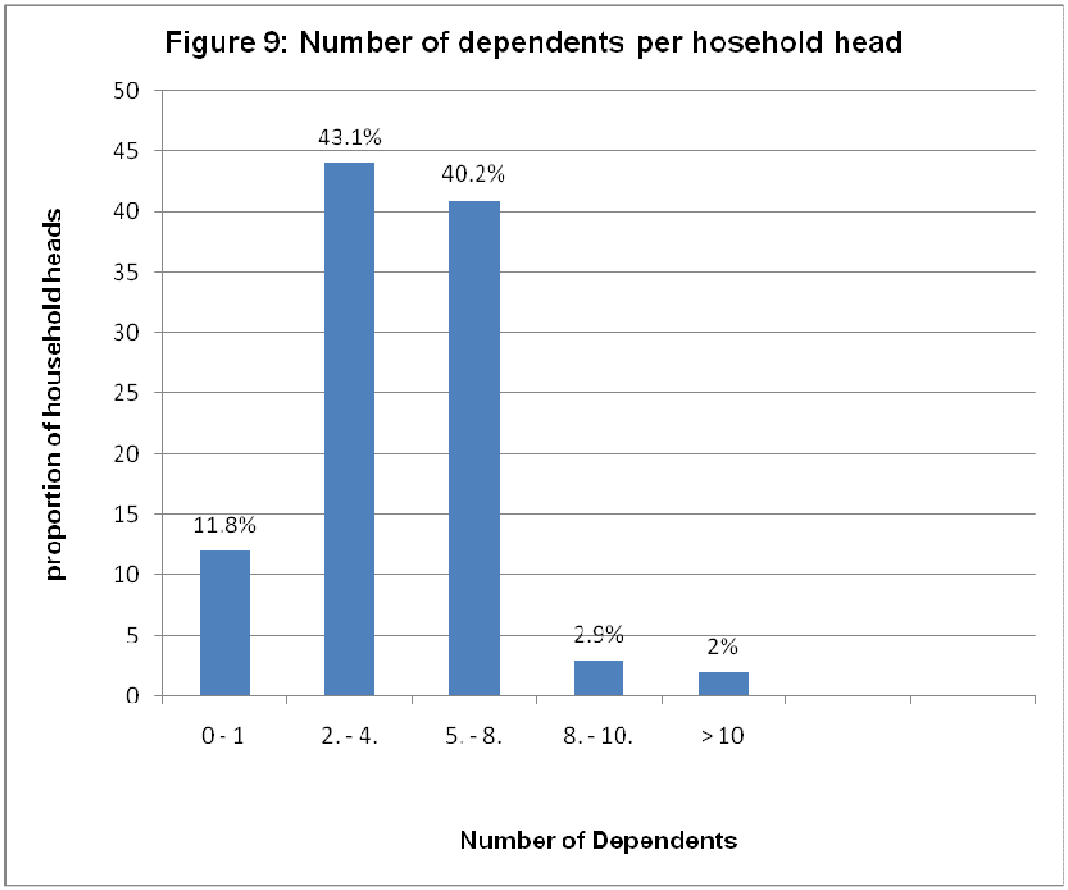
It can be comprehended from Figure 8, which shows the relationship between level of education and age group, that the majority of household heads who reached only primary level were in the 51 to 65 years age group. This group represented 22.5 percent of the sampled household heads. The main reason for this was the existence of few schools in the country's rural areas before the country attained independence from colonial rule in 1980. As a result, people could not proceed further than primary education and the maximum level of education at that time was four years for males and three years for females. For those below 51 years, the major setback in attaining higher education levels was lack of money to pay for their fees.

Those who managed to reach secondary level were mostly in the 18 – 35 years age group and this is the age group that is prominent in the higher education levels. Although improving basic rural education has been slower than in urban areas, this is just an indication there has been great improvements in the country's education system and efforts are being made to ensure that education at all levels is available to rural people. The researcher also noted that as the level of education increased, the number of people who were able to reach the higher levels of education decreased. This stemmed from lack of money to pay fees for further education as it is more expensive to pay for secondary education that it is to pay for primary education and it is more expensive to pay for tertiary education than secondary education.

4.2.5. Household size

Household size is very important at the rural household level. "Many rural poor people follow the strategy of a larger family – as insurance against dying, to provide

for parents in old age and because children help the family early in life (caring for siblings, looking after small stocks and calves, running errands, collecting firewood, water, dung, scaring birds, sowing seeds, removing stones from fields, and ticks from animals, and the like)" (Chambers, 1983:142). In terms of household size or composition, the study revealed that 44 (43.1 percent) households were composed of an average of 2 to 4 members with the majority being in the 18 – 35 years age group (see figure 9 above which shows the number of dependents per household head). This is followed by 41 (40.3 percent) household heads who had an average of 5 to 8 dependants. In addition, 12 (11.8 percent) household heads had 0 to 1 dependants, 3 (2.9 percent) household heads had 8 to 10 dependants and only 2 (2.0 percent) household heads had more than 10 dependants.



It was also noted that the number of dependants tended to decrease with age as shown in Table 5 which illustrates the relationship between age and he number of dependents. This could be due to the fact that most of these people who were below 51 years have children in the school going age-group who were yet to finish school and be able to take care of themselves and start families of their own. The household heads who were above 65 years of age had fewer dependants particularly because their children had home, were working and had families of their own. This left them with fewer dependants, most of whom were grandchildren (particularly orphans). Not only that, some of them were not in a position, either financially or physically due to health issues, to care for anyone, hence the smaller the household size.

Table 5. Relationship between age group and number of dependants

Number of Dependants	Age (years)				Total
	18 - 35	36 - 50	51 - 65	> 65	
0 – 1	2	1	7	2	12
2 – 4	15	13	9	7	44
5 – 8	9	17	11	4	41
8 – 10	0	0	3	0	3
> 10	0	0	1	1	2
Total	26	31	31	14	102

4.3. Landholdings characteristics

4.3.1. Land ownership

Land is a form of natural capital that is utilised by rural communities to generate a means of survival. Since rural livelihood is dependent upon agriculture land is a very crucial asset in rural areas. The issue of land ownership is very crucial because most of the rural poor in the developing world, Zimbabwe included, still possess small landholdings which are barely enough to provide them with a means of subsistence. As a result, struggles over, and for land are widespread across most developing countries worldwide today. True to form, the majority of all the household heads who were interviewed, that is 95 (93.1 percent), owned the land on which they were settled whilst the remaining few, 6.9 percent (7), did not own the land in question (see Table 6 which shows how the sampled household heads acquired their land).

4.3.2. Land acquisition

Table 6 shows that the household heads acquired land in a number of ways which included government allocation, traditional allocation by local chiefs and inheritance from parents. The majority (43.7 percent) traditionally allocated the land by chiefs in their areas of settlement and the remaining 42.7 percent inherited the land from their parents (see Table 6). The table also shows that 3 household heads who constitute 2.9 percent were allocated the land by the government whilst the remaining 5.8 percent inherited the land from relatives. The household heads who did not own the land, who were 7 in total, explained this in terms of (1) taking care of the land on behalf of the actual owners (3 individuals), (2) leasing (only 1 individual) the land and (3) renting the land in question (3 individuals).

Table 6. Land Acquisition

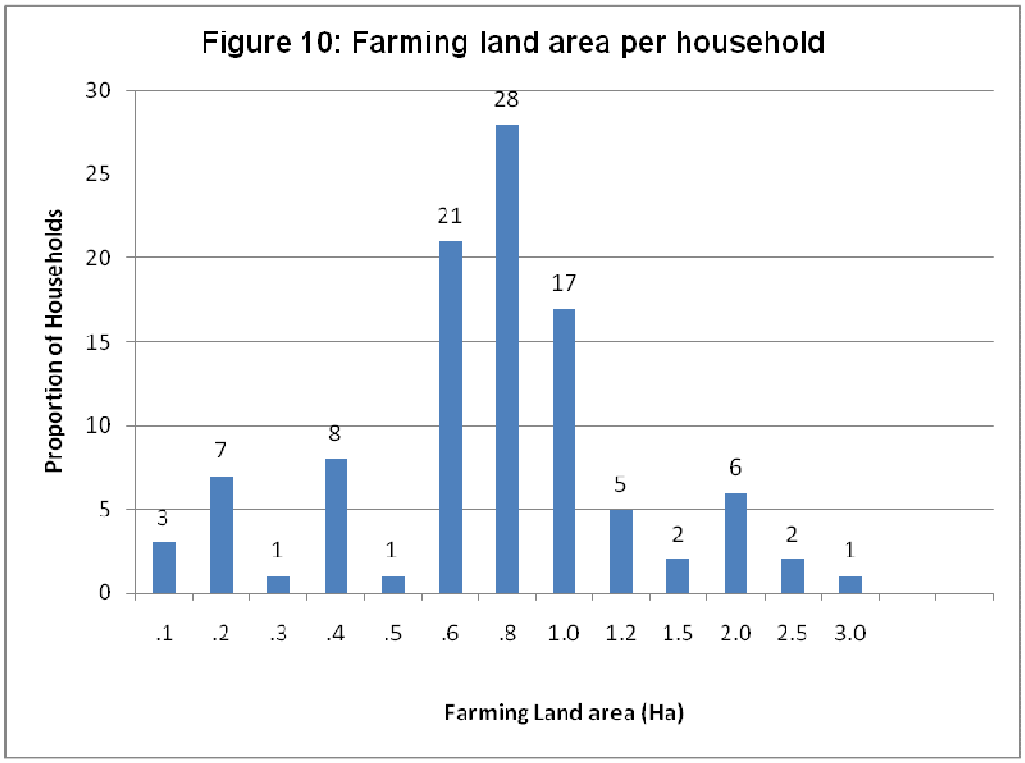
Land Acquisition	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Inherited from parents	44	43.1
Rented	3	2.9
Leased	1	1.0
Government allocation	3	2.9
Traditional allocation	45	44.1
Others	6	5.9
Total	102	100.0

4.4. Farming activities

4.4.1. Crop production

Crop production in Seke is purely for subsistence with only a few selling their produce in the event of surplus. The farming land area for the households ranged from 0.1 to 3 hectares (see Figure 10 which shows the farming land area per household). 20 people owned between 0.1 and 0.5 hectares of land. The fact that a household can have a portion of land as small as 0.1 hectares is an indication that land size in most rural areas is declining and becoming unsustainably small. The major reason for this is the shortage of arable land in most of the country's rural areas. For this reason, most rural people are given portions of land by their parents,

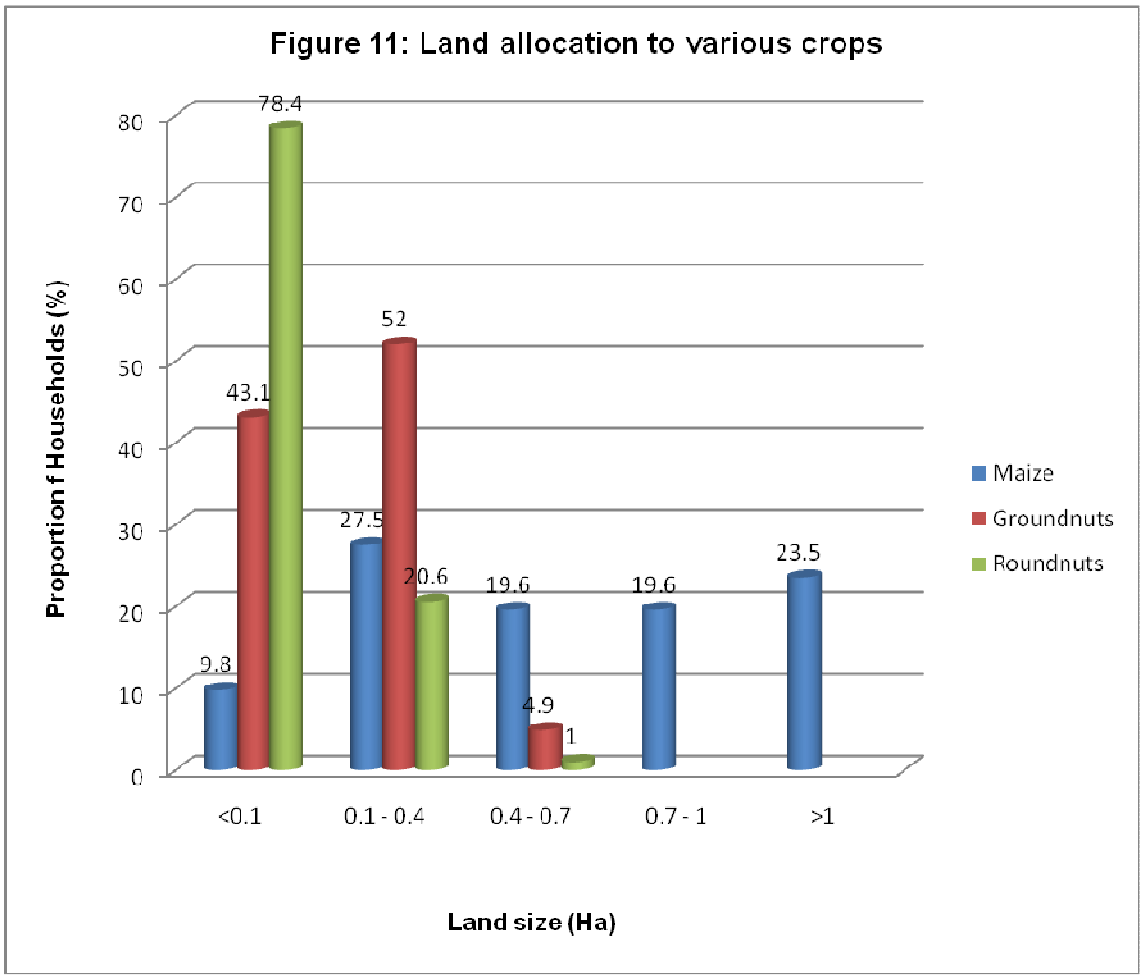
through a process known as land subdivision. Pertinent to this, most of the sampled household heads (42.7 percent) inherited their land from their parents and in most cases this land has to be distributed equally among many siblings. The increased populations in the country's rural areas have seen the sizes of land getting smaller and smaller. This, in turn has resulted in the creation of farm holdings that are insufficient to provide their owners with a means of subsistence (Ellis, 2001:104).



However, although some household heads had very small portions of land, the majority of the households, which comprises 66 households, owned between 0.6 to 1 hectares of total farming land area, with the highest percentage (27.8 percent) owning 0.8 hectares of land. Only 16 households owned land that was more than 1 hectare in size with only one household owning as much as 3 hectares of land.

The study revealed that the majority of the farmers grew crops which include maize, groundnuts, roundnuts and vegetables (see Figure 11 which shows the size of land allocated to the various crops). The study revealed that different portions of the farming land area were allotted to these crops. Maize was allotted larger pieces of land; Figure 11 shows that maize was grown on up to 3 hectares of land. The fact that maize is allotted large pieces of land could be a result of the fact that maize is the major staple crop in the country and thus the major source of food in the country.

Vegetables were grown on small patches of land close to rivers or shallow wells to ensure that they were watered frequently. Even though, 73.5 percent were into vegetable production the issue of water shortage was a great challenge. The fact that the other crops, groundnuts and roundnuts, were grown on a maximum land area of not more than 0.5 hectares is an indication that, although these crops are a source of food they are not very significant. This is further shown by the fact that 40.2 percent did not grown any groundnuts in the three farming seasons whilst an even bigger 56.7 percent did not grow any roundnuts during the same seasons (see Appendix A). One household head pointed out that the major reason for this was that their soils are not well-suited for these crops. This is further supported by the low yields obtained for these crops. The highest yield recorded for all three farming seasons was 0.4 tonnes for both roundnuts and groundnuts and when condition were worse the farmers did not harvest anything (see Appendix A).



Although, a lot of time and effort was put in crop production the yield was very low with the majority of the subsistence farmers harvesting maize which was less than a tonne in the 2007/8 and 2009/10 periods (see Table 7 which shows maize yield in the periods between 2008 and 2010). The major reasons were a severe drought in 2007 which saw the destruction of most crops, erratic and delayed rains, shortage of seed, inadequate fertiliser, lack of draught power and lack of credit to buy inputs. Maize yield improved in the 2009/10 period with the farmers harvesting as much as 3 tonnes of maize (see Table 7). This was particularly due to improved rains during that time. However, the majority of the households, 10.8 percent harvested 1 tonne

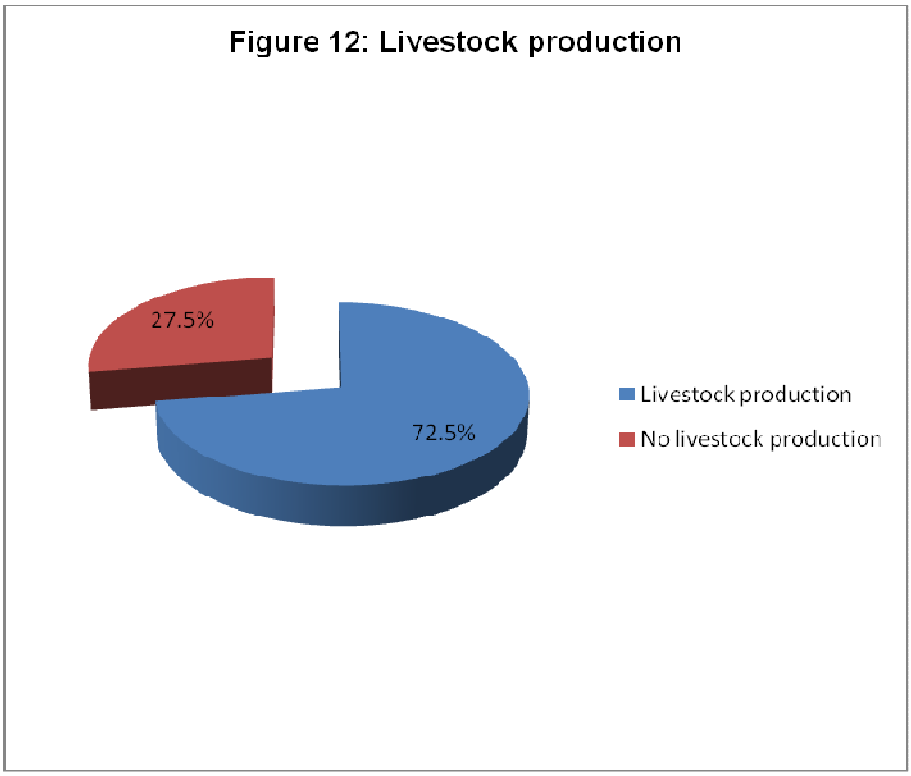
Table 7: Maize yield in the period between 2008 and 2010

2009/10		2008/9		2007/8	
Maize Harvested (t)	Percentage (%)	Maize harvested (t)	Percentage (%)	Maize harvested (t)	Percentage (%)
.00	6.9	.00	27.5	.00	85.3
.05	2.9	.02	1.0	.08	1.0
.10	2.9	.05	2.0	.10	2.9
.15	2.9	.10	5.9	.15	1.0
.18	1.0	.15	4.9	.20	2.0
.20	1.0	.20	3.9	.25	2.0
.25	5.9	.25	7.8	.30	1.0
.30	9.8	.30	3.9	.35	2.0
.35	3.9	.35	2.0	.50	1.0
.40	5.9	.40	10.8	.60	1.0
.45	2.9	.45	2.0	.90	1.0
.50	5.9	.50	10.8		
.55	1.0	.55	1.0		
.60	2.9	.60	3.9		
.65	1.0	.70	1.0		
.70	1.0	.75	2.0		
.75	8.8	.90	2.9		
.80	1.0	1.00	2.9		
.81	1.0	1.35	1.0		
.85	2.0	2.00	2.9		
.90	4.9				
.95	1.0				
1.00	10.8				
1.10	1.0				
1.25	2.0				
1.50	2.0				
2.00	4.9				
2.50	2.0				
3.00	1.0				

of maize. This had to do with the size of cultivated land area. Those who cultivated larger pieces of land produced more whilst those with smaller pieces of land produced less. Despite this, the farmers still complained of shortage of improved seed varieties, inadequate fertiliser and lack of draught power as major limiting factors to crop production. Although vegetable yield could not be quantified, the farmers indicated that the yield tended to fluctuate as governed by the availability of water. This meant that sometimes they would only have enough to feed the household and nothing to sale (this was normally during the dry season when the wells dried up) but when water was available they would have enough to sale and consume at the same time The farmers stated that the major hindrances to vegetable production were water shortages, lack of pesticides and lack of fertiliser.

In the sampled households, crops were primarily grown for household consumption. Only a small proportion sold part of their harvest in the three years sampled by the study. In the 2007/8 period no sales were made due to poor harvest which was a reason of the drought in the country at the time. In the 2008/9 period only 3 people sold their surplus whilst in 2009/10 period, 17 people sold their surplus with most (13) of the sales being of maize. The sale of produce was low in from 2007 to 2009 due to poor yield due to erratic rains being experienced in the country. The sales increased in 2010 and this was particularly due to an improved harvest due to improved rains. Major sales, however, were of vegetables as these were primarily grown for selling and consumption. Produce was mostly sold to neighbours and hawkers.

4.4.2. Livestock production



Apart from crop production, the study revealed that the majority (72.5 percent) of the households also kept livestock (see Figure 12). This leaves only a small number of people who did not keep livestock and this represents only 27.5 percent of the sampled households. Of all sampled households, 57.8 percent (59) kept chickens, whilst 25.5 percent kept cattle and only 19.6 percent were found to keep goats (see Appendix B). The numbers of livestock owned were variable. For those who owned cattle numbers owned ranged from 1 to 14 but the majority (8 individuals) had only 2 and only one had 14. The fact that these numbers are very low and that only a small proportion of the sampled households owned cattle is a major cause for concern because cattle are very important for cultivation purposes. In response to this the

subsistence farmers pointed out that the major reason for the existence of a small number of cattle in the area was stock theft which was very prevalent in the area. Other farmers also pointed out that cattle were very expensive to acquire and the majority of them could not afford them and as a result, they were forced to rely on those who had them.

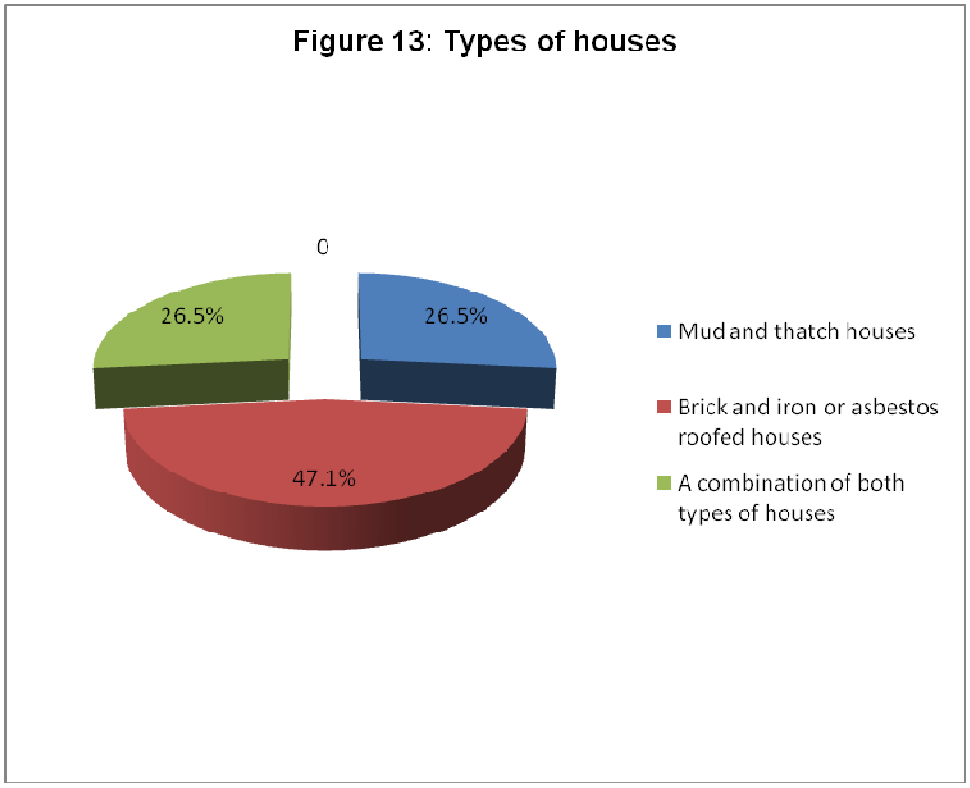
For those who owned goats, the numbers ranged from one to 6 with most people (6) having only 2 goats. The numbers, however, were particularly high for chickens and they ranged from 2 to 45. The figures were more or less evenly distributed throughout. This could have been a result of the fact that chickens are easy and cheap to acquire and maintain. The major reason for keeping goats and chickens was primarily for consumption purposes. Only 2 individuals indicated that they kept goats for cultural purposes which include paying dowry and for offering purposes during the ceremonies held when a daughter is about to give birth to her first child after marriage among others. For those who owned cattle the major reason was for draught power. Only a few people sold their livestock and most of the sales were of chickens. Some households sold up to 30 chickens depending on the need for cash and the numbers available.

4.5. Physical household/ farm assets

4.5.1. Housing facilities

Housing is one of the minimum basic requirements of all human beings. The study was mainly concerned with the type of housing structures the sampled households dwelt in. Two types of housing units or structures were prominent; brick and thatch-roofed houses which were round and are known as huts, and brick and iron-sheets

roofed houses which were rectangular in shape and bigger. Some households had a combination of these two variations. The majority (47.1 percent) of the household heads owned the brick and iron-sheets roofed houses alone. Most of the brick and iron sheets-roofed houses were composed of a minimum of three rooms. On the other hand, 26.5 percent owned a mud and thatch-roofed house or a hut which acted as a kitchen and a brick and iron-sheets roofed house which acted as the main house (see Figure 13). The remaining 26.5 percent owned two or more separate huts which served as kitchens, bedrooms and storerooms. The number also depended upon the household size. The bigger the household size the more the number of huts at a given homestead.



Piped water and electricity are very important physical assets and they help facilitate livelihood diversification. Unfortunately, there was no electricity and piped water in all the sampled houses. The major source of energy was firewood and water was fetched from shallow wells dug in the homesteads or nearby rivers. The major reason for lack of electricity and piped water was lack of money to finance these activities. As a result, the respondents claimed that they were waiting for the government initiated programmes to take place. The sad thing, however, was that they did not know when this was going to happen. With regards to security, only 25.5 percent of the households were fenced whist the rest (74.5 percent) of the households were not fenced (see Appendix C).

4.5.2. Farm assets owned

The farm assets that were owned by the sampled household heads included hoes, wheelbarrows, spades, ox-drawn ploughs, and tractors. Of all sampled households 97.1 percent had hoes, whilst only 3 (2.9 percent) had no hoes (see Figure 14 and Appendix C). This meant that a hoe was a common tool in this area and nearly every household had it. The number of hoes per household ranged from 1 to 10. Most households, 23.5 percent, had 5 hoes whilst 20.6 percent had 4 hoes. An equal number of households, 11.8 percent had 2, 3, and 6 hoes respectively. As for the extremes, only 3 households (2.9 percent) had 1 hoe and only 2 households (2 percent) has 10 hoes. An important aspect to take note of is that there is a direct relationship between the number of hoes per household and household composition. In other words the number of hoes owned per household is dependent upon the number of people in a household. This means that every household member who is able to cultivate the land has a hoe of his/her own.

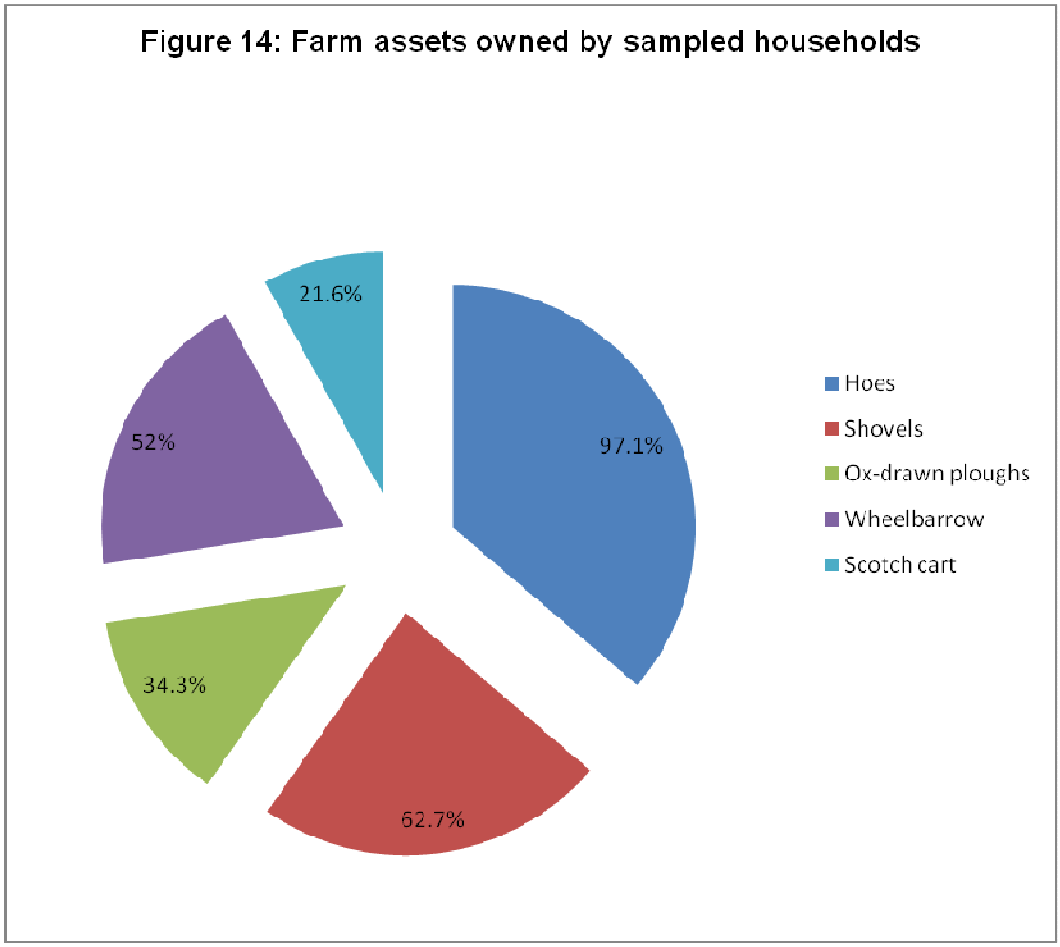


Figure 14 above shows that 62.7 percent households owned shovels whilst the remaining 37.3 percent did not. 40.2 percent owned a single shovel followed by 17.6 percent who owned 2 shovels, 2.9 percent own 4 shovels and 1 percent own 3 and 5 shovels respectively. The fact that most of the households owned a single shovel could be an indication that a shovel is not a significant tool in the cultivation processes.

An ox-drawn plough is a very important tool for cultivation purposes. However, the majority of the households (34.3 percent) did not have this asset (see Figure 14). The main reason behind the lack of ox-drawn ploughs is that most farmers in this

area did not own cattle. Most household heads indicated that they hired those who have cattle to come and plough their land for them before planting anything. In most cases this resulted in them planting their crops late. Most of those who owned ploughs (30.5 percent) owned a single plough which they used for ploughing the land. For those who had more than one some were broken and old and some were no longer of any use to them.

Some households were also found to own wheelbarrows. Although, the wheelbarrow is not significant for agricultural purposes it is very useful for use for various chores around the homesteads such as fetching water and taking grain to the grinding mill, among others. The study revealed that 52 percent of the sampled households owned wheelbarrows whilst the remaining 48 percent did not. This high percentage shows the significance of the asset in the sampled households. 46.1 percent owned a single wheel barrow, only 3.9 percent owned 2 wheelbarrows, 1 percent owned 3 and another 1 percent owned 4 wheelbarrows (see Appendix C).

Another asset that the households owned was a scotch-cart. Unfortunately, the majority of the households, 80 percent did not own scotch-carts, leaving only a remainder of 20 percent who own 1 scotch-cart or more. The majority of the households, 19.6 percent owned 1 scotch-cart, whilst a single person owned 2 scotch-carts and another single person owned 4 scotch-carts. Although the scotch cart is useful for carrying heavy loads, particularly maize from the fields to the homesteads after harvest, the fact that few households owned the asset could mean that it is not a significant household asset. Another reason could be that since the households do not have the animals to use for pulling the scotch-carts, it thus becomes an irrelevant asset to the households. Moreover, it is expensive to acquire

a scotch cart and since the majority of the households are poor they cannot afford to buy such an asset, more significant and affordable assets take precedence.

4.6. Household food security

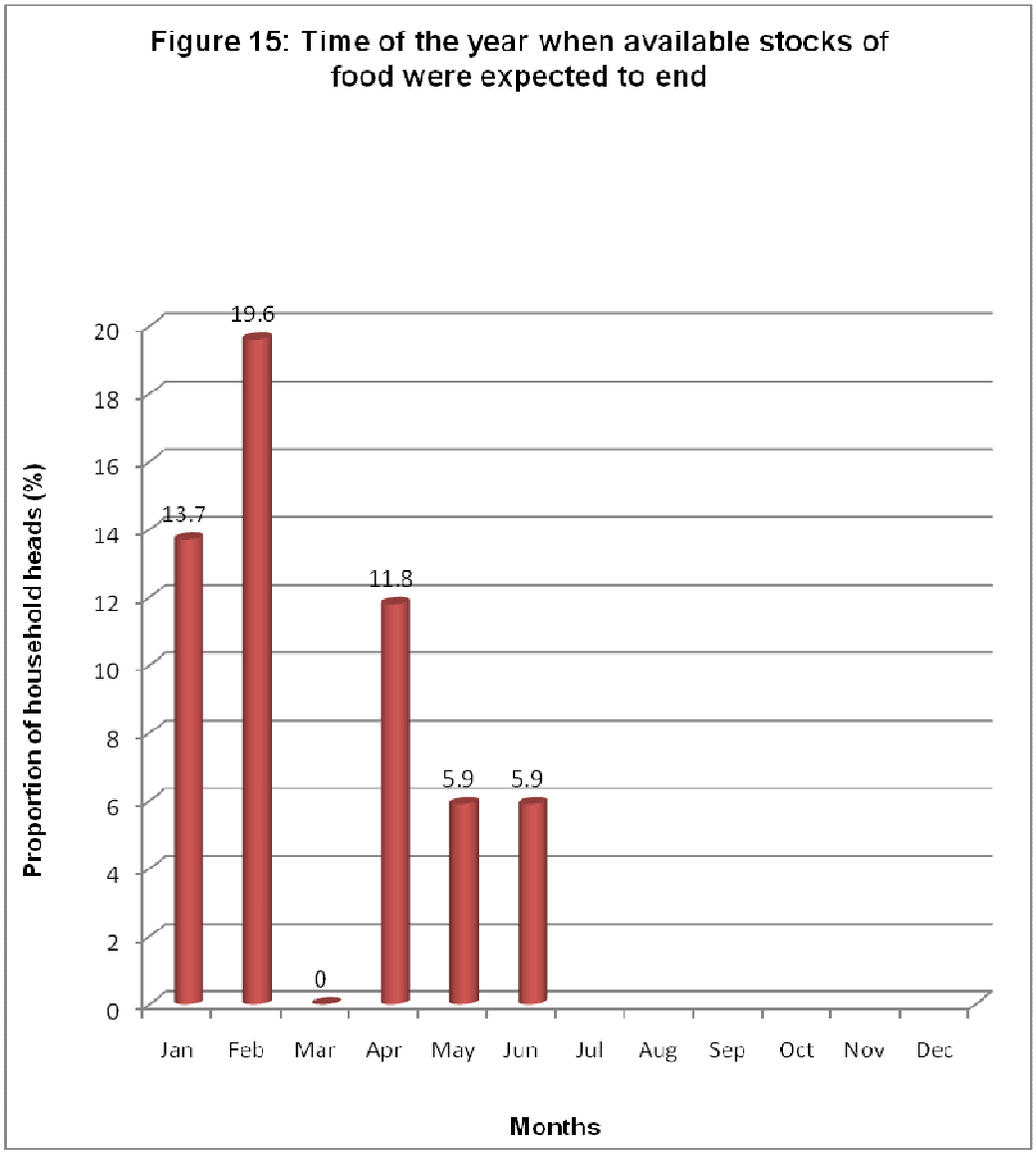
4.6.1 Food security

The issue of food security is a great cause for concern and has dominated development debates worldwide. This is because although agriculture has been largely successful in meeting the world's effective demand for food, 800 million people remain food insecure (World Bank, 2007:8). A lot still has to be done to ensure that the issue is resolved. Basically the term food security refers to the availability of food and one's access to it. A household is considered to be food secure when its occupants do not live in hunger or fear of starvation.

The study revealed that 85.3 percent of all sampled households were not food secure as they have all run out of food in one way or the other and with the rising uncertainties of rainfed agriculture there were fears of more food shortages in the near future. The majority of the households (86.3 percent) ran out of food in the year 2008 with the major reason being poor harvests due to the drought condition in the country at that time. Others (7.8 percent) ran out of food in the year 2007 and this was either due to shortage of seed or inadequate fertiliser. Most of the household heads pointed out that the lack of inputs and draught power was a major limiting factor in crop production as they believed that given adequate inputs they would produce more than what they were producing currently.

For instance, a farmer can harvest as much as 2 tonnes of maize on 0.8 hectares of land. However, out of all sample household heads few people had that much land

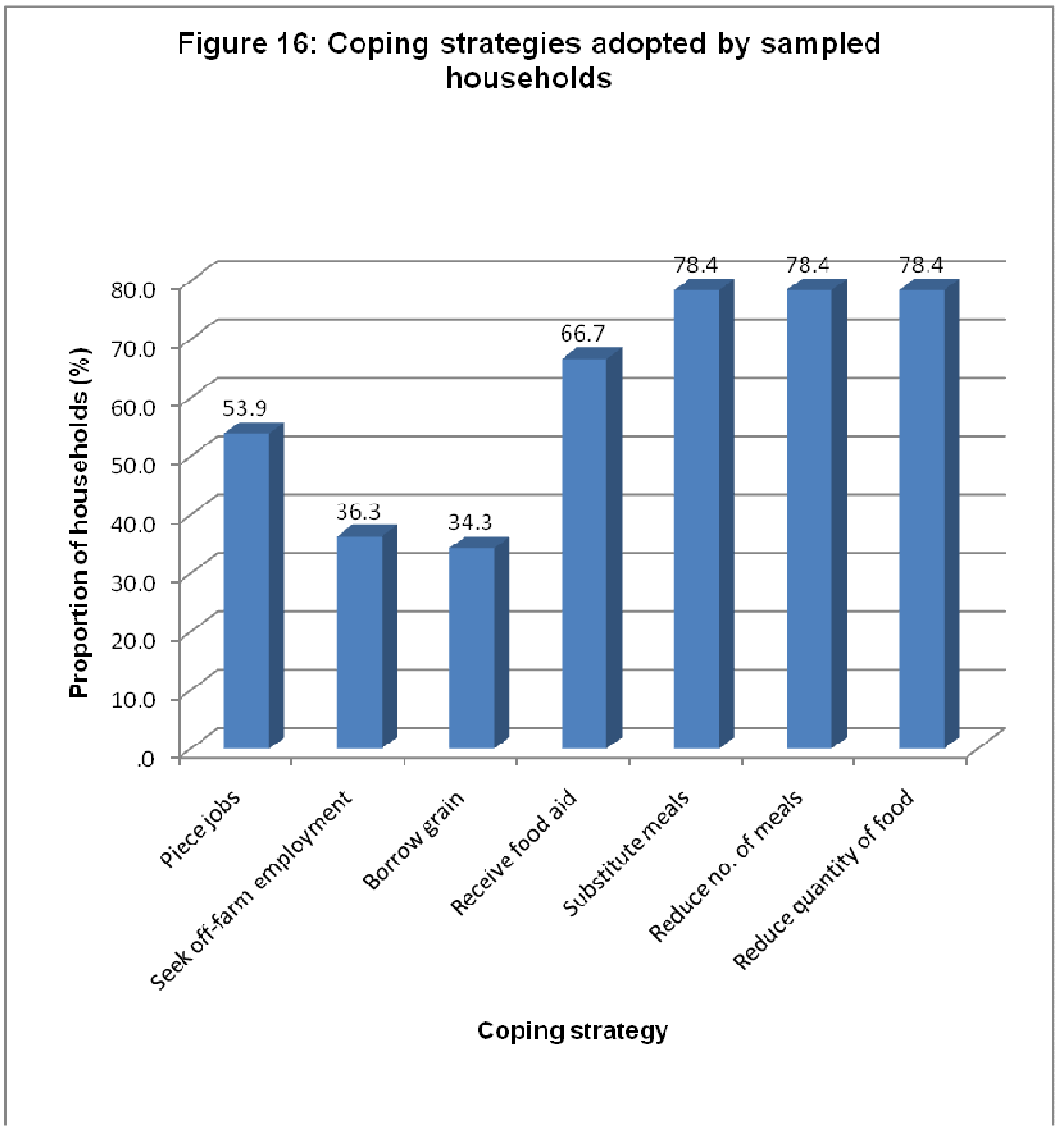
and those who did rarely harvested that much. Only a considerable number of people, approximately 7.9 percent, managed to produce as much as 2 tonnes of maize in the 2009/10 period (see Table VII). This was mainly due to improved rains but in years where rains are erratic or delayed the amounts of maize harvested were less than 2 tonnes. This leaves them vulnerable to hunger and starvation.



The good thing, however, was that most of the households (74,5 percent) still had food stocks available at the time when the study was conducted with some (5.9 percent) saying that their stocks will take them as far as June (see Figure 15 which shows the time of the year when food reserves were expected to end). Those who did not were those who had small pieces of land which were insufficient to provide their owners with a means of subsistence. Nonetheless, out of the household heads who still had food reserves, the majority, 19.6 percent, expected their food reserves to last them until February, 16.7 percent in April, 13.7 percent in January, 11.8 percent in April and only 5.9 percent in May. The major reason for this was due to improved yields due to improved rains experienced in the 2009/10 period.

4.6.2. Coping strategies

When faced with a threat in their regular source of livelihood households respond by engaging in activities that will help them cope with the crisis. These activities that rural households adapt in response to various crises are known as coping strategies. The study found out that the sampled households engaged in different strategies to cope with food shortages. Some of these included seeking off-farm employment, piece jobs, borrowing grain, receiving food aid, substituting meals, reducing the number of meals and reducing the quantity of food (see Figure 16 which shows the coping strategies that were adopted by different households to supplement their food reserves.). Participation in these coping strategies differed among the households and most of the households participated in one or more of these activities depending on the extent of food shortages in the household.



The combination of strategies per household ranged from 1 to seven (see Table 8 which shows the number of coping strategies per household). Only 1 individual engaged in one coping strategy, another 1 individual engaged in 2 coping strategies but 9.8 percent engaged in 3 of these strategies. Most of the households engaged in 4 to 7 of these activities. There was a slight difference in the proportion of households engaged in these coping strategies and the figures ranged from 16.7 percent for those engaging in 6 of these strategies up to 20.6 percent for those took

part in four of the listed coping strategies namely either piece jobs or receiving food aid, substituting meals, reducing the number of meals and reducing the quantity of food.

Table 8. Number of coping strategies per household

Number of coping strategies	Frequency	Percentage (%)
0	14	13.7
1	1	1
2	1	1
3	10	9.8
4	21	20.6
5	18	17.6
6	17	16.7
7	20	19.6
Total	102	100

The most common strategies used to cope with food shortages were substituting meals, reducing the number of meals and reducing the quantity of food. 80 percent of the households were engaged in each of these activities respectively (see Figure 16). Those with the least participation were seeking off-farm employment (37 percent) and borrowing grain (35 percent). The fact that fewer people sought off-farm employment could be a result of lack of employment opportunities off-farm. Furthermore, most of the household heads were no longer economically active because of their age. There were also those who did not engage in any of these

coping activities and this group represented 13.7 percent of the sampled households. The household heads who did not partake in any of the above listed coping strategies were new in the area. It was either their first or second year farming after relocating from the urban area due to various hardships in town and they were yet to face food shortages and engage in any coping strategy.

4.7. Rural Non-Farm (RNF) activities

4.7.1. Rural Non-Farm activities pursued

Table 9. RNF activity distribution

Engagement in any non-farm activity	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	24	23.5
No	78	76.5
Total	102	100.0

The aspect of non-farm activities is the core of this study and the study sought to determine the various non-farm activities that subsistence farmers engage in order to obtain additional income for them to survive and meet basic requirements. Of all sampled household heads only 23.5 percent engaged in non-farm activities whilst the rest, 72.5 percent did not (see Table 9 which show the non-farm activity distribution). This figure is very low considering the fact that this district is close to two major cities/towns (Harare and Chitungwiza). This can mean that the push

factors for engaging in non-farm activities were outweighed by the factors which discouraged engagement in non-farm activities. The 78 household heads who were not engaged in any non-farm activities cited various reasons for failure to engage in any non-farm activities. Their reasons included age, lack of opportunities, lack of credit and lack of electricity and tarred roads. Figure 17 below shows the reasons for not engaging in non-farm activities.

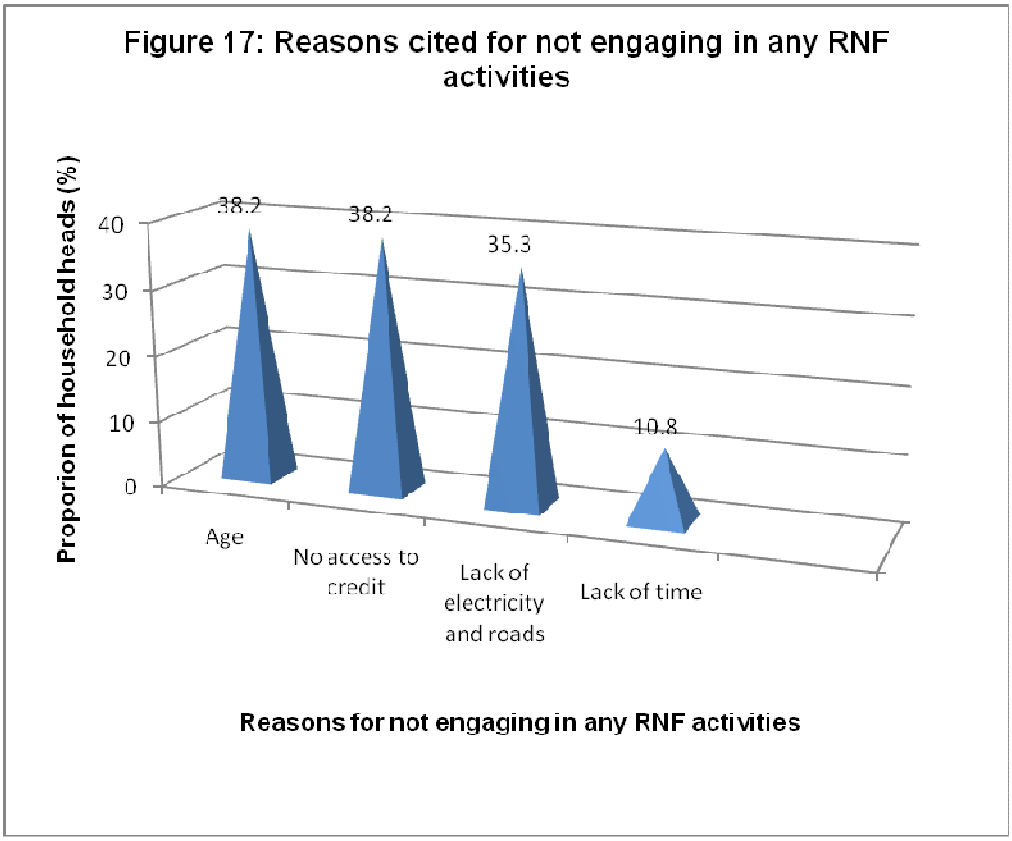


Figure 17 indicates that 38.2 percent of the household heads cited age as a limiting factor because most of them were in the 51 – 65 and above 65 years age groups and were no longer able to participate in taxing activities because of old age and ill-

health. 38.2 percent cited lack of opportunities as a hindrance to their participation in non-farm activities. To others, 35.3 percent, the lack of electricity and roads prevented them from engaging in any non-farm activities. From the above given statistics, the major limiting factors were age and the lack of opportunities. Age is important in that it is one of the factors that determine the ability of an individual to engage in various activities. The younger an individual is the more active the person and the more liable s/he is to engage in a wide range of activities. Conversely, the older a person is the less active s/he becomes and the less liable to s/he is to engage in a wide range of activities.

With regard to opportunities, most respondents cited that there were no opportunities available for them to pursue. They blamed this on the lack of electricity and lack of tarred roads in the area which they said was a major hindrance to them, hence they could not do anything else to earn additional income except cultivate the land.

Another aspect that emerged with regard to participation in non-farm activities was credit. Credit is a very important form of financial capital and it represents the stocks of income available to rural households. Unfortunately, there were no credit facilities in the area and this in turn inhibited their access to credit (either cash or kind). 37.3 percent indicated that the lack of access to credit was a major setback for them. The respondents argued that they did not have any extra income to set aside in order to finance any income generating non-farm activities. Therefore, their failure to access any credit due to lack of credit facilities in the area prevented them from being able to do anything to help themselves.

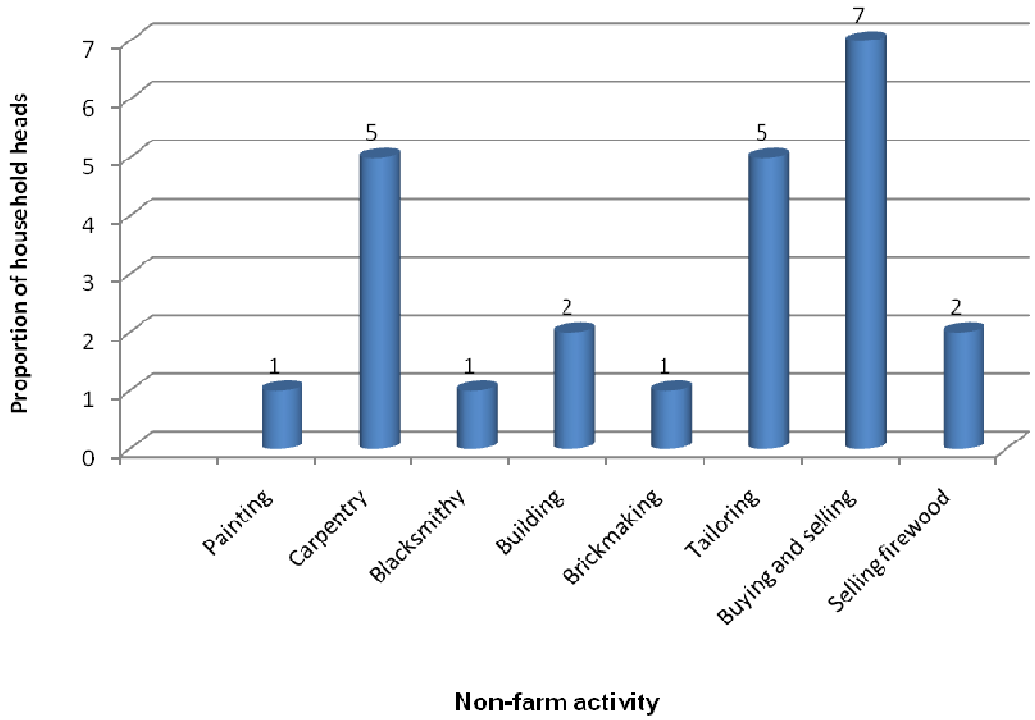
The unavailability of electricity was also an inhibiting factor to engagement in non-farm activities. It is important to note that electricity and roads are important physical

assets, which are a form of physical capital, that facilitate livelihood diversification. “Therefore, the absence of electricity inhibits rural areas of manufacturing industries and constrains small-scale services from arising in rural areas” (Ellis, 2001:33). “Roads, on the other hand, facilitate movement of people between places of different income earning opportunities, create markets and they allow transfer on information between rural centres and remote settlements” (Ellis, 2001:33). Based on this understanding, the lack of electricity and roads resulted in fewer opportunities being available to these rural households; hence they could not do anything else because of this apart from crop production. In addition to this, 10.8 percent indicated that it was an issue of lack of time. Some of them, particularly women, were too busy taking care of the home and the family whilst others were busy with various duties on the farm.

Nonetheless, it was noted that those household heads who engaged in non-farm activities were found to engage in diversified rural non-farm activities (see Figure 18 which shows the types of non-farm activities that household heads partook in). The identified activities can be grouped into two categories namely traditional activities and non-traditional activities. The traditional activities are those activities which thrive on locally available resources. The traditional activities that were prominent are as follows: blacksmithing, brick-making and selling firewood. Non-traditional activities, on the other hand, are those activities which do not rely on locally available resources. The identified activities which form the non-farm activities are tailoring, buying and selling (petty trading), carpentry, painting and tailoring. The most notable thing was that the majority of the sampled household heads were engaged in non-traditional activities. Out of the 24 household heads pursuing non-farm activities, it was discovered that 20 were engaged in non-traditional activities whilst the

remaining 4 were involved in traditional activities (see Figure 18). The fact that most of the sampled household heads were engaged in non-traditional non-farm activities was a result of the fact that most of these household heads were taking advantage of their close proximity to the city centres. The depletion of locally available raw materials for use in the traditional activities resulted in their participation in non-traditional activities.

Figure 18: Types of RNF activities



From the above statistics, most of the household heads, 7 (6.8 percent) were engaged in petty trading activities (buying and selling). They were taking advantage

of the close proximity of the two towns and buying various goods of use to the rural communities in these towns. They then sold these goods for profit and these include matches, candles and paraffin. This seems to be a popular activity particularly because it is not seasonal and the items sold are an everyday or frequent requirement. The other activity with a fairly large proportion was tailoring with 5 people being involved in the activity. Carpentry also had a better frequency with 5 people being involved in the activity. In addition to this, only one individual was involved in painting and 2 were builders. Out of the four household heads were involved in traditional non-farm activities only 2 sold firewood, whilst only 1 was into brick-making and another one was a blacksmith.

4.7.2. Relationship between RNF activities engaged in and gender

Table 10: Relationship between RNF activities engaged in and gender

Non-farm activity	Gender	
	Male	Female
1. Painting	1	0
2. Carpentry	5	0
3. Blacksmithing	1	0
4. Building	2	0
5. Brick-making	1	0
6. Tailoring	1	4
7. Buying and selling	3	4
8. Selling firewood	1	1
Total	15	9

Out of the 24 individuals who were involved in non-farm activities, 15 of them were males whilst the remaining 9 were females (see Table 10 which shows the relationship between RNF activities engaged in by sampled household heads and gender). Out of all 8 activities established, women were involved in only three of these activities. Out of the 9 females who were engaged in non-farm activities, 8 were involved in non-traditional activities whilst only one was involved in traditional activities. It was recognised that 4 were involved in tailoring, 4 in buying and selling and 1 sold firewood. It is important to note that the majority of the activities, such as brick-making, building, carpentry and painting, required intensive manual labour and were thus suited to males. It is for this reason that there is the high incidence of males engaged in such activities unlike their female counterparts who were involved in lighter and less cumbersome activities such as tailoring, buying and selling, and selling firewood. This indicates that most of the activities available were laborious in nature and mainly suited for males. It seems there were fewer opportunities that were available to females, hence the low figures of women engaged in non-farm activities. This could mean that there are fewer opportunities available to women as compared to males in a rural set-up by virtue of gender. The low figures could also be a result of age as most of the women were in the 51 – 65 years age group and thus were no longer able to participate in other activities. Another reason could be that they would be too busy taking care of the family to have time for other activities.

4.7.3. Relationship between non-farm activities engaged in and education

Education, a form of human capital, is one of the assets that help shape the livelihood strategies adopted by rural communities. This form of capital is very important in the sense that it plays a role in determining the opportunities open to an

individual, the activities pursued and this in turns determines the livelihood of that individual. The rural non-farm activities involve all categories of skilled, un-skilled, literate and illiterate workforce in its different stages of operations (Mehta, 2002:51). In this research, however, it was noted that there was no relationship between the level of education and the non-farm activities being pursued as shall be shown later in this section. All the subsistence farmers who engaged in non-farm activities had at least reached primary school level (see Table 11 which shows the relationship between the rural non-farm activities engaged in and the level of education).

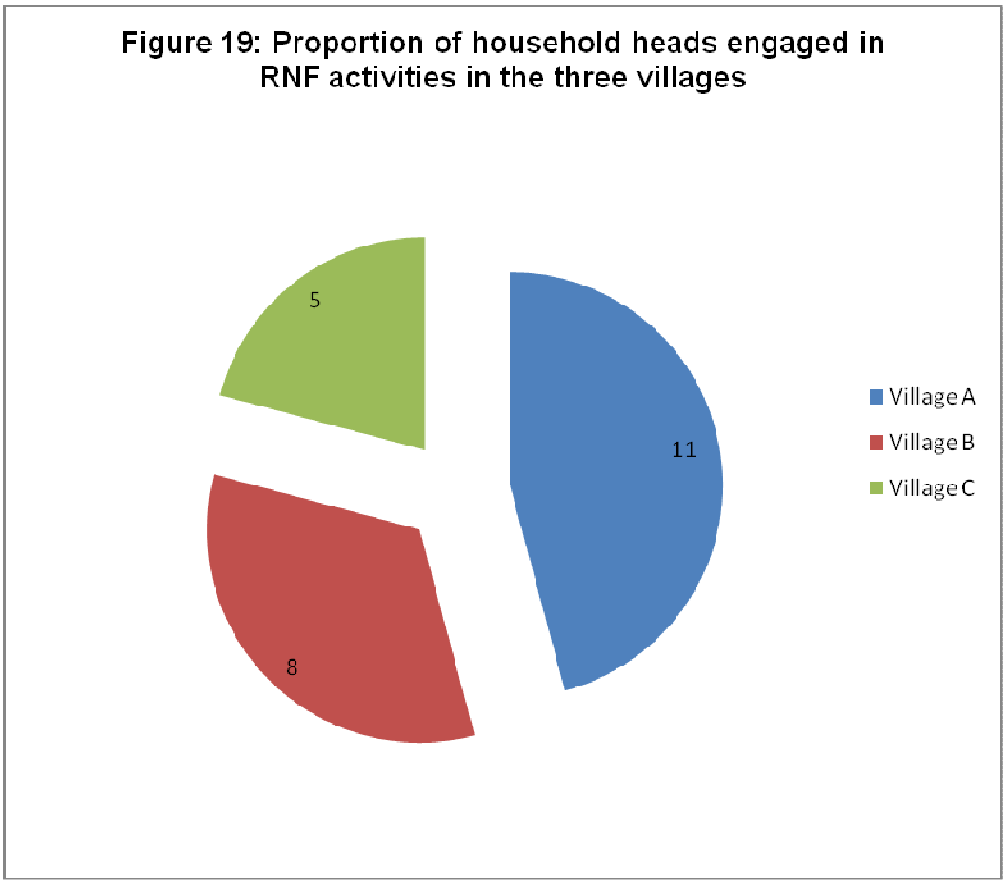
Table 11. Relationship between non-farm activities engaged in and the level of education

Non-farm activity	Level of Education		Total
	Primary	Secondary	
1. Painting	0	1	1
2. Carpentry	1	4	5
3. Blacksmithing	1	0	1
4. Building	1	1	2
5. Brick-making	0	1	1
6. Tailoring	1	4	5
7. Buying and selling	4	3	7
8. Selling firewood	1	1	2
Total	9	15	24

From Table 11 it can be seen 16 of the household heads had reached secondary level, whilst the remaining 9 reached primary level alone. However, although the household heads had different educational qualifications, both groups partook in similar non-farm (see Table 11). The fact that these activities are being done by people from both education levels means that the choice of the non-farm activities was not based upon level of education but upon the opportunities available and what one deems will generate a reasonable amount of income as most of the activities did not require any form of education. For instance, a person can learn the art of brick-making, painting or building just by observation. Therefore, based on this understanding, it can be deduced that although education is an important asset in livelihood diversification, in this instance it did not contribute in any way to the non-farm activities being pursued by the sampled households.

4.7.4. Relationship between RNF activity and village location

It is the view of this study that the location of a rural area has a role to play in determining the rural non-farm activities that to rural communities are involved in. Therefore in order to ascertain this, the study was conducted in three different villages; one village was in a peri-urban area, another was in the middle countryside and the third was in a remote rural area. The study revealed that out of all 24 household heads engaged in rural non-farm activities, the majority were in Village A (see Figure 19). As the distance from the city centre increased, the number of household heads engaged in non-farm activities also decreased, with 8 people in Village B and 5 people in Village C involved in non-farm activities.

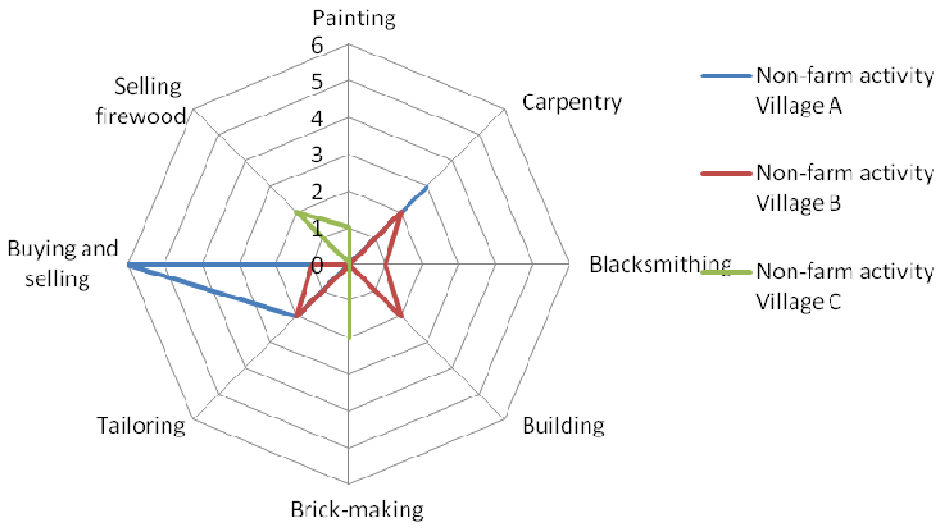


The study revealed that there was a relationship between the non-farm activities engaged in by the household heads in each of the three villages and the location of the village. Table 12 and Figure 20 provide a summary of the activities being engaged in by the household heads in each of the three villages. These illustrations show that the majority of those in Village A were engaged in non-traditional non-farm activities. Most of them took advantage of their close proximity to the centres of consumption and were specialising in buying and selling activities. These household heads bought goods from the nearby towns for resale in their areas of residence. Others were also engaged in carpentry and tailoring. These people also needed to be close to city centres so that that they will be able to go into town to buy inputs.

Table 12. Proportion of household heads engaged in specific RNF activities within the three villages

Non-farm activity	Numbers pursuing the activities		
	Village A	Village B	Village C
1. Painting	0	0	1
2. Carpentry	3	2	0
3. Blacksmithing	0	1	0
4. Building	0	2	0
5. Brick-making	0	0	2
6. Tailoring	2	2	0
7. Buying & selling	6	1	0
8. Selling firewood	0	0	2
Total	11	8	5

Figure 20: A diagrammatic representation of the RNF activities pursued by household heads within the three villages



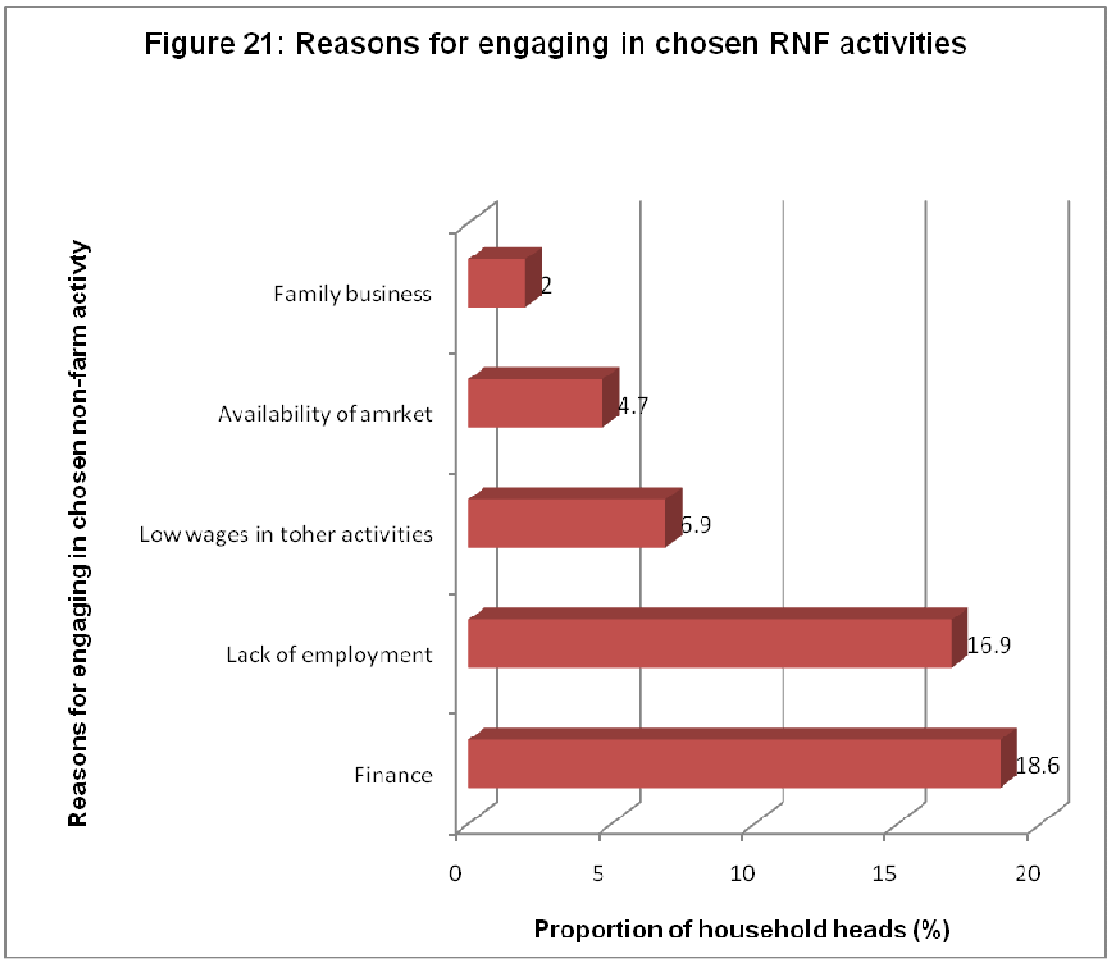
As the distance from the city centre increases, two things stand out. First and foremost, the numbers of people engaged in non-farm activities was decreasing. Secondly, the numbers of those engaged in non-traditional activities was decreasing and this gave rise to traditional activities. For instance, there is only one person who was involved in buying and selling and the number of household heads involved in carpentry also decreased from 3 individuals to 2 individuals. Two activities which are not found in Village A were found in Village B, blacksmithing and building. Those in village B were found to be involved in those activities that rely on the use of available raw materials (traditional activities) namely brick-making and selling firewood. One does not need to go into town for inputs but one simply makes use of available resources. For instance, brick-making requires the use of soil as the raw material and man-made ovens for drying the bricks and those selling firewood simply rely on available trees.

4.7.5. Reasons for engaging in chosen non-farm activity

For an individual to pursue any non-farm activity as a source of livelihood this particularly is in response to various trends and shocks. Apart from the decline in food production due to droughts, erratic and delayed rainfall, shortage of inputs, lack of credit to buy inputs, and lack of draught power, some of the reasons were for involvement in non-farm activities and these include; lack of employment, finance, low wages in other activities, availability of market and family business. However, the major reason was lack of finance or income (see Figure 21 which highlights the relationship between households heads and the reasons for engaging in non-farm activities.). This was followed by lack of employment. Few cited low wages in other

activities and availability of market as reasons for engaging in these activities. Only two indicated that they were just pursuing family businesses.

It is a clear, therefore, that those who pursue non-farm activities do so in order to earn additional income to use for various basic requirements which include buying groceries and clothes, input purchase, transport and paying school fees for children. This is the case because very few households, 21.5 percent, have been able to sell any surplus from 2008 up to 2010 due to poor yields (see Appendix B). Due to the fact that agriculture, their major source of income was failing, these households were forced to find other means of earning additional income in order for them to be able to meet these requirements.



4.7.6. Impact of non-farm activities on livelihood

Impact can either be negative or positive. But it is the view of this study that when poor subsistence farmers engage in non-farm activity, they do so hoping for a positive outcome. This study therefore focused on investigating how non-farm activities have contributed to livelihood. Basically there were three outcomes which the study focused on namely increased income, improved well-being and creation of working hours. Increased income looked at whether the engagement in chosen activity has resulted in an increase in household income. Improved well-being focused on whether the chosen activity resulted in ensuring whether they are meeting their needs or basic requirements. Lastly, creation of working days refers to the ability of a particular combination of livelihood strategies to create gainful aspects of employment, be it income (salary and wage) and production. There were four categories describing how the activities contributed to each of these anticipated outcomes namely: a little, good, very good and substantial.

10 of the sampled households, 9.8 percent, indicated that there was ‘a little’ contribution to increased income (see Table 13). This means that the contribution to livelihood was not much. 9 households indicated that the contribution was ‘good’, 3 stated that the contribution was ‘very good’ and it was ‘substantial’ for only two farmers. When it comes to improved well-being, most households, 13, indicated that the improvement was good. 6 household heads indicated that there was a little improvement, whilst 3 indicated that there the improvement was very good and 2 indicated a substantial improvement in well-being. As for creation of well-being, most households, 15, indicated that there was a little contribution whilst the rest indicated that the contribution was good.

Table 13. Contribution of chosen activities to livelihood

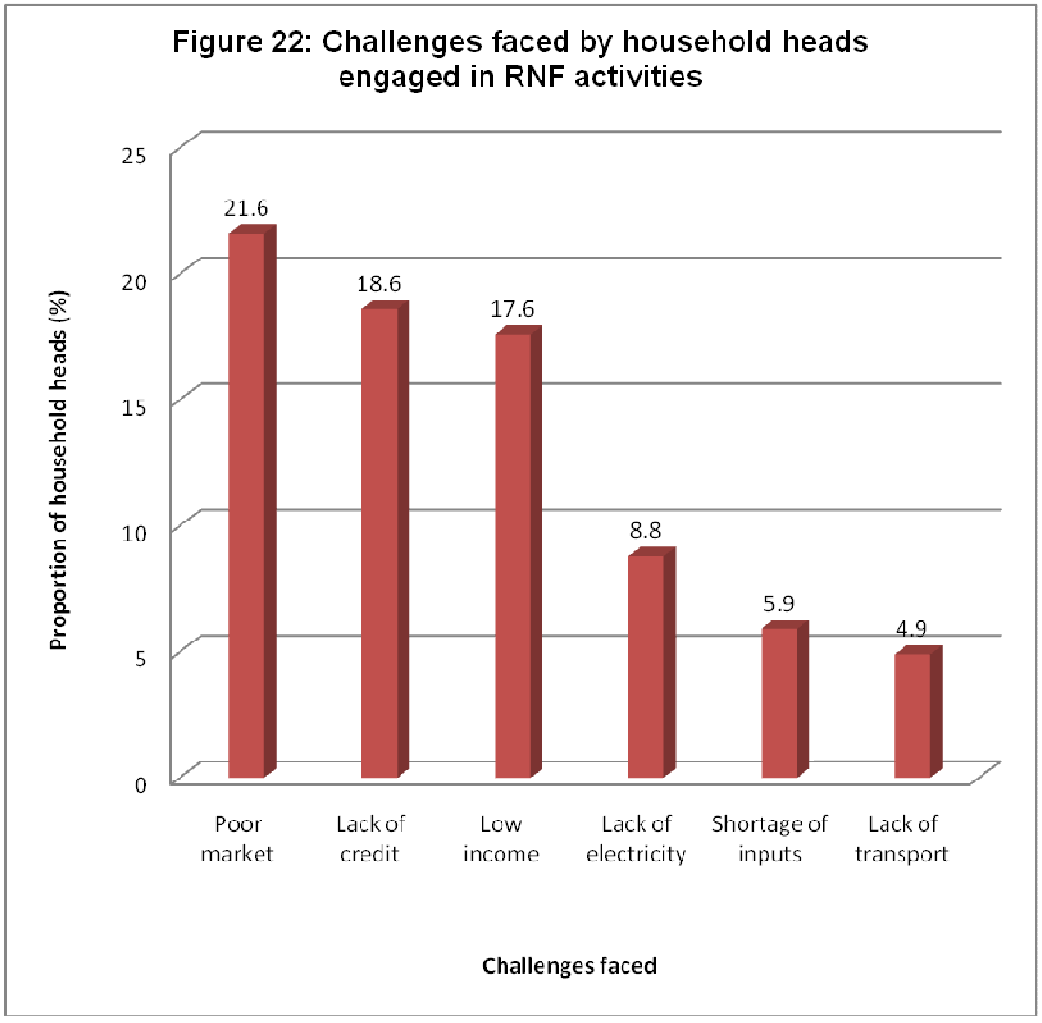
Improvement / Outcome	A little	Good	Very good	Substantial	Total
Increased income	11	9	3	1	24
Improved well-being	6	13	3	2	24
Creation of working days	19	9	0	0	24

From table 13 above, it can be deduced that most of the activities do not pay well but they do provide enough to improve the well-being of those involved, hence the reason why they continuously pursue them. Although, these farmers are engaged in these activities, most of them felt that these activities are not enough to create gainful aspects of employment and that they would leave them if better opportunities and money-making ventures presented themselves.

4.7.7. Challenges being faced

The fact that these activities contributed 'a little' to the anticipated outcomes could be a result of the various challenges which the farmers were facing. Some of the challenges include poor market, low income obtained, lack of credit to finance activity, lack of transport, lack of electricity and shortage of inputs (see Figure 22 which shows the challenges faced by the household heads who were engaged in non-farm activities). It can be deduced from Figure 22 that the major constraint was poor market as indicated by 21.6 percent of the household heads engaged in non-farm activities. This was expected considering the fact that their market is composed of poor subsistence farmers, most of whom are dependent upon crop production for

survival, with barely enough income to survive. This resulted in them obtaining low and occasional income from chosen activities because the people do not have money at all times. For others, their work was occasional for example painting and even brick-making, because it depended upon who wanted the service and when. Customers were not always available and in some instances they went for months without getting a single customer.



Lack of credit was also a major concern among these farmers. The major complaint was that they did not have enough money for transport and for buying inputs. As a

result, the fact that they had no access to any form of credit was greatly affecting their activities because with no one to offer any assistance they would go for weeks or even months without doing anything after failing to acquire the necessary inputs. In some instances the period would even be longer and sometimes they would be forced to sell their livestock or farm assets in order to get money to finance their various income generating non-farm activities. In worse situations, they would be forced to wait until after harvest and in the event of a good harvest they would then sell surplus crops to get the necessary income. Unfortunately, the harvest has not been very good for the past 10 years and this has left the farmers in a dire situation.

Electricity was also a major concern especially for those who were involved in tailoring and carpentry as they could not do without this form of energy. Others also pointed out that the lack of electricity was a major hindrance because it limited the opportunities available to them and as a result they were forced to rely on what they were doing even though the activities were not generating enough income for survival. Apart from that, 4.9 percent complained of high transport costs due to poor roads which they said were contributing to lack of affordable transport for them to go and buy inputs and even go out and find better markets for their various goods and services.

4.7.8. Solutions to curb challenges

Where there is a problem there is always a solution. In order to have favourable results, it is always best to first of all find out from those concerned what they think should be done in order to curb the challenges they would be facing. In response to this, the farmers felt that there was great need for the government and responsible authorities to assist them in their endeavours. In other words, these people need

assistance as they feel that they cannot do it all alone. According to the respondents/participants, their success depends upon assistance from the government and various other stakeholders in rural development.

All the household heads engaged in non-farm activities agreed that there was a great need to set up credit facilities which will ensure that they have access to credit when the need arises and also help them participate in the more productive aspects of RNFE. They also indicated the need for infrastructural development in terms of electricity which they feel will make more opportunities available to them and the construction of a tarred road which will help improve connectedness to urban areas and other nearby rural locations.

4.8. Conclusion

In summary, the study looked at livelihoods of the subsistence farmers in Seke District in Zimbabwe. The study revealed that all the sampled farmers were engaged in subsistence farming activities and the chief crops grown were maize, roundnuts, groundnuts and vegetables. However, food production was low with the farmers harvesting maize less than 1 tonne in the periods between 2008 and 2009. This was due to drought conditions, erratic and delayed rains, shortage of seed, inadequate fertiliser, lack of draught power and lack of credit to buy inputs. Crop production improved in the 2009/10 period particularly due to improved rains during that time. Even though that was the case, the farmers still complained of shortage of seed, lack of draught power and inadequate fertiliser. The study also revealed that crop production was mostly for household consumption with a few selling in the event of surplus but this was very rare. Sales, however, were mostly of vegetables which the people grew for selling purposes in the nearby towns.

The study also showed that these farmers were engaged in non-farm activities in order to earn additional income to meet basic requirements such as paying school fees, buying clothes and food. Unfortunately, only 23.5 percent (24 household heads) of the sampled household heads were found to be engaged in these activities whilst the majority were not. The majority cited the following reasons for failure to engage in any non-farm activities; lack of opportunities, age, lack of electricity and tarred roads, lack of credit and time.

For those engaged in the non-farm activities they were engaged in various types of activities which include painting, carpentry, building, blacksmithing, tailoring, brick-making, buying and selling and selling firewood. It was shown that a large proportion of males as compared to females were involved in these activities. Out of the 24 heads, 15 were males whilst the rest were females. The study also showed that there was a relationship between the activities engaged in and gender because the males were found to be involved in those activities that required manual labour such as building and brick-making. Women on the other hand were found to be involved in less physical activities such as tailoring, buying and selling and selling firewood. Although, education is an important asset in determining opportunities open to rural people, the study showed that there was no relationship between education and the non-farm activities engaged in by the sampled household heads. This is because the identified activities were done by a combination those with only primary level education and those with secondary level education.

The location of the village did influence the activities open to the household heads. The study showed that those who were in the peri-urban area were engaged in activities that were dependent on the nearby towns for example buying and selling.

Those in the remote rural area were involved in activities that were dependent upon available and immobile resources such as selling firewood and brick-making.

The household heads cited various reasons for engaging in non-farm activities. The major reasons were lack of finance and lack of employment. Other reasons that were cited were perpetuating family businesses and availability of market. In pursuing these activities the household heads indicated that they faced various challenges which include low income obtained, poor market, lack of credit to buy inputs, lack of electricity and tarred roads, and shortage of inputs.

The engagement of the household heads in the non-farm activities resulted in increased income, improved well-being and creation of working days. However for the majority of the heads, the contribution to increased income was little but the contribution to well-being was rated as good. To most of them the contribution to creation of working days was a little.

The study revealed that the people believed that the non-farm activities could be very beneficial but there was need for support from the government and various other sectors in order to make the non-farm sector productive. They also indicated that there was need for infrastructural improvement in terms of the construction of roads and electricity mains and the provision of piped water. In addition to this, they also indicated the need for credit facilities so that they will have access to credit.

In the next chapter, the study goes on to make recommendations to what needs to be done in order to make RNFE more productive in the country's rural areas.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1. Conclusion

It has been recognised that RNFE is a livelihood strategy that is adopted by the poor subsistence farmers in Zimbabwe's rural areas in response to various trends and shocks. The study revealed that only a small proportion of the subsistence farmers in Seke were engaged in non-farm activities particularly because of the decline in agricultural production. This decline in agricultural production has been due to frequent droughts, shortage of inputs, lack of access to credit to buy inputs and lack of draught power among others. Since agriculture is the primary source of income for the majority of the rural poor, this decline in agricultural production over the years has resulted in a substantial decline in their household income. This, in turn, has resulted in extreme poverty and has exposed the farmers to the danger of hunger and starvation thereby forcing them to look for alternative sources of income in order for them to meet their basic day-to-day requirements and survive. Interestingly enough, non-farm activities seemed to be a better alternative.

Apart from the decline in agricultural production, others were engaged in non-farm activities because of lack of employment, lack of opportunities, low wages in other activities and the availability of raw materials and markets. This shows that these farmers believe that by pursuing non-farm activities, RNFE can make up the slack created by the decline in agricultural production and provide the much needed income for their survival.

The RNF activities being pursued were composed of both traditional and non-traditional activities. The traditional activities include blacksmithing, brick-making and selling firewood which thrive on locally available resources. On the other hand, activities such as tailoring, buying and selling, carpentry, painting and tailoring form the non-traditional activities. It is apparent that the most prominent activities were non-traditional activities. The prominence of non-traditional activities shows that there is underutilisation of locally available resources. Even though that is the case, RNFE in Seke is not productive and as a result, the rural people are not attaining the full benefits of the non-farm sector of the rural economy. This is a result of a number of factors which need to be addressed in order to for the rural areas in the country to realise the much anticipated growth and productivity of RNFE.

First of all, the study has revealed that RNFE was not that productive because of the agricultural production. This is because for the majority of the sampled household heads agriculture was the primary source of income and only a small proportion of the sampled households were able to produce enough for subsistence and sale. As a result, there was a shortage of income among the farmers because agriculture, their primary source of income was producing little or no income at all for them to sustain themselves. Therefore, those engaged in the various non-farm activities were affected because there was limited market and this in turn meant low income obtained. If agriculture was productive things would have been different and the non-farm sector would flourish. As a result of this, the majority of those involved in non-farm activities stated low income and poor market as major challenges in their pursuit of non-farm activities.

Not only that, it was also found that infrastructural development in terms of roads and electricity has a tremendous bearing on the growth and productivity of RNFE. It is

important to note that the inaccessibility of transport facilities for obtaining raw material from different destinations and for selling goods and articles by the rural household heads in nearby markets has also been a basic problem for the unsatisfactory growth of the rural non-farm sector. This is because the lack of well developed roads and, limited and expensive transport facilities limited the household heads' market base. As a result, they could not reach people of different income levels and they were forced to rely on the existing poor market in their respective areas of residence. Not only that, for the majority engaged in non-farm activities and those who were not engaged in any RNF activities, the lack of electricity was a major limiting factor because it meant the availability of few opportunities for them to pursue. As a result, there was no diversity in the RNF activities being practiced. Others indicated that they were engaged in what they were doing because there was nothing better to do.

Furthermore, the study showed that RNFE was not being productive because there were no credit facilities in place and as a result, the farmers had no access to any form of credit (either cash or kind). Of great importance is the fact that the majority of the rural poor do not have enough income to feed themselves let alone finance non-farm activities. This in turn was affecting their various activities. Therefore credit is required to assist them in starting whatever activities they either wish to engage in and/or boosting the activities they are already engaged in so that they will be able to earn sufficient income to meet basic requirements.

The study also revealed that RNFE is failing because of the lack of assistance from the government, NGOs, the private sector and various other stakeholders. It is important to note that these stakeholders help modify access to capital assets by the rural poor people. In other words, they are the key players in any rural development

efforts. Therefore, if they are non-existent or if they are not doing anything to assist these people in their endeavours then nothing much will be accomplished. What this simply means is that, for RNFE to work and be productive the government and the various other stakeholders in rural development have to play a leading role. For instance, it is the government that initiates programmes in fields such as education (building schools), agriculture (the distribution of new crop varieties and agricultural credit), and infrastructural development (construction of roads, power lines and water pipelines). Without these and many other services the rural non-farm economy will remain unproductive and the rural poor people will continue to suffer.

Apart from that, although education was found not to have an impact on RNFE because people of various education levels were involved in similar activities, it is still one of the most important assets in RNFE. It was apparent from the research findings that although the household heads were educated to some extent, they lacked any other useful practical skills apart from intellectual skills. This, in turn, limited the options available to them and this can also be the reason why they were engaged in fewer and simpler non-farm activities because being equipped with skills allows rural households to engage in more diverse non-farm activities.

Furthermore, it is also important to note that gender also has a vital role to play in determining the choice of non-farm activities being pursued and taking it into consideration is thus of great relevance to the growth of RNFE. The present study revealed that women were more involved in the lighter and less physical activities such as tailoring and buying and selling of various goods. In other words, there were more involved in the non-traditional activities. The males on the other, hand were involved in the more manual and heavier activities such as brick-making and

building. In other words, males were engaged in manual labour-based activities whilst the females were engaged in human capital-based activities.

Another aspect to take into consideration is the fact that the distance from the city centres has a bearing on the non-farm activities being pursued in a particular area or location. Those in the peri-urban area and a few in the middle countryside tend to engage more in non-traditional activities whilst those in the remote rural area are mostly involved in traditional non-farm activities. This is due to the fact that as distance from the city centre increases the access to the raw materials which enable the pursuance of non-traditional activities diminishes particularly due to lack of income and the relevant transport facilities (which if available would be expensive). This forces them to make use of readily accessible resources. For this reason, the traditional non-farm activities prosper in remote rural settlements.

Overall, it is evident that for RNF activities to be successful there is need for all capital assets to work hand in hand. This is an indication that "capital assets are fundamental to livelihood strategies", RNFE in this context (Ellis, 2001:237). In other words, capital assets are the drivers of RNFE and they determine RNF activities engaged in. From this perspective, the reason for the failure of RNFE to be successful in the present study is a result of the existence of human capital in the form of labour which was in abundance and a poor natural resource base (natural capital) for the rural people to take advantage of. Apart from these two, all other forms of capital assets were missing. It is important to note that these two alone are not adequate for the rural people derive a substantial means of survival from the rural non-farm economy. The rural people had no access to credit (financial capital, no practical skills (human capital), no physical capital (roads, electricity and piped water, and there were no clearly defined forms of social capital. As a result,

opportunities were limited and the people were incapacitated and they failed to realise the expected and full benefits of pursuing RNF activities and improving the asset base of these people is thus crucial.

5.2. What needs to be done to promote RNFE growth

It is a well recognisable fact that the development potentials of farming economy are basically constrained by low agricultural output as a result of limited availability of arable land, incessant droughts, erratic and delayed rainfall, shortage of inputs, lack of draught power and no access to credit. In this manner, the expansion of potential non-farm activities especially those based on locally available resources has been generally visualised as an important alternative option in order to address the emerging problems of unemployment and poverty situation and to sustain the livelihood of rural households (Mehta, 2002:158).

A more realistic perspective is that "participation in the RNF economy can lower overall income risk for farm households, increasing the incentive to adopt risky but more profitable farm technologies and to commercialize agriculture. Access to non-farm income may enable a farm household to increase the area of land under cultivation, use more purchased inputs (owing to both increased liquidity and increased security in case of crop failures) and diversify farming into cash crops that raise farm incomes. In general, access to non-farm income may give a household the breathing room to undertake longer-term investments (such as perennial cash crops)" (Reardon, 2002:22).

Therefore, on the basis of the findings of present study, the following are a few suggestions which may be incorporated in rural development plans and policies as

measures in the future for achieving desirable and effective development of RNFE Zimbabwe's rural areas.

5.2.1 Agricultural development

The most important step in achieving effective growth of RNFE is agricultural development and discussions worldwide are hinging on this notion. This is because "agricultural growth largely governs the magnitude of non-farm opportunities" (Haggblade, 2009: A1-2). This is due to the fact that "agriculture stands out as the most obvious activity with potential to increase rural incomes due to the sheer number of people directly involved in this activity and its production linkages" (Davis, 2003:14). In other words, agriculture is the primary source of rural incomes. Therefore, in order for the non-farm sector to be productive there is a great need to promote productivity growth in agriculture. This implies that if agricultural income increases then non-farm activities will benefit from growing demand and increasingly influence real wages and food security. For instance, studies of agricultural growth linkages, from a variety of African countries, suggest that every dollar of increased agricultural income generates roughly an additional 30 to 50 cents in rural nonfarm earnings (Haggblade, 2009: A1-3). All this means that for RNFE to prosper there is a great need to make agriculture more productive.

This can be achieved in different ways. First of all, this requires increasing access of smallholder farmers to land and water and, making smallholder farming more productive (World Bank, 2007:8). There are several ways of making smallholder farming more productive and sustainable. To start with, this can be achieved through land reform which will help reduce inequalities in land distribution and increase efficiency (World Bank, 2007:9). With the growing water scarcity and the

uncertainties of rainfed agriculture, there is also great need to invest in water storage, water harvesting, revamping existing irrigation schemes and expanding small-scale schemes and water harvesting (World Bank, 2007:9).

Secondly, there is also the need to improve price incentives for agricultural producers in the country (World Bank, 2007:10). This can be achieved by reducing net-agricultural taxation and reforming trade policies so that the poor rural farmers will be able to participate in producer markets and be able to gain from the sale of their crops by earning a reasonable and sustainable income (World Bank, 2007:10). There is also need to set reasonable and competitive market prices. This is because in most cases poor rural farmers were deterred from participating in producer markets by the artificial consumer and producer prices set by the government which saw them getting very little amounts of money which were not even enough for their own subsistence. The government should also allow the private sector to participate because, more often than not, they have been found to offer competitive consumer and producer prices.

Lastly, there is a great need to promote innovation through science and technology but this has to be done with the rural poor in mind so that they will be able to benefit (World Bank, 2007:14). This requires increased investment in research and development in the country's research and educational institutions. This is important because various reports have shown "that low investment in research and development and low international transfers of technology have resulted in stagnant yields in Sub-Saharan Africa" (World Bank, 2007:15). Therefore, "there is need for better technologies for soil, water and livestock management and more sustainable and resilient agricultural systems, including varieties tolerant of pests and diseases. Approaches that exploit biological and ecological processes can minimise the use of

external inputs, particularly agricultural chemicals and examples include conservation tillage, green manure cover crops and pest control that relies more on biodiversity and biological control than on pesticides" (World Bank, 2007:15).

5.2.2. Infrastructural development

The infrastructure in most rural areas in the country leaves a lot to be desired. This is because the majority of these rural areas, if not all, are typically ender-equipped in terms of infrastructure. Therefore, there is need for investment in rural infrastructure because it is the view of this study that such a move can help accelerate growth and productivity of the rural non-farm economy in rural regions in the country. Pertinent to this, there are three very important physical or infrastructural assets that will help facilitate the growth of the non-farm sector and these are as follows: roads, power lines and water supplies.

If the non-farm sector is to be developed effectively then a major role in achieving this objective can be achieved through the development of the road transport (Metha, 2002:14). This is because, rural roads that allow reliable and regular motor vehicle access serve both the farm and RNF economy and this, in turn, contributes to the growth and productivity of the rural non-farm sector (Davis, 2003:16). The most important aspect, however, is that the development of roads will open up avenues for the marketing of goods and services produced by the rural enterprises on one hand and for the procurement of different raw materials for the traditional as well as non-traditional activities on the other (Mehta, 2002:14). In addition, "roads facilitate movement of people between places offering different income earning opportunities, they create markets that would otherwise would not come into existence, and in countries lacking in telecommunication facilities they play an

important role in the transfer of information between rural centres and remote settlements", thereby addressing the issue of poor markets (Ellis, 2001:33). Consequently, the road network will provide a chain of forward and backward linkages and this will facilitate the development of the sector.

Although this is still a major challenge and will remain so for a long time, rural electrification is particularly important for manufacturing activities (including agro-processing) of some scale. In addition to this, the availability of electricity is believed to have an enormous impact on the diversity of rural activities and on the relative integration of the rural areas into the national economy (Elliis, 2001:33). In other words, rural electrification will help in promoting diversity in the rural non-farm economy.

The provision of reliable and abundant supplies of (preferably clean) water, though not so significant, can go a long way in allowing a wide range of RNF activities to take place. The provision of piped water has multiple effects on rural livelihoods due to the saving of labour time that it brings, as well as the avoidance of illness and disease if clean drinking water is supplied (Eliis, 2001:33). The latter is very important in ensuring the availability of unlimited supplies of labour to work in the non-farm sector of the economy. Furthermore, in the absence of illness and disease more a wide range of non-farm activities can be pursued.

5.2.3. Investments in education and health

Education is often the most valuable asset for the rural people to start businesses in the rural non-farm economy (World Bank, 2007:9). Therefore, there is need for long-term investments in rural education to enhance the human capital and the upward mobility of the rural poor (Haggblade, 2009:A1-3). Apart from improving basic rural

education, there is also a great need to improve the quality of rural education through investing more in vocational training that can provide more specific technical and business skills that are allow them to participate in skilled labour markets of the rural non-farm economy. In relation to this, studies of rural industrialization in Asia have emphasized the importance of skill acquisition for a more even distribution of RNF employment (Reardon, 2002:19).

At a time when technologies represent tools for achieving development and not merely reward of it, investments in education can be achieved through the use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs). ICTs are a range of electronic technologies, such as telephones, the desktop computer and laptop with email, which when converged in new configurations are flexible, adaptable, enabling and capable of transforming organisations and redefining social relations (Chapman and Slaymaker, 2002:1). According to Chapman and Slaymaker, ICTs have been found to impact positively on livelihood assets depending on the local context in which they are introduced. The view is that ICTs can help "improve access to education and training through distance learning programmes and education tools in a wide range of different formats. This can be achieved through the transfer of information to remote locations in the form of texts, images, video and radio using compact discs (CDs) and/or digital versatile discs (DVDs)" (Chapman and Slaymaker, 2002:8). Such an action reduces many of the costs associated with barriers to broad-based information access. "Even though that is the case, the impact of increased flow of information on human capital development depends on the effective translation of material into different languages and appropriate formats for the intended users and other local and cultural context" (Chapman and Slaymaker, 2002"8). Although this is

a good initiative, it depends upon the infrastructural development of the rural areas in terms of electricity and telecommunication networks

Investment in health is also important because this will also help remove constraint to RNFE growth. The aspect of health is important in that it ensures the availability of unlimited labour to work in the rural non-farm sector of the farm economy. Therefore, there is need for the government to provide more health facilities in rural areas so that people do not have to walk large distances or board buses to get to the nearest clinic or hospital.

5.2.4. Improve access to financial services

The single most commonly reported obstacle to investment and entrepreneurship is inadequate access to capital (Davis, 2003:13). This particularly due to the fact that most rural poor people do not own assets to serve as collateral and major financing institutions, especially banks, are afraid of losing large amounts of money in unpaid debts (World bank, 2007:13). Conversely, those who do own assets to serve as collateral are unforthcoming to put assets at risk as collateral when they are vital to livelihoods (World Bank, 2007:13). It is important to note that access to credit for the poor subsistence farmer involved in non-farm activities can mean a chance to purchase raw materials (such as cloth) and tools (such as a sewing machine), and eventually a chance to become a successful business person (Todaro and Smith, 2009:252). Therefore, in order to make this a reality, there is need to provide micro-financial services which will provide access to credit, either in cash or in kind (as required inputs), to poor rural communities without formal collateral. The Grameen Bank, a major micro-financing institution targeting the poor in Bangladesh has been very successful in this regard.

The bank is an excellent illustration of how credit can be provided to the poor while minimising the risk that resources will be wasted (Todaro and Smith, 2009:252). “To qualify for uncollaterised loans, potential borrowers form five-member groups and each member undergoes a two week training session before securing a loan which trains them on matters such as bank procedures. The bank relies on what is known as collateral of peer pressure and peer oversight puts pressure on the members to repay loans” (Todaro and Smith, 2009:253). Todaro and Smith also add that there are also other incentives to repay loans on time such as borrowing an extra 10 percent each year if loans are repaid on time and those who are unable to pay are allowed to restructure their loans and repay at a slower rate with some limited refinancing as needed. All this have proved to be successful and nearly all loans have been repaid.

Based on the above understanding, there is need for the government and various other stakeholders in rural development in Zimbabwe to learn from the Grameen bank example and incorporate some, if not all, of the strategies they have employed which have made the bank successful in providing credit to poor rural communities. If this can be employed in the Zimbabwean context, it is the view of this study that poor rural communities in the country’s rural areas will benefit immensely and this will help boost the otherwise neglected rural non-farm economy.

5.2.5. Projects and programmes

Rural development projects and programmes deserve a special mention because they constitute an important set of determinants of incentives and capacity for rural households to participate in RNF activities (Reardon, 2002::4). Therefore, there is need for government, the private sector, NGOs and various other stakeholders, to

initiate rural development programmes and projects aimed at promoting rural self-employment opportunities. According to Mehta (2002:15), the responsible authorities or organisations can identify non-farm activities for different areas keeping in mind the comparative advantage which a specific area enjoys. Mehta assets that the rural people can then be made aware of these activities and their input should also be noted. Thereafter, as Mehta points out, the responsible authorities or organisations, with the help of the rural communities, can then map out suitable schemes for providing technical and financial assistance for setting up such units. According to Mehta, some of the activities which can be promoted for development include tourism and handicrafts which are made by skilled men and women with the help of locally available raw materials.

5.2.6. Facilitating rural-urban linkages

This can be achieved through the facilitation of the flow of migrants and remittances (Ashley and Maxwell, 2001:410). Such an action will increase the income pool of the rural poor and thus increasing their levels of income, thereby addressing the issue of low income mentioned previously, to enable them to participate in RNF activities either as consumers or as those offering the services. This can also be achieved through increasing the flow of market and information to rural areas so that the rural people will be well-informed as they pursue their various RNF activities (Ashley and Maxwell, 2001:410). Ashley and Maxwell further assert that developing rural recreational amenities for urban populations can also help create employment for many jobless rural communities. Such an action will also help in increasing the market base of those who are involved in traditional non-farm activities such as craftsmanship, basket-making and pottery. Those pursuing non-traditional activities

such as offering transport services, particularly animal drawn transport, can also benefit in cases where the roads will not be suited to motor vehicles.

This can also be achieved through collaboration across political boundaries. This is of importance because in most rural communities there are political boundaries that block collaboration with neighbouring towns, cities or countries. However, the truth is that few rural communities have sufficient resources and population to attract competitively priced infrastructure, facilities and services. Therefore, individual communities must join with others in creating regional approaches to development.

5.2.7. Reviving rural towns

There are quite a small number of small rural towns countrywide. For this reason, there is great need to develop small towns within the country's rural areas. Rural towns are of importance because they "play multiple economic roles, some of which strengthen local inter-sector linkages and contribute to the development of the RNFE" (Davis, 2003:15). Moreover, given the concentration of economic activity and population, rural towns may serve as important market outlets for manufactured goods produced within surrounding villages and as employment centres for villagers who commute on a regular basis in order to sell services or their labour (Davis, 2003:16).

In addition, it was also noted that "rural towns usually offer better conditions than villages for the development of agro-processing industries and other manufacturing activities due to the availability of administrative and support services, a concentration of consumers, and better access to transport and public utility infrastructure. They also tend to host enterprises dedicated to the manufacturing of agricultural inputs and the provision of essential support services to agricultural and

non-farm activities located in the surrounding areas. Finally, it is also important to note that rural towns can act as important links between the rural hinterland and more distant markets, thus playing the role of intermediate marketing centres" (Davis, 2003:16).

There is also need to remove regulatory or bureaucratic burden on small/medium enterprises (Ashley and Maxwell, 2001:410). Such an initiative will help facilitate enterprise growth within these rural towns. This will then help create new non-farm opportunities for rural communities and also increase the flow of income in the country's rural areas, thereby, facilitating the growth of RNFE.

5.2.8. Improving terms of trade

The question of fixing prices for the different commodities produced in rural areas is one of the great challenges being faced rural communities. It is important to note that well-designed terms of trade are necessary for the development of RNF activities because they eliminate the urban bias frequently found in many developing countries' economic policies and Zimbabwe is not an exception (Reardon, 2001:29). Reardon states that the implication of this aspect is an improvement in the terms of trade of tradable goods produced in rural areas. Reardon further asserts that this is of particular significance for the agricultural sector and is also relevant to certain goods produced in the RNF sector. Thus, as Reardon points out, the RNF sector will benefit directly through the improved terms of trade for tradable goods produced within the sector, and indirectly through production, expenditure and investment linkage effects with the agricultural sector.

5.3. Concluding remarks

From the above discussion, it is apparent that agriculture alone is incapable of supporting the subsistence farmers in Seke. Whilst it seems that RNFE can take up the slack and provide the much needed income for the rural communities to survive, as the situation stands RNFE is not productive. What is needed is to make it more productive and this can only be possible if all the above-mentioned suggestions are taken into consideration by rural development planners and practitioners. However, it is of utmost importance to note that all rural development efforts hinge upon policy formulation and implementation.

For that reason, without policy implementation all rural development efforts would be in vain. Therefore, apart from incorporating these recommendations in rural development plans and policies there is a great need to go a step further and implement these suggestions in all rural areas countrywide so that the much anticipated growth and productivity of RNFE would be achieved. Most of all, there is need for close collaboration between development practitioners and rural communities. Unless all these points are not taken into consideration, RNFE will remain unproductive and with the continued decline in agricultural production the poor subsistence farmers will continue to suffer.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Crop productivity

Maize (Ha) (2009/10)

Maize grown (Ha)	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.00	4	3.9	3.9	3.9
.10	7	6.9	6.9	10.8
.20	3	2.9	2.9	13.7
.30	1	1.0	1.0	14.7
.40	15	14.7	14.7	29.4
.50	2	2.0	2.0	31.4
.60	28	27.5	27.5	58.8
.75	2	2.0	2.0	60.8
.80	25	24.5	24.5	85.3
1.00	5	4.9	4.9	90.2
1.50	4	3.9	.9	94.1
2.00	4	3.9	3.9	98.0
2.50	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
11.00	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Maize sold (T) (2009/10)

Maize sold (T)	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.00	89	87.3	87.3	87.3
.05	1	1.0	1.0	88.2
.10	1	1.0	1.0	89.2
.12	1	1.0	1.0	90.2
.15	1	1.0	1.0	91.2
.20	1	1.0	1.0	92.2
.25	1	1.0	1.0	93.1
.30	2	2.0	2.0	95.1
.35	1	1.0	1.0	96.1
.50	1	1.0	1.0	97.1
1.00	3	2.9	2.9	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Maize harvested (T) (2009/10)

Maize Harvested (T)	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.00	7	6.9	6.9	6.9
.05	3	2.9	2.9	9.8
.10	3	2.9	2.9	12.7
.15	3	2.9	2.9	15.7
.18	1	1.0	1.0	16.7
.20	1	1.0	1.0	17.6
.25	6	5.9	5.9	23.5
.30	10	9.8	9.8	33.3
.35	4	3.9	3.9	37.3
.40	6	5.9	5.9	43.1
.45	3	2.9	2.9	46.1
.50	6	5.9	5.9	52.0
.55	1	1.0	1.0	52.9
.60	3	2.9	2.9	55.9
.65	1	1.0	1.0	56.9
.70	1	1.0	1.0	57.8
.75	9	8.8	8.8	66.7
.80	1	1.0	1.0	67.6
.81	1	1.0	1.0	68.6
.85	2	2.0	2.0	70.6
.90	5	4.9	4.9	75.5
.95	1	1.0	1.0	76.5
1.00	11	10.8	10.8	87.3
1.10	1	1.0	1.0	88.2
1.25	2	2.0	2.0	90.2
1.50	2	2.0	2.0	92.2
2.00	5	4.9	4.9	97.1
2.50	2	2.0	2.0	99.0
3.00	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Maize stored (T) (2009/10)

Maize stored (t)	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.00	7	6.9	6.9	6.9
.05	3	2.9	2.9	9.8
.10	3	2.9	2.9	12.7
.15	3	2.9	2.9	15.7
.18	1	1.0	1.0	16.7
.20	1	1.0	1.0	17.6
.25	8	7.8	7.8	25.5
.30	10	9.8	9.8	35.3
.35	4	3.9	3.9	39.2
.40	6	5.9	5.9	45.1
.45	3	2.9	2.9	48.0
.50	5	4.9	4.9	52.9
.55	2	2.0	2.0	54.9
.60	3	2.9	2.9	57.8
.65	1	1.0	1.0	58.8
.69	1	1.0	1.0	59.8
.70	2	2.0	2.0	61.8
.75	9	8.8	8.8	70.6
.80	1	1.0	1.0	71.6
.85	2	2.0	2.0	73.5
.90	4	3.9	3.9	77.5
.95	1	1.0	1.0	78.4
1.00	11	10.8	10.8	89.2
1.05	1	1.0	1.0	90.2
1.25	2	2.0	2.0	92.2
1.50	2	2.0	2.0	94.1
2.00	5	4.9	4.9	99.0
2.50	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Groundnuts (Ha) (2009/10)

Groundnuts grown (Ha)	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.00	41	40.2	40.2	40.2
.05	3	2.9	2.9	43.1
.10	35	34.3	34.3	77.5
.20	15	14.7	14.7	92.2
.25	3	2.9	2.9	95.1
.50	5	4.9	4.9	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Groundnuts harvested (T) (2009/10)

Groundnuts harvested (tonnes)	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.00	43	42.2	42.2	42.2
.02	7	6.9	6.9	49.0
.03	1	1.0	1.0	50.0
.05	14	13.7	13.7	63.7
.06	3	2.9	2.9	66.7
.09	1	1.0	1.0	67.6
.10	8	7.8	7.8	75.5
.12	1	1.0	1.0	76.5
.15	8	7.8	7.8	84.3
.18	1	1.0	1.0	85.3
.20	2	2.0	2.0	87.3
.25	6	5.9	5.9	93.1
.35	1	1.0	1.0	94.1
.40	1	1.0	1.0	95.1
.50	3	2.9	2.9	98.0
.75	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
1.00	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Groundnuts sold (T) (2009/10)

Groundnuts sold (T)	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.00	99	97.1	97.1	97.1
.05	1	1.0	1.0	98.0
.25	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
.30	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Groundnuts stored (T) (2009/10)

Groundnuts stored (T)	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.00	43	42.2	42.2	42.2
.02	7	6.9	6.9	49.0
.03	1	1.0	1.0	50.0
.05	14	13.7	13.7	63.7
.06	3	2.9	2.9	66.7
.09	1	1.0	1.0	67.6
.10	8	7.8	7.8	75.5
.12	1	1.0	1.0	76.5
.15	9	8.8	8.8	85.3
.18	1	1.0	1.0	86.3
.20	1	1.0	1.0	87.3
.25	7	6.9	6.9	94.1
.35	1	1.0	1.0	95.1
.40	1	1.0	1.0	96.1
.50	2	2.0	2.0	98.0
.75	2	2.0	2.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Roundnuts (Ha) (2009/10)

Roundnuts grown (Ha)	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.00	79	77.5	77.5	77.5
.05	1	1.0	1.0	78.4
.10	18	17.6	17.6	96.1
.20	2	2.0	2.0	98.0
.25	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
.50	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Roundnuts harvested (T) (2009/10)

Roundnuts harvested (t)	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.000	82	80.4	80.4	80.4
.010	1	1.0	1.0	81.4
.015	1	1.0	1.0	82.4
.020	5	4.9	4.9	87.3
.030	1	1.0	1.0	88.2
.040	2	2.0	2.0	90.2
.050	4	3.9	3.9	94.1
.100	3	2.9	2.9	97.1
.250	1	1.0	1.0	98.0
.350	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
.400	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Roundnuts sold (T) (2009/10)

Roundnuts sold (T)	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.00	101	99.0	99.0	99.0
.35	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Rroundnuts stored (T) (2009/10)

Roundnuts stored (T)	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.000	83	81.4	81.4	81.4
.010	2	2.0	2.0	83.3
.015	1	1.0	1.0	84.3
.020	4	3.9	3.9	88.2
.030	1	1.0	1.0	89.2
.040	2	2.0	2.0	91.2
.050	4	3.9	3.9	95.1
.100	3	2.9	2.9	98.0
.250	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
.400	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Appendix B. Livestock Production

Cattle (2008)

Number of cattle	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	78	76.5	76.5	76.5
1	2	2.0	2.0	78.4
2	2	2.0	2.0	80.4
3	4	3.9	3.9	84.3
4	5	4.9	4.9	89.2
5	2	2.0	2.0	91.2
6	1	1.0	1.0	92.2
7	1	1.0	1.0	93.1
8	1	1.0	1.0	94.1
9	1	1.0	1.0	95.1
10	4	3.9	3.9	99.0
20	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Goats (2008)

Number of goats	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	89	87.3	87.3	87.3
1	2	2.0	2.0	89.2
2	3	2.9	2.9	92.2
3	3	2.9	2.9	95.1
4	1	1.0	1.0	96.1
5	3	2.9	2.9	99.0
7	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Chicken (2008)

Number of Chicken	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	68	66.7	66.7	66.7
2	1	1.0	1.0	67.6
4	3	2.9	2.9	70.6
5	2	2.0	2.0	72.5
6	2	2.0	2.0	74.5
7	5	4.9	4.9	79.4
8	1	1.0	1.0	80.4
10	5	4.9	4.9	85.3
12	1	1.0	1.0	86.3
15	7	6.9	6.9	93.1
16	1	1.0	1.0	94.1
20	1	1.0	1.0	95.1
25	1	1.0	1.0	96.1
50	1	1.0	1.0	97.1
60	1	1.0	1.0	98.0
65	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
112	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Cattle (2009)

Number of cattle	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	78	76.5	76.5	76.5
1	2	2.0	2.0	78.4
2	4	3.9	3.9	82.4
3	5	4.9	4.9	87.3
4	3	2.9	2.9	90.2
5	4	3.9	3.9	94.1
6	2	2.0	2.0	96.1
7	1	1.0	1.0	97.1
8	1	1.0	1.0	98.0
9	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
10	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Goats (2009)

Number of goats	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	83	81.4	81.4	81.4
1	4	3.9	3.9	85.3
2	4	3.9	3.9	89.2
3	5	4.9	4.9	94.1
4	1	1.0	1.0	95.1
5	1	1.0	1.0	96.1
7	1	1.0	1.0	97.1
9	1	1.0	1.0	98.0
10	2	2.0	2.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Chicken (2009)

Number of chicken	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	51	50.0	50.0	50.0
1	2	2.0	2.0	52.0
2	3	2.9	2.9	54.9
3	2	2.0	2.0	56.9
4	2	2.0	2.0	58.8
5	2	2.0	2.0	60.8
6	4	3.9	3.9	64.7
7	3	2.9	2.9	67.6
8	5	4.9	4.9	72.5
10	9	8.8	8.8	81.4
12	4	3.9	3.9	85.3
14	1	1.0	1.0	86.3
15	7	6.9	6.9	93.1
20	2	2.0	2.0	95.1
25	1	1.0	1.0	96.1
30	1	1.0	1.0	97.1
35	1	1.0	1.0	98.0
50	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
115	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Cattle (2010)

Number of cattle	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	76	74.5	74.5	74.5
1	5	4.9	4.9	79.4
2	8	7.8	7.8	87.3
3	2	2.0	2.0	89.2
4	4	3.9	3.9	93.1
5	4	3.9	3.9	97.1
6	1	1.0	1.0	98.0
10	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
14	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Goats (2010)

Number of goats	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	82	80.4	80.4	80.4
1	4	3.9	3.9	84.3
2	6	5.9	5.9	90.2
3	4	3.9	3.9	94.1
4	4	3.9	3.9	98.0
5	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
6	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Chicken (2010)

Number of chicken	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	43	42.2	42.2	42.2
2	6	5.9	5.9	48.0
3	5	4.9	4.9	52.9
4	7	6.9	6.9	59.8
5	6	5.9	5.9	65.7
6	3	2.9	2.9	68.6
7	5	4.9	4.9	73.5
8	2	2.0	2.0	75.5
9	4	3.9	3.9	79.4
10	2	2.0	2.0	81.4
11	1	1.0	1.0	82.4
12	2	2.0	2.0	84.3
13	2	2.0	2.0	86.3
15	5	4.9	4.9	91.2
18	1	1.0	1.0	92.2
20	4	3.9	3.9	96.1
25	2	2.0	2.0	98.0
35	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
45	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Appendix C. Physical/Household Asset ownership

Hand hoes

Number of hoes	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	3	2.9	2.9	2.9
1	3	2.9	2.9	5.9
2	12	11.8	11.8	17.6
3	12	11.8	11.8	29.4
4	21	20.6	20.6	50.0
5	24	23.5	23.5	73.5
6	12	11.8	11.8	85.3
7	7	6.9	6.9	92.2
8	6	5.9	5.9	98.0
10	2	2.0	2.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Shovels

Number of shovels	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	38	37.3	37.3	37.3
1	41	40.2	40.2	77.5
2	18	17.6	17.6	95.1
3	1	1.0	1.0	96.1
4	3	2.9	2.9	99.0
5	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Ox-drawn plough

Number of ox-drawn ploughs	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	67	65.7	65.7	65.7
1	31	30.4	30.4	96.1
2	2	2.0	2.0	98.0
3	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
4	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Wheelbarrow

Number of wheelbarrows	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	49	48.0	48.0	48.0
1	47	46.1	46.1	94.1
2	4	3.9	3.9	98.0
3	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
4	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Scotch cart

Number of scotch carts	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	80	78.4	78.4	78.4
1	20	19.6	19.6	98.0
2	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
4	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Fence

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	76	74.5	74.5	74.5
1	26	25.5	25.5	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Appendix D

Household Survey Questionairre

Respondent No.....Date.....

Village.....District.....

1. HOUSEHOLD INFORMATION

A. Gender of respondent

1. Male 2. Female

B. Relationship to household head if respondent is not the household head

1. Wife ☐ 2. Daughter ☐

3. Son ☐ 4. Other (specify).....

C. Marital Status 1. Single 2. Married 3. Divorced 4. Widowed	**D. Age (yrs)** 1. less than 18yrs 2. 18 – 35 yrs 3. 36 – 50yrs 4. 51 – 65yrs 5. Above 65 years	**E. Level of Education** 1. Primary 2. Secondary 3. Tertiary 4. Technical or Advocational 5. None 6. Other (Spec)	**F. Occupation** 1. **F**arming 2. Non-farm related employment 3. House wife 4. Others (specify).....	**G. Number of dependants** 1. 0-1 2. 2-4 3. 5-8 4. 8-10 5. >10

2. LANDHOLDINGS CHARACTERISTICS

A. Do you own this land? 1. Yes 2. No

B. If yes, how did you acquire this land?

1. Inherited from parents 2. Rented 3. Leased
4. Allocated by government 5.Traditional allocation by chief 6. Purchased
7. Other (specify) .....

C. Are you involved in any farming activities? 1. Yes 2. No

D. Are you involved in crop production? 1. Yes 2. No

E. Do you keep any livestock? 1. Yes 2. No

F. How much is used for cropping? (Farming land area in Ha)

1. <0.1 2. 0.1 -0.4 3. 0.4 – 0.7 4. 0.7 –1.0 5. >1.0

3. FARMING ACTIVITIES

3.1 Crop Production

A. Fill in the table below on crops grown in summer (rain fed crops) for the last three years

Crops grown in 2009/10	Cultivated land area	How much was harvested (Kgs/bags)	How much was sold (Kgs/bags)	How much was stored for consumption (Kgs/bags)	Major constrains faced

Crops grown in 2008/9	Cultivated land area (Ha)	How much was harvested (Kgs/bags)	How much was stored for Consumption (Kgs/bags)	How much was sold (Kgs/bags)	Major co
Crops grown in 2007/08	Cultivated land area (Acres)	How much was harvested (kg/bags)	How much was stored for consumption (Kgs/bags)	How much was sold (kgs/bags)	Major constrains faced

Quantity Specification: 1= Tonnes, 2 = Kg, 3 = 50Kg Bags, 4 = 90Kg Bags, 5 = Buckets, 6=Scotch Carts, 7 = Bales, Other (Specify).....

Codes for crops grown

Staple crops	**Cash crops**	**Horticulture**
1. Maize	9. Cotton	15. Vegetables
2. Wheat	10 .Tobacco	16. Flowers
3. Potatoes	11. Paprika	17. Fruits
4. Sunflower	12. Soya bean	18. Other
6. Groundnuts	14. Other	
7. Roundnuts		
8. Others		

B. What major constrains did you face during the cultivation process?

Natural	**Physical**	**Institutional support**
1. Drought	8. Shortage of land	15. Lack of credit to buy inputs
2. Floods	9. Shortage of seeds	17. Late delivery of seeds
3. Erratic rains	10. Shortage of improved seed varieties	18. Inadequate infrastructure
4. Delay onset of rainfall season	11. Lack of pesticides	19. Lack of information on crops to grow and weather patterns
5. Crop failure and replanting	12. Inadequate fertilizer	20. Other.....
6. Crop pests and diseases	13. Inadequate labour	
7. Other.....	14. Lack of draught power	

	15. Other.....	

C. Is the household involved in any irrigation activities? 1. Yes 2. No

D. Do you grow any other crops during the year? 1. Yes 2. No

E. If yes to C above, fill in the below

Crops grown	Reason for growing crops 1. Consumption 2. Selling 3. Both 1 and 2 4. Others	Major constrains

Quantity Specification: 1= Tonnes, 2 = Kg, 3 = 50Kg Bags, 4 = 90Kg Bags, 5 = Buckets, 6=Scotch Carts, 7 = Bales, Other (Specify).....

3.2 Marketing

A. Are you self-sufficient in food production? 1. Yes 2. No

B. if no give reasons.....

.....

C. To whom do you sell your surplus?

1. Hawkers 2. Neighbours

3. Local shops 4. Fresh produce market

5. Grain Marketing Board. (GMB) 6. Others (Specify).....

D. What are the main problems that you face when selling farm produce.

1. Low prices 2. Poor roads

3. Lack of market information 4. High transport costs

5. Not close to the market 6. Poor quality produce

7. Unfavourable prices set by the government

8. Others (specify).....

3.3 Livestock production

A. Do you keep any livestock? 1. Yes 2. No

B. If yes, fill in the table below

Livestock Type	**Total Number Owned**			**Source of Livestock** 1. Purchased 2. Donated 3. Inherited 4. Other…….	**Why do you keep livestock?** 1. Consumption 2. Selling 3. Both 1 and 2 4. Cultural purposes	**Number sold**			**What is your major market for your livestock**? (Specify for each livestock) 1:Neighbours 2: Local Shops/Traders 3: Abattoirs 4: Don't sell 5:Other (specify)
	2008	**2009**	**2010**			**2008**	2009	2010	
1: Cattle									
3 :Goats									
4 :Chickens									
5. Others									

C. What major constrains are you facing in your production and marketing?

1. Insufficient water for the livestock 2. Lack of veterinary services

3. Poor market 4. Poor transport services

5. Not enough food for the livestock due to poor rains

6. Not enough food for the livestock due to lack of money to by stockfeed or supplements

3.4 Credit

A. Do you have access to any form of credit to finance your farming activities?

1. Yes 2. Yes

B. If no, give reasons?.....

.....

.....

C. What organisations in your area are involved in offering credit facilities?

1. Government agencies 2. Community Based Organisations

3. Private Sector 4. Non-Governmental Organisations

5. Other.....

D. What type of credit facilities are offered?

1. Cash 2. Farm inputs 3. Other (specify).....

E. Have you taken any credit? 1. Yes 2. No

F. If yes, what type of credit did you obtain?

1. Cash 2 Farm inputs 3. Other (specify).....

G. From which organisation did you acquire the credit?

1. Government agencies 2. Community Based Organisations

3. Private Sector 4. Non-Governmental Organisations

5. Other.....

H. What problems do you face when accessing credit?

.....
.....
.....

4. PHYSICAL HOUSEHOLD/FARM ASSETS

A. What type of house do you live in?

1. Brick and thatch house 2. Brick or concrete iron roofed/ asbestos roofed house

B. Do you have electricity in the house? 1. Yes 2.No

C. Do you have piped water? 1. Yes 2. No

D. If no to either C or D or both, give reasons?

.....
.....
.....

E. Which other assets do you possess? Tick where appropriate

Assets owned	Tick	How were the assets acquired?	No. Owned
1. Hand hoes			
2. Shovels			
3. Ox-drawn plough			
4. Harrow			
5. Wheelbarrow			
8: Scotch cart			
9. Tractor			
10. Vehicle			
11. Homestead/field fence			

Codes for how assets were obtained

1. Purchased 2. Inherited 3. Received from donors 4. Other.....

5. HOUSEHOLD FOOD SECURITY

A. Over the past five years has your household run out of food

1. Yes 2. No

B. if yes, in which month did you run out of food?

Year 2006 2007 2008 2009 2010

Month

1. January 2. February 3. March 4. April. 5. May 6 June

7. July 8. August 9. September 10. October 11. November 12. December

C. How long do you think that the food you have will last?

.....

D. If your household did not produce adequate food in any one of the following years what were the reasons.

2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10

1. Drought 2 Crop damage due to pests and diseases 3. Land shortage

4. Poor soils 5. Inadequate seed 6. Excess rain

7. Not enough labour 8. Lack of fertilizer 9. Premature harvest

10. Sold most of the harvest 10. Others .....

E. How does the household cope with food shortages?

Activity	**Tick where appropriate**
1. Piece jobs	
2. Seek off-farm employment	
3. Borrow grain	
4. Receive food aid	
5. Sell farm equipment	
6. Sell livestock	
7. Sell household assets	
8. Sell farm land	
10. Substitute meals for less preferred foods	
11. reduce number of meals served	
12. Reduce quantity of food	
14. Other.....	

6. NON-FARM ACTIVITIES (The non-agricultural activities the household are engaged in)

A. Is the household involved in any non-farm activities?

1. Yes 2. No

B. If no to A above, give reasons

.....
.....

C. What non-farm activities is the household engaged in? Tick where appropriate

Activity	**Tick**
A. Manufacturing	
1. Carpentry	
2. Basket making	
3. Pottery	
4. Rope making	
5. Tailoring	
6. Blacksmithing	
7. Repairing and servicing	
8. knitting	
8. Others	
B. Trade and Commerce	
1. Shop keeping	
2. Refreshment and eating stalls	
3. Other	
C. Services (personal)	
1. Photography	
2. Barber	
3. Cobbler	
D. Transportation	
1. Diesel / petrol operated	
2. Animal drawn	

D. Who in the household is involved in these activities?

1. Self 2. Wife 3.Son 4. Daughter 5. Other.....

E. When did you start engaging in these activities? Specify year

Year	**Tick**
1. Below 1990	
2. 1990 – 1994	
3. 1995 – 2000	
4. 2001 – 2004	
5. 2005 – 2010	

F. What made you to pursue these activities?

Reason	**Tick**
1. Availability of required raw materials	
2.Availability of manpower with required skill for performing concerned activity	
3. Availability of market for selling the productions	
4. Finance	
5. Availability of required infrastructural facilities for proper functioning of the respective venture	
6. Lack of employment	
7. Low wages in other activities	
8. Lack of opportunities on farm due to smallness of land holdings	

9. Drought conditions	
8. Other.....	

G. For what do you use the income obtained from the non-farm activities pursued? Tick where appropriate.

Activity	**Tick**
1: Groceries:	
2: Transport	
3: School fees	
4: Input purchase	
5: Clothes	
6. House rental.	
7. Maintenance costs	
8. Entertainment,	
9. Church contributions	
10. Burial levies.	
11. Other (Specify)	

H. How has life improved since you started engaging in those activities? Choose from the following list and give reasons for answer

Improvement **Outcome**	**A little**	**Good**	**Very good**	**Substantial**
1. Increased income				

2. Improved well being				
3. Creation of working days				
4. Other.....				

NB: Creation of working days refers to the ability of a particular combination of livelihood strategies to create gainful aspects of employment, be it income (salary and wage) or production (consumable output).

I. What challenges are you facing as you pursue these activities?

1. Poor market 2. Inadequate labour
3. Low income obtained 4. Lack of credit to finance activity
5. Lack of support from the government or other organisations
6. Shortage of inputs 7. Lack of electricity
8. Lack of piped water 9. High transport costs
10. Other.....

J. What so you think should be done to help curb those challenges?

.....
.....
.....

K. Are you getting any support/ assistance as you pursue these activities?
1. Yes 2. No

L. Who is assisting you?

1. Government agencies 2. Non-governmental Organisations
3. The private sector 4. Extended family
5. Other.....

M. What support are you currently getting that is helping you in your activities?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

O. Do you think more should be done? 1. Yes 2. No

P. If yes, state what should be done

……
……
……
……

THE END

Appendix E

Documents Authorising Survey

1. Letter from the Secretary for the Ministry of Local Government, Rural and Urban Development

MINISTRY OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT, RURAL AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT

Telephone 263 4 723479

Fax 263 4 708493

ZIMBABWE

Office of the Secretary
Private Bag 7706
Causeway,

ZIMBABWE

Ref: ADM/23/8

11 January 2011

Ms Delight Mukozho
25 Mbaura Road
Zengeza 2
Chitungwiza

AUTHORITY TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH IN SEKE: MS DELIGHT MUKOZHO.

The above refers.

Please be advised that the Head of Ministry has approved your request to undertake a research in Seke Rural District.

Please note that permission has been granted on the following conditions:

- Information gathered will be treated as confidential, solely for academic purposes.
- The use of material for unauthorized purposes is strictly prohibited.
- On assumption of the research, the District Administrator should be informed.

The Ministry wishes you the best in your endeavours.

V.R. Chiromo
For Secretary for Local Government, Rural and Urban Development

2. Letter from the Supervisor

Aminur Rahim B.A. (Rajshahi), M.A. (Rajshahi) M.A. (Waterloo), PhD (Toronto), Department of Development Studies, University of Fort Hare, Private Bag X1314, Alice-5700, Eastern Cape, South Africa

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Please be advised that **Mrs. Delight Mukozho** is a full-time Masters student in the Department of Development Studies, the University of Fort Hare, South Africa. Mrs. Mukozho has successfully defended her thesis proposal titled "The prospects and challenges of the rural non-farm economy in Zimbabwe's rural areas: A case of Seke Rural District" in July 2010. One of the aims of the proposed research project is to collect data and information through the survey method to ascertain the human connation in the rural Zimbabwe. One of the ways to obtain relevant information is to interact with true participants in the village under study. Mrs. Mukozho will honor the privacy and confidentiality of each respondent with in all honesty. Moreover, the information that she will obtain only be used for the scholarly purpose. Your assistance in this regard will be appreciated by the Department of Development Studies as well as by the University of Fort Hare,

Sincerely yours,

Professor A. Rahim