



UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

INSTITUTE OF DIPLOMACY AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES


**THE IMPLICATIONS OF LAND REFORM ON SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT OF
RURAL COMMUNITIES IN ZIMBABWE: THE CASE OF CHIEF SVOSVE AREA IN
MASHONALAND EAST PROVINCE**

**A RESEARCHPROJECT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
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DECLARATION

This project is my original work and has not been submitted for a degree or any other academic accreditation at any other university.


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This project has been submitted for examination with my approval as the University Supervisor.

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DEDICATION

This project work is dedicated with a lot of love and gratitude to my family; my husband, Dr Ivan Manyonga and children as well as my sisters Rudo, Paidamoyo and Linda and brother, Michael who encouraged me to further my studies and supported me throughout the process of obtaining my Master's degree. I also wish to thank my friends who stood by my side during the struggle. Further, I am grateful to Ambassador Winpeg Moyo and the Government of the Republic of Zimbabwe for the opportunity to live and study in Kenya during this period.

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ABSTRACT

Two of the most common aspects of implementing land reform include securing and formalizing property rights, redistribution of land from big to small farmers, and restitution for those who have been displaced by war or other factors. In other words, land reform redistributes and redefines property rights, including agricultural property rights, among other things. Land reform, as currently conceived, has a significant impact on rural people's livelihoods since it is utilized to solve fairness and productivity concerns. This dissertation investigates the implications of land reform on sustainable development of rural communities in Zimbabwe by focusing on a case study of Chief Svosve area in Mashonaland East Province in Zimbabwe. To do this, primary field data comprising of 23 variables across 148 samples was collected. Following the quantitative and qualitative analysis of these variables, the research working hypothesis, the research findings failed to reject the hypothesis that Land reform triggers some effects on sustainable development of Chief Svosve rural community. This is due to the fact that research established that policies exists and legal frameworks are shaping up the pace and benefits of land reform in the community. However, considering the socio-economic implications of land reform on the culture of the people of Chief Svosve area, the research findings reject the working hypothesis. This outcome is due to the fact that the economic gains which are slowly accruing from land reform are causing negative impacts on the rich indigenous culture of Chief Svosve area as manifested by the youth in the area who are now violating the existence of some cultural norms and values. According to the findings of the study, Zimbabwe's greatest challenge over the last two decades has been to redistribute land equitably while also overcoming various legal and financial constraints imposed by colonial injustices that left the country with a dual land ownership structure skewed along racial lines. However, despite Zimbabwe's progress, there are still many difficulties that need to be dealt with in order for it to go forward. Reforming land usage, property rights, agriculture, and administration are all aspects of land reform. In order to prevent the land problem from manifesting itself in other ways, such as decreased agricultural productivity, ambiguity about land rights, and poor land administration, the Zimbabwean government has addressed only one but very important aspect of land reform. Other requirements of the Land Management framework must be met as well. The study recommends that Stakeholders should work with regional organisations to learn lessons on good practice. And they should work with development partners to promote international lesson learning. The study also recommends a revision of the FTLRP policy to hinder the addition of beneficiaries on already allocated land in villages. Strict measures to avoid this problem should be established to limit the politicisation of land as a tool for garnering votes by politicians

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ACRONMYS

BSAC-British South African Company

CAMIR- Communal Area Management for Indigenous Resources

LAA- Land Apportionment Act

LHA-Lancaster House Agreement

LHC- Lancaster House Constitution

LRP-Land Reform Programme

NDP-national development plan

SA- South Africa

SR-South Rhodesia

UDI-Unilateral Declaration of Independence

ZUM-Zimbabwe Unity Movement

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.0 Introduction

Zimbabwe attained independence in 1980 following the administration by the BSAC in 1890-1923 and self-government from 1923- 1967 as well as UDI.¹ Land was separated and allotted according to ethnic groups by several pieces of legislation for instance the “Southern Rhodesia Order in Council 1898, Land Appropriation Act 1930, Native Husbandry Act No. 52 of 1951, and Land Tenure Act No. 55 of 1969”. In the wake of the civil rights movement, laws pushed black peasants onto the periphery and reserved the finest agricultural land for whites, resulting in 42% of the nation being held by 6,000 commercial farmers (all of them white). There were two major types of landholdings in colonial Africa: huge white commercial farms and tiny black peasant farms with shared grazing lands. The former was dominated by large white farms and the latter by small black farms with communal grazing grounds. Throughout this chapter, the reader will learn about the study's research topic, aims, and questions as well as its importance and theoretical framework.

1.1 Background of the Study

Two of the most common aspects of implementing land reform include securing and formalizing property rights, redistribution of land from big to small farmers, and restitution for those who have been displaced by war or other factors. In other words, land reform redistributes and redefines property rights, including agricultural property rights, among other things. Land reform, as currently

¹Moyo, S. (2016), *Agricultural Employment Expansion: Smallholder Land and Labour Capacity Growth*, Harare, Zimbabwe Institute of Development Studies.

conceived, has a significant impact on rural people's livelihoods since it is utilized to solve fairness and productivity concerns². According to Bassett and Crummy³, the terms "agrarian reform" and "land reform" are frequently used interchangeably. Reorganization of tenure arrangements of land holdings, known as "land reform," can take on two main forms: the breakup and redistribution of vast landholdings, or a consolidation of dispersed holdings into a single field of cultivation. Agricultural reform also encompasses rural development initiatives such as road reconstruction and improving social amenities among others.

Moreover, African agrarian literature has seldom discussed access to, control over, and to a lesser extent, administration of rural land until lately. Agricultural production and land tenure systems are intertwined, yet they've received less attention as a result. The first is that Africa is a land-abundant continent in compared to Latin America and Asia's population-land densities. It also diminishes the impact that tenure systems have in limiting agricultural output by suggesting that "customary" or "indigenous" systems have largely met peasant farmers' access to land demands. It's been criticized, though, since the rural population has grown at a faster rate than agricultural land has. According to Moyo⁴, "the recurrent conceptual struggle on the land question is whether Africa has a land question... "However, it's well acknowledged that Africa has an agricultural problem stemming from unfair labor practices and uneven commerce. Some groups in Africa, particularly women and poor households, are finding it increasingly difficult to get land. Africa should no longer be seen as an outlier when it

²Moyo, S. (2016), *Agricultural Employment Expansion: Smallholder Land and Labour Capacity Growth*, Harare, Zimbabwe Institute of Development Studies.

³ Bassett, T. J and Crummey, D. E. 1993, *Land in African Agrarian Systems*. U.S.A, University of Wisconsin Press.

⁴ Moyo, S. 1990, *Agricultural Employment Expansion: Smallholder Land and Labour Capacity Growth*, Harare, Zimbabwe Institute of Development Studies.

comes to land shortage and demand patterns. Africa's land question discourse should be preoccupied with the vastly unequal allocation of land and the prevalence of rural poverty.

Expropriation from landowners and transfer to people with insufficient or no property is considered as the solution to the problem of land redistribution, as well as land re-settlement. The study focused on land redistribution as a crucial element of land reform and its nexus to poverty alleviation. In other words, a holistic land reform program should respond to all land related rights and the security of land tenure rights for people living on commercial farms and in communal areas alike. In ensuring the effectiveness of a land reform program, one essential but frequently overlooked aspect is the acknowledgement of the necessity for land reform as well as explanation of the implementation modalities. When it comes to different stakeholders, Zinyama⁵ points out that the government is one of them. As the reform's implementer, the government should set goals and avail adequate resources. However, some people have to lose some or all of their land as a result of these reforms. Finally, there are the small farmers and landless beneficiaries who are aware of their sole tasks of enhancing productivity on their newly acquired land.

It's well-known that the goals of land reform vary from country to country. The goals may be linked and complimentary, yet completing one may cause the achievement of another to be slowed or halted altogether. While pursuing social fairness, there is often tension between doing so while also making the most of land and other resources. Governments have frequently found it difficult to reconcile these opposing goals, resulting in challenges for both individuals and the state as a whole. It's possible that dividing huge expropriated farms into several tiny plots may lead to lower government marketable surpluses and export revenues. However, if a government does not pursue land reform,

⁵ Zinyama, L. 1999, "Land Reform and Land Use in Africa" in Issues and Responses: Land Use Planning in Eastern and Southern Africa, Caldwell, W. (ed), Harare, Weaver Press.

many of its citizens will continue to live in poverty, which might lead to political instability in the long term.⁶

During the Lancaster House settlement discussions in Zimbabwe in 1979, the white administration made just a few concessions. In the first decade after Zimbabwe gained its independence, the Lancaster House Agreement dictated the basis of all land reform policies. A large part of land reform in the first decade after independence was focused on relocation for black people due to limits imposed by the LHC (1979). When the program began, its primary goal was to address social issues including welfare and poverty reduction.

70,000 households were relocated into clustered villages as part of the initiative, and each family was given its own 0.4 M2 dwelling allotment, as well as a standard 5 hectares of arable land and the right to communally utilize pasture area⁷. To begin with, Scoones et al.⁸ point out that the requirements utilized to pick recipients prioritized choosing of low-income families living in communal areas, and reinstating soldiers and other persons displaced during the conflict period. In spite of Kinsey's⁹ claim that relocation to resettlement zones resulted in vastly enhanced family well-being, Bertus de Villiers argues that recipients, many of don't have a lot of asserts usually have a hard time settling in their new communities. In light of the resettlement program's financial, administrative, and logistical challenges, a new narrative developed, suggesting that the program was essentially a political tool for social welfare. According to this theory, another component of the resettlement scheme was that

⁶Scoones, I. Marongwe, N. Mavedzenge, B. Mahenehene, J. Murimbarimba, F. and Sukume, C, (2016), Zimbabwe's land Reform, Myths and Realities. Harare, Weaver Press

⁷ ibid

⁸ ibid

⁹ Kinsey, B. H. (2017) "Land Reform, Growth and Equity: Emerging Evidence from Zimbabwe's Resettlement Programme", *Journal of Southern African Studies*, 25(2) 173-196

the state owned the property, not the farmers or communities that worked it. As a result, the state reaped the greatest financial benefit from the land reform initiative. Despite the fact that occupation permission was given, the property did not have a lease or freehold because of it.¹⁰

Kinsey¹¹ adds a fascinating perspective to the discussion around the resettlement program. Arguments are put out to show that in the late 1970s and early 1980s, when the growth-with-equity paradigm was popular among development thinkers, the resettlement plan was developed in an atmosphere that matched that theme. Growth and equality are often seen as mutually exclusive concepts in development economics¹². But as this discussion over "growth with equity" demonstrated, many economists questioned if growth and equity aren't diametrically opposed. This complicates the choice of welfare gain indicators since they must take into account both indicators that quantify economic success and those that provide information on how growth is distributed. By the conclusion of the first decade, the government concluded that land redistribution through the resettlement program had produced enough political stability to justify shifting the focus away from the landless and toward those who had shown an aptitude to amass wealth. It was deemed necessary by the administration to emphasize economic benefits¹³. Land speculation would be discouraged via a land tax, and land tenure concerns would be examined by a committee, according to the plan. It also said that foreign and absentee land ownership would be minimized, and the number of farms a person or business could possess would be limited.¹⁴

¹¹ *ibid*

¹² *ibid*

¹³

¹⁴Tshuma, L(2017), *A Matter of (in) Justice: Law, State and the Agrarian Question in Zimbabwe*. Harare, SAPES Books.

For the time following the Lancaster House Constitution, a new land policy agenda was created to address these issues. It took the government two steps to introduce its new policy: first, by modifying the constitution, and then by passing new laws that complied with the amendments. Expropriation of white-owned rural property was made possible with the Constitution's amendment to Section 16 (Bill of Rights) and the ensuing Land Acquisition Act 1992. With respect to voluntary sale and purchase agreements, they were replaced by coercive possession with compensation based on the original price and the value of permanent upgrades. This new land policy has two significant flaws that need to be addressed.¹⁵ Land became a focal subject for the government because of political opposition from the ZUM and the importance of repossession of political ground in rural regions. Second, the language of government socialism was being replaced by capitalist principles. As a result, according to Moyo¹⁶, black elite rose above the landless peasants and sought to profit from the system. As a result of land grabs, the ruling class received more land than the landless peasants in many areas. About 300 new black farmers joined the Commercial Farmers Union (CFU), including at least ten cabinet members. As a result, the company's clout and capacity to persuade the government grew “i.e. behind the scenes commodity price setting and general land policy direction”. Corruption, which accompanied the unfettered grabbing and distribution of property, replaced land reform process with agricultural invasions and forceful seizures. The elites in government "scrambled" for land.

As Scoones and colleagues point out, “1997 was a watershed year for Zimbabwe's land policy in many ways. The Movement for Democratic Change (MDC), a new opposition party, was created from a predominantly urban trade union movement, but with backing from white commercial farmers and white industrialists”. Fight veterans seeking recompense for their involvement in the liberation

¹⁵ ibid

¹⁶ ibid

war pushed the government to make substantial, unbudgeted payments in the same year. The Zimbabwe National War Liberators Association (ZNWLA) will go on to play a pivotal role in farm takeovers in the years to come in Zimbabwe. There were land invasions all around the nation in the middle of fast devastating economic condition, political disruptions coupled by constitutional referendum discussions and the buildup to the postponed elections of 2000. With an electoral manifesto titled “land is the economy, the economy is land,” the Government appeared to legitimize the instability.¹⁷

Land Reform is a term used to describe the process of transferring land ownership from a limited group of wealthy landowners to individuals who operate the land on an individual basis. The compensation for such a transfer of ownership might range from small sums to the entire land's market worth. During the arrival of white immigrants to Zimbabwe in the 1890s, they seized land from indigenous black Zimbabweans and relocated them to arid areas. Even though whites made up only 5% of the population, they controlled 75% of the land, while blacks controlled only 25% of the land but made up 99% of the population.¹⁸ As a result, during the LHA, the first phase of the LRP, such social inequalities were responded to in 1980. ESAP and Zimbabwe's involvement in the DRC conflict caused huge unemployment and dollarization in the 1990s, fueling LRP because land is a country's economic backbone¹⁹. This fueled the process of land reform in Zimbabwe during that time period. In 2000, the founding of the MDC political party was a watershed moment in Zimbabwean history, ushering in the country's FTLRP.

¹⁷ Kepe, T. (2016). The problem of defining ‘community’: Challenges for the land reform programme in rural South Africa. *Development Southern Africa*, 16(3), 415-433.

¹⁸ Moyo, S., & Chambati, W. (Eds.). (2013). *Land and Agrarian Reform in Zimbabwe*. African Books Collective

¹⁹ Cusworth, J. (2013) “ Zimbabwe: Issues Arising from the Land Resettlement Programme” in Dudley, N. et al (eds.), *Land Reform and Sustainable Agriculture*, United Kingdom, Intermediate Technology Publications.

In the year 2000, the Zimbabwean government launched the "Fast Track" resettlement program. When asked about the fast track resettlement initiative, many Zimbabweans were unsure of its clear meaning and scope. Aside from that, Bertus de Villiers points out that Zimbabwe's Parliament has formulated a number of legislations through in the hopes of speeding up the land reform process.

The land 80% which was initially owned by the white commercial farms was re-distributed to a wide range of recipients under the "fast-track" resettlement scheme. It's worth highlighting two things. As far as the government's evaluation emphasis has been concerned, the land reform initiative has been a success, according to one view. Furthermore, according to the government, Zimbabwe's poor land-use performance is due to the sanctions that have been imposed on the country since 2000, three droughts (between 2001 and 2003), and "sabotage" by a variety of actors, including the country's last remaining white commercial farmers, commercial banks, who have refused to provide financing for small-scale farmers, and some input suppliers who are only interested in making a profit.

As people began to live on the land, the ramifications of the broader economic problems were apparent as well, as Scoones brilliantly highlighted. In 2008, for instance, the formal economy was stressed by the fall of the exchange rate, the depreciation of the Zimbabwean dollar, and soaring inflation. Price limits and regulations enforced with the support of the police and security forces by the Reserve Bank Governor were mainly ineffective²⁰. In the aftermath of the government's financial collapse, the streets were deserted, companies were shuttered, and agricultural commodities markets were pushed into the shadows. Businesses that had hoped to provide services in the resettlement sites, including as stores, transportation, and grinding mills, were forced to shut down since they could no

²⁰Maposa, I. (2015). Land Reform In Zimbabwe: An Inquiry Into Land Acquisition Act Combined With A Case Study Analysis Of The Resettlement Programme.

longer operate. Furthermore, the legislative and presidential elections were hotly disputed and violent in nature.²¹

The Zimbabwe “ZANU-PF, MDC-T, and MDC-M” signed a "Global Political Agreement" on September 15, 2008, clearing the way for the establishment of an inclusive government in February 2009. The inclusive administration will continue to address rural poverty and the land question. No political party has an overarching plan, however, as Scoones et al.²² point out. While a land audit is a logical first step, prominent politicians (supposedly including members of the first family) continue to illegally control several farms, and land grabbing occurs on an irregular basis as well. Compensation from the United Kingdom is still a contentious topic. Because to Clare Short's famous 1997 letter (then Minister of International Development in Britain's Labour Government), who refused to assume reparation responsibilities, this has been the case ever since.²³

Whether colonialism's dualistic pattern of impoverished small holdings and few rich landholdings has gone or its evolving with new forms and a change of ownership arrangements is an issue that is now being asked. How does the government plan to achieve its initial wide goal of redistributing land to the indigenous majority and eliminating poverty while also avoiding the risk of continuing the current inequity in favor of small black elite? Land policy in Zimbabwe is constantly changing due to the GoZ's (the Zimbabwean government) poor implementation and reluctant stakeholder and donor consultation and support. In light of this, the study's goal is to find out how land reform may help Zimbabwe's Mashonaland East province battle poverty. The province of Mashonaland East was

²¹ *ibid*

²² Scoones, I., Marongwe, N., Mavedzenge, B., Mahenehene, J., Murimbarimba, F., & Sukume, C. (2010). Zimbabwe's land reform. *Myths and Realities*.

²³ Kinsey, B. H. (2013). Land reform, growth and equity: emerging evidence from Zimbabwe's resettlement programme. *Journal of Southern African Studies*, 25(2), 173-196.

chosen for redistribution due of its excellent agricultural land and the large number of farms that were confiscated by the Government of Zimbabwe.²⁴

The Global South's development strategy is once again dominated by land reform. According to the Agriculture for Development section of the 2008 World Development Report, land reform is a vital approach for reducing poverty, hunger, and rising food insecurity in the Global South, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa. There is a history of foreigners taking indigenous people's land through colonization in all of these countries. If all other global development objectives are to be accomplished, it is critical to address uneven ownership and access to farming land, which is home to at least 70% of those living in rural areas where they practice agricultural activities as critical part of family and national food security.

The former British colony of Rhodesia was transformed into the Republic of Zimbabwe on April 18, 1980. Because of this, white large-scale commercial farmers, who comprised of 1% of the entire population, controlled 45 percent of the country's agricultural acreage. Most of it is in Zimbabwe's rainy regions, where agricultural output has a lot of promise. 60 percent of this large-scale commercial land was also “not just under-used but completely unutilized”, which is important “Ministry of Land and Rural Resettlement, 2013”. The Royal Charter of the British South Africa Company in 1889 set in motion a pattern of land redistribution that included Zimbabwe as well as the majority of African countries, particularly those that were colonized by the United Kingdom.²⁵

White farmers from Europe, SA and SR for the first time in the 1890s. The land in Southern Rhodesia belonged to the crown, not the British South Africa Company, according to a 1918 ruling by “the

²⁴ *ibid*

²⁵Maposa, I. (2015). Land Reform In Zimbabwe: An Inquiry Into Land Acquisition Act Combined With A Case Study Analysis Of The Resettlement Programme

Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in London”. After self-rule was given in Southern Rhodesia, the House of Assembly adopted a framework for land allotment in 1923. "Tribal trust lands" are areas where indigenous people are held in trust on a collective basis and are referred to as "tribal trust lands" “per 1965 statute as well as communal areas per 1981 statute”, according to Logan²⁶. Whites, Shona, and Ndebele were allowed to own property under the LAA of 1930. Land Apportionment Act of 1930 rules displaced families from land they had held for decades, and they remained in effect until 1980, when Zimbabwe became independent.²⁷

In regions defined as honoring tribal occupancy and trust lands, there was no individual title to land. This created a rift in society and raised questions about who owned what. According to their traditions, the blacks regarded tribal and chieftaincy ownership of land as important when considering communal ownership. The government used a system of individual taxes to improve soil, grade, irrigate, drain, and create roads in tribal regions, although this was unpopular with the majority.²⁸

To keep the economy afloat, the government encouraged commercial farming, which generated enormous profits and contributed significantly to tax revenues. It was mostly people from Europe who engaged in commercial farming. They acquired and developed enormous tracts of land into commercial farming operations, and much of their property was located on Zimbabwe's central plateau. Ex-commercial farmers have contributed to the growth of the country and the efficient operation of industry. For starters, in 1950, Garfield Todd's administration attempted to solve land

²⁶ *ibid*

²⁷Palmer, R. (2014). Land reform in Zimbabwe, 1980-1990. *African affairs*, 89(355), 163-181.

²⁸Sachikonye, L. M. (2013). From ‘growth with equity’ to ‘fast-track’ reform: Zimbabwe's land question. *Review of African political economy*, 30(96), 227-240.

ownership issues by bringing agricultural concepts into traditional chieftain territories, as well as encouraging farming initiatives and a better understanding of tribal land tenure systems.

1.2 Statement of the Research Problem

"Inability to afford" is the Zimbabwean term for poverty which also implies to lack of ability to afford food for consumption according to the "Poverty Assessment Sample Survey done by the Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare" in 1995. In rural regions, low-income families have traditionally been used to classify households as impoverished. Poverty was not just an issue of income, as the 1995 Poverty Assessment Study Survey revealed. All aspects of human existence are affected by this sign of structural abnormalities. It's linked to deprivation on the political, social, and economic levels. When people in Zimbabwe live in poverty, access to land and other resources is a problem since they are needed to support a family's livelihood. Access to land and poverty are linked in that when access to land reduces (as a result of marginalization or exclusion), poverty rises. The main root cause of poverty was the duality and asymmetrical pattern obtained from the colonial system, which must be reconfigured through land reform. Large-scale land redistribution opens up the agricultural industry to a broader range of individuals. In Zimbabwe, agriculture is the primary means of social reproduction for majority of people. Therefore having access to land and land-based resources is critical in this situation.

For over five years, Zimbabwe's LRP has been a hot topic of debate across the world, mostly owing to the government of Zimbabwe's groundbreaking approach to resolving this highly charged subject. Many in the world's disadvantaged groups have praised this daring step, but others in the international community have condemned it, sympathizing with those who have lost out as a result. a long-term assessment of the link between land reform policies and poverty reduction is needed. an empirical

study is needed. Moyo²⁹ has been engrossed with Zimbabwe's land issue for some time. However, the benefits of land reform for reducing poverty have not been highlighted directly. Land conflicts, agricultural decline and political parties' electoral (mis)fortunes are often discussed in debates as examples of short-term negative expressions of the current political climate. While "good governance" and procedural concerns are important, they tend to overshadow the importance of land access for smallholders, which may have far-reaching economic, social, and environmental advantages.

Many commentators consider Zimbabwe's 2000 LRP to be a watershed moment in the country's political and economic progress. The GDP of the country continued to decrease as a result of LRP. Since the year 2000, the macroeconomic climate has been marked by hyperinflation, the failure of several banks, and a lack of foreign currency and essential goods like as fuel and agricultural supplies³⁰. 89.7 quadrillion percent was the estimated annual inflation rate in Zimbabwe as of November 2008, according to Hanke³¹. Because most agricultural laborers (about 75 percent) originate from communal areas within the districts, and because land redistribution left most of them without land, the LRP protested to the issue of social inequalities. Before now, no one has proven that Zimbabwe's political-economic underdevelopment has been caused by the LRP, which started in 2000. This research will help close the knowledge gap.

²⁹ *ibid*

³⁰Kanyenze, G. (2005). 'The Zimbabwe economy 1980 – 2003: a ZCTU perspective'. in D. Harold-Barry (ed). *Zimbabwe: The Past is the Future Rethinking Land, State and Nation in the Context of Crisis*, Harare: Weaver Press. pp. 107-143.

³¹Hanke, S. (2008). 'New Hyperinflation Index in Zimbabwe (HHIZ) puts Zimbabwe's inflation at 89.7 sextillion percent'. The Cato Institute, <http://www.cato.org/Zimbabwe> (accessed 7 September Harare: SAPES Trust. (1998). *Colonial and Post-Colonia*

1.3 Research Questions

1. What are the socio-economic implications of land reform on the culture of the people of Chief Svosve people in Mashonaland East in Zimbabwe?
2. What are the implications of the policy and legal frameworks on land reforms on the Chief Svosve people in Mashonaland East in Zimbabwe?
3. What are the key challenges facing the land reforms among the Chief Svosve community in Mashonaland East in Zimbabwe?

1.4 Research Objectives

This part covers the broad objectives and the specific objectives of the research.

1.4.1 Main Objective

The purpose of this study was to assess the implications of land reform on sustainable development of rural communities in Zimbabwe: the case of Chief Svosve area in Mashonaland East Province.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

The study was guided with the following objectives;

1. To examine the socio-economic implications of land reform on the culture of the people of Chief Svosve people in Mashonaland east in Zimbabwe.
2. To investigate the implications of the policy and legal frameworks on land reforms on the Chief Svosve people in Mashonaland East in Zimbabwe.
3. To assess the key challenges facing the land reforms among the Chief Svosve community in Mashonaland East in Zimbabwe.

1.5 Literature Review

1.5.1 Theoretical Literature Review

A series of Danish land reforms, beginning in the late eighteenth century, resulted in the transfer of rural property from a small number of wealthy landlords to a large number of small, family-owned farms. Irish land reforms, most of which were implemented around 1900 when the UK government gave all of Ireland the right to purchase (ARtB) their farms while the money was still in the UK, resulted in a comparable diversification of the country's agriculture. Tenant farmers and smallholders “repayable over 50 years or more” were required, much like in Denmark, to make this possible. Because of this, rural land in Ireland (where vast estates used to be as prevalent as in Scotland) is almost entirely owned by those who live on it.

Land reform in Asia has been a huge success compared to other continents in the world. Post-World War II land reforms were executed in Japan, South Korea and Taiwan and are credited with helping these nations thrive economically and become known as the Asian Tigers. Land reform in Japan in 1946 required landowners with more land than allowed to sell it to the government for a predetermined price. Afterwards, the government sold it at the same price, prioritizing any tenant farmers on the property.³² Land reform in Japan was a huge success for two reasons. In order to effect social and economic change, the Occupation was able to pass and execute a legislation that harmed the interests of a wealthy and influential class of people: landlords. Another reason is that it's difficult to pin down exactly what it is. When the Land Reform Act of 1946 was approved in October, the landlords sold their land to the government at a fair price for it. Korea shifted land ownership from aristocratic landowners to a new class of peasant farmers, eliminating their economic clout. So little

³²Dore, R. (2013). Land Reform in Japan. A&C Black.

government is capable of completing such a massive transfer of wealth and power. Landless peasants and an extensive export crop industry were other important factors in South Korea's rise to global prominence. And the population decline in rural areas has allowed government programs to be successful. These are only found in a small number of poor nations³³.

Africa's implementation of land reform has been marred by harassment of commercial farmers and agricultural workers and violent attacks. A number of people are evicted from farms without following the due process and without any difference made between those that were formally earmarked for acquisition and those that were not. Land reform has been afflicted by allegations of corruption. They claim that land was unfairly assigned, with the finest land going to prominent recipients like large corporations, while small-scale farmers got the worst of the lot, and that there was prejudice in the land distribution process.³⁴

Since Ghana's National Land Policy (NLP) was established in January 1999, the government has been putting it into practice through the Land Administration Project (LAP). LAP aims to make land more accessible, to protect title to land and to improve institutional capacity for land administration that is both efficient and effective. This research attempted to assess the impact of land reforms on poor land users' access to land, use rights, and livelihoods a decade after the NLP and LAP were implemented.

There has been a lack of political will, limited budgetary resources, and corruption in Kenya's execution of comprehensive land reforms, making progress slow and discouraging at times. Kenya's civil society institutions in the land sector have remained active and have played an instrumental role

³³ El-Ghonemy, R. (2009). *Anti-Poverty Land Reform Issues Never Die: Collected essays on development*. Routledge

³⁴ Lipton, M. (2009). *Land Reform in Developing Countries*. Taylor & Francis

in execution of the country's land policy and constitution. They've been especially useful in areas where the reform process has hit stumbling blocks or the state stayed out of it. Groups like these will have to be vigilant and present in order for the government to be made fully accountable for providing ongoing political will and financial resources for execution.³⁵

Supporters of the MDC party in Zimbabwe have been barred from several parts of the country's land reform program. Some MDC members have reportedly been denied the opportunity to apply for land at all. The fast-track land reform initiative has allotted very little land to women across the country. In Zimbabwe, almost one-third of families are headed by a woman. Women headed families, on the other hand, accounted for just 18% of new small farm beneficiaries and only 12% of new commercial farm beneficiaries. Land reform has generally excluded farm labourers from its advantages as well.

According to Zimbabwe's NDP, agriculture was the country's economic backbone. Land redistribution is critical to ensuring national and regional food security because 70% of the country's population lives in rural regions and relies heavily on agriculture for their primary source of income. About a third of Zimbabwe's exports come from agriculture, which also provides inputs for other industries, according to Drinkwater. Agriculture supplied more than 90% of Zimbabwe's food needs. A decade after joining the Southern African Development Coordination Conference, Zimbabwe was deemed structurally and environmentally capable of ensuring regional food security. Economy expansion was also considered as being dependent on the agriculture industry's success. Land reform was launched by the new administration against this backdrop.³⁶

³⁵ malombe, D. (2011). A Position Paper on Engendered and Rights-based Land Reforms in Kenya. Kenya human rights comission

³⁶ Chowdhry, P. (2010). Gender Discrimination in Land Ownership. Sage Publications.

This section examines Zimbabwe's post-independence government's various attempts at land reform. There is an examination of the stages in terms of government aims, discourses that have affected government policies, and the achievements or lack thereof in these phases. Resettled households' livelihoods are also examined, as this is a significant subject of the study.

In September 1980, the newly elected Zimbabwean government began a "agricultural" relocation program that would last until 1983. When it comes to "resettlement," as described by Kinsey, it means moving people from communal areas to farms and ranches that were once owned by white people and operated for profit (1982). In addition to being rehabilitative, this phase of resettlement displaced persons especially by the conflict and benefited the poorest of the impoverished in particular. A total of 162 000 households were to be relocated from overcrowded communal areas onto 9 million acres of formerly commercial farming land, with the help of the British government's financial support.³⁷

To reduce population pressure on communal land, it developed and enhanced the foundation for productive agriculture in the peasant sector, improved living standards for the largest and poorest segments of the population, provided opportunities for landless people, unemployed people, and those negatively impacted by the war. It also maximized production on underutilized farm land. There is an estimated Z\$60 million price tag to conduct the initiative, which will be split evenly between Zimbabwe and the UK, even though the US is suspected of breaking a pledge to contribute financially to the effort.³⁸

There were lack of unrecompensed seizures of private land, but in rare cases, proprietors were compelled to sell farmland located in areas that were regarded particularly favorable for settlement

³⁷Drinkwater, M. (2018). *The State And Agrarian Change In Zimbabwe's Communal Areas*. Houndmills: Macmillan.

³⁸Gumede, .V. (2014). Land reform in post-apartheid South Africa: Should South Africa follow Zimbabwe's footsteps?. *International Journal of African Renaissance Studies-Multi-, Inter-and Transdisciplinarity*, 9(1), 50-68.

when it was bought on a willing buyer willing seller basis³⁹. The selection criteria included agriculturally suitable land near or adjacent to communal areas, especially the ones that were highly populated, where land was not in use, or where there was enough land to pay way for construction of infrastructure and land in an area where basic planning information was available.⁴⁰

So far, Zimbabwe's land reform programs, including the Fast Track Land Resettlement initiative, have followed a worldwide trend. To be sure, there has been a lot of discussion over whether or not land reform should be market- or state-driven. Market led agrarian reform (MLAR) proponents argue that “state regulations and limitations on land sales lead to informal land market transactions that foster corruption, further distorting the land market while also reducing productivity, which is central to these disputes”. MLAR advocates disagree⁴¹. However, the MLAR is seen as a more effective and equitable allocation system. Additionally, MLAR is favored because it reduces the size and cost of the state bureaucracy while simultaneously lowering land prices and eliminating welfarism by requiring beneficiaries to bear the land cost and share the risk. As a result of this strategy, the Zimbabwean government's early land reform initiatives were well-directed.

1.5.2 Empirical Literature Review

1.5.2.1 Socio-economic implications of land reform on the culture of the people of Zimbabwe

The lack of land access for a large proportion of the agricultural population, says Sobhan⁴², creates significant pressure for land reform. Zimbabwe has a large proportion of its people working in agriculture, making it one of the most agricultural countries in Southern Africa. As a result,

³⁹Cliffe, L., Alexander, J., Cousins, B., & Gaidzanwa, R. (2017). An overview of fast track land reform in Zimbabwe: editorial introduction. *Journal of Peasant Studies*, 38(5), 907-938.

⁴⁰Goebel, A. (2015). *Gender and land reform: the Zimbabwe experience*. McGill-Queen's Press-MQUP.

⁴¹ ibid

⁴²Sobhan, R. (2017). *Agrarian reform and social transformation: preconditions and development*. Zed Books

landlessness still poses a great challenge in Zimbabwe, and in this case, "landlessness" refers to land-poor households that do not have access to enough land to meet their basic needs. Landlessness in rural regions of Zimbabwe has persisted for a long time after land reforms were implemented following independence, indicating both the inadequacy of the reforms and the way in which the reforms were implemented, which did not reduce land demand. There is also a correlation between the persistence of poverty in Zimbabwe's rural areas and the rural population's growing land-hunger as time goes on.

Demographic trends can be seen in the failure of land reform to avail adequate land to the expanding population. Pressure on land limits its capacity, which results to a rise in the number of agricultural workers who are underemployed. The problem of underemployment evolves when available labor force cannot be integrated into a full time job in the agricultural sector. As a result, real wages in the rural economy have stagnated due to the high levels of underemployment and landlessness. To Moyo⁴³, land is essential in Africa, for the majority of households to survive without alternative productive industries and infrastructures for service-sector job opportunities.

Sobhan⁴⁴ also points out that during the green revolution, new high yielding seed varieties were widely recognized as an essential development ingredient. It stoked the fires of optimism about increased agricultural labor absorption due to the spread of new technology. It was hoped that this would put a stop to the decline in real wages, as well as the rise in unemployment and rural poverty that had been occurring. The green revolution has increased agricultural production at high rates, but the poor people in the rural areas have not enjoyed these benefits. Technology has only marginally

⁴³ ibid

⁴⁴ ibid

slowed the growth of rural poverty in Asia, for example. It is argued that productivity gains alone will not suffice in the face of severe inequity in land ownership.

Because new technology has had only a limited influence on rural poverty alleviation and the non-agricultural sector has an insufficient labor absorption capacity, poverty and landlessness are likely to persist in emerging nations. Since then, several policies and resource pledges have been made with the goal of helping the impoverished. Programs like "food for work" and other nutritional development initiatives, as well as skill-building initiatives and direct service delivery initiatives, were implemented in Zimbabwe in the early 1990s in an effort to help the country's rural poorest residents. Integrated rural development programs can include such initiatives, and aid donors typically fund them. Mashonaland East's survey results, on the other hand, revealed that most of these programs had been subverted by the rural elite and subsequently taken over. There aren't many programs in rural development portfolios that serve only the poor. Poverty is still a problem, and the underlying structural causes of it, which have been at the center of the agrarian reform discussion, are as vexing as they ever were.

Due to a lack of alternative job opportunities in rural regions and market factors, rural communities have seen resources drained and rural industries stagnated. According to Mkodzongi and Spiegel⁴⁵, Africa's low productivity and growth are due to the continent's agrarian technology lag and ineffective land and agrarian policies, both of which result from agricultural commodity trade's lowering terms of trade and monopoly capital's extractive role. Mkodzongi and Spiegel⁴⁶ go on to say that this implies

⁴⁵Mkodzongi, G., & Spiegel, S. (2019). Artisanal gold mining and farming: livelihood linkages and labour dynamics after land reforms in Zimbabwe. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 55(10), 2145-2161.

⁴⁶ *ibid*

that Africa's coming agrarian crisis is caused by poor economic and land-use policies, as well as a lack of access to land and poor external integration.

Agrarian changes that will enhance growth in agricultural sector and reduce poverty levels in the rural areas are highlighted above. As a result of agrarian reform, more people will have equal access to land and, in turn, to markets and other public assets. In other words, agrarian reform is justified by its ability to ensure all the people have access to productive resources and eradication of inequality among the population.

Land reform is also often advocated in Zimbabwe's literature. Settler colonial rule resulted in the continued segregation of whites from indigenous people, as well as the adoption of agricultural policies that disadvantaged indigenous people. Land was a major source of contention during the liberation war. To no one's surprise, the majority of analysts on Zimbabwe's socio-economic and political changes view changes in land related issues as a requirement for assessing government effectiveness and assessing success or failure.

There should be three main goals in land reform: first, political stability must be achieved. All Zimbabweans will have better access to land when it is redistributed fairly. Second, sustainable rural lives and an increase in rural incomes, economic growth, and development are all important considerations. The third goal of land reform is the establishment of a peaceful and non-racial society through social integration. If governments and landowners do not bridge the divide and cooperate closely together, it will be difficult to achieve the latter goal.

1.5.2.2 Policy and legal frameworks on land reforms and its implications in Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe's LRP legislation are set down in the Land Commission Act (Chapter 20:29). Regarding land tenure, the chapter assures recipients that their occupancy is guaranteed and cannot be revoked

on the spur of the moment due to the indiscretion of youths, political leaders, traditional leaders, or high-ranking government officials, and the government grants a 99-year lease on the land. This allows for much-needed agriculture investments, better land use, and, as a result, increased productivity.

In terms of land audits and underutilized land, the concerns of multi-farm ownership, idle land, and underutilization of land should be detected through the process of land auditing. If landowners do not restrain their speculative inclinations, idle property symbolizes dead capital and fosters them. Because of this, agricultural output is not as efficient as it might be. This is the job of the Zimbabwe Land Commission.

The Command Agriculture is part of the LRP's legal framework. With command agriculture, the focus will be on making maximum use of allotted land while also increasing investment and productivity. In a successful public-private cooperation, anchor corporations play a key role. These firms offer access to money and markets, as well as the exchange of best practices, agricultural experience, and the transfer of that expertise. Furthermore, the selected anchor firms play crucial roles in facilitating small-scale farmers' access to financing as well as coordinating marketing efforts, including exports.

Many pieces of legislation in Zimbabwe affect customary land tenure in a roundabout way. To ensure that land tenure systems are more stable and that development projects do not worsen local conditions, communities may look to these laws. These rules apply to everyone, regardless of whether they are natural or legal, private or public. As a result, investors must adhere to the correct legal procedure for addressing any issues, difficulties, or disagreements that arise throughout the course of a business's growth. The “Rural District Councils Act, the Traditional Leaders Act, the Mines and Minerals Act, and the Environmental Management Act” are a few examples of these regulations. This section will focus on the many laws that affect customary land tenure. It is also addressed the

problems that communities are likely to face in guaranteeing the execution of statutory and constitutional goals. Legislation like this is necessary for the establishment of an acceptable customary land tenure system in Zimbabwe.⁴⁷

As far as safeguarding Zimbabwe's customary land tenure security is concerned, the Rural District Councils Act is a key piece of legislation. Rural District Councils (RDCs) were given the task of defining their various tasks, as well as any additional concerns that could arise as a result of or be incidental to their fulfilling the Act's stated goal. The Communal Land Act in Zimbabwe mandates that RDCs manage customary land and resources within their bounds, and this is a requirement under Zimbabwean law. Rural District Councils (RDCs) in Zimbabwe are in charge of running the country's rural areas on a daily basis and planning the country's future growth. Due to their near closeness to the communities, the RDCs have been tasked with this responsibility. RDCs have a great deal of control over who, how, and to what extent persons who live on common land are managed, according to the law. According to experts, the government's decision to give RDCs administrative authority over community land is a leeway to ensure that it has control over land and natural resources. Constitutional Section 264, which allows states to delegate jurisdiction from the federal government, sometimes serves as a counterargument. In this way, RDCs are well-suited to represent local communities' interests and respond rapidly to issues that occur within them.⁴⁸

Development activities, by their very nature, have an effect on the natural environment. Section 73 of the Constitution is implemented by the EMA, which controls all environmental operations in the country. These guidelines are meant to direct other activities which affect the environment positively

⁴⁷Pasura, D. (2010, September). A gendered analysis of land reforms in Zimbabwe. In *Women's Studies International Forum* (Vol. 33, No. 5, pp. 443-454). Pergamon.

⁴⁸Gaidzanwa, R. B. (2011, April). Women and land in Zimbabwe. In *conference on Why Women Matter in Agriculture, Sweden, 4â* (Vol. 8).

or negatively. Public engagement and sustainable development are the two guiding ideas of Zimbabwe's environmental management. According to “Section 4(2)(e) of the Act, all initiatives in Zimbabwe must be socially, environmentally, and economically sustainable”. Agriculture and other economic activities have the capacity to contribute to the economic prosperity of Zimbabwe in the future. Considering whether or not a project should proceed may be difficult when considering the environmental costs to the local community.⁴⁹

Traditional leaders in Zimbabwe have played an instrumental role in control of customary land tenure since colonial times. Since the colonial era, this has been the accepted status quo. To administer customary land for the benefit of all persons, RDCs work closely with traditional leaders and proprietors. All customary property is de facto owned by the president of the republic, who has the authority to provide authorization for its use and possession under the terms of The Common Land Act. The Traditional Leaders Act has given traditional leaders a legal foundation on which to carry out their duties. Because of Zimbabwe's long and complicated history, culture, and political framework, traditional Zimbabwean leaders enjoy great respect.⁵⁰

Exploitation of mineral resources is a type of economic development project that might eventually displace rural peoples' traditional rights to land. The Mines and Minerals Act reflects mining's hegemony over community usufruct rights on customary property. The Mines and Minerals Act, enacted in 1961, is a relic of colonialism that has remained narrowly focused on the exploitation and

⁴⁹Mizero, M., Karangwa, A., Burny, P., Michel, B., & Lebailly, P. (2018). Agrarian and Land Reforms in Rwanda: Situation and Perspectives. *AGRIS on-line Papers in Economics and Informatics*, 10(665-2019-271), 71-92.

⁵⁰Ossome, L., & Naidu, S. C. (2021). Does Land Still Matter? Gender and Land Reforms in Zimbabwe. *Agrarian South: Journal of Political Economy*, 10(2), 344-370.

exploration of natural resources at the expense of other forms of economic growth. This law does not acknowledge sustainable development despite its rising popularity.⁵¹

1.5.2.3 Challenges Facing the Land Reforms in Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe's greatest difficulty in the last 23 years has been to redistribute land fairly while also overcoming significant legal and financial obstacles as a result of uneven dual land ownership inherited during colonial administration. However, despite Zimbabwe's progress, there are still many difficulties that need to be dealt with in order for it to go forward. Reforming land usage, property rights, agriculture, and administration are all aspects of land reform. In order to prevent the land problem from manifesting in a negative way, the Zimbabwean government has responded to this by addressing the land reform. It's still necessary to meet the many other Land Management framework requirements. Zimbabwe's status as the breadbasket of Southern Africa must be reclaimed by providing resources to the country's newly relocated farmers in order to increase agricultural productivity. The reform program's execution must be constantly monitored. The government set up a panel to examine into the execution of the land reform plan in early 2003.

Political Factors

The Turner⁵² view is that land redistribution is a politically charged and contentious process that includes land, a limited resource. A political process, according to Lahiff⁵³, refers to acquiring and reallocation of cramped resource which possesses a high economic and symbolic significance as well as important changes in society power relations. When it comes to land reform, strong players have

⁵¹Kariuki, S. M. (2004). Can negotiated land reforms deliver? A case of Kenya's, South Africa's and Zimbabwe's land reform policy debates. *ASC Working Paper Series*, (59).

⁵² Turner, S.. (2012). Land and agrarian reform in South Africa: A status report, 2002.

⁵³Lahiff, E. (2011). Land reform in South Africa: is it meeting the challenge?.

a tendency to seize control since it provides a strategic resource for patronage and, in some circumstances, predation. As a result, looking at the acquisition and redistribution of land via a political perspective is beneficial.

There is a large body of work on citizen-politician relationships in Africa in regard to government resource appropriation and distribution and citizen access to those resources. They can be used to understand these existing patterns of land reform, including but not limited to political identity, sources of authority in redistribution, and institutions involved in their analysis, as they avail the standards and key principles that can help in comprehending the elements that that include but are not limited to state-society politics and resource allocation.

As a result, LRP might be viewed as a political party power-maintenance measure. After the MDC opposition party came to power in Zimbabwe in 1999, the government began to treat the land question more seriously. Because the MDC political party posed a risk to Mugabe's administration, his government apportioned land to the people to help deal with it. This provides credit to Moyo⁵⁴. As Chigumira⁵⁵ points out, the LRP was motivated by politics in 2000 in order to take on the formidable challenge offered to it by the MDC in the country's legislative elections in June of that year. The fact that about 70% of Zimbabweans live in rural regions, with the remaining 30% living in urban areas, serves as more proof of this point. Since the MDC party, in Bryant's⁵⁶ opinion, was mostly made up of Trade Unions, which means it excluded rural workers even if some of them were members, the

⁵⁴Moyo, S., & Yeros, P. (2015). *Land occupations and land reform in Zimbabwe: Towards the national democratic revolution*. na.

⁵⁵ *ibid*

⁵⁶Bryant, R. and Bailey, S. (2015) *Third World Political Ecology* London: Rastledge

government sought to win support from the rural regions by responding to their needs and grievances and land was among the issues that needed to be addressed.

Economic Factors

Land, according to Adam Smith, is the foundation of any country's economy. The key to the so-called production means resides in this object⁵⁷. LRP can be used to help resuscitate a country's economy if its current one is in dire straits. According to Ngwenya⁵⁸, the Zimbabwean economy began to deteriorate shortly after Zimbabwe achieved its independence in 1980, which fueled support for the LRP party. ESAP adoption and Zimbabwe's involvement in DRC wars, according to Sachikonye⁵⁹, were key turning points in the Zimbabwean economy in the 1990s, as they led to a high unemployment rate and inflation, fueling the LRP as a solution to recover Zimbabwe's economy. Economically, LRP may therefore be required to restore a country's flagging economy.

Social Factors

According to Aristotle and Plato, land is an important commodity or natural resource which solely belongs to the citizens of a particular state and therefore it's illegal for a foreigner to grab such land. According to Logan⁶⁰, during the colonial period, land was grabbed from the black Zimbabweans and allocated unequally with white settlers acquiring vast land compared the natives. Zimbabwe ratified

⁵⁷ *ibid*

⁵⁸Ngwenya, T. A. (2014). Wildlife based Land Reform and its Impact on Household Food Security-A Case from Zimbabwe. *Journal of Rural Development*, 33(4), 417-436.

⁵⁹Sachikonye, L. M. (2013, April). Land reform for poverty reduction? Social exclusion and farm workers in Zimbabwe. In *IDMP conference on Staying Poor: Chronic Poverty and Development Policy, April. Manchester*.

⁶⁰Logan, B. I., (2012). Towards a reorientation in land reform: From a market to locality-driven approach in South Africa's land restitution programme. *Progress in Development Studies*, 12(2-3), 173-191.

the LHA in 1979, with the goal of redressing socioeconomic inequities, including those relating to land. This demonstrates that there are significant societal inequities.

1.5.3 Gaps in the literature review

In Zimbabwe, the availability of land is critical to the country's socioeconomic progress. It can be used to make amends for past wrongdoing and reduce poverty among those who benefit from it. Despite having access to land, many Zimbabweans who benefited from land reform are nevertheless impoverished or even worse off than they were before. The agricultural activity on land transferred via the land reform initiative has failed at an alarming pace, endangering food security. As a result, food insecurity remains a severe problem in Zimbabwe. Land reform must result into enhanced agricultural production, which will ultimately result into creation of job opportunities, increase growth and development, reduce poverty margins among others. However, no research has looked at how land reforms affect rural communities like Chief Svosve in Mashonaland East, which is why this one is necessary. This study is one of several looking at the impact of land reforms on rural communities like Chief Svosve in Zimbabwe.

1.6 Research Working Hypothesis

To conduct this research the following null and alternative working hypothesis was formulated:

- Null hypothesis H_0 : Land reform has a negative effect on sustainable development of rural communities in Zimbabwe: the case of Chief Svosve area in Mashonaland East Province in Zimbabwe.
- Alternative Hypothesis H_a : Land reform positively affects sustainable development of rural communities in Zimbabwe: the case of Chief Svosve area in Mashonaland East Province in Zimbabwe.

The focus of this research is the on the alternative hypothesis, hence it is the working hypothesis.

The research seeks to explore the difference that land reform is making in Chief Svosve area by focusing on the three specific objectives. In this respect, the results of the research will inform whether to reject or to accept the research working hypothesis.

1.7 Justification of the Study

1.7.1 Policy Justification

Because it fills in the gaps left by other academics, the study will have a positive impact on Zimbabwe's political, economic, and social growth. The LRP is a foundation for this research. In addition to the socioeconomic imbalances caused by the LRP, gender imbalances connected to LRP, and prejudice in land redistribution, the research aims to fill these gaps so that the LRP may have a beneficial influence on Zimbabwe's political and economic growth. The report also identifies previously unrecognized obstacles to long-term resource development in Zimbabwe.

1.7.2 Academic Justification

Future academics and researchers who want to know more about how land reform affects rural populations in Zimbabwe may find this study extremely useful. Future researchers will benefit from this research by better understanding the socio-economic effects of land reform on the culture of the Chief Svosve people in Mashonaland East Zimbabwe, the policy and legal frameworks for land reforms and their implications for the Chief Svosve people in Mashonaland East Zimbabwe, and the major challenges facing land reforms in Zimbabwe's Chief Svosve community. This study was conducted by the University of Zimbabwe.

1.8 Theoretical Framework

This study will be based on Neo-classical property rights paradigm and nationalization of land and land administration theory

1.8.1 Neo-classical property rights paradigm

Dualism in land tenure means that certain areas are held as public property while others are governed by indigenous tenure systems. It's possible, according to Okoth-Ogendo⁶¹, that this is more extensive in former British colonies in SA, where indigenous tenure systems separate private property rights from public land. Most farmers in Sub-Saharan Africa, including Zimbabwe, use an indigenous land tenure system, according to Bruce et al.⁶² The suitability of these systems have been debated by various scholars and development experts since the third phase of LRP began in 2000. Because traditional African land tenure systems are not effective in assigning resources and don't meet modern market economies' standards for fairness, the property rights paradigm based on neoclassical theory has been utilized since colonialism.

Chileshe⁶³ claims that in certain situations colonial officials believed that individualizing tenure was the solution to indigenous tenure's social and political-economic problems. Chile As an example, she says that in Kenya, land registration programs sought to build a stable African middle class, strengthen security of tenure, and minimize litigation costs related to land. Swynnerton's⁶⁴ other

⁶¹Okoth-Ogendo, H. W. O. (2013). Agrarian reform in sub-Saharan Africa: an assessment of state responses to the African agrarian crisis and their implications for agricultural development. *Land in African agrarian systems*, 248-273.

⁶²Bruce, W. J., Migot-Adholla, E. S. & Atherton, J. (2014). *Searching for land tenure security in Africa*. Dubuque, Iowa: Kendal/Hunt Publishing Company

⁶³Chileshe, A.R (2015) *land tenure and rural livelihoods in Zambia. Case studies of Kamera and St Joseph*. Cape town, University of Western Cape.

⁶⁴Swynnerton, R. J. M. (2014). *A plan to intensify the Development of African Agriculture in Kenya*. Nairobi: Government Printer

assets include the promotion of agricultural investment, the use of land title as collateral for loans, the emergence of a land market, and control over economic land. The government of Zimbabwe viewed all of these expectations as vital steps toward rebuilding the economy via LRP.

Most recent critique is based on neo-classical land tenure theory of African tenure systems. The proponents of this idea assert that costs and benefits are not absorbed in traditional African tenure systems⁶⁵. As a result, the decision-making unit does not bear the costs and benefits of individual action. As a result, Barrows and Roth argue that societal and private costs and gains aren't equivalent. Individuals, it is said, lack the motivation to undertake private expenses that create shared societal gains. Landowners, according to the argument, act selfishly to further their own interests at the expense of others. For example, “in Zimbabwe, farmers in Umguza and Shagani cultivate small plots of land for their families rather than engaging in commercial farming for the benefit of the entire country, as was the case with former white settlers who saw the development of Zimbabwe's politico-economic and rise in GDP”. As a result of the selfishness of a few, Zimbabwe's political-economic system is now failing to progress, making the idea relevant.

Property rights regimes, in Chileshe's⁶⁶ view, should allow people to freely participate into land contracts as part of their economic independence. A demand-and-supply impact reduces investment if a land tenure system does not enable land transfer or sales through the market, according to research. For example, in South Rhodesia (Zimbabwe), land was cleared through market sale and investment was strong during the Smith government; but, in 2000, it was given away out of market sales, resulting in economic contractions and proving the thesis as a result. The landowner's collateral

⁶⁵Barrows, R. & Roth, M. (2014). Land tenure and investment in African agriculture: Theory and evidence. *Journal of Modern African Studies*. 28 (2): 265-297

⁶⁶ ibid

value is reduced as a result of the ban on land sales. Therefore, Feder⁶⁷ argues that usual tenure would lead to lesser investment than personalized tenure because of the lower expected return on investment. For example, Chileshe claims that free land contracts and security of tenure beneath private property regimes are assumed to reduce transfer costs and promote land market when land is in short supply, which is in keeping with this theory. A free land market will allow those with the best use of land to outbid those with less efficient usage.

1.8.2 Land Administration Theory

The implementation of land administration systems, according to Van der Molen's⁶⁸ "land administration theory," necessitates large investments. Legal and public administration decisions have a significant impact on the expenses of adjudication and border survey. As is typical in many government decision-making processes, the focus is on policy formulation rather than policy execution, and operational ramifications receive less consideration. Land administration systems can be hampered and delayed by the pursuit of state-guaranteed titles and precise boundary surveys, as is the case in many nations. As a result, government policymakers in charge of land issues should understand the benefits of beginning with simple systems before engaging with more complicated ones. Surveyors should improve their understanding of the relationship between social progress and technological adequacy. Rather than start 'sophisticated' and fail, Molen says, it's preferable to start 'fast and filthy' and succeed over the years.

There's little question that the current study was influenced by land rights discourse's dominant beliefs and views. Eminent domain, public trust, and police power are a few examples. Eminent domain and

⁶⁷Feder G (2015): "The relationship between Farm size and Farm Productivity", *Journal of Development Economics* 18: 297-313.

⁶⁸ Land Administration Theory: Thinking in Terms of Migration of Systems" available at http://www.fig.net/pub/fig_2002/Ts7-5/TS7_5_vandermolen.pdf (accessed on November 13, 2011)

police powers are legal precedents to the radical tile under public trust theory because they are legal antecedents of the radical tile.

1.9 Research Methodology

1.9.1 Research design

A research design, according to Kothari⁶⁹, is a strategy for answering research questions. Descriptive study design was used by the investigator. It's common for descriptive research designs to be well-structured and focused on gauging certain aspects of a study problem. Mugenda & Mugenda⁷⁰ argued that descriptive statistics provide for meaningful explanations of measurements with only a little amount of statistical data. Descriptive studies try to give a detailed account of people, events, and things in a concise manner Data is the focus instead of theory in descriptive design. To increase the response rate, researchers made it simple for participants to receive surveys at their homes or places of employment.

1.9.2 Target population of the study

Study universes are made up of a population of persons and organizations. In research, the term "target population" refers to the whole population, activities, or subject matter that the researcher is interested in probing⁷¹. The population is the basis from which the study's sample size was drawn.

The study's target group was 1480 families living in the Chief Svosve Community.

Table 1.1: Target Group, Sample and Sampling Design

⁶⁹Kothari T. (2008); Research Methodology Methods and Techniques 2nd Edition New Age Willay Easter.

⁷⁰ Mugenda ,O.M &Mugenda, A.G. (2008). Research Methods: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches .Nairobi: ACTS press.

⁷¹ ibid

| S/NO | Target Groups | General Population | Sample | Sampling Design |
|------|------------------------------|--------------------|--------|------------------------|
| 1 | House holds | 1200 | 55 | Simple random sampling |
| 2 | Women and Youth in community | 4000 | 15 | Simple Random Sampling |
| 3. | Administrators | 20 | 20 | Quarter sampling |
| 4. | Ministry of land officials | 200 | 20 | Purposive sampling |
| 5. | Total | 5,420 | 100 | |

Source: Researcher, 2021

Study Sample

1.9.3 Sampling technique

Sample techniques involve two approaches which include; probabilistic and non-probabilistic sampling approaches. It was decided on the sample size using stratified sampling, a probabilistic sampling strategy that separates the target population into meaningful, non-overlying subcategories, known as strata. The standard error was reduced by using stratification.

1.9.4 Sample Size

A sample is a subset of the entire population that was studied⁷². Any statement made about the population should be true about the sample. Sampling is done in order to reduce money, speed up the data gathering process, improve the accuracy of the findings, and make the general population more

⁷²Orodho, J. (2012). Techniques of writing research proposals and reports. Nairobi . Reata printers.

accessible⁷³. According to Mugenda and Mugenda⁷⁴, 10-30% of the population is sufficient, thus the researcher took a random sample of 10% of the homes in each stratum to test their hypothesis. A total of 148 people took part in the research.

1.9.5 Research instrument

Instrument design for data gathering is the responsibility of a researcher. Instrumentation, according to Orodho⁷⁵, is the study of the equipment used to gather data from respondents. Data was gathered through the use of a questionnaire. Surveys using semi-structured questions employed open-ended questions and exploratory problems to elicit comprehensive opinions and sentiments from participants. As long as the alternatives stay within the scope of what the interviewer wishes to discuss, the questionnaire allowed respondents to explore various thoughts and feelings. Further, “key informant interviews with the District Administrator and District Lands Officer were conducted at the district level. Local important informants included the village headwoman, village headman, three members of the Committee of Seven, and one agricultural worker”.

1.9.6 Data Collection Procedures

RCZ permission and a letter of reference from the Ministry of Lands and Rural Resettlement were required before the researcher visited the field. To alert community leaders in Chief Svosve (Sabhuku's), the researcher also educated them about the data collecting. To administer the device, a researcher had to go to each of the participants' homes. To collect data, the researcher used

⁷³Khalid, K., Abdullah, H. H., & Kumar M, D. (2012). Get along with quantitative research process. *International Journal of Research in Management*.

⁷⁴ ibid

⁷⁵Orodho, A. J. (2012). Techniques of Writing Research proposals in Education and Social Sciences (: Maseno. Kenya: Kanezja Publishers.

questionnaires and in-person interviews. As soon as the questionnaires were completed, they were collected.

1.9.7 Validity and Reliability

Research instruments reliability and validity were established by conducting a pilot study. The pilot study involved 5 participants that were not involved in the main data collections process.

(i) Validity

The level of how a concept is represented by empirical measure accurately of a concept is validity. Pilot study carried out on 5 respondents to determine research instruments validity. Scholar also consulted with supervisor and experts in radicalization.

(ii) Reliability

As per Jopperesults consistency over time is reliability and accurately representing total populace under review is also called reliability and research instrument is considered reliable if similar methodology can be used to reproduce review results. Cronbach Alpha of the data collected in study determined questionnaire reliability. Internal consistency of data collected in questionnaire was measured by Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha "(α) 0.9 show excellent $0.7 \leq \alpha < 0.9$ good $0.6 \leq \alpha < 0.7$ acceptable excellent $0.5 \leq \alpha < 0.6$ poor excellent and $\alpha < 0.5$ unacceptable excellent internal consistency".

1.9.8 Data analysis technique

Analyzing data involves classifying, arranging, altering, and analyzing raw data in order to obtain answers to research questions. After the interview guide qualitative data had been gathered, it was analyzed for themes and patterns, and then tabulated.

1.9.9 Ethical considerations

This study strives to preserve the greatest level of ethics throughout interactions with respondents. The participants were informed of the study's goal in the questionnaire's short message for respondents section, and they were told that it is strictly academic in nature. Questionnaire completion options were provided for respondents and they may ask any questions about their involvement in this study at anytime throughout the interview or data collecting process, regardless of whether they choose to participate or not. There was no personal identification information contained in this questionnaire, since the investigator assures the participants that their answers will be kept anonymous.

What might go wrong? What could go right? The subject was reassured by the researcher that providing the information will do them no damage at all. They were also made aware that participation was not result in any immediate rewards such as monetary compensation, scholarships, or the like. The researcher first got the go-ahead from the Research Council of Zimbabwe before beginning the data gathering procedure (RCZ).

1.10 Chapter Outline

Chapter one: Provided background information and introduces the topic. Also included were research study, a problem description, rationale, theoretical underpinnings, and study methodology. Chapter two: shaded light upon the key the socio-economic implications of land reform on the culture of the people of Chief Svosve people in Mashonaland East of Zimbabwe. Chapter three: examined the implications of the policy and legal frameworks on land reforms on the people of Chief Svosve area in Mashonaland East of Zimbabwe. Chapter four: Discussed some of the key challenges facing the land reforms among the Chief Svosve community in Mashonaland East in Zimbabwe. Chapter five: Gave findings, conclusion and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPLICATIONS OF LAND REFORM ON THE CULTURE OF THE PEOPLE OF CHIEF SVOSVE PEOPLE IN MASHONALAND EAST OF ZIMBABWE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter flows from objective one of the study; socio-economic implications of land reform on the culture of the people of Chief Svosve people in Mashonaland east of Zimbabwe. First, the chapter will look at the response rate and provide a quick demographic breakdown of the respondents to arrive at this conclusion. In this respect, the research results are compared to those found in chapter one of the book. Finally, there is a section that summarizes everything that has been discussed so far.

2.2 Response Rate

There were 148 people who were asked to participate in the research. One hundred and twenty of these individuals took part in the study by completing the questionnaires satisfactorily. This survey had an overall response rate of 81.1%. According to Jack Fincham, a response rate of 80% is deemed adequate. This represents more than half of the total sample size, thus the accuracy of the results is unaffected.

Table 2.1: Response Rate

| Questionnaires Issued | Questionnaires returned | Response Rate |
|------------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------|
| 148 | 120 | 81.1% |

Source: Field Data, 2021

2.3 Demographic Characteristics

2.3.1 Gender of Respondents

A study's gender component is important since the issue under examination affects various groups in different ways. Figure 2.1 below shows the findings, which indicate that 56% of the participants were female and 44% were male. Since neither gender accounted for more than two-thirds of the study's participants, it's safe to say that both genders were fairly represented.

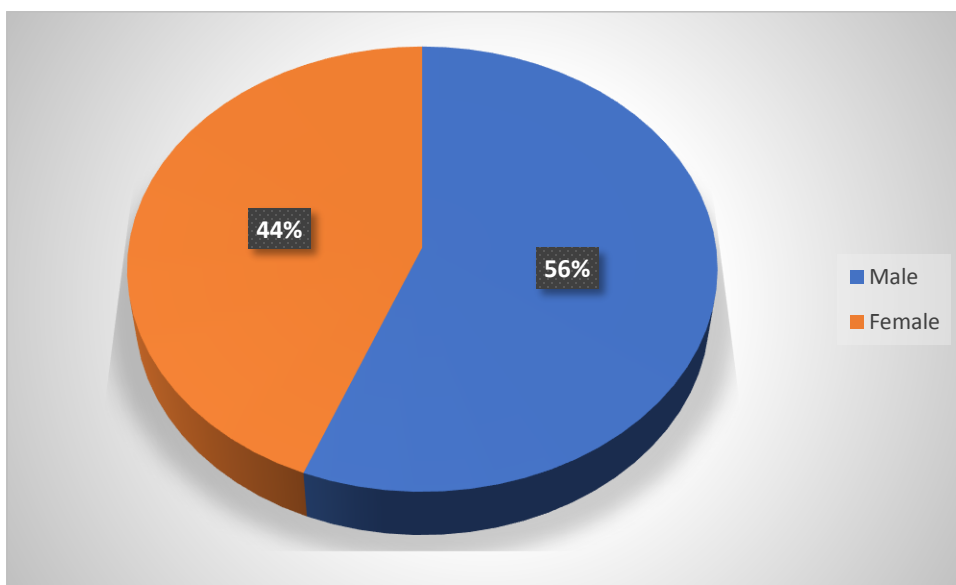


Figure 2.1: Gender of Respondents

Source: Field Data, 2021

2.3.2 Age of Respondents

Age requirement was deemed appropriate in this study since it informed personal experiences attributed with maturity. The findings obtained show that, majority of the participants were aged between 32-38 years as indicated by 42%, 18% indicated 35-39 years, 16% indicated 45 years and above, 15% indicated between 25 to 31 years while 9% indicated between 18 to 24 years.

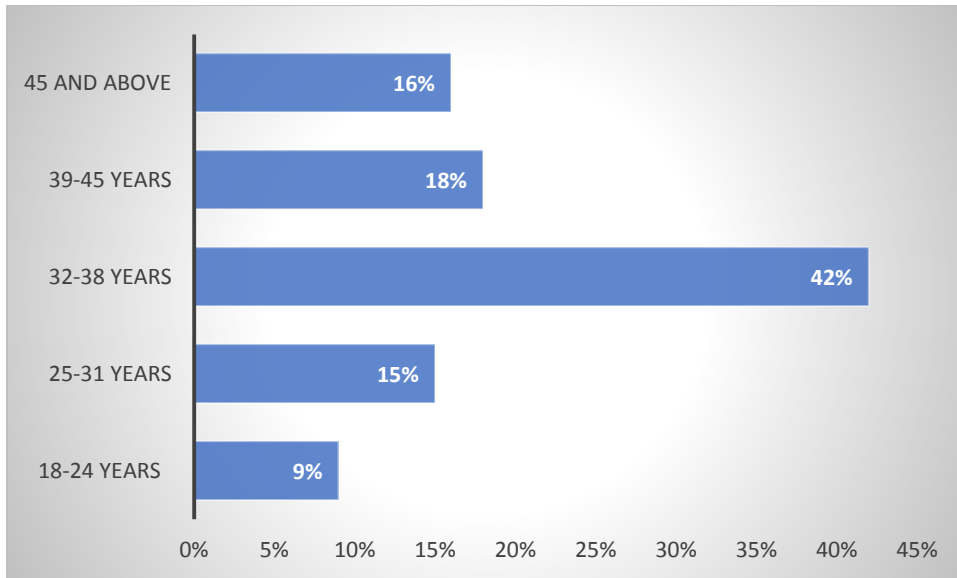


Figure 2.2: Age of Respondents

Source: Field Data, 2021

2.3.3 Number of Years at the Chief Svosve area

It was imperative to establish the number of years the respondents have lived at the Chief Svosve area in order to establish their experiences with regards to “the implications of land reform on sustainable development of rural communities in Zimbabwe: the case of Chief Svosve area in Mashonaland East Province”. Based on the findings in Figure 2.3 most of the participants (37%) indicated that they have lived at Chief Svosve area for 12 years and above, 28% indicated 8-12 years, 17% indicated 4-7 years, 13% indicated 1-3 years while 5% indicated less than 1 year.

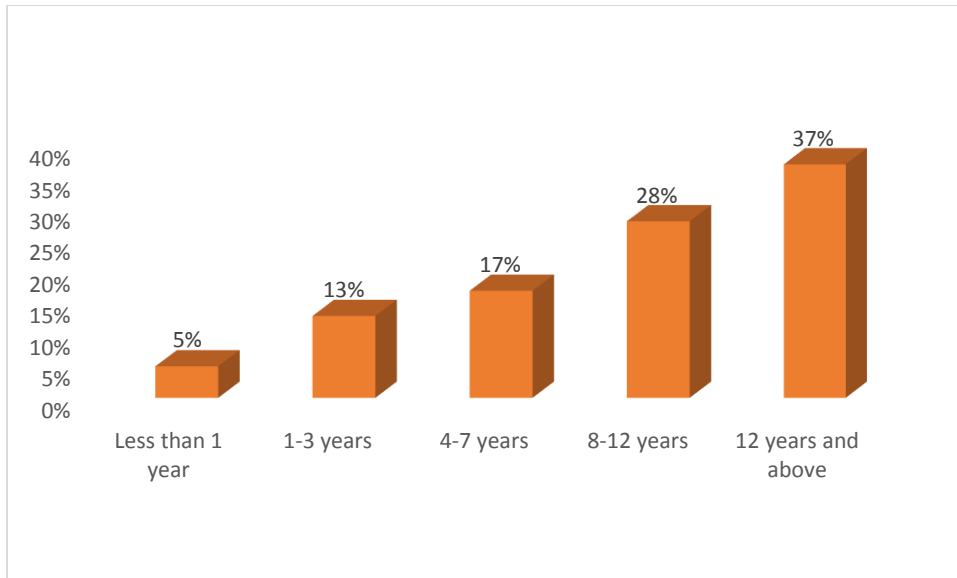


Figure 2.3: Number of Years at the Chief Svosve area

Source: Field Data, 2021

2.3.4 Level of Education of Respondents

When it came to this research, education mattered since it shaped people's perceptions and thinking abilities. 28.4% had attained primary school education, while the majority, 37.6% had attained secondary school education. 20.8% had college education while the least 13.2% had university education as shown in figure 2.4

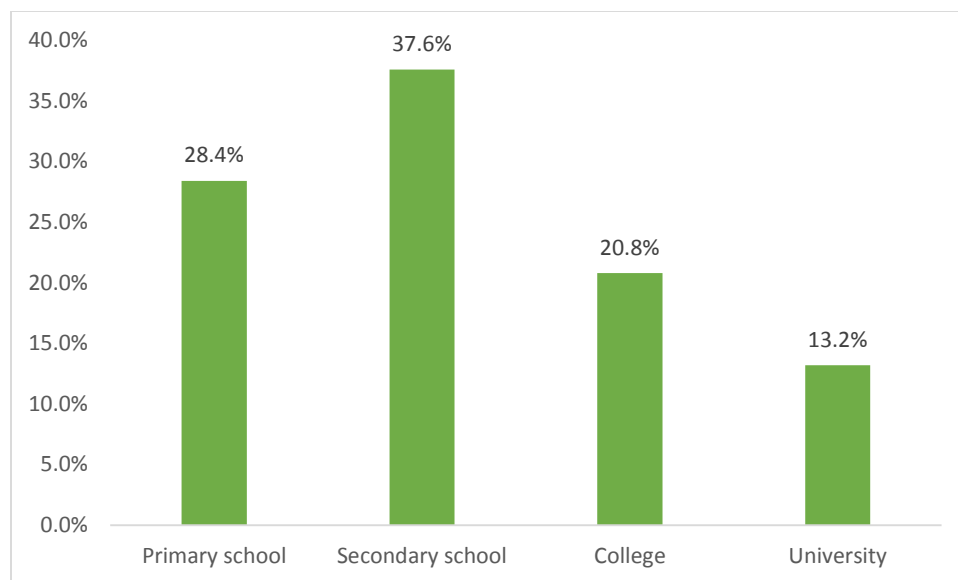


Figure 2.4: Level of Education of Respondents

Source: Field Data, 2021

2.4. Economic basis of Land Reform

There are more than six million people residing in Zimbabwe's peripheral rural areas, which are characterized by barren soils and irregular rainfall patterns, a lack of control over water rights as well as access to natural resources. Due to unequal access to these resources, a small group of white big farmers now controls the majority of Zimbabwe's economy, which is still heavily based on agriculture. The limited agro-industrial complex that underpins the country's urban political economy is controlled by white agricultural interests and transnational capital, as are important industries like tourism, forestry, and commodity exports. Zimbabwe's income distribution is skewed significantly as a result of these persistent inequalities, which date back to colonial times. Although the liberation struggle ended more than 50 years ago, the land grab has continued despite these efforts, thanks to the extra-market and oppressive governing mechanisms that have been in place for decades.⁷⁶

⁷⁶Mutanda, D. (2013). The politicisation, dynamics and violence during Zimbabwe's land reform programme. *Journal of Aggression, Conflict and Peace Research*.

Currently, over 60% of Zimbabweans living in rural areas cannot afford basic health and educational services due to the country's economic structure undermining development in rural earnings and expanding local Zimbabwean markets. Consequently, an inefficient economic structure constrains the country's human and canny capital, underutilizing its people and degrading their standard of living.⁷⁷

Increase in poverty levels, lack of unemployment, and income discrepancy in Zimbabwe, despite the country's enhancement in agricultural production and tourism, are the key factors fueling today's land debate, despite the country's underutilization of significant portions of its land and natural resources. Historical concerns over land alienation are important, but are sometimes overshadowed by the more broad need for land redistribution for productive purposes by a wide range of indigenous land users, both small and big. Indigenous elites' land demands are prominent in the official media, despite massive land bidding processes at the grassroots level.⁷⁸

Indigenous elites' desire for vast farms, such as those of certain white landowners whose size does not allow for effective land use, is not a significant element in the formation of land policy due to doubts about the economic logic of this approach. Land reform policy's primary goal is to create an agricultural and land-use system that is more efficient and reasonable. Rational land policy safeguards minority elite groups' interests' when using resources in an ecologically friendly manner. However, this does not rule out land redistribution for farms of various sizes, including conceptually reformed ideas of medium-scale farms with a variety of effective land uses.⁷⁹

⁷⁷Chimhowu, A., & Woodhouse, P. (2008). Communal tenure and rural poverty: land transactions in Svosve Communal Area, Zimbabwe. *Development and Change*, 39(2), 285-308.

⁷⁸ ibid

⁷⁹Chimhowu, A., & Woodhouse, P. (2010). Forbidden but not suppressed: a 'vernacular' land market in Svosve Communal Lands, Zimbabwe. *Africa*, 80(1), 14-35.

As a result, the most pressing challenge facing Zimbabwe's land reform program is how to strike the right balance between controlling property and allowing new small and medium-sized landowner's access. Among these landowners are: large-scale white or black individual farmers, big parastatal land holdings, major multinational business landholders, large domestic corporations that specialize primarily in non-agricultural industries, and significant private natural resource conservancies. It's a difficulty to "transfer peacefully" in this situation "those who have been reluctant or unable to mobilize appropriate financial and labor resources for better utilization of land and natural resources under their control, land."⁸⁰

Most landowners in Zimbabwe do not have a social foundation in Zimbabwe's land tenure value system and are not involved in the country's mainstream parties, which is a major concern. Since many of Zimbabwe's large landowners are non-Zimbabwean nationals or physically absent, the fundamental interests in Zimbabwe's land question have become increasingly globalized. This is especially true in the growing eco-tourism industry, where stock holding land tenure arrangements are being increasingly used to control land. Since Independence, a negotiated transfer of land has been elusive. Government-led coercive land allocation and redistribution reflects in part the inability of all involved parties to resolve Zimbabwe's land issue.⁸¹

These aims are to examine Zimbabwe's evolving land policy from a political economics angle. An empirical review of the results of the government's attempts to identify land to be acquired compulsorily helps us gauge the government's consistency in handling the land question. Thus, by evaluating its quality, the level of multiple farm ownership, the usage of the land concerned, social

⁸⁰ *ibid*

⁸¹ Sibanda, F., & Maposa, R. S. (2014). Beyond the Third Chimurenga?: Theological Reflections on the Land Reform Programme in Zimbabwe, 2000-2010. *Journal of Pan African Studies*, 6(8).

and economic aspects of the identified farms, the article attempts to determine if purchasing this land will have any socio-economic consequences.

2.5 Perceived economic impact of land transfer

An first political and economic strategy focuses on outlining a series of specific agricultural, economic, and political processes that are projected to occur as a result of land transfer. Cropped area, volumes, and values have been explored as a commodities output loss strategy (using weak and unclear quantitative methodologies). Finally, a macroeconomic framework based on broad quantitative estimations is proposed, once again leveraging shaky data sources. Most analyses are static and mostly focused on the psychological impacts on markets or investors that can be tempered with property relations. Few people consider the economic, social, and political advantages that new farmers who obtain access to land may realize, regardless of whether they use it for their personal use. As a result, the discussion has mainly focused on the costs and not the benefits. Rising unemployment, shrinking GDP, and deteriorating race relations and security are among the expected net losses, while insecurity, white skills emigration, and delayed progress toward empowering local farmers are among the predicted socio-political outcomes. “Tobacco, cotton, horticulture, sugar, and maize” are expected to suffer the most, whereas losses in field crops like wheat and soybeans are hardly mentioned. In truth, the land acquisition is not expected to have a significant impact on food output or increase food imports and, as a result, food aid. The main concern is that exports will suffer. Tobacco production is likely to fall by half as a result of the discovery of 700 tobacco farmer's plots, according to reports. Because this one crop provides for 40% of Zimbabwe's overall exports, land acquisition losses from tobacco growing are expected to result in a 20% decline in foreign exchange by 1999. The major reasons for predicted losses in the tobacco industry ranged from the care of

seedlings to a variety of agronomic, marketing strategies, and existence of adequate infrastructure which are sufficient to manage the crop. These aren't skills that small farmers are supposed to have.⁸²

It is predicted that the value of cotton, maize, and horticultural production will all fall by half by 1999. (CFU). The loss of maize and cotton, on the other hand, is very contentious because small farmers currently account for 65% of national production. Furthermore, horticulture requires a modest amount of land, so producers have easy access to it. There are conflicting reports as to whether or not new sugar production investments are going to be lost.

Although some opponents believe that land transfers would have an adverse impact on the environment because of the rise of a practice known as "subsistence land husbandry," "Almost no one believes that land transfers will harm wildlife resources or tourism markets. To a certain extent, it appears that this is because the CAMIR (Campfire") program has been rather successful in managing natural resources of this type. Critics tend not to focus on livestock resource losses since they can be readily shifted within LSCF sector farms and replicated by indigenous commercial and small-scale farmers with relative ease."⁸³

In general, the estimated quantitative and macro-economic losses from land transfers are based on inadequate sources and information characteristics utilized by diverse parties to exaggerate losses. This is true. They predict a 50% GDP decline in Zimbabwe's economy, as well as a 15% decline in formal sector employment due to the loss of agricultural and reduction of job opportunities. This, combined with reduced exports, would result into contemporary account deficits, with the result that import cover could be as low as one month. Uncertainty among investors about property rights and a reduction on collateral value of land are projected to weaken the investment climate as a whole. All

⁸² ibid

⁸³ ibid

of this will raise the budgetary load and deficit on the GoZ as a result of farm acquisitions, resettlement, and extension services.⁸⁴

The foregoing studies have a major flaw: they fail to distinguish between the causes and consequences of potential difficulties arising from land acquisition. It's rare to think about the many consequences of changing rainfall, technology, and irrigation on crop productivity, for example. Zimbabwe's agricultural industry is used to dealing with droughts and needs to adjust to them on a frequent basis. The LSCF has done the best job of responding to changes in weather and land use because of its size.

2.6 Actual Implications of Land Reforms

The policy debate on land acquisition's economic implications has been skewed due to a misunderstanding of the scope of the project. According to GoZ policy, farms that had "too large" agro-ecological potential and were located in one of the country's five natural regions would be purchased and turned over to the government. According to land policy experts, the financial elements are highly dependent on the size of farms in relation to land use, numerous farms and employee absenteeism. Other than a broad idea flying among GoZ circles that a farm's viability in Natural Regions I and II requires at least 1500 hectares of land, there is no specific policy definition of farm size.⁸⁵

2.6.1 Farm Sizes and Production Potential

Based on an in-depth look of the connection between the number of farms in the country and the total amount of land they possess, it appears that a small number of very big farms control the majority of land ownership. The area of a farm in the LSCF is inversely proportional to its size. The LSCF sector

⁸⁴Matondi, P. B. (2012). *Zimbabwe's fast track land reform*. Zed Books Lt

⁸⁵ *ibid*

farms tend to be more numerous among the smaller farms (in terms of land area), whereas a few farms occupy particularly huge land areas.⁸⁶

There are 9 farms that account for up to 926 826 ha or 23% of the recognized land, which is less than 0.6% of the farms with a size range of 30 000 to 350 000 ha. And 1.3 million hectares are accounted for by only 29 farms (2 percent of the total amount indicated) (33 percent of the total). In contrast, only 808 334 hectares, or 20% of the total detected area, was occupied by 990 farms, or 67% of the reported farms. These farms ranged in size from 1 to 1 499 hectares. There were 227 farms with an area under 500 hectares, or 15% of the total; these 227 farms accounted for just 68.559 ha of the total.

When we looked at our farm size classifications, it's clear that two groups of farm size accounted for a considerable amount of the identified land. 15 to 299 hectare farms made up 18% of all farms and accounted for 14% of the total area, while farms with 5 000 to 14 999 hectares accounted for 81% of the total area and were represented by 121 farms (25 percent). However, just 222 farms totaling over 3000 hectares in size, with some exceeding 350 000 hectares in size, accounted for 2.6 million hectares (66 percent) of the total land area. As a result, just a few big farms accounted for the majority of the designated area, suggesting that the acquisition speed might be regulated in accordance with the size and area relationship of the farms and that designating numerous small farms may be less cost efficient.

This pattern of land ownership concentration by farm size confirms that large farms underutilize land the most, and acquiring them will have little impact on LSCF output levels. On average, we know that only 30% of arable land (700 000 hectares) is planted each year, most of which is located in natural areas I to III. It is reasonable to assume that the purchase procedure will have little impact on

⁸⁶Musanga, T. (2017). Zimbabwe's land reform programme, migration and identity in Lawrence Hoba's *The Trek and Other Stories*. *African Identities*, 15(1), 3-13.

output levels because the majority of big farms are located in less cultivated natural zones. In reality, despite falling commodity prices, LSCF output rose in volume and even value terms during the 1980s, as we observed with around 3 million hectares from the LSCF.⁸⁷

2.6.2 Agro-ecological Potential or Features

Because of this, the quality of land obtained relative to scale is an important economic policy indicator of the effectiveness of land policy. Specifically, the lands' agro-ecological potential was an important determinant in identifying the future possibility of resettlement or tenant schemes and assessing the wide implications of purchase on existing farm production operations.⁸⁸

LSCF land quality and production patterns are defined by the wide pattern of natural regions in Zimbabwean agriculture, reflecting the sector's inherent technical backwardness. Irrigation and greenhouses, for example, are largely concentrated among a small number of LSCF farmers. The dams are permanent structures that cannot be moved to another farm in a different geographic or agro-ecological location. As a result, in regions IV and V, farming input value is lower compared to massive multinational and state estates in southern Zimbabwe's southeastern area. These had not been assigned any particular purpose.

There are 2.5 million hectares in agro-ecological zones IV and V, according to our data. Over 62% of the land was found to be in these zones Natural Regions III and V include up to 80% of the total land area. Just 704 of the farms were found to be in Natural Regions I or II, as can be seen from the graph. The total area of these was less than 805 732 hectares, which is less than 20% of the total area.

⁸⁷Mkodzongi, G., & Spiegel, S. (2019). Artisanal gold mining and farming: livelihood linkages and labour dynamics after land reforms in Zimbabwe. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 55(10), 2145-2161.

⁸⁸Simura, B., & Mudimu, G. T. (2019). Consequences of Elitist Reconciliation in Zimbabwe and South Africa: A Comparative Study. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 58(1-3), 13-23.

The tremendous potential of these farms, presuming they were being utilised, may have been lost by acquisition per se before considering resettlement outputs potentials.

Drought-resistant crops can be cultivated in Natural Regions IV and V, especially when there is no large-scale irrigation, according to Agritex. Natural Regions IV and V should be utilized primarily for animal production, such as cattle or game ranches. Natural Region III, on the other hand, is said to be best suited for raising animals and growing income crops. Among the crops that do well are corn, tobacco, and cotton. Even though there is no evidence to imply that most of the ten most important commercial crops are grown outside of Natural Regions I and II, data compiled by natural region shows that Natural Regions IV and V produce most of the commercial crops in LSCF. This demonstrates that the chosen area of land is not the most fruitful use of resources. This area is clearly not an important basis on which Zimbabwe's current agricultural output levels are based, as can be shown.⁸⁹

2.6.3 Land Tenure Pattern

Some of the several land ownership types developed from empirical evidence on identifiable farmland include; “individual or family farms, businesses, mining firms' land, churches, NGO farmlands (including trusteeships, organizations, administrations, etc.), and state lands”. There were 2 824 344 hectares (71 percent of the recognized area) held by companies, compared to 952 295 hectares (approximately 24 percent of the identified area) owned by individuals and 0.3 percent by Government parastatal farms. Under contrast to parastatal agricultural holdings, no government-owned leasehold farms were found, since GoZ deems such property to be already accessible for

⁸⁹Chimhowu, A., & Woodhouse, P. (2006). Officially Forbidden but not Oppressed: Vernacular Land Markets on Communal Lands in Zimbabwe. A Case Study of Svosve Communal Lands, Zimbabwe. In *Colloque International Les Frontières de la question foncière—At the frontier of land issues*. Montpellier.

redistribution or reallocation, particularly to indigenous commercial farmers in its tenant farmer programmes.

2.6.4 Multiple Farm Ownership Patterns

Multiple farm ownership can be utilized to determine farm management and land use efficiency. Extreme land concentration on several farms has limited effective land use and efficient agricultural management in Zimbabwe, according to a recent report. But this information does not include a significant percentage of farms with numerous owners whose names are not on the identification list. Aside from that, we have no idea if the mentioned farmers are listed as having only one farm or whether they have more than one. To put it another way, there's a lot more multi-family farms out there that hasn't been found yet.

Multiple-owned farms have a number of important implications, including the following:

- There were three farms with several owners, totaling 757 763 hectares.
- The farms with an extent of between 30,000 and over 100,000 hectares accounted for nearly one million of the total.
- Only around 195 000 hectares are owned by 114 multiple-owned small farms under 3 000 hectares in size. That means that half of the farms that were counted as multiples were in fact single farms.
- Farms with an area ranging from 5,000 to 29,999 hectares account for 30% of all farms.
- Due to multiple ownership, we only have 1103 owners instead of 1471 owners. About 178 of the owners held between two and three farms, with 33 owning more than four.

More than 63% of the farms and 30% of the land are held by companies, while 37% of the farms and 700 000 hectares (18% of the total area) are owned by multinational corporations. Of the 2.06 million

hectares (or 52% of the total area) not controlled by parastatals or farms, there are 900 privately owned farms.

More than 100 farms (7 percent of the total) and 1 295 938 hectares (33 percent of the total recognized area) were determined to be owned by about 25 farm owners. About ten indigenous farmers owned 34 of the numerous farms and 836 188 hectares (21% of their land) between them, according to the study.

The information on land tenure demonstrates that Zimbabwe's white community has a complex and heterogeneous landholding and landuse structure. On the one hand, the majority of Zimbabwe's commercial farmlands are owned by a small number of white-dominated huge corporations, some of which are enormous multinational corporations with significant South African links. Contrarily, we have a mix of 1000 white-owned farm families and family-based businesses, each of which owns farms that are modest in size by worldwide standards, as well as a few major corporations with rather big farm areas that utilize their property appropriately. A more detailed and accurate appraisal of property slated for purchase is needed, rather than just calling them „white farms," as has been done in the past.

As long as current government policy does not include significant investments in irrigation on resettlement projects, future relocation is likely to be centered on terrain less suited for rainfed agricultural cultivation.

2.7 The social implications of land transfer

The closeness of farms to common spaces was an important criterion used to justify their inclusion on the list. People in communal areas under severe land pressure or who have lost their land might take advantage of this. For the most part, the goal of this criteria was to lower the expenses of

relocating residents, to increase the amount of land accessible to local communities, or to provide them "elbow space." While these factors have an impact on resettlement's effectiveness, the most widely acknowledged argument for land reform is the idea of ending the underutilization of land.⁹⁰

As soon as the farms between them and the nearest community space are discovered, all commercial farms are brought closer to these areas. They recognize that this criterion has the potential to alter borders and should only be used once throughout the land acquisition process in order to avoid turning into a tautological criterion.

However, even with the goal of creating "elbow space" "The criterion is still problematic since it involves barring of 'outsiders' from a particular area, district, or province for communal area communities. In districts and provinces where land acquisition trends differ, productive people may never have access to land. In the same way, those who are unworthy in other districts may have far easier access.

There are six distinct types of landownership among the farms up for grabs as discussed above. A total of 58% of farms were owned by corporations, equating to more than 2.8 million hectares (71%) of the land identified. Individuals own just 24% of the land in the United States. Only 2.3 percent of farms were government parastatals owned, churches and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) owned 1.6 percent of the farms.

After cutting off at over 10,000 hectares of property owned by companies or individuals, as well as single or multiple farms, discussions for land transfer needed to focus on 66 landowners covering 2 108 972 hectares. One-third of the land is owned as a single corporate farm, while the remaining third

⁹⁰ ibid

is divided among three different types of farms: numerous company farms, individual multiple farms, and single farm ownership.

An overwhelming majority (>87%) of the registered landowners are males, whereas just 23% of farms were co-owned and only 5% were held completely by women. Women made up just 29% of the farm's board of directors. The percentage of land owned by black women was significantly lower than that of white women (below 6 percent), who were more likely to be registered as joint husband and wife owners. Hence, the white men held the land transfer talks because they also owned the biggest businesses and vast land covering more than 10,000 hectares. Both the white and black communities' patriarchal land tenure value systems routinely discriminate against female landowners. As a result, in order to attain gender equality in land ownership, the agricultural fabric, and society, must ensure that more women have access to the redistributed land.⁹¹

Insights about the nationalities of owners are still lacking. Many firms, on the other hand, have foreigners listed as directors. British and South African nationals tend to be the most common international owners. This might explain the media's blind devotion to Zimbabwe's land reform policy in both nations. Indeed, it's believed that between “15,000 and 30,000 white Zimbabweans” hold dual British and Zimbabwean citizenship (House of Lords, Hansard). Since these interests are so important to the British people, the country's present stance against supporting land reform is no surprise. Further study of the ownership data will be required to determine the extent to which foreign ownership was emphasized as criteria.⁹²

⁹¹Marewo, M. K. (2020). Fast track land reform and belonging: examining linkages between resettlement areas and communal areas in Zvimba District, Zimbabwe.

⁹²Helliker, K., Bhatasara, S., & Chiweshe, M. K. (2021). Post-independence Land Reform, War Veterans and Sporadic Rural Struggles. In *Fast Track Land Occupations in Zimbabwe* (pp. 125-148). Springer, Cham

Absenteeism may be gauged using one's nationality "a sense of ownership Absenteeism, on the other hand, is frequently interpreted as a sign of a lack of passion for farming. Owners who aren't present rely on farm managers who are being overseen from a distance. Abandonment by workers has a special relevance in Zimbabwe, because different land tenure systems mean that transferring ownership rights from landlords to tenants who have been renting or utilizing land is not the primary goal of land redistribution.

A high proportion of black farm managers are absenteeism confirms that their abilities are undervalued. Black managers are frequently underpaid because they are labeled as "supervisors" or "semi-skilled." It may be claimed, however, that because LSCF farmers rely heavily on indigenous management and technical abilities, transferring land ownership to them will have no negative consequences because they are virtually black controlled.⁹³

LSCF and SSCF absenteeism on indigenously-owned farms is a hotly debated topic. In the public and private sectors, many absentee black farmers are company owners or professionals with metropolitan addresses. Many white-owned corporate farms, according to this theory, are also owned by people from cities. Others claim that the term "absenteeism" is a relative one that should be used with caution. Those landowners residing in Zimbabwe who employ farm managers but who must travel frequently to speak with them, such as the so-called "telephone farmers" "Some people believe that and do not exist at all.

An important goal of Zimbabwe's land reform program has been to achieve an equal distribution of land ownership based on race and nationality. Despite the fact that the term indigenous has a broad

⁹³Muyengwa, L. (2013). A critical analysis of the impact of the fast track land reform programme on children's right to education in Zimbabwe.

connotation, “several members of minority groups who are Zimbabwean citizens by birth or naturalization see themselves as indigenous as opposed to foreign firms holding big estates, which is controversial”. Even though most white LSCF owners are Zimbabweans, the lack of social integration into the black community's social and political organizations leaves them isolated. Because of this exclusion, they are not considered to be indigenous people.

Land acquisition and redistribution have often been justified by the government on the grounds of historical injustices and political demands, which are justifiable in and of themselves, independent of any sound economic justification for land reform. Public remarks on land acquisition have in fact implied that the policy has no legitimate economic aims and that there are no viable economic and even market mechanisms for land redistribution that could be employed in conjunction with mandatory acquisition.

Even though the government's approach has looked to exclude negotiation, conversations and trade-offs with stakeholders are ongoing. As a result, the foreign world and significant sections of the Zimbabwean population have become more hostile. Commercial farmers' recent land proposals, on the other hand, show that the conversation is progressing and needs to be intensified.

Due to a lack of objective information from both the public and commercial sectors, significant policy decisions have been made based on rumor and personal preference. To oppose attempts to sensationalize the perceived costs and advantages of land acquisition, land reform's credibility is harmed by the lack of a clear strategy and policy debate process.

2.8 Chapter Summary

Due to unequal access to resources, the Zimbabwean economy's income distribution structure continues to stifle rural income growth and limit the country's ability to expand its markets and

industrialize. Because of the country's delayed industrialization and persistently high levels of poverty and unemployment, the majority of Zimbabweans will remain land dependent for the foreseeable future. Increasing economic development and diversification through an effective and logical agriculture fabric and land resource utilisation must be the primary goal of land reform policy.

A land policy like this cannot be based on the narrow consumption interests of white or black minority elite groups, or on the little effective demand they have. An effective strategy for eradicating poverty in countries like Zimbabwe, where the economy is based primarily on exports, must include all other significant elements. In other words, the transfer of land should not be based on emotional and unsophisticated methods such as giving government or large farmers unused marginal areas in exchange for financial and political capital to the poor and small farmers. Land reform must be at the center of a comprehensive socioeconomic development plan.

When it comes to economic growth and poverty alleviation in the developing countries, land policy, land rights and land reform are key factors to consider. Land concerns, on the other hand, are frequently complicated and contentious. As a result, they may be overlooked. Women from Chief Svosve are in Mashonaland East Province have the highest rates of poverty, according to a new research. This is because these women contribute significantly to agriculture and are the backbone of agricultural work, yet they own nothing and make nothing from the food they grow.

CHAPTER THREE

THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE POLICY AND LEGAL FRAMEWORKS ON LAND REFORMS ON THE CHIEF SVOSVE PEOPLE IN MASHONALAND EAST IN ZIMBABWE

3.1 Introduction

This chapter highlights several items of law in Zimbabwe which affect customary land tenure in a roundabout way. Communities may depend on these laws to help them achieve a more secure system of land tenure and to prevent development projects from making their situation worse. These rules apply to all people, whether they are natural or legal, private or public. As a result, investors must adhere strictly to the law when resolving any problems, tensions, and disputes that arise over the course of a project's development. The “Rural District Councils Act, the Traditional Leaders Act, the Mines and Minerals Act, and the Environmental Management Act” are a few examples of these regulations. It shall be determined which provisions have an effect on customary land tenure. In addition, the difficulties that communities are expected to encounter in achieving their legislative and constitutional goals are also addressed. As a result of these pieces of legislation, Zimbabwe's customary land tenure system, which is currently regarded as inadequate, would be strengthened.

3.2 Policy and Legal Frameworks on Land Reforms

Respondents were asked to indicate whether there are policy and legal frameworks on land reforms in Chief Svosve people in Mashonaland east of Zimbabwe. The study findings are as shown in Figure 3.5. As per the findings of most of the participants (89%) agreed that there exists policy and legal frameworks on land reforms in Chief Svosve area in Zimba while 11% were on the contrary opinion

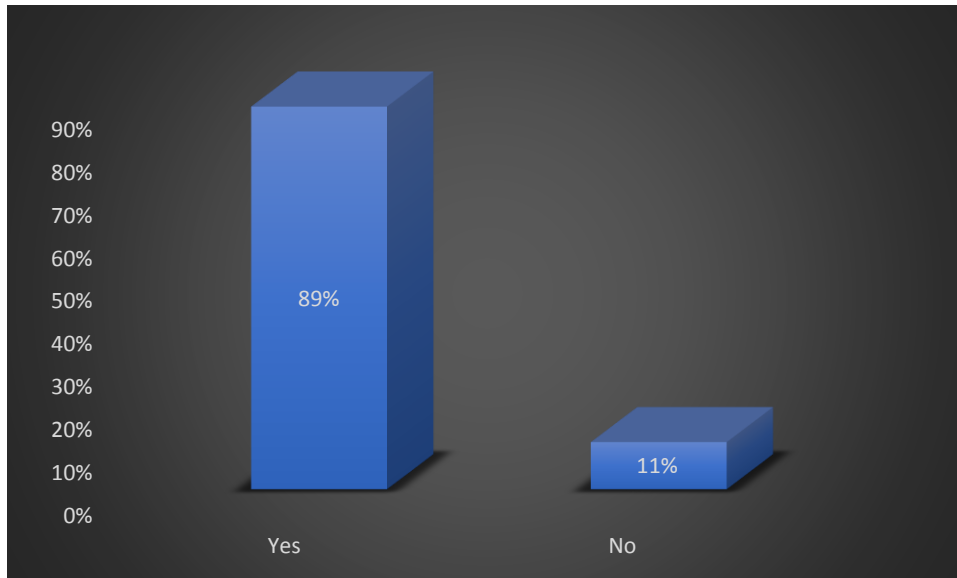


Figure 4.5: Policy and Legal Frameworks on Land Reforms

Source: Field Data, 2021

3.2.1 Rural District Councils Act

Respondents indicated that the RDC’s Act is a key piece of legislation in Zimbabwe's effort to promote secure customary land tenure. To ensure that Rural District Councils (RDCs) are achieving their mission, the Act was drafted to detail the different responsibilities required of them. According to Zimbabwe's Communal Land Act, RDCs are required to manage the customary land and resources located within their borders. Rural District Councils in Zimbabwe are in charge of the administration and development planning. The RDCs have been tasked with carrying out this task because of their strong connections to the local community. RDC Act gives rural district councils the authority to grant licenses for the use, access and administration of customary land within their jurisdictions for occupancy, use, access, and management. Section 78 of the RDC Act gives the minister the authority to agree to the forced acquisition of property, which includes the ability to grant permits. A council may acquire land or any right over land by coercion (except as provided for in subsection (2)) for the purposes of carrying out any work authorized by this Act, whether inside or outside of the council

area, especially if the process is important for public health or town and country planning purposes..
For the sake of clarity, I've bolded some of my own words.

In the administration of community land, scholars believe the government has given powers to RDCs so that it may maintain control and influence over land and natural resources for sponsorship purposes. There is a great deal of power in RDCs when it comes to who may be administered and how. In the administration of community land, scholars believe the government has given powers to RDCs so that it may maintain control and influence over land and natural resources for sponsorship purposes. There is a great deal of power in RDCs when it comes to who may be administered and how. 94 Section 264 of the Constitution provides for the decentralization of authority from the federal government, which is frequently used to refute this claim. RDCs would need to be created to help in representing the interest of the local communities effectively.

According to the previous paragraphs, Rural District Councils are an important organization engaged in the creation of any development project on common property. If the RDCs want to set up initiatives that are "useful for the public generally," they may submit a "written" request to the minister with no mention of how a particular community or group would benefit. Because of these unrestrained delegations of authority in service to the public good, it is possible that development projects may be created which disregard or disenfranchise local land rights. In order to achieve a human security-centered approach to development, the RDC ought to develop its own local policy that measures the impact of a project on the nearby community.⁹⁴

To put it another way: RDCs are mandated by the RDC Act, which fails to provide rules on the interaction between RDCs and local communities while working on national development projects.

⁹⁴Gaidzanwa, R. B. (2011, April). Women and land in Zimbabwe. In *conference on Why Women Matter in Agriculture, Sweden, 4â* (Vol. 8).

With regard to the RDC Act, there is more of an implicit connection between the RDC and the local communities it serves. ⁹⁶ While this situation was acceptable in 1988 when the Act was developed, the local community's views, interests and grievances should be heard directly but not via the representative organizations. In the past, RDCs have failed to properly represent the interests of local communities while speaking with investors. While this is true, the Constitution emphasizes the importance of local communities' involvement in determining development objectives within their jurisdictions. ⁹⁷ It's paramount to engage in discussion and consultation with all those who may be impacted, particularly women and other vulnerable and disadvantaged groups.⁹⁵

While the desire to promote development projects in rural regions hinders RDC's from adequately representing the interests of communities that are affected, it also helps these organizations. The RDCs' financial resources have been squeezed as the country as a whole struggles economically. ⁹⁸ RDCs' impartiality and capacity to represent the interests of communities living on common land may be called into doubt in such situations. In the past, development projects served as a valuable source of income for RDC administration and service supply. RDCs and communities living on customary land are unavoidably at odds when there is a clear conflict of interest. Often, communities are seen as obstacles to progress, despite the fact that the concerns of these communities may have been misrepresented by the media, which has a stake in the project's success.

Nevertheless, the authority, position, and voice of the Rural District Council Act remain an essential route for communities seeking to influence their land rights to strengthen. RDC's activities must now be evaluated in light of constitutional norms, as well as the perspectives of local populations. It doesn't matter what role RDCs play in allocating licenses for groups living on community land to utilize and

⁹⁵Mizero, M., Karangwa, A., Burny, P., Michel, B., & Lebailly, P. (2018). Agrarian and Land Reforms in Rwanda: Situation and Perspectives. *AGRIS on-line Papers in Economics and Informatics*, 10(665-2019-271), 71-92.

use such areas; their views remain unchanged. They don't align with global movements, and in particular with constitutional norms that encourage dialogue among all interested parties on all matters that affect them. Sec. 13(2) states that "local communities must participate in the setting of development priorities within their regions." Section 13(2) makes this very clear. Therefore, it's paramount to engage in discussion and consultation with all those who may be impacted, particularly women and other vulnerable and disadvantaged groups.⁹⁶

3.2.2 Environmental Management Act

By their very nature, development initiatives have an effect on the environment. The Environmental Management Act "regulates all environmental operations in the country while also giving effect to Section 73 of the Constitution". These principles are intended to govern any activity that may have an impact on the environment as a whole. Environmental management in Zimbabwe is guided by two principles: involvement of the people, and sustainable development. For the purposes of this Act, development in Zimbabwe must be "socially, ecologically, and economically sustainable" [our emphasis]. Infrastructure development coupled with mining and other economic activities may all help Zimbabwe's economy grow. When determining whether or not a project should go forward, environmental costs to the surrounding community are sometimes overlooked since they are viewed as a barrier to economic growth.⁹⁷

Local communities immediately affected by development projects' social, environmental, and economic impacts are ignored when analyzing sustainability from the perspective of the wider (economic) society. It is against the constitutional ideal of sustainable development to prioritize

⁹⁶Ossome, L., & Naidu, S. C. (2021). Does Land Still Matter? Gender and Land Reforms in Zimbabwe. *Agrarian South: Journal of Political Economy*, 10(2), 344-370.

⁹⁷Moyo, S. (2007). Land policy, poverty reduction and public action in Zimbabwe. In *Land, Poverty and Livelihoods in an Era of Globalization* (pp. 366-404). Routledge.

economic interests above other equally essential social and environmental issues. As a result, local residents may become involved in environmental management and ask whether or not new projects are sustainable. Relocation has this effect because it alters how people interact with one other in their new locations.

An important time when the Environmental Management Act encourages community involvement is during the Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) phase. In accordance with “Section 97 of the Environmental Management Act”, all operations specified in the First Schedule must be preceded by an EIA. An EIA helps to account for environmental and socio-economic impacts of a development project while also making sure that unjustified negative impacts are prevented and reduced and possible gains may be achieved. As a result of the EIA process, communities have the opportunity to have open conversations about the proposed projects, as well as to monitor accountability and transparency.

Mining is a harmful activity by its very nature. Mineral mining necessitates the destruction of vast areas of forest and the use of enormous amounts of water. As a result, communities living close to the project site must be consulted, as their way of life may change as a result. The same is true for irrigation facility development projects that call for large amounts of water. A solution or mitigation is required for the water extraction from common water sources on which people depend for their livelihoods. In particular for communities who depend on rain-fed agriculture for food, access to water and other products is paramount and intertwined right to land tenure issue. Even if these initiatives don't result in relocation, they may have a major impact on local residents' quality of life.

It is necessary to take into consideration community concerns and offer answers on how to minimize such impacts throughout the EIA process, and to hold investors responsible if they fail to meet the stated goals. It ought to be utilized to safeguard customary tenure rights to be concerned about

participation when undertaking mining, agriculture, and infrastructure development projects, all of which are on the list of activities that require an EIA before beginning under the Environmental Management Act's First Schedule. One way communities' grievances can be heard during the EIA process is through the efforts of the Marange Development Trust (MDT) in Zimbabwe, which sought clarification on how a mining development project would ensure that all mining aspects are addressed before the processes commence.

To put it another way, Zimbabwe's Environmental Management Act strikes a healthy balance between the necessity for economic growth and the interests of those people who would be impacted by it. The Act mandates that public discussions be conducted before an EIA certificate can be given to a developer; participation or inclusion in the process is not adequate. In the context of customary land tenure, public consultations imply that project proponents must allow communities to raise concerns and provide views that must be taken into account. This data is essential in the Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) application submitted to the Director General of the Environmental Management Agency (EMA).

Unfortunately, the Act provides the Director-General discretionary authority to verify facts in the EIA report. As per section 100(3) (c), the Director-General may consult with any authority, agency or individual who has an interest in the project in his/her view (emphasis added). No obligatory provisions have been made for the provision, which significantly benefits communities by verifying such data. To the contrary, this clause gives people living under customary land tenure, undoubtedly interested in the project, a chance to have their views heard or to guarantee that the EIA is invalidated when submitted to EMA. As an alternative, the Director-discretionary General's choice to consult the community whose attendance record is provided does not foster responsibility and trust in the organization. Therefore, communities should produce an independent written before the consultation

and present the EMA copies of the communication at each of these stages, as well. In order to monitor how the project's social, economic, and environmental issues are taken into account, these written contributions are critical

It's important to note that the procedure of public consultation and the notice time for communities to participate in the EIA are presently deficient in many ways. Zimbabwe's constitutional democracy is built on public engagement. A more educated and empowered community involvement should be the standard rather than simply providing attendance registrations and workshops as is the case at the moment during EIA consultations. Participation in governance does not end with providing communities with a chance to engage; rather, it should be accompanied with appropriate knowledge and training to allow for well-informed policy input. Currently, meetings are convened at the last minute and conducted in a language that the general public cannot understand. Thus, community involvement suffers, and the whole point of public dialogue and participation is defeated.

In advance of a request for input, the notification should be clear to the local community, written in the local language, given far enough ahead of time, and sensitive to gender variations in perspective. Furthermore, throughout the consultation process, participants should be fully informed of important information such as the purpose, processes, and rights of the participants, as well as deadlines. According to international best practices and the Constitution's right to information, providing this information aligns with the supply of correct information (emphasis added) on that individual. The methods used to take over common land from the communities should be questioned when such information is missing since it contradicts the goal of meaningful involvement and makes it harder to establish accountability when they are implemented.

Responsibility should be emphasized at all stages of decision-making. Getting access to the EIA in most areas is too expensive, thus it contradicts the point. In the event that the developer is awarded

the license, an EIA is an essential instrument for monitoring the mitigation measures they commit to doing. To ensure that the developer's environmental management plan is being implemented, community-based organizations should have access to the EIA for development projects in their neighborhood.

3.2.3 Traditional Leaders Act

Since the colonial period, traditional leaders in Zimbabwe have played an important role in administration of customary land tenure. The de facto status quo from the colonial period persists. Traditionally held property is still owned by the state and managed by RDCs with assistance of traditional leaders for the benefit of the locals. In practice, however, the president of the republic retains de jure ownership of all customary property, and he or she may grant permission for its use and occupation as provided for in The Common Land Act.

As a result of the Traditional Leaders Act, traditional leaders now have a legal basis for their work. Traditional leaders have great respect in Zimbabwe because of the country's rich history, culture, and structure. Traditional leaders have a mandate and respect on the ground that work for them and the government. By granting traditional authorities the authority, influence, and capacity to execute sections of the Communal Land Act, the government strengthens the customary law position. With the authority to impeach and bar them from the office for violation of the law, government structure is also essential for logistical reasons. Traditional elders now have a role to play in administering customary land now that it has been transferred to the President. As these positions demonstrate, traditional leaders play a critical role in managing customary land and resettling communities when they move.⁹⁸

⁹⁸Zhou, G., & Zvoushe, H. (2012). Public policy making in Zimbabwe: A three decade perspective.

The traditional leader's responsibility in communities is now limited to notifying them of 'public orders, instructions or notifications' when development projects are to be built on customary territory. When new development projects affect their communities, the traditional leaders' capacity to defend such communities is weakened. Otherwise, they run the danger of being removed from office for alleged wrongdoing. Even in the post-colonial period, traditional leaders have had their own set of problems to deal with. In light of the historical background, conflicts between populations living on customary territory and its traditional authorities have grown. According to the locals, traditionally-elected officials have been abusing the weak customary land tenure system to enrich themselves while depriving their host community.

3.2.4 Mines and Minerals Act

Mining is a development enterprise that has the potential to supplant rural people' traditional land tenure rights. The Mines and Minerals Act reflects mining's dominance over community usufruct rights on customary property. Zimbabwe's Mining Act regulates all mining operations. To make matters even worse, the 1961 passage of the Mining and Minerals Act has kept the emphasis squarely on mining as a means of economic growth, to the exclusion of alternative ideas. Despite its growing popularity, the Mines and Minerals Act does not recognize sustainable development.

In “Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation”, mining remains a major economic pillar (ZimAsset). Those who want to purchase and register mining rights must comply with Part 4 of the Act's requirements, which vest all mineral rights in President. In accordance with “section 26 (a) of the Mines and Minerals Act”, all state and community lands are mineral-prospecting-friendly. This clause prioritizes mining above all other potential uses of the property. According to the Act, all other kinds of economic, social, and cultural growth are subordinated to extractives. This indicates that all of these other interests trump the right to customary land tenure.

When new mineral resources are found, it's hard to see the government trying to put a stop to exploitation and the threats to community land rights.⁹⁹

In the event that mining activities are developed on customary property, the Mines and Minerals Act may have certain protections in place to protect the community. Prospecting on “communal land” is prohibited under Section 31 (1) of the Act without the permission of the occupant of the land concerned or a person properly authorized thereto by the President and written authorization of the RDC”.

It's important to note, however, that this stance does not go far enough to protect traditional land tenure systems. The state owns customary (communal) land, which is vested in the President, with administrative power granted to RDCs. According to the Function, Section 188(7), in situations where mining is planned on customary property, RDCs act as landowners. Unless the communities are the landholders and have been legally authorized to represent the President, their rejection to agree to a development project is without validity. When it comes to establishing a project on their property, the approval of the RDC is a given. There would be a lot of doubt about RDCs' ability to represent the interests of communities in such situations.

Mining and minerals act section 80 safeguard communities' customary land rights by compensating them for any damage caused. Those who are harmed by mining operations on mining locations registered under such orders, or by the exercise of any rights granted under this Part, qualify for compensation, as appropriate, in an amount that may be agreed upon. Those who are not entitled to compensation may fail to do so.¹⁰⁰

⁹⁹Moyo, S. (2008). *African land questions, agrarian transitions and the State: contradictions of neo-liberal land reforms*. African Books Collective.

¹⁰⁰Kleinbooi, K. (2010). *Review of land reforms in Southern Africa*. Institute for Poverty, Land and Agrarian Studies, University of the Western Cape.

As a result of this clause, the landowner or user should have no claim to compensate. 188 (7) should be considered while interpreting the provision, which provides for compensation to be paid to the DDF in connection with community development initiatives. This means that the communities affected mining activities may be transferred inside the RDC's authority and therefore benefit from the project. Experiments with mining-affected villages such as those from Marange to Arda Transau demonstrate that this isn't always the case. Mutare RDC paid compensation to the DDF, however the affected villages were transferred to the jurisdiction of Mutare Urban town council rather than RDC. RDCs have not been able to use the compensation money to help the displaced communities because of the budgetary limitations they face. These rules have the effect of leaving relocated communities at the mercy of government officials on how monies are distributed if no direct compensation is provided to them.¹⁰¹

Conflicts between miners and farmers often arise from mining development initiatives. This is mainly due to the fact that minerals may be found in the subsurface area, which is often found on agricultural land. Since the Mines and Minerals Act places such emphasis on mining, farmers have often had to bear the financial burden of their agricultural investments. The land reforms in Zimbabwe, on the other hand, relocated villages, which exacerbated already-existing tensions between miners and farmers. Liberation war veterans are mostly the resettled farmers are mostly former making them a significant political group whose interests need to be acknowledged, as those of the white commercial farmers who had previously settled in the region. In the present MMAB before parliament, provisions are being made for land that will be off limits to prospecting in order to solve this issue. For instance, “for a period of three years after the completion of such reaping, land that

¹⁰¹Masiiwa, M. (2002). Common property rights and the empowerment of communal farmers in Zimbabwe: institutional legal frameworks and policy challenges under globalisation. *Managing common property in an age of globalisation: Zimbabwean experiences*, 15-30.

has been cleared or ploughed or otherwise prepared for the growing of farm crops is not open to prospecting. This includes ploughed land on which farm crops are growing and ploughed land from which farm crops have been reaped¹⁰². As well as preparing the ground for the establishment of long-term crops like orchards and tree plantations, it also encompasses land where such crops have already been established and maintained. For six years after planting, land that has been planted and continues to be maintained for further activities is protected under the law. This includes ground that has been ploughed. After two years of bona fide clearing, ploughing, or preparation, if the land is not used for farming or other permanent crops such as fruit trees and tree plantations, the area will be available for prospecting. In most cases, land where residents live in communal areas falls within the concept of land not accessible to prospecting. For such territory to be acquired, existing tensions and disputes must be resolved.¹⁰²

3.3 Land Policy Frameworks

One of the key respondents indicated that

Communities living on customary land are governed primarily by the Communal Land Act, the Land Acquisition Act, and the Rural Land Act. Customary land ownership, purchase, and transfer in Zimbabwe is made easier by these laws. There are a number of land tenure-related problems that affect communities that are addressed by the aforementioned Acts. On customary land, the Communal Land Act permits agricultural and infrastructural development. It is also made clear what kind of legal protection is provided to communities with customary land tenure, as well as the processes to be followed when someone loses their rights.

¹⁰²Matondi, P. B. (2012). Understanding Fast Track Land Reforms in Zimbabwe.

3.3.1 Communal Land Act

Zimbabwe's Community Land Act (Act 138) governs who may live on and utilize land designated as communal land. Approximately 42% of Zimbabwe's total land area is under the customary land tenure system “communal land”, according to FAO, and an estimate of 66% of the population depends on it. So roughly 8.514 million Zimbabweans rely on customary land ownership for their livelihood, which has been shown to be less stable in earlier chapters. Hence, majority of the population is impacted by the start of new development projects and the eventual migration of those communities. This necessitates resolving your anxieties. The Communal Land Act will be dissected in detail in this section.

The community land in Zimbabwe is owned by the President, who has the power to provide approval for its use, as long as it does not violate the Communal Land Act. Communal land management is assigned to a number of Regional Development Corporations (RDCs) working in the relevant regions. 141 Consequently, communities living on community property are unable to possess or decide on the use of such land, due to the restrictions. “De jure [legal]” land ownership rights over community land are the terms used to characterize this situation.

One of the respondents indicated that

Land tenure entails a number of rights, including the ability to utilize the land. It does not matter if the groups living on community property do not have ownership rights because of the Community Land Act. The communities in issue own usufruct rights, which allow them to utilize and administer the common property for agricultural purposes, housing, or grazing. There are a number of definitions of land "use" in the Communal Land Act, but the most common are "the erection of any buildings or enclosure," "the cutting of vegetation for firewood and building material, pastureland for livestock," and "the taking thereof" (such as

sand, stone, or other materials). The Rukuni Land Commission referred to this collection of rights as their de facto (or on-the-ground) rights.

In line with the Communal Land Act, communities are granted usufruct rights, which allow them to occupy land until the law terminates such rights. As a result, community's interests may be converted into restricted real property rights over the subject area once they are registered. The registration of the restricted real right enables the community's rights to be safeguarded in future. If a limited real right is defined as the right to use property that belongs to someone other than the holder, then the term "limited real right" is appropriate. It differs from a general real right since a general real right allows the owner to deduct for the dominium and may be enforced against heirs. There are thus limited actual rights for communities living on community property, even if the land itself is vested in President via RDCs.

3.3.2 Land Acquisition Act

Zimbabwe's Land Purchase Act is another important piece of legislation that governs land acquisition in the country. The Land Acquisition Act has been modified many times in order to give the land reforms in Zimbabwe legal force. Declaratory provisions are included in the Act related to the land reforms in Zimbabwe applicability. The "Land Reform and Resettlement Programme and Implementation Plan (Phase 2)", released in April 2001, is referred to as the "Land Reform Programme" throughout this document "as re-issued and amended from time to time". This procedure concerned the 23rd May 2000 start date of the main Act's program for purchasing agricultural land for resettlement purposes. The Act will have a significant impact on the ability of communities who will be relocated as a result of a development project to obtain land.

In accordance with the Act, land may be acquired by the President or a Minister who has been given permission by the President. If you need the property for any reasons such as security, morality or

health of the general population or a specific section of the general population; if you're settling for agricultural purposes; or you're doing land reorganization, forestry, conservation of the environment, or you're going to use wildlife or other natural resources; it's legal to buy the property. Rural land acquisition should be done for landless people who deserve to have access to a variety of various agricultural activities, such as farming, ranching, or forestry, depending on their intended use for the land.

According to Section 72(2) of the Constitution, forced acquisition of agricultural land is covered by the Land Acquisition Act's above-mentioned legal requirements. Even if the LA Act was enacted prior to the new Constitution, it provides effects to the constitutional clause on the grounds for which land may be purchased compulsorily. Both the Land Acquisition Act and the Constitution say the same things about how land may be purchased. There are claims that the administration intended to safeguard the achievements achieved during the land reform program by enshrining them in the supreme law of the country, knowing well that amending such a provision would be impossible. As a consequence of the Property Acquisition Act, the government is now allowed to purchase agricultural land, which results in the relocation and displacement of whole populations.

Comprehensive processes for acquiring agricultural land by force for resettlement are a standout element in Land Acquisition Act. Section 5 and following sections include the processes. Procedures may involve publishing a notice of forced acquisition once in the government gazette in the national or local newsletter and disseminating it across the region where the land is situated. This method of publishing a notice differs from the one required by the Communal Land Act, which stipulates that communities must only be notified through a formal document, not even in a newspaper. Communities and other stakeholders benefit from knowing the status of the property in issue thanks to communication methods and timelines, which may be used by anyone with an interest in legally

challenging such notifications. The notification may help ensure community involvement in the relocation process, which is critical.

If the acquisition of land is being disputed, another essential process that must be followed is a request to the Administrative Court by the acquiring authority. Important protections are put in place here to prevent the loss of one's rights without the Administrative Court's approval beforehand. A court may prohibit land acquisition if it deems it unnecessary, according to Section 7(4) of the Administrative Procedure Act. Acquisitions may be justified on a number of grounds. However, in case of rural land, however, the court can consider land acquisition as reasonable when the land will be used for agricultural or other purposes. The court can also consider land acquisition as reasonable when it pertains to the relocation of displaced people. To put it another way: The Administrative Court may order the acquiring authority to retract the preliminary notice or to restore the property they've already taken.

3.4 Chapter Summary

There is a variety of laws in Zimbabwe that affects community land, which is where the majority of people live. The “Traditional Leaders Act, the Rural District Councils Act, the Mines and Minerals Act, and the Environmental Management Act” are examples of these. Laws that directly affect communities having a customary land tenure system include the CL Act as well as the LA Act. This is how things have been since the pre-2013 constitutional period, with no changes to the legislation. Communities' usufruct rights have been repeatedly reaffirmed via the implementation of the law, while ownership rights remain with the state. The state's role in protecting the community's interests is becoming more muddled in an age when private companies collaborate with the government to create development initiatives. The new Constitution expands protections for usufruct rights and clarifies their meaning. The property clause and specific processes should now safeguard usufruct

rights granted under contract and law equally. Inevitably, development initiatives lead to the seizure of land from people who live there, and this is to the disadvantage of such communities. As a result, the impacted communities must be given sufficient notice, fair compensation, and time to prepare for their property development regardless of whether or not they own the land themselves. There are commissions created by the Constitution and public interest groups that may seek protection against human right abuse in courts of law when conflicts arise between the state, developer and community.

CHAPTER FOUR: KEY CHALLENGES FACING THE LAND REFORMS AMONG THE CHIEF SVOSVE COMMUNITY IN ZIMBABWE

4.1 Introduction

As a result of Zimbabwe's land reforms in 2000, the country's agrarian system underwent a radical transformation, with vast tracts of land being distributed to smallholder and medium-scale farmers alike. The children of the original beneficiaries are now entering their formative years. This report examines the difficulties that young people have had to deal with as a result of land reform. There is a lot of policy debate about whether or not young people are socially disruptive or entrepreneurial in nature. In this chapter, the main Svosve Community in Zimbabwe aims to outline the primary problems facing land reforms.

4.2 Key Challenges Facing the Land Reforms

The land distribution that Zimbabwe inherited upon attaining independence in 1980 was drastically distorted. The agricultural land was owned by the white settlers. All of Zimbabwe's black residents lived and farmed in the country's driest and least fertile regions. Numerous pieces of legislation passed during the colonial period led to the widespread dispossession of prime agricultural land by colonial settlers, with the result that black people were forced into what is referred to as “communal areas”. It was decided to set up a system of dual landownership.¹⁰³

4.2.1 Planning

Zimbabwe's land reforms were rushed and ill-thought out from the beginning by the government. International community and opposition parties such as the MDC questioned the government's sincerity in adopting speedy land reforms shortly after a new constitution was rejected in 2000.

¹⁰³Chimhowu, A., & Woodhouse, P. (2010). Forbidden but not suppressed: a ‘vernacular’ land market in Svosve Communal Lands, Zimbabwe. *Africa*, 80(1), 14-35.

According to the general consensus in Zimbabwe, land reforms were an attempt by the government to shore up support in the face of the MDC's rising popularity. This was owing to a lack of preparation and a hasty execution of the program. It was considered as a political ploy to placate opponents, notably white commercial farmers who opposed land reform but were ardent MDC backers.¹⁰⁴

Because of inadequate planning, the government was unable to fast track the changing reality of the land reform initiative. To deal with both anticipated and unexpected challenges that developed during the speedy implementation of the land reform program, government officials failed to put adequate policies and mechanisms in place. The courts were overburdened because the government had failed to prepare for situations like land-based conflicts in prone areas such as Mazowe and Chipinge, as well as other districts around Harare's capital, such as the Harare region. Final results showed that political announcements and instructions made at public rallies became policy and the course adopted by many actors involved in land reform processes appears to be controlled by politics in the majority of processes. It was problematic that these political announcements and instructions were not legally enforced, a situation that disrupted the land reform procedures and results. As it turned out, this was true. It harmed farm production and output since some land ended up in the hands of people who weren't eligible for the types of farms they obtained. As an illustration, consider this.

For example, financial and subsidised input support was made for farmers; irrigation infrastructure was supported in the form of boreholes and dip tanks; transport networks were also developed, for example, roads or bridges; and also the rural electrification program was expanded with a minimal success rate of application. These strategies never came to fruition. Seed and fertilizer, for example, were in short supply due to poor planning and the larger consequences of a slow economy, both of

¹⁰⁴ *ibid*

which had a negative influence on production. New farmers in Masvingo had to pay exorbitant prices for seed and fertilizer since they couldn't afford what was available on the local market, which wasn't sustainable for effective farming. Masvingo. Finally, many farmers stopped growing important crops for instance the wheat, which led to reduction of food such as bread. Despite farmers' protests, the government imposed price controls on farmers' hard-earned wheat and maize commodities as a result of the government's market monopoly. This had the unintended consequence of coercing farmers to sell their grain at a loss to the GMB at fixed prices.

4.2.2 Administration

Politics, corruption, nepotism, and bureaucratic inefficiencies hampered Zimbabwe's land reform administration processes, which harmed the fast track farms' output results. In addition, administrative institutions lacked the necessary technicalities making it difficult to carry out important land transfer process in the future. Thus, against the one-man-one-farm policy, some beneficiaries gained access to multiple farms; such as (one farm being allotted to multiple people) and this resulted in numerous land disputes that were taken to court and took a lot of time to resolve. Over 25,000 farms were relinquished when the government issued a warning to different farm owners in 2001. However, certain people, particularly prominent politicians and politically linked elite individuals, continued to retain numerous farms.

There were also substantial communication issues between various policy-making organizations, implementation agencies, and potential land recipients and farmers as a result of inefficient administration procedures. "Communication between central-level committees and between district and central government levels [was] inadequate," according to a 2002 UNDP report on Zimbabwean land reforms. It was difficult to handle disagreements between settlers, landowners, and government officials over land issues because of the lack of good management, information, and skills required

coordinating the many activities at these levels. The land reform program's political sensitivity created bureaucratic tendencies that slowed administrative decision-making and provided an opportunity for sponsorship, corruption among others and this had an adverse impact on farm production, as was the case in the Mazowe area.

Unintended beneficiaries ended up with farms that weren't intended for them due to administration and management inadequacies. When it came to the A2 farms in Mazowe, some of the farmers only fit the A1 model since they didn't have the technical, mechanical, and financial means to adequately run their A2-sized farms. They squandered and underutilized property since they were unable to afford big farms. However, others had acquired agricultural structures and equipment that they did not know how to operate which resulted into vandalism or the simple removal of pieces for the purpose of selling them for profit to satisfy other urgent financial demands that were possibly unrelated to farming. When it came to the A2 farmers in Mashonaland East, a government study found that more than 117 resettled farmers did not utilize irrigation equipment on the farms they had gained as a result of Zimbabwe's land reforms during the 2002/3 season. 14 farmers did not efficiently use greenhouses, 99 farmers did not use tobacco barns, and another 230 land recipients did not utilize various agricultural facilities they acquired on the farms. Mismanagement has rendered some of the FTFs' valuable farming equipment and infrastructure obsolete or made it easy prey for criminals.

4.2.3 Implementation

Agricultural production on fast track farms was negatively impacted by the implementation tactics used throughout the actual land occupancy operations. Often, land occupations featured violent and chaotic land takeovers that resulted in a mass exodus of tremendous knowledge, skill, and experience especially from the white settlers who prioritized their safety and left without sharing with the locals. However, given the necessity to meet specified redistribution targets against strong commercial

farmer resistance, it might be claimed that peaceful land transfers under Zimbabwe's land reforms were slim. As a result, the only option to achieve the goals of land reform would have been through evictions. However, because of the volatility induced by the haphazard land invasions and seizures, potential agricultural finance investors were reluctant on investing in agriculture on the fast track and instead focused on other investments. Even now, ten years after the land reforms in Zimbabwe began, some western donors are still reluctant to provide financial assistance to the country's land beneficiaries, due to farmers settling on contested land.

One of the key respondents notes that the land reforms in Zimbabwe will “only gain popular recognition when the farmers on the ground start producing sufficiently to regain the confidence of the western donors. This means the problem becomes a vicious cycle where without adequate finance the farmers cannot produce, and without producing, they cannot access finance”.

Invasion and takeover of undesignated farms by powerful individuals who could pay "thugs" to occupy undesignated farms was another concern with the chaotic farm occupations and takeovers. This is because it threw off the official procedures for identifying, selecting, and allocating land, challenging recording keeping process. This did not improve the situation or the problems that followed because the government formalized land invasions by issuing land licences to anyone living on an invaded property which made it difficult to evict anyone from their land regardless of how they acquired it.

Further, since international community regarded violent land seizures as a violation of human rights, Zimbabwe was practically cut off from international trade, which was critical to the country's faltering economy. There were no specific individuals targeted by EU, USA, and Australia-led economic sanctions that went into effect on March 7th, 2003; however, donor such as IMF and WB

suspended their funds and other actors were barred from engaging with Zimbabwe. The sanctions were aimed at the entire country. A severe economic crisis that affected agricultural production and the implementation of the land reform program was brought on by the economic sanctions that were imposed on Zimbabwe. With hyper monetary inflation rates unheard of at that point in Zimbabwean history, the country was facing catastrophic supply shortages of agricultural inputs in 2008. These actions adversely affected Zimbabwe's agricultural productivity. These challenges also reduced the government's ability to appropriately fund new fast track farms in order to improve production. This only improved after the new government suspended the old Zimbabwean dollar and adopted a new multi-currency system.

The Post-Settlement Support Is Inadequate

In order to enhance productivity on the new fast-track farms, the government had to give financial, technical, mechanical, and infrastructural support. With limited financial resources and an economy that was already in a bad state, the government had to embark on this expensive project without adequate planning. As a result, the government neglected to give newly resettled farmers with necessary post-resettlement support. Despite the government's efforts to set up agricultural support programs for new farmers, a variety of factors, including the larger economic climate, prohibited it from providing appropriate assistance to its farmers. Subsidized credit was needed to help new farmers succeed, and it was presented in form of equipment such as tractors and technical assistance more so in the remote rural areas. Inputs such as seed and fertilizer were also critical in helping farmers succeed. However, the government lacked the necessary resources to appropriately give assistance.

Another problem was that the government had insufficient financial resources and poor policy frameworks that didn't ensure proper use of the already few resources because of the distribution

inefficiencies. The RBZ was in charge of most of the government's assistance programs, with help from many other departments with ties to agriculture. Some examples are the Grain Marketing Board's (GMB) crop and livestock input program, the National Irrigation Department's (NID) Irrigation Rehabilitation and Development Program, the Zimbabwe Defense Forces' Operation Maguta/Inala (food security), and a few other agricultural institutions' (Agribank, TIMB) crop and livestock input programs (DDF).

The 2003 statewide land reform study conducted by the Utete report found that farmers were experiencing productivity challenges due to absence of post-settlement assistance. Especially in rural areas with limited access to services like tillage and extension, and also limited access to other agricultural programs as well as in adequate technology. Between 2006 and 2009, the local market suffered from acute shortages of inputs, hampering government efforts and the effectiveness of the farming program in Masvingo. In 2005, local farmers adopted intensive farming tactics like operation Maguta, which supplied supplies to new resettlement zones, to attempt and boost yields by optimising the use of land. Inputs were a major issue in Zimbabwe until 2008, but the establishment of the Zimbabwe government of national unity in 2009 resolved the situation.

People who didn't deserve it got it from deserving farmers, who resold it on the black market for a profit. Vote buying and corruption in politics were to blame for this as well as other negative effects on post-settlement assistance actions by the government. The Mazowe, Mangwe, and Shamva Districts all have comparable problems, according to Matondi. Poor post-settlement assistance, inefficiencies in the distribution of various government-sponsored support schemes, and in access to the available agricultural inputs have all had an adverse effect on agricultural production across the country.

4.2.5 Nature of Land Tenure Systems Granted to New Settlers

For the new resettlement projects, a leasehold land tenure system was employed, in which land licenses or offer letters were used as proof of ownership rather than complete land title (in the form of official title papers). Insecure tenure and uncertainty for new farmers on fast track farms caused a range of production issues, and it was expressly stated in the letters that the government might revoke the land offer at any time, as a result of these issues. New land beneficiaries seldom made large investments on their newly relocated farms to avoid having their land rights revoked and therefore losing money. The new land beneficiaries would not be compensated for their agricultural investments if their farms were canceled or relocated.

Furthermore, the unexpected land permits posed problems due to their unbankability and inability to serve as collateral for bank loans and credit. A farmer couldn't get a bank loan without some sort of alternative collateral, such a home or something else of value. However, due to the lack of a defined policy, banks were unable to provide financial assistance to farmers based on land licenses, as the government pressed them. However, the majority of banks refused and demanded valid title deeds as collateral for any big bank loans. Some A2 farmers with political ties misused public support, resulting in a loss of funds. As noted by Moyo¹⁰⁵, agricultural input shortages have significantly reduced the productivity of the farms in response to increased demand from new farmers. On the basis of scarcity, farmers could only buy inputs on the parallel market, often at expensive costs. Or the GMB may provide them with subsidies. This shows that farmers in Goromonzi district went against government policy by accessing GMB loan subsidised inputs while just 23% of them utilized their own funds, according to a study¹⁰⁶. A1 and communal farmers often suffered as a result, causing

¹⁰⁵Moyo, S. (2000). Land reform under structural adjustment in Zimbabwe: Land use change in the Mashonaland Provinces. Uppsala: Nordiska Afrikainstitutet.

¹⁰⁶ Marongwe, N. (2013). Who was allocated Fast Track Land and what did they do with it? Selection of A2 farmers in Goromonzi District, Zimbabwe and its impact on agricultural production. In L. Cliffe, J. Alexander, B. Cousins, & R.

net selective access to inputs that ended up on the secondary market in some instances. There was not enough money for the government to provide adequate farm equipment or training or extension services or to provide credits or loans as a result of this shortage. Because of the country's poor foreign relations, the government has found it more difficult to offer full assistance to its farmers at this time of scarcity.

Because of the increased number of land-based problems that resulted, such as border disputes, numerous land allotments, and ownership disputes, farmers were forced to spend considerable time in court, delaying their ability to focus on other tasks. Several properties were therefore left fallow and uncultivated during planting seasons since the genuine proprietor was unclear and the affected farmers were to be guided on the next step. Providing title deeds to the settlers would almost certainly generate issues since they could simply sell the property to anyone, even the white farmers who had previously been evicted from it. However, the government was wary of this possibility because of the risks involved. Weak farm investments are limiting production since they don't fully maximize farm output and productivity. This is a perennial issue.

4.2.6 Absence of a Strong Policy Framework to Support the New Farmers

Early land reform in Zimbabwe led to a successful agricultural story, and the country became renowned as Southern Africa's breadbasket. It was clear and skillfully implemented that the government's growth-with-equity development policy aimed largely at developing community agriculture. The policy environment governing land reforms in Zimbabwe lacks the clarity, consistency, and rigor necessary to protect Zimbabwe's food supply. As a result, despite government attempts, the agricultural policy climate was unfavorable for beginning farmers. Moreover, it didn't

Gaidzanwa (Eds.), *Outcomes of the Post-2000 Fast Track Land Reform in Zimbabwe* (Pp.163-186). London and New York: Routledge.

give the government any guidance in terms of planning or monitoring the success of fast track farms, making it difficult to develop intervention approaches for regions that didn't do well following relocation. As part of the 1980s growth strategy, the government reformed all main government organizations to provide communal farmers and small-scale producers first priority treatment. This resulted in a dramatic response from communal farmers, who grew to become the country's top suppliers of maize and cotton for the local market in the first five years after independence. Other supportive policies, such as “the Export Retention Scheme and the Export Revolving Fund established in 1986 and the communal areas management program for indigenous resources (Operation Campfire) established in the late 1980s”, were implemented to stimulate small-scale agriculture in the first half of the 1990s. As a result of Operation Campfire, farmers were able to implement sustainable agricultural methods on their common lands thanks to numerous community conservation projects. Government subsidies for producer prices also helped commercial farmers on the export market expand their cash commodities like maize. Zimbabwe's land reforms lacked robust regulatory frameworks to assist new farmers on fast track farms, and as a result, farmers were not encouraged to plant crops on the new farms.

Zimbabwe's insufficient land reform policy framework has also led to politicization and changing of land reform procedures, particularly in the capital city and metropolitan centers such as the Mashonaland Central District in the country. In the Goromonzi district near Harare's capital, where most farmers were unable to commute from Harare's companies and families to visit their farms after work or on weekends, many A2 farms were granted to political personalities and influential elites, as an example of political manipulation and cronyism.

Despite the fact that Zimbabwe's land reforms took place at the same time as a major drought in 2000 and 2002, no new policies were implemented to help mitigate the effects of reoccurring droughts on

fast track farms. If all farmers in the country were considered as a homogeneous group, the government would not have had a clear policy plan on how to better serve different farmer groups' demands. Despite the fact that the input demands of the country's many climates and regions vary, the government considers all farmers as a homogenous group during times of drought by giving the same seed kinds and fertilizer levels across the country. In other words, "since the July 16, 2001 legislative instruments No 235A forbade free marketing and distribution of maize and wheat except through the Grain Marketing Board (GMB), tight marketing regulations were implemented on commercial selling and trade for maize and wheat". Because it was the only party buying and selling maize, the GMB had complete control over the price of the commodity. The maize and wheat growers were penalized because of it.

4.3 Chapter Summary

Land reforms in Zimbabwe had a variety of flaws that harmed the country's agricultural output on multiple levels. The study has concluded that the land reforms in Zimbabwe had significant policy flaws that resulted in ineffective planning, problematic implementation strategies, and weak administrative processes. Because of this, new farms have been reluctant to make the kind of significant agricultural investments needed to grow agriculture that existed on the old. Also cited as important obstacles in Zimbabwe's land reforms were a lack of effective post-settlement support and a lack of agricultural inputs especially in the local markets. An unhelpful policy climate made matters worse by not enforcing the land reform policy on newly distributed farms in order to make land reform a success.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The summary of the study findings, conclusion and recommendations in line with the objectives is presented in this chapter. The findings are contextualized in the broader study objective of the implications of land reform on sustainable development of rural communities in Zimbabwe: the case of chief Svosve Area in Mashonaland East Province. To this end, the study sought to examine the socio-economic implications of land reform on the culture of the people of Chief Svosve people in Mashonaland east of Zimbabwe, to investigate the policy and legal frameworks on land reforms and its implications among the Chief Svosve people in Mashonaland east of Zimbabwe, to assess the key challenges facing the land reforms among the Chief Svosve community in Zimbabwe”. In this conclusion, the researcher gives some policy recommendation.

5.2 Summary of the Key Findings

Following a thorough review and assessment of the study's summary findings, the researchers arrived at the following conclusions. The findings are then used to make recommendations.

This first aim was met when the study discovered that the unequal distribution of Zimbabwe's income implies that rural income growth is being stifled and domestic markets and industrial development are being constrained. Because of the country's delayed industrialization and persistently high levels of poverty and unemployment, the majority of Zimbabweans will remain land dependent for the foreseeable future. Increasing economic development and diversification through an elaborate and effective logical structure of agriculture and land resource utilisation must be the primary goal of land reform policy. White or black minority elite groups will have minimal influence over land policy due to their restricted consumption interests and low effective demand. The study revealed that when it comes to economic growth and poverty alleviation in the developing countries, land policy, land

rights and land reform are key factors to consider. Land concerns, on the other hand, are frequently complicated and contentious. As a result, they may be overlooked. Women from Chief Svosve in Mashonaland East Province have the highest rates of poverty, according to a new research. This is because these women contribute significantly to agriculture and are the backbone of agricultural work, yet they own nothing and make nothing from the food they grow.

The second objective of this study sought to, “to investigate the policy and legal frameworks on land reforms and its implications among the Chief Svosve people in Mashonaland east of Zimbabwe”. Based on the observation, the study established that there is a variety of laws in Zimbabwe that affects community land, which is where the majority of people live. The “Traditional Leaders Act, the Rural District Councils Act, the Mines and Minerals Act, and the Environmental Management Act” are examples of these. Laws that directly affect communities having a customary land tenure system include the CL Act as well as the LA Act. This is how things have been since the pre-2013 constitutional period, with no changes to the legislation. Communities' usufruct rights have been repeatedly reaffirmed via the implementation of the law, while ownership rights remain with the state. The state's role on protecting community's interests is becoming more muddled in an age when private companies collaborate with the government to create development initiatives.

In line with the third objective, which sought to examine the key challenges facing the land reforms among the Chief Svosve community in Zimbabwe, the study established that Land reforms in Zimbabwe had a variety of flaws that harmed the country's agricultural output on multiple levels. The study has also concluded that the land reforms in Zimbabwe had significant policy flaws that resulted in ineffective planning, problematic implementation strategies, and weak administrative processes. Because of this, new farms have been reluctant to make the kind of significant agricultural investments needed to grow agriculture that existed on the old.

5.3 Conclusion

According to the findings of the study, Zimbabwe's greatest challenge over the last two decades has been to redistribute land equitably while also overcoming various legal and financial constraints inherited from the colonial government that left uneven distribution of land which is skewed along racial lines. However, despite Zimbabwe's progress, there are still many difficulties that need to be dealt with in order for it to go forward. Reforming land usage, property rights, agriculture, and administration are all aspects of land reform. In order to prevent the land problem from manifesting itself in other ways, such as decreased agricultural productivity, ambiguity about land rights, and poor land administration, the Zimbabwean government responded to these challenges through land reform. Other requirements of the Land Management framework must be met as well. In order to boost agricultural productivity and restore Zimbabwe's status as the Southern Africa region's breadbasket, resources must be made accessible to the newly relocated farmers. The execution of the reform program must be closely monitored on a regular basis. It was announced in early 2003 that a commission had been set up by government to examine land reform implementation. The Commission had just finished submitting its report to the President when this article was written, but it had not yet been made public.

5.4 Recommendations

On the first objective, the study recommends to stakeholders to boost the ability of the civil society so that they can represent the poor in land reform processes. In addition, stakeholders should coordinate with the regional organizations and development partners in order to learn lessons on good practice.

In light of the findings of the second objective discussed above, the study recommends a revision of the FTLRP policy to hinder the addition of beneficiaries on already allocated land in villages. Strict

measures to avoid this problem should be established to limit the politicisation of land as a tool for garnering votes by politicians. This revision should be sensitive to the need for healthier social capital in the A1 villages since they cannot survive without it due to their communal nature and lack of post-settlement support.

In tandem with findings of the third objective, the study recommends that the stakeholders should provide more post-settlement assistance to the land reform recipients. This would equip them to maximise agricultural production without facing many challenges. Thus, land reform's goal of reducing poverty would be addressed.

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Appendix 1: Structured Interview Guide

Short message for the respondent

Dear Respondent,

My name is Silibaziso Manyonga. I am a Master's Degree student at the University of Nairobi, Department of Diplomacy and International Studies. I am undertaking a study on assessment the implications of land reform on sustainable development of rural communities in Zimbabwe: the case of Chief Svosve area in Mashonaland East Province in Zimbabwe. The study is purely for academic purposes. Kindly please answer the questions as openly and truthfully as you can as the process will be confidential. I appreciate you taking part in this study.

Section A: Bio data of the respondent

1. Indicate your gender
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
2. What age bracket do you fall under?
 - a. 18-24 years
 - b. 25-31 years
 - c. 32-38 years
 - d. 39-45 years
 - e. 45 and above
3. How long have you served at the Chief Svosve area?

(This section only applies to security officials/personnel)

- a. Less than 1 year
- b. 1-3 years
- c. 4-7 years
- d. 8-12 years
- e. 12 years and above

Level of education.....

4. What is your profession?

.....

5. What ethnic group do you belong?

Section B: socio-economic implications of land reform on the people of Chief Svosve area in Mashonaland East in Zimbabwe.

6. What do you think are the other socio-economic implications of land reform on the culture of the people of Chief Svosve area in Mashonaland East in Zimbabwe?

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7. What do you think are the effects of economic gains of land reform on women and youth in relation to the indigenous culture of Chief Svosve area?

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8. In your opinion how has land reform affected women headed families?

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9. How has land reform programme in Chief Svosve affects you and your family in General?

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10. How is livelihood of Chief Svosve Community residents affected by land reform programme in Zimbabwe?

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11. Do you think the land reform programme eradicated poverty among Chief Svosve Community residents in Zimbabwe?

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12. How is income growth among Chief Svosve Community residents affected by land reform programme in Zimbabwe?

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.....

13. Where applicable what economic activities were you involved in

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.....

14. How is the labour turnout at your farm. Are you getting enough labour

.....
.....

15. How are livelihoods of land reform beneficiaries affected by land reform programme in Zimbabwe?

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16. How does land reform programme affect land distribution on household food insecurity in Zimbabwe?

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.....

Section C: To investigate implications of the policy and legal frameworks on land reforms on the Chief Svosve area in Mashonaland East in Zimbabwe.

17. Are there policy and legal frameworks on land reforms in Chief Svosve area in Mashonaland East in Zimbabwe?

Yes ()

No ()

18. If yes, are they effective?

.....
.....

19. Describe the implications of inadequacy of implementation infrastructure of policy and legal frameworks on land reforms in Chief Svosve area in Mashonaland East in Zimbabwe

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.....

20. What do you think are the measures necessary steps for adequate land reform in Chief Svosve area in Mashonaland East in Zimbabwe

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.....

21. How would this one impact on the problem of land

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.....

What do you think the community should do to help alleviate this land problem.

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.....

Section D: To assess the key challenges facing the land reforms among the Chief Svosve community in Mashonaland East in Zimbabwe.

22. What are the political factors affecting land reform programme in Zimbabwe?

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23. What are the economic factors affecting land reform programme in Zimbabwe?

.....
.....

24. What are the social factors affecting land reform programme in Zimbabwe?

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.....

25. How does low levels of stakeholder and civil society involvement affect the land reforms among the Chief Svosve community in Zimbabwe? (Need to flag this out....c

- a. creating awareness,
- b. advocating for the people rights

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.....

26. Explain how inadequate human and institutional capacity affect the land reforms among the Chief Svosve community in Zimbabwe

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27. How does sectoral focus to policy development affect the land reforms among the Chief Svosve community in Zimbabwe?

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