

**Assessment of Agro-based Entrepreneurship Opportunities in the Fast Track Land
Reform Programme in Marondera District, Zimbabwe.**

By

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DECLARATION

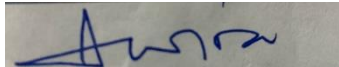
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I declare that the above thesis is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

I further declare that I submitted the thesis to originality checking software and that it falls within the accepted requirements for originality.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at Unisa for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.



25-01-2023

SIGNATURE

DATE

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my family and friends to whom I am dearly indebted for their love, patience and humility in encouraging me with their priceless support.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ADB	African Development Bank
BACCOSI	Basic Commodities Supply Side Intervention
FDI	Foreign direct investment
FTLRP	Fast Track Land Reform Programme
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GMB	Grain Marketing Board
GOZ	Government of Zimbabwe
MERP	Millennium Economic Recovery Programme
NERP	National, Economic Revival Programme
UK	United Kingdom
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
USA	United States of America
ZIMASSET	Zimbabwe's Agenda for Sustainable socioeconomic Transformation
ZIMPREST	Zimbabwe's Programme for Economic and Social Transformation

ABSTRACT

This study assessed the entrepreneurial opportunities inherent in the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP) in the Marondera District of Mashonaland East province, Zimbabwe. The study was energised by the idea that the quest for total economic independence can only be realised by exploiting the agro-based entrepreneurial opportunities in the FTLRP. Critical judgements have been made on the extent to which the FTLRP has been a success or a failure. The researcher argues that the entrepreneurship opportunities contained in the FTLRP could have had a transformative impact on livelihoods. Livelihoods have been impacted positively to a large extent, hence the reason for this study. The study is anchored on the pragmatist philosophy and adopted the mixed methods research paradigm. Data were collected using unstructured interviews, structured questionnaires, and focus group discussions. The respondents included stakeholders related to the FTLRP, such as the land beneficiaries as well as agro-based dealers who facilitated the provision of enabling services for entrepreneurship development. The major findings are that most farmers are engaged in primary production of agricultural produce, which constitutes raw materials such as maize, sunflower and soya beans that are produced for resale in processing industries. The prices offered in local markets are not attractive enough to lure investment into agro-business entrepreneurship. Even though government allocated land to beneficiaries, the issue of property rights has remained a concern to FTLRP farmers. The farmers feel vulnerable because they do not have ownership rights, thus making them at risk of eviction. Furthermore, these farmers cannot farm sustainably, as they are unable to borrow money from banks to support agro-business entrepreneurship. The study recommends that government issues farmers with the property rights such as title deeds, and train farmers on more intensive farming methods towards increasing the hectares of productive land, with specialisation in selected crops that fetch bigger margins of return on investment for farmers to enjoy economies of scale. There is a need for all stakeholders, particularly government, banks, development partners and the donor community to mobilise financial resources that can provide a diverse source of funding to support agro-based entrepreneurship.

Key words: Agro-based entrepreneurship, opportunities, Fast-Track Land Reform Programme, resettlement, farmers, Marondera District, Zimbabwe, national government, challenges, political factors, institutional factors, economic development, industry.

ISISHWANKATHELO

Olu phando luhlale amathuba oshishino akhoyo kwiNkqubo yokuHlaziywa koMhlaba ngokukhawuleza eyaziwa ngokuba yi-*Fast-Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP)* kwiSithili iMarondera kwiphondo laseMashonaland East, eZimbabwe. Uphando lukhuthazwe yingcamango yokuba ukufuna ukuzimela ngokupheleleyo kwezozoqoqosho kunokufezekiswa kuphela ngokusebenzisa amathuba oshishino olusekelwe kwezolimo kwiFTLRP. Kwenziwe uhlalutyo olugwebayo malunga nokuba iFTLRP ibe yimpumelelo okanye iye yasilela na. Umphandi uxoxa ukuba amathuba oshishino aqulethwe kwiFTLRP ebenokuba nefuthe lokuguqula indlela yokuziphilisa. Iindlela zokuziphilisa ziye zachaphazeleka kakuhle ubukhulu becala, nto leyo ekhokelele kolu phando. Olu phando lusekelwe kwifilosofi egxile ekusetyenzisweni kwengcamango esebenzayo endaweni kokufaneleka kwayo okunokwenzeka eyaziwa ngokuba yi-*pragmatist philosophy*, lwaze lwasebenzisa iindlela ezixubileyo zophando. Idatha iqokelelwe kusetyenziswa udliwanondlebe olungacwangciswanga, amaxwebhu emibuzo ecwangcisiweyo, kunye neengxoxo zeqela ekugxilwe kulo luphando. Abaphenduli bophando baquka abathathinxaxheba abanxulumene neFTLRP, njengabaxhamli bomhlaba kwakunye nabathengisi bezolimo ababeququzelela ukubonelelwa kweenkonzo ezinika amandla kuphuhliso lwamashishini. Iziphumo eziphambili kukuba uninzi lwamafama lubandakanyeka kwimveliso ephambili yemveliso yezolimo, evelisa iimveliso ezingacolwanga ezifana nombona, ujongilanga kunye neembotyi zesoya eziveliswa ukuze zithengiswe kwakhona kumashishini okuzicola. Amaxabiso anikezelwa kwiimarike zasekuhlaleni akanamtsalane ngokwaneleyo ukulukuhla utyalomali kushishino lwamashishini ezolimo. Nangona urhulumente wabela abaxhamli umhlaba, umba wamalungelo omhlaba uye wahlala uxhalabisa kumafama eFTLRP. Amafama aziva esemngciphekweni kuba engenawo amalungelo obunini, nto leyo ibenza abe semngciphekweni wokugxothwa kule mihlaba. Ngaphezu koko, la mafama awakwazi ukulima ngokuzinzileyo nanjengoko engakwazi ukuboleka imali ezibhankini ukuxhasa ushishino lwamashishini ezolimo. Olu phando lucebisa ukuba urhulumente anikeze amafama amalungelo omhlaba afana neziqinisekiso/iitayitile zomhlaba, aze aqeqeshe amafama kwiindlela zokulima ezimandla ngakumbi ekwandiseni ihektare zomhlaba onemveliso, ingakumbi kwizityalo ezikhethiweyo ezenza ingeniso enkulu yenzuzo kutyalomali lwamafama ukuze onwabele uqoqosho lwemveliso yawo. Kukho imfuneko yokuba bonke abachaphazelekayo, ingakumbi urhulumente, iibhanki, amahlakani ophuhliso kunye noluntu olunikelayo, baqokelele izibonelelo zemali ezinokubonelela ngomthombo wenkxasomali ongafaniyo ukuxhasa ushishino olusekelwe kwezolimo.

Amagama angundoqo: Ushishino olusekelwe kwezolimo, amathuba, iNkqubo yokuHlaziywa koMhlaba ngokukhawuleza, ukulungisa, amafama, iSithili iMarondera, eZimbabwe, urhulumente wesizwe, imingeni, imiba yezopolitiko, imiba yamaziko, uphuhliso lwezozoqoqosho, ushishino lwemveliso

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The issue of Agro-based Entrepreneurship Opportunities in the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP) has gained much attention from the academia (Scoones *et al*, 2011; Matondi, 2021; Mkodzongi, 2013a). However, the current body of literature lacks up to date information on how entrepreneurs can maximise on Agro-based Entrepreneurship Opportunities in the FTLRP in Zimbabwe. Poor socioeconomic performance of an economy highly linked to agricultural production, coupled with the high import bill of agricultural products, motivated the production of this thesis. Before the Land Reform Programme, Zimbabwe used to be the bread basket of Africa. However, during the turn of the new millennium everything changed. Commercial farms are no longer producing enough to cater for the domestic market, perennial economic crises persist with high unemployment rates ranging between 80-90% (Zimstats, 2017). This study seeks to assess agro-based entrepreneurial opportunities presented by the FTLRP in Marondera District, Zimbabwe. This opening chapter presents the background, problem statement, objectives, research questions, significance of the study and delimitation and limitations of the study.

1.2 Background to the study

Agro-based entrepreneurship entails the organisation, management and cultivation of land resources through knowledge and skills. The skills appropriate for the development of entrepreneurship are nurtured to respond to the changing agro-economic environment (Gupta, 2019). Requisite socioeconomic strategies are sought greatly in capacitating different nations to take actions in developing appropriate agro-based entrepreneurial capacities. The means, and capacitation with insightful progressive entrepreneurial action, are needed to harness the agri-preneurial potential and strength of a nation. Appropriate entrepreneurial methodologies with a long term impact on lives have been sought throughout history by many nations. The mandate of any government is to mobilise appropriate policy frameworks that ignite national energy in creating and innovating means and ways that enable a nation to exploit its embedded resources (Schlager, 2019). Approaches to this dilemma is what intrigues particularly developing nations today, with some going on a path of nationalisation of natural resources, some opting for privatisation and encouraging the co-option of development partners in their zeal to change people's lives. African nations are, in particular, burdened with the need to develop and ensure food sovereignty.

To successfully change the socioeconomic landscape, as declared under the Lagos Plan for Action in 1980, African governments have endeavoured in promulgating varied socioeconomic policies (Mncube, 2020). Zimbabwe, who obtained independence from Britain in 1980, is not an exception to the pursuance of fundamental changes in its socioeconomic dispensation. The Zimbabwe government embarked on agricultural reforms which were implemented in various phases. The Land Reform Programme officially began in 1979 after the signing of the Lancaster House Agreement. The signed agreement proposed the need to equitably redistribute land between the historically disenfranchised blacks and the minority whites who were the rulers of Southern Rhodesia from 1890 – 1979 (Scoones *et al*, 2011).

This study focused on the FTLRP that was literally sparked by the Land Acquisition Act of 2002. The Land Reform Programme saw change on ownership of land from a white minority to more than 150 000 African farmers (Mkodzongi and Lawrence, 2019). Land redistribution was under two models, namely A1 and A2. The A1 model was characterised by allocation of small plots for crop cultivation and grazing land to poor landless farmers, while the A2 model allocated farms to new black commercial farmers who had the skills and resources to farm profitably, reinvest and raise agricultural productivity. Moyo (2011) notes a 75% fall in large capitalist farms owned mainly by whites and over 15% drop in foreign owned estates.

However, the entrepreneurial creativity envisaged an ideal attitude towards the innovation and diffusion of sustaining gains in agro-based entrepreneurship. Management talents inherent in the processes are embedded in cultivating successful enterprises in the economy (Luc, Chirita, Delvaux and Kepnou, 2018). However, successful FTLRPs in the world have taken up positions on policy that are optimal for a better socioeconomic dispensation. In this scenario, Zimbabwe has been a big lesson to many developing nations on measures to be taken in implementing land reform programmes that are economically viable. Disruption of a vibrant socioeconomic system, and then replacing it with untested policy intervention, should be avoided so as not to accelerate economic meltdown. Informed policy intervention decisions are encouraged from the onset so that minimal cost and loss of lives, income, employment and government revenue can be realised.

The controversy of the FTLRP in Zimbabwe is highlighted by Nyawo (2012), Matondi (2012) and Kringinger (2015). The government's FTLRP has been perhaps the most crucial, and most bitterly contested, political issue surrounding Zimbabwe. For over two decades now, the FTLRP has been a source of heated debate that polarised viewpoints between those who

advocated for redistribution of land property in favour of blacks, and those of the view that the status quo should have prevailed. The latter group gained support from Western media and successive governments in the United Kingdom (Cliffe *et al.*, 2013).

However, there is now a relatively large body of literature that has addressed the views that dominated scholarship in the earlier period (Chaumba, Scoones and Wolmer, 2003; Moyo *et al.*, 2007; Scoones *et al.*, 2010; Matondi, 2021; Hanlon, Manjengwa and Smart, 2012; and Mkodzongi, 2013a, 2013b). This literature broadly argues that the FTLRP in Zimbabwe was redistributive although underpinned by class, gender and ethno-regionalism (Hammer, Raftopoulos and Jensen, 2003; Moyo and Yeros 2005, 2007; Moyo *et al.*, 2007; Scoones *et al.*, 2011; Moyo 2011a, 2011b; Matondi, 2012). More importantly, the major beneficiaries of the FTLRP were peasants who now have access to better quality land and natural resources that were previously enclosed and enjoyed by a few whites and the bi-modal agrarian structure inherited from colonialism.

As noted by Moyo (2011), FTLRP allocation jeopardised the underlying logic of white settler agrarian relations informed by racial monopoly over land and other basic resources that deprived Africans of land based social reproduction and coerced cheap labour supplies. Redistribution marked a radical change in racial patterns of land tenure and improved access across the ethnically diverse provinces, while replacing most private agricultural property rights with land user rights on public property (Monda, 2021).

The FTLRP thus had the impact of increasing the aggregate land size for the peasantry, while downsizing the number, farm size and area of large scale capitalist farms as well as agro-industrial estates, as noted by Moyo (2011). In assessing Zimbabwe's FTLRP, the notable features are accessing land as an economic resource; utilising the land and changing the socioeconomic environment to favour income generating activities, sustaining livelihoods of the beneficiaries and generating economic development of Zimbabwe. Nyawo (2012), through the Institute of Development Studies of the University of Sussex, published a report asserting that the Zimbabwean economy is booming and that new businesses are growing in the rural areas. The study revealed that of the hectares of land redistributed via the FTLRP, 59.2% of those who received land were rural peasants, 18.3% were unemployed or in low paid jobs in regional towns, growth points and mines, 16.5% were civil servants and 6% were of the Zimbabwean working class (Moyo, 2011).

The objectives of the FTLRP as outlined in the Zimbabwe government Land Acquisition Amendment Act (Act 150 of 2000); Land Acquisition Act (Act 14 of 2001), Land Acquisition Amendment Act (Act 6 of 2002) Land Acquisition Amendment Act (Act 10 of 2002) Policy documents are to; decongest rural communities, create employment and alleviate poverty through engagement in income generating projects. The prerogative of construing entrepreneurial initiatives to utilise accessed land was to rest with beneficiaries. It is a privilege to own land and use it as a means of production. Hence, agro-business opportunities embedded in the FTLRP are to be explicitly exploited by entrepreneurship mindsets. Entrepreneurship is understood by Khan (2012) as the creation of innovative skills within the agriculture industry. This compels entrepreneurs to restructure operations on farms with a view to exploit opportunities inherent in agriculture.

Agro-business opportunities include the creation of new products, new markets exploitation of agro-based resources of land, labour, capital and entrepreneurial skills (Macombe, 2018). However, the outcomes of the Zimbabwe FTLRP to date are debatable. According to World Fact Book (2020), Zimbabwe's economy shrunk by 3% between 2014 and 2017, due to poor harvest decreased investment, low diamond revenues and poor infrastructure. Such GDP decline is evidence of the impact of agro-based reform implications on the economy. This necessitates the need to evaluate agro-based entrepreneurship opportunities in the FTLRP and come up with strategies to stimulate entrepreneurial development in the economy.

Zimbabwe's FTLRP restructured land ownership by allocating sixteen thousand five hundred households with farm plots measuring between fifty to three hundred hectares (Government of Zimbabwe, 2010). As alluded to by Scoones *et al.* (2011), resettled farmers are engaged in mixed farming which is characterised by small-scale animal husbandry, horticulture production as their form of agricultural business. Scoones *et al.* (2011) attest that at least half of the FTLRP beneficiaries are enterprising and successful farmers. While their farming efforts in aggregate terms are having impact on the economy in stimulating demand for services, consumption of goods and labour, the overall efforts are not improving the socioeconomic position of Zimbabwe. The World Bank (2022) reported that extreme poverty has risen from 29% to 34% from 2018 – 2019. Hence, the study focuses on agro-based entrepreneurship opportunities inherent in the FTLRP with a view to improve and increase output of goods and services in the economy. This may transform into economic development, characterised by improved employment opportunities, entrepreneurial activities, income enhancement and poverty alleviation as enshrined in the national economic goals. Hence the need to reorient the current

economic strength and opportunities endowed in land as a national economic resource. Restructuring and re-engineering of entrepreneurial knowledge and action is a prerequisite of an innovative society. Such proactive measures are found in the FTLRP envisaged to unlock the potential economic development of the nation.

Considering the above stated issues, it is therefore imperative to argue for the establishment of agro-based entrepreneurial opportunities arising from the FTLRP in Marondera District for the period 2010 - 2021. However, apart from changing the inherited agricultural and land tenure structure, the FTLRP brought new challenges with it especially among farm labourers in the form of class struggles especially in areas such as Chiweshe and Chabata (Jakaza, 2019). In as much as the FTLRP offered democracy in terms of land ownership, it also facilitated class formation within the Zimbabwean farming sector. As a result of its radical nature, the FTLRP gave birth to an imperial backlash with the European Union (EU) led by UK, and USA, imposing targeted sanctions on Zimbabwe (Bond, 2007). The result was the gradual isolation of Zimbabwe from international foreign markets accompanied by lack of Foreign Direct Investment which in turn informed Zimbabwe's ideal of keeping within the orbit of China, Russia and Korea in a move dubbed the "Look East Policy".

The sanctions have brought a myriad of challenges to the agricultural sector. Investment has declined sharply, negatively affecting agricultural production as a result of lack of and limited lines of credit, inadequate investment in the rehabilitation and development of irrigation systems to combat the effect of recurrent droughts and also limited access to regional and international markets. After reaching US\$745 million in 2018, Zimbabwe witnessed significant declines in foreign direct investment (FDI). According to data from the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD, 2022), FDI inflows into Zimbabwe fell from US\$280 million in 2019 to US\$194 million in 2020. Statistics show that, on average, the national average maize production fell from 233,1 kg per household in 2019 to 202,7 in 2020 and also small grains from 24,4 kg per household to 17 kg (Moyo, 2022). The government has been forced to come up with heterodox economic policies in a bid to address spiralling inflation economic stagnation and falling GDP. Zimbabwe was plunged into an acute economic crisis in 2008 until the formation of a Government of National Unity that saw some relaxation of sanctions resulting in a temporary loosening of the sanctions squeeze, only to be tightened again after the 2013 harmonised elections (Smith, 2013).

Other studies on Zimbabwe's land reform Programme include Mujuru (2014) and Munyoro and Chimbari (2019) who focused on the importance of capital formation and mobilisation of resources for the development of agricultural entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe. Mujuru (2014) cited lack of finance and markets as the major challenges encountered by the small-holder farmers. She recommended government introduce strategic entrepreneurial skills training workshops for all farmers in the country. The government would support them adequately through provision of infrastructure and subsidised inputs. Munyoro and Chimbari (2019) suggest that credit history, which falls under social capital, was the most important driver of bank credit access among the farmers, followed by agricultural production qualifications and skills. Farm assets and business management skills were the third and fourth most important catalysts of bank credit access, whilst social networks were the least important. Such information pertaining to capital formation should be very relevant to farmers in Zimbabwe as a whole including Marondera district.

This study focuses on Marondera District in the Mashonaland East Province. The province was the pioneer in land invasions that were instigated by war veterans who were joined by the supporters of the ruling party ZANU PF under the traditional guidance of Chief Svosve. Mashonaland East Province (Chimhowu and Woodhouse, 2006). According to Zimbabwe government department of statistics (2012), Mashonaland East Province has an area of 32230 square kilometres and a population of approximately 1.35 million people. The province houses nine administrative districts specialising in various economic activities with resource endowments ranging from animal husbandry, mining, agriculture, agricultural activities and forestry. These resource endowments are spread unevenly in the province with certain districts having concentration of agro-economic production. The notable geographical regions of Zimbabwe having similar socio-ecological trends are regions of Mashonaland West, Mashonaland Central, Mashonaland East and Manicaland. They are also the nation's heart of economic activity, specialising in agricultural production.



Fig 1.1 Zimbabwe map showing Marondera district (bing.com/maps, 2012)

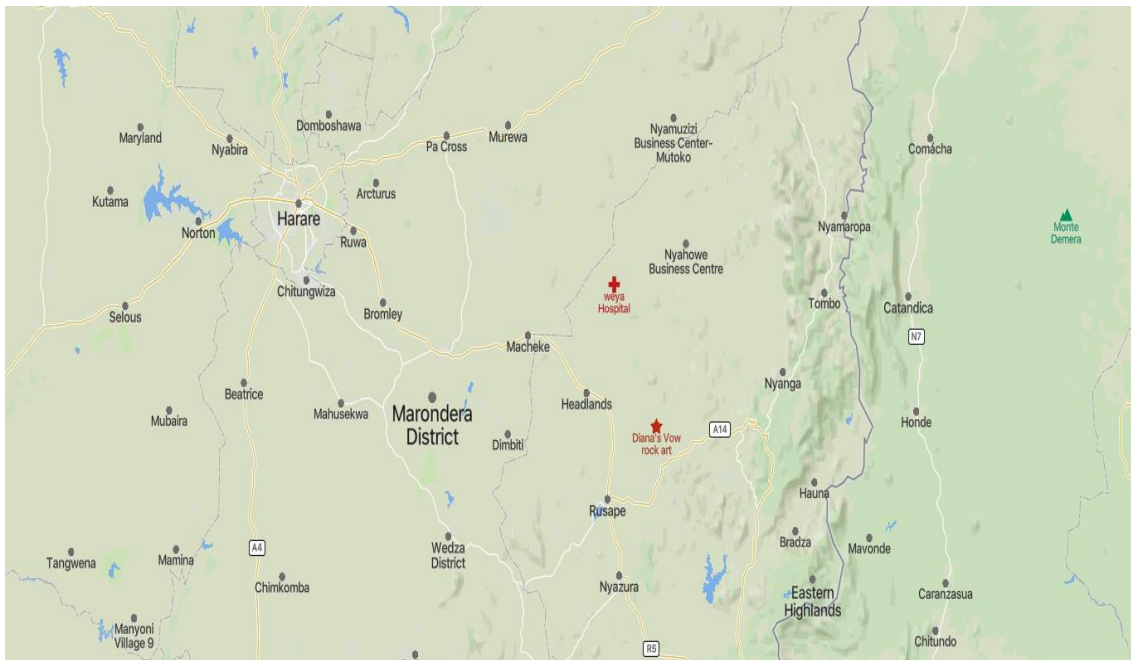


Fig 1.2 Marondera district and surrounding areas (bing.com/maps, 2012)

Marondera district is one of the 9 districts under Mashonaland East province of Zimbabwe. Marondera town is the capital of the province. Mashonaland East is divided into nine districts namely;

- Chikomba
- Goromonzi
- Marondera
- Mudzi
- Murehwa (Mrehwa)
- Mutoko
- Seke
- Uzumba-Maramba-Pfungwe (UMP)
- Wedza (Hwedza)

Marondera is a multicultural city, with a variety of ethnic groups and a Shona majority. Within the African population is a notable proportion of people of Malawian origin whose parents migrated and took employment on the white owned tobacco farms (Ngunguzala, 2021). Before the land reform Programme, most whites were overwhelmingly of British descent, with smaller groups of Dutch, Afrikaans, Greek and other European heritage. Other minorities include mixed race and Asian residents. Most residents of Marondera are traditional or syncretic Christians, predominantly mainline Protestants, Roman Catholics, evangelicals and *mapostori* (a sect of Old Testament bible followers who live like ancient prophets and may dress in white robes). Islam is practised by a very small minority of people in Marondera, almost all of whom are Asians and people of Malawian descent. The indigenous people of Marondera descend mainly from the Shona royal families of Svosve, and the nearby royal households of Chikwaka, Nyashanu and other royal family living there are the Mashonganyika family, among others. They are traditionally farmers (Ngunguzala, 2021).

Marondera Rural District Council is a rural local authority established in terms of the Rural District Councils Act, Chapter 29:13. It constitutes one of the nine districts of Mashonaland East Province. It shares a common boundary with Murewa district to the North, Makoni district in Manicaland province to the East, Wedza and Chikomba districts to the South and Manyame and Goromonzi districts to the West. Marondera Rural District Council covers an area of three hundred and ninety-nine thousand one hundred and eighty-six hectares (399 186) and a total population of one hundred and sixteen thousand nine hundred and eighty-five (116 985) as of 2012 population census (Ministry of local government, 2010).

The district is made up of twenty-three (23) wards which include new resettlement areas (designated in the period 2000 to 2010) and large-scale commercial farming Areas (wards one to eight and ward twenty-three), small scale commercial farming area (ward nine), communal lands (wards ten to twenty), old resettlement areas (wards twenty-one and twenty-two) and urban areas (Ministry of Local Government, 2010).

The district is made up twenty-three administrative wards whose councillors make up the full council (Marondera Rural District Council, 2008). The council is split into committees who work on various thematic areas that are targeted to provide services to the district populace. Council offers different services such as provision of portable water, revenue mobilisation and generation, promotion of sound corporate governance, infrastructure development and rehabilitation, provision of sound human resources management systems, provision of basic social services, gender mainstreaming, environmental management, development control and spatial planning and promotion of investment (Marondera Rural District Council, 2008).

The planning area for Marondera Rural District Council falls under the natural farming region 2B with small pockets of areas classified as region 2A particularly around Marondera town. Most of the areas ranges from 1 372.5m to 1 681.94m in the district with Theydon Kopje being the highest point of 1 717.15m and on Marondera Watershed altitude being around 1 681.95m. Soils vary from predominantly sandy loams to sandy soils in region 2B and heavy red soils (clay or clay loam) in region 2A. The temperatures range from six degrees celsius to twenty degrees celsius while the annual average is ten to fourteen degrees celsius. The area experiences cool to warm summers and very cold winters. Rainfall in the district averages between 700mm to 1 050mm. More rainfall is concentrated in the North of the district.

Within Marondera district which houses the provincial capital, Marondera, there are many business opportunities and predominant businesses are; meat and food processing and canning, timber processing and furniture manufacturing, warehouses and transportation, horticulture, textiles and clothing, leather and footwear, printing packaging, agricultural produce and services. Agriculture which covers farming remains the hub of business activities in Marondera District.

Zimbabwe's economic crisis from year 2000 was pronounced in the agricultural sector which caters for 60% of the population. However, from 2009 agriculture has been on a recovery path,

though the sector continues to lag behind (Matondi, 2012). Inequities in the sector associated with lack of access to funding, expensive credit and lack of entrepreneurial mindset has been behind the negative economic performance. The fundamental goal of entrepreneurship is to help individuals within society to improve on the quality of their own lives and share equitably in the benefits of economic growth. Before the FTLRP, agriculture contributed 14% of GDP, crop and livestock production were key agricultural activities making Zimbabwe self-sufficient in food. In the last decade, Zimbabwe has transitioned from being recognised as the bread basket of Southern Africa to a bread bowl (basket case) because of the FTLRP that sought to redress land imbalances. The Programme created agro-based entrepreneurial opportunities by allocating land resource to black Zimbabweans. As noted earlier, production of agro-based goods and services, employment generation, income generating projects and agro-based investments shrunk to less than 3% growth per annum between 2014 and 2017. Extreme poverty in Zimbabwe rose from 20% to 34% from 2014 to 2019. Agro-based entrepreneurship creativity has not changed the socioeconomic dispensation of Zimbabweans resulting in high unemployment, low living standards, high inflation of basic products and services. Hence, the research problem “Lack of agro-based entrepreneurship skills to exploit and manage agro-based opportunities inherent in the FTLRP has negatively impacted on agricultural performance of Zimbabwe” and the economy shrank by 15.8% due to poor performance, persistent drought and impact of cyclone Idai in 2019 (African Development Bank, 2019).

1.3 Problem Statement

Agro-based entrepreneurship skills to exploit and manage agro-based opportunities inherent in the FTLRP are rarely understood in Zimbabwe. This has at times impacted negatively on agricultural performance of the country. This study thus seeks to assess agro-based entrepreneurship skills to exploit and manage agro-based opportunities inherent in the FTLRP. Zimbabwe’s economic crisis from the year 2000 was pronounced in the agricultural sector where 60% of the population depends on agriculture. According to Behery (2018), Africa has more than 202 million hectares of uncultivated land, equivalent to almost half of the world’s usable uncultivated land. Despite this, Africa suffers from the highest poverty rate in the world with nearly 47.5% of the population living below the poverty line of US\$1.25 a day (as of 2008). Poor resource management and improper governance of land has been the main hindrance to unleashing the potential of the agricultural land in Africa. The pursuit of economic emancipation through indigenisation, land empowerment through economic resources

restoration has been done to ensure economic empowerment of most Zimbabweans. Other countries in the region like South Africa are trying to emulate albeit challenges (Ngcukaitobi, 2021). However, from 2009 after dollarisation in Zimbabwe, the economy had shown signs of being on a recovery path, and the agriculture sector continues to lag behind (Matondi, 2012; Tanyanyiwa, Kanyepi and Katanha, 2022).

Inequities in the sector associated with lack of access to funding, expensive credit, lack of supporting entrepreneurship have been rallied behind the negative economic performance. The fundamental goal of entrepreneurship is to help individuals within society to improve on the quality of their own lives and share equitably in the benefits of economic growth. Before the FTLRP, agriculture contributed 14% of GDP, crop and livestock production were key agricultural activities making Zimbabwe self-sufficient and food secure. In the last decade Zimbabwe has transitioned from being recognised as the bread basket of Southern Africa to a bread bowl (Chikuhwa, 2006; Hove and Gwiza, 2012) because of the Fast Track Land Reform Programme that sought to redress land imbalances. The Zimbabwean Fast Track Land Reform Programme created agro-based entrepreneurial opportunities by allocating land resource to Zimbabweans. Agro-based opportunities were supposed to increase investment in the production of goods and services, employment generation, income generating projects and agro-based investments but these decreased to less than 3% growth per annum from 2014 to 2019. Zimbabwe extreme poverty rose from 20% to 34% from 2014 to 2019. Agro-based entrepreneurship creativity has not changed the socioeconomic dispensation of Zimbabweans resulting in high unemployment, low living standards and high inflation of basic products and services. Hence the research problem “Lack of agro-based entrepreneurship skills to exploit and manage agro-based opportunities inherent in the Fast Track Land Reform Programme has negatively impacted on agricultural performance of Zimbabwe”. As a result, the economy shrank by 15.8% in 2019 due to poorly coordinated Land Reform Programme which was worsened by cases of persistent droughts and impact of cyclone Idai in 2019 (African Development Bank, 2019).

1.4 Research objectives

The primary objective of the study is to assess agro-based entrepreneurship opportunities in the Fast Track Land Reform Programme in Zimbabwe using Marondera District as a case study. The following are secondary objectives:

- To establish key drivers of agro-based entrepreneurship.

- To evaluate the nature of agro-based entrepreneurship opportunities in Marondera District.
- To determine the obstacles and best practices of agro-based entrepreneurship.
- To suggest key policies and institutions that promote or inhibit agro-based entrepreneurship in the FTLRP.

1.5 Research Questions

The study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the key drivers of agro-based entrepreneurship opportunities in the Fast Track Land Reform Programme in Zimbabwe?
2. Why are there limited agro-based entrepreneurship opportunities in the Fast Track Land Reform?
3. Which are the obstacles and best practices of agro-based entrepreneurship in the Fast Track Land Reform?
4. How do key policies and institutions promote or inhibit agro-based entrepreneurship opportunities in the Fast Track Land Reform Programme?

1.6 Justification of the Study

Firstly, the World Bank supports land reform implementation in Africa based on lessons learned from countries like Brazil, Argentina, Indonesia, and China. Land governance Programmes from these countries present a well evidenced way to achieving transformational agro-entrepreneurship change and impact that will help attain Africa's potential future for the benefit of all its citizens. The intended land reform initiatives in Africa build on previous experiences of overcoming challenges and ensuring reforms achieve their purposes with specific customised solutions. This study builds on the existing literature, examining how land reforms in Africa can be undertaken in a productive way. Hence, the quest for total liberation manifests itself on progressive notions and scholarships of this new dispensation to make known the entrepreneurial intend of the reforms as supported by policies of the day. Land

reforms are often justified based on reflective national agendas on socioeconomic development, socio-cultural and technological needs (Sifile, Chiweshe and Mutopo, 2021). The modern dictates of dynamic development policies are exerting macro pressures upon nations to pin their national hopes on issues that trigger fast and innovative coping societies. Development agendas in many nations call for a balance to achieve and promoting equity, reducing poverty, securing a vibrant economy while correcting social injustices, and averting social unrest. In addition, there is a view in development economics arguing in favour of land-reform Programmes also on efficiency grounds.

Secondly, restoration of lost land rights to African people, in the author's view, justifies the need to deepen the study of land reforms in Africa. To restore land to Africans, land redistribution had to be done, but officially, in Zimbabwe, it began with the 1979 signing of the *Lancaster House Agreement*. This agreement was that Britain would fund the reform by introducing a willing buyer, willing seller policy whereby the white farmers who did not intend to stay in the country would be bought out by funds provided by the then British Government. The British Government gave the new Zimbabwean Government £44 million for the initial projects and a fee would be negotiated after the money has been spent. Following this cash injection, the *Communal Land Act*, *Land Acquisition Act* and *Land Reform and Resettlement Programme Phase* were introduced. Following the above Acts, a new Fast Track Land Reform Programme was introduced and was spearheaded by the War Veterans who were joined by the land hungry poor peasantry. Contrary to what is portrayed internationally, this Fast Track procedure was legalised in September 2005 through the constitutional amendment. It becomes imperative to ensure that such Programmes are an unqualified success.

Thirdly, the research is worth undertaking as it exposes the hunger/thirsty that people had for productive land that was taken away by force by the colonial system. Most researchers have concentrated on the post 2000 land reform on rural livelihoods, agricultural production, on markets and the economy, on farm workers and employment (Moyo, 2004; Moyo and Yeros, 2015; Chipenda, 2018; Cliffe, 2018; Stoneman, 2018) and on the environment and institutions, but have not dwelt on the perceptions of entrepreneurial development of the resettled farmers to maximise production.

Fourthly, poverty alleviation and improvement of economic gains is paramount in the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals (Mehra *et al.*, 1997). Agro-based entrepreneurship culture among developing nation population guarantees food security and an improved people's livelihoods and avert the disastrous impact of poverty in these nations. Hence, the study of agro-business entrepreneurship hinges on the insightful appreciation of the nation's culture of innovation and creativity in the management of national economic resources. The endowed national resources of land, technology, human talents, natural resources, skills and know-how inherent in a nation are critical in shaping the development dimension of modern societies.

Fifth, government policies and systems are created to harness what a nation has in order to stimulate needed socioeconomic development agendas. Zimbabwe in particular is bogged by lack of significant socioeconomic development from the period of FTLRP to date. The main reason argued by Moyo (2011) was the controversial land reform which has been negatively perceived and discouraged resulting in lack of support by development stakeholder such as banks and private sector organisations. There has been lack of policy coherency and consistency, lack of predictability in Zimbabwe's Fast Track Land Reform Programme resulting in loss of confidence among the land beneficiaries and investors. The economic agencies for development need policy invigoration and positioning that could be exploited for developmental direction. The stimulant measure needed to ignite entrepreneurship is policy consistency, congruency and predictability. While access to primary economic resource is considered noble in its essence the management of this resource for posterity is required from policy as well to practitioners. It can be debatable that the economy of Zimbabwe was performing well in view of output before the Fast Track Land Reform Programme process and scholar's debate of a worsening scenario after the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (Mkodzongi and Lawrence, 2019). Management of the land reform requires intelligence of the global impact that stimulates activities towards a development agenda.

Sixth, the researcher is intrigued by the invisible hand of the implications of land reform in uplifting the agro-entrepreneurship culture in the resettled areas. Such creativity and innovation that arise due to access to national resource of land should be investigated and documented as repository of critical knowledge in our society.

Seventh, the study should benefit government policy makers with critical information provision on what needs to be done to boost agro-entrepreneurship production and enhance national food security. Some of the stakeholders especially farmers will be influenced by the outcome of this study since the success of the FTLRP will require the concerted effort of everyone to ensure maximum production. The study will also help to analyse the successes and failures of the FTLRP, as well as, to establish why some newly resettled farmers are performing poorly than others to date and how the grey areas can be managed for the benefit of the FTLRP beneficiaries to enhance the success of agro-based entrepreneurship development.

In addition, management of economic resources towards economic efficient use and utilisation to impact change to the beneficiaries' socioeconomic scope is imperative. Poverty alleviation and improvement of economic gains is paramount in the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals (Mehra, 1997). Agro-based entrepreneurship culture among developing nations guarantees food security and improved livelihoods. Controversial land reform has been negatively perceived and discouraged as argued by Moyo *et al.* (2011) resulting in lack of support by stakeholders such as banks and private sector organisations.

Lastly, there has been lack of policy coherence and consistency, lack of predictability in Zimbabwe's FTLRP resulting in loss of confidence among the land beneficiaries and investors. The economic agencies for development need policy invigoration and positioning that could be exploited for developmental direction. The stimulant measure needed to ignite entrepreneurship is policy consistency, congruency and predictability. While access to primary economic resource is considered noble in its essence, the management of this resource for posterity is required from policymakers to practitioners. It is argued that the economy of Zimbabwe was performing well in view of output before the FTLRP process and has been worsening scenario after the land reforms (Mkodzongi and Lawrence, 2019).

1.7 Scope of the Study

This study assesses agro-based entrepreneurship based on the FTLRP in Zimbabwe. The value creation process intended to be realised through the FTLRP should create entrepreneurial opportunities that need to be identified and used for socioeconomic development of Marondera district. Emphasis is given to entrepreneurial exposure, intention, discovery of entrepreneurial opportunities, development of entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurship reward.

Target population chosen are land beneficiaries both A1 and A2 farmers in Marondera district as they were targeted by the government's FTLRP. The A1 is the village model with a communal setup and self-contained form and the A2 model has three forms which are the small, medium and large-scale commercial farms. In total, the sample size for the study was 95, consisting of A1 and A2 Farmers, The Ministry of Lands, Agricultural and Resettlement District extension officers, Agro-based business people in Marondera District and other professionals who benefitted from the land reform (civil servants). Seventy respondents were given questionnaires. Some of the targeted participants did not respond. Only 60 of the targeted respondents returned the questionnaires. The other twenty participants were interviewed as part of the focus groups. Most of the beneficiaries were taken from communal and rural communities and allocated land in previously commercial agricultural zones.

Marondera district in Mashonaland East Province is physically chosen to facilitate this study. It was the leading agricultural production area before the institution of FTLRP. Mashonaland East Province is endowed with a favourable climatic zone of region one, region two and three as defined by the Ministry of Land, Agriculture, Water, Fisheries and Rural Development. According to Monda (2021), Natural Region One constitutes 1,56 percent of total area and has over 1 000mm of annual rainfall. The region is characterised by specialised and diversified farming activities that include animal husbandry, forestry, fruit and intensive horticulture production. Natural Region Two constitutes 18, 68 percent of total area and receives 700-1 000mm of rain, mostly in summer. The region is suitable for intensive farming based on crops or livestock production. Natural region three is made up of a semi-intensive farming area covering 19 percent of Zimbabwe. The region is prone to severe drought spells regardless of moderate rainfall of between 500-750 mm per season. This region specialises in production of maize, tobacco and cotton, which are important crops, as well as animal husbandry. However, before the beginning of the FTLRP in year 2000, Marondera District was known for its viable agricultural activities for both export and domestic consumption. Their returns on investment were significant as they contributed to national value addition and GDP (Nyawo, 2012). With the advent of the FTLRP, such achievements are no longer there, prompting this researcher to investigate the acute decline in agro-based entrepreneurial activity.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

Much of the information in the government sector is deemed confidential and respondents want the privacy of their contribution to be respected to get cooperation. The politics of FTLRP has

triggered political emotions at the expense of resource optimisation. In carrying out this research political bureaucracy in the district also hindered the research study especially on data collection. Scheduled interviews were disturbed by other work commitments as some interviewees did not take the exercise seriously. Some participants in the focus group discussion were replaced to meet the sample size requirements. Reluctance by respondents and interviewees to openly give their independent views on the questionnaires and interviews was a bit challenging to the researcher. They were unwilling to cooperate fully as they were unsure of what would happen to them after giving information. However, persuasion proved important to draw them into the study as assurances of no adverse repercussions on them were made. Hence, the methodological design in the delimitation chosen is subjected to governmental control and intervention. The targeted population and sample size chosen was constrained in the research by its attachments to political structures inherent in the FTLRP and distribution discourse in Zimbabwe. However, the researcher sought mutual agreement from local government officials and representatives of local communities to undertake the study. The importance of the study was highlighted to respondents; assurance being given it would assist policy makers in finding solutions that would allow them to be more productive. The researcher noted gender imbalance since there was no specific data pertaining to allocation of land to women as well as young people who should be considered as well.

The Covid-19 pandemic has affected socioeconomic programmes in Zimbabwe. Citizens have been constrained in their movements, access to basic services and free will involvement in the day-to-day activities. Hence, the unforeseen circumstances of this pandemic are a major threat to this study impacting negatively to the agro-based entrepreneurship development. The researcher experienced challenges in locating and persuading participants, respondents and government officials in their places of work to contribute to this study. Because of the persistent lock-down and curfews due to the Covid-19 pandemic many participants were unable to participate in the study. This was further exacerbated by government's extension of lockdowns and movement restrictions which extended to 2021 and 2022.

Limitations were experienced in the study area. Mashonaland East Province is situated north-eastern part of Zimbabwe with an area of 32 230 km². The province consists of 9 Districts namely, Chikomba, Goromonzi, Marondera, Mudzi, Murehwa, Mutoko, Seke, Uzumba-Maramba-Pfungwe and Wedza with a population of 1.35 million people (zim.gov.zw). The infrastructure of the chosen area is in a dilapidated state with years of neglect in the

maintenance of critical infrastructure enablers like roads, electricity, dams and environmental degradation caused by deforestation and the scourge of artisanal miners in the province. This uncontrolled mining activity in the province has created the demise of a friendly environment suitable for human habitation and cultivation of the land. Rivers have dried up due to droughts and rampant cases of siltation which have eroded the habitation and utilisation of land in the area. The researcher chose Marondera district because of its proximity to urban centres with reasonable infrastructure. This subjective selection may have influenced the objectivity of the study in having delimitation coverage of the whole province.

In carrying out this research lack of sufficient funds hampered the progress and scheduling to commitments in the research study. Travelling costs, stationery and printing costs to carry out the research was constrained due to non-availability of a research bursary. This made the researcher to go out of his way to mobilise funding through borrowing from relatives and friends, leaving the researcher debt burdened.

1.9 Definition of key terms

Agro-based Entrepreneurship: refers to business development that includes the art and science of cultivating the soil, growing crops and raising livestock. This incorporates retailing of agro-based products and services, all focusing on provision of consumer satisfaction (Matondi, 2011).

Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP): refers to the redistribution of land to empower most Zimbabweans from the year 2000.

Entrepreneurship development: is the process in which skills, behaviour, attitudes and knowledge of business persons is attained through various training programmes in order to increase the number of business opportunities (Matondi, 2011).

A1 model: these are small holder self-contained farms mainly focused on agriculture and these are about six hectares each. The farm rental will be uniform for all A1 farmers who will pay US\$10 per year to local government and US\$5 (unit tax) paid to the Ministry of Lands,

Agriculture, Water, Fisheries and Rural Development, (Government starts cutting farm sizes – CFU Zimbabwe accessed on 18 August 2022).

A2 model: these are large scale farms focused on commercial production with hectareage ranging up to 500 hectares of land. A2 farmers will pay US\$2 (unit tax) per hectare yearly, and US\$3 per hectare (land rental), which will be collected by the Ministry of Lands, Agriculture, Water, fisheries and Rural Development.

1.10 Thesis outline

This thesis is organised as follows:

Chapter one: This chapter introduces the study. It gives the background to the FTLRP in Zimbabwe since its inception from the year 2000, the problem statement, scope of the study, importance of the study, study limitations and the definition of key terms.

Chapter 2: This chapter reviews studies on agro-based entrepreneurship inherent in land reforms experienced in different nations. It also presents different theoretical frameworks used in the study including the Institutionalism and the Hybrid entrepreneurship theory, which are pertinent to this study.

Chapter 3: The chapter presents the research methodology used in this study. It explains the pragmatist research philosophy. The study used mixed methods encompassing both quantitative and qualitative methods. The population, sample frame, sampling techniques and sample size, data gathering procedures, data gathering instruments, data analysis strategies, validity and reliability of the study and the ethical considerations are also presented in this chapter.

Chapter 4: The chapter presented the findings on key drivers of agro-based entrepreneurship.

Chapter 5: The chapter evaluated the nature of agro-based entrepreneurship opportunities in Marondera District.

Chapter 6: Chapter covers the findings on obstacles and best practices of agro-based entrepreneurship are presented in this chapter.

Chapter 7: Chapter contains findings on policies and institutions that promote agro-based entrepreneurship.

Chapter 8: This last chapter of the thesis presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

1.11 Conclusion

This chapter has provided a background to research context and problem. The chapter has underlined the problem of poor performance of agro-based enterprises in Zimbabwe. This economic insecurity has become a developmental problem considering the effects of lack of positive economic development. Failure to achieve food security has provoked the current study. Chapter 1 outlined the structure of the thesis, its key concepts, objectives, delimitation and limitations of the study, and definition of key terms. The next chapter provides detailed literature related to the study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This chapter begins by reviewing literature on the land reform in the world and in particular African land reforms. The chapter sets out to capture the experiences inherent in the land reform with the endowed agro-based entrepreneurship experiences among African people. In the process, the chapter identifies agro-based opportunity gaps coded in the FTLRP and the hidden quest for entrepreneurship mindsets among especially resettled farmers. The chapter provided an overview of the conceptual shaping of the agro-based entrepreneurship mode that has been proved to be successful globally, through the agro-based experiences, entrepreneurship learning mode, opportunity recognition in the historical land reform programmes of different nations. This chapter then moves on to review literature that is critical to understanding the FTLRP in Zimbabwe, to situate entrepreneurship development in the momentous development in the history of the country. There is discussion of the conceptual framework and the theoretical framework that informs this study. A summary is given at the end.

2.1.1 Entrepreneurial Knowledge

This study sought to assess the extent to which FTLRP beneficiaries are enterprising in using land as business entity. Entrepreneurship drive and culture is a required behavioural capacitation to ensure success of a business entity. Hence, the business concept has processes and knowledge required to be successful and the focus is to check on the preparedness of land beneficiaries to use the land productively. The term “entrepreneurship” is so broad that it encompasses different things to different people including academics, scholars and leaders. Since entrepreneurship is multifaceted, Audretsch, Kuratko and Link (2015) have attempted to look entrepreneurship from different perspectives. In light of their views, this study focused on agro-based entrepreneurship that looks at value addition whereby farmers use creative ways of improving the quality and quantity of agricultural produce, in this particular case, in Marondera District.

People apply various livelihoods strategies to achieve livelihoods outcomes and these evolve in the interaction with a context of vulnerability and transforming institutions. The FTLRP availed land to many people. Land is a valuable asset and a means to sustain livelihoods. Land is a component of natural capital (Carney, 1998; Scoones, 2011) and this has given meaning to

the world of land beneficiaries in Zimbabwe. The levels of knowledge of individuals have a bearing on their productive capacities and the resilience to the shocks, trends and seasonality encountered in agro-based activities. Any discussion of entrepreneurship opportunities is premised on the availability of inherent skills and the ability to explore and exploit agro - entrepreneurship business openings in view of making a profit. One way to accomplish this task is to elaborate the key outcomes related to the process of exploiting agro-based entrepreneurship business opportunities that have been identified in land reform processes. When opportunities are realised, they are managed to benefit and earn a good return on investment. However, entrepreneurship knowledge when applied to the concept of agro-business, has often been concerned with learning how to recognise and act on opportunities (Corbett, 2002), and learning how to overcome traditional obstacles when organising and managing new opportunities. The other important repository of entrepreneurship knowledge is social capital which is the general wellbeing of the land beneficiaries in the area which encompasses the social amenities, relationships and norms within the area as it can be detrimental to sustainable entrepreneurial production. The physical capital encompasses manufactured assets such as machinery, buildings and vehicles which help to ensure increased productivity thereby lowering vulnerabilities to shocks, trends and seasonality.

In land reform, the essence of land opportunities come through the acquisition of land with clear focused use such as housing development, mining use, recreational purpose and agricultural exploitation. However, exploiting a new opportunity is linked to entrepreneurial experience and knowledge that must have been accumulated and used prior to the availability of an opportunity. While some beneficiaries will right away use the land resource productively without prior knowledge and experience. Thus, from a theoretical point of view, handling challenges of entrepreneurship cannot take place without prior opportunity recognition. This point of departure implies in particular two distinct outcomes related to entrepreneurial development: (1) increased effectiveness in opportunity recognition, and (2) increased effectiveness in coping with the challenges of land ownership.

2.1.2 Opportunity Recognition

Entrepreneurship opportunities are the required openings for entrepreneurs to exploit and gain a good return on investment. These are activities that are given value by the market or customers that would entice customers to part way with their monies. The opportunities inherent in any business venture have to be evaluated in their sufficiency, sustainability and readiness for exploitation. Success of any business venture is a function of many variables and among them is the willingness of the entrepreneur to take up risk (Timmons, 2015). Once an investor is available to spend his fortunes on business risk, the nature of the organisation, human talents, technology, the market, products and services all constitute variable that needs to be managed for success. Opportunity exploitation manifests itself into a successful business entity with an impact on the performance of new ventures, based on factors such as firm location, the choice of sector or market where the firm operates and market positioning. These assumed direct relationships between entrepreneurs' experiences and new venture performance are clear cut opportunities establishing a story of success with the investor and opportunity. It could also be argued that the knowledge derived from past experiences first and foremost has an influence on the strategic choices made by entrepreneurs in their subsequent ventures, which then influence firm performance. This means that it may be more plausible to study the influence of entrepreneurs' experiences on the development of relevant knowledge that indirectly may have an impact on subsequent new venture performance, rather than its direct influence on firm-level performance. The ability to discover and develop agro-based business opportunities is often considered to be among the most important abilities of a successful entrepreneurship, and this has consequently also been noted to impact on the success of land reform programmes in different nations. According to Scoones (2008), land reforms in Africa should bring about changes in people's livelihoods. The changes in the living standards of people generate an intense desire to continue enjoying and benefiting from reforms. However, the policy focus in the reforms is triggered by the need to change for the betterment, of people's lives a key issue to investigate and explain in literature and research on entrepreneurship opportunities recognition in the land reform programmes (Scoones, 2008). A notable assumption is that experienced entrepreneurs are knowledgeable about important agro-business opportunities, agro-business operational activities, value chain suppliers, profitable markets, product availability, and competitive resources and business communication, which enhance their ability to seize and spot entrepreneurial opportunities (Frederick, O'Connor and Kuratko, 2018).

As alluded to by Timmons (2015), experienced entrepreneurs may also be more likely than novice entrepreneurs to pursue ventures as a means of gaining access to a wider range of “shadow options,” such as opportunities that have not been recognised. For example, the current Minister of Lands, Agriculture, Fisheries, Water and Rural Development (Hon. Masuka in 2022) argued that Zimbabwean farmers must transform into agricultural entrepreneurs so that their farms become viable business (Mupanedemo, 2021). This suggests that agro-business entrepreneurs with prior start-up experience have developed an “entrepreneurial mind set” that drives them to seek and pursue entrepreneurial opportunities with enormous discipline, and hence, can be expected to pursue only the very best opportunities. According to Moyo (2022), in a break with the past, Zimbabwe is urging farm owners with unproductive land to form partnerships to bolster agricultural output and slash the country’s import bill. This argument is evidenced by the Zimbabwe government’s current compulsory requirements to newly resettled farmers that they should submit an annual production returns indicating the extent of their agro-business use of the land. The lessons learnt from prior experience might consequently enhance entrepreneurs’ ability to effectively recognise and act on entrepreneurial opportunities (Westhead and Wright, 2003).

However, agro-business entrepreneurship opportunities need to be recognised by the newly settled farmers, considering that increased effectiveness in the opportunity recognition process is an outcome of the entrepreneurial learning process (Tur-Porcar, Roig-Tierno and Llorca Mestre, 2018). Many land beneficiaries have not gone in any opportunity recognition training process, neither is much of their professional experience relevant to agro-business entrepreneurship. Previous research has identified at least two factors that influence the probability that particular individuals will enhance their likelihood to discover entrepreneurial opportunities: (1) the possession of prior information necessary to identify an opportunity, and (2) the cognitive properties necessary to value. The possession of prior information necessary to identify an opportunity has to do with an individual’s total stock of information that influences his or her ability to recognise particular opportunities. The cognitive properties necessary to value it refer to an individual’s ability to identify new means–ends relationships in response to a particular change (Shane and Venkataraman, cited in Davidson, 2015).

The irony in land reform processes in Africa is that the process is politically driven marginalising the need to have entrepreneurship drive in the process. Many land beneficiaries did not have an agro-business mind-set but were politically agitated by the need to revenge on

the colonial past of imbalances in resource ownership (Tur-Porcar, Roig-Tierno and Llorca Mestre, 2018). Hence, the cognitive readiness of the beneficiaries needs to be taught on the precepts of how to do agro-business. Even if both factors describe quite different things, they are nevertheless necessary to be able to recognise and act on entrepreneurial opportunities. This means that even if an individual possesses the prior information necessary to identify or create an opportunity, he or she could fail in actually doing so because of the political economy pressure associated with the individual. However, the cognitive properties of newly resettled farmers remain an issue, as argued by Scoones *et al.* (2011) The ability to recognise and exploit new ideas to bring about solid motivators in doing agro-business must base on strong policy fundamentals. Such motivators were spearheaded by the government through different intervention policies and this is assumed to play a central role in the process of entrepreneurial learning.

An increased effectiveness in the opportunity recognition consequently means that the entrepreneur has picked up more relevant information necessary to identify entrepreneurial opportunities, as well as, having developed his or her cognitive properties necessary to value it (Magdalena and Suhatman, 2020). Hence, prior experience gives rise to further creativity, permitting the sorts of agribusiness action necessary to utilise land resources. This argument also fits theories that argue that the land reform in Zimbabwe was chaotic motivated by other heinous means which are not ideal for a long lasting business culture. In Zimbabwe, absence of prior experiences in recognising agro-business opportunities contributed much to the decline and retardation of profitable land reform outcomes (Scoones, 2015). However, an assumption was made that newly resettled farmers might search for information within a more specific domain of business ideas based on their past experiences in terms of routines and information sources that have worked well in the past (Shonhe, Scoones and Murimbarimba, 2020). This is supported by the argument that some of the land beneficiaries are former workers of commercial farms and have prior knowledge and information of what is expected in exploiting land as a resource. While novice land entrepreneurs with no prior experience may have fewer benchmarks to access whether the information they have gathered is appropriate, they need to identify an entrepreneurial opportunity. The amount of prior experience seems in this respect to be highly associated with an entrepreneur's effectiveness in recognising and acting on entrepreneurial opportunities. Another learning outcome that is assumed to be an important ability of a successful agro-business entrepreneur is the ability to cope with the cost of newness

in owning land for the first time. Land ownership has its challenges that are reflected by having land and exploiting its potential.

2.1.3 Coping with the challenges of resource ownership

Economic resource ownership is a function of an economic system any nation is in. Where the government dominates in prescribing ownership structure of an economy that has its own pros and cons, that has implications on the country's economic fortunes (Magdalena and Suhatman, 2020). The main reasons driving land reform in a developing nation vary but the main and major quoted argument is to have wider access to land as a resource (Ndava and Nyika, 2019). According to Cotula *et al.* (2006), land is an asset of enormous importance for billions of rural dwellers in the developing world. The nature of property rights and their degree of security vary greatly depending on competition for land, the degree of market penetration and the broader institutional and political context. Potential land owners have, for example, factors to consider either as victims or as drivers of land reforms in their nations. The land issues are diverse and vary from country to country though there are common trends and general challenges to note. Increase in population has a tremendous impact on the need of land in many nations (Lerman and Sedik, 2010).

Climate changes have had adverse drastic shifts on agricultural production thereby affecting a soaring population and the means to feed it. The vulnerabilities of different groups have been observed to influence land use for production and food growth. The poor have not had proper representation in their quest for equitable access to land. Those in urban areas, peri-urban areas, indigenous people, women, and those in conflict areas become more vulnerable to such land dispositions. The issue of land rights has generated a wide range of literature. Cotula *et al.* (2006), for instance, argue that attention to land rights influences development and access to land resources for development. Sustainable growth and peace are noted to be enshrined in land rights. As argued by Cotula *et al.* (2006) land policy agenda must be driven and owned at the individual country level whilst lessons of good practice are shared across countries.

There are long term implications of land reform. Such issues as sustainability and long term commitment from government and development agencies become pertinent. This is a function of political power inherent in cementing the success of land reforms. There is need to have

boldness in land reform movement and readiness to challenge resistance by invested interests (Rukasha *et al.*, 2021). Systematic assessments of institutional arrangements handling land reforms need proper orientation and funding. Policy creation, implementation and evaluation are part of the legal tools necessary for the success of land distribution. Capacity building is important for improving access to land. This involves all stakeholders regardless of their stake but critical to ensure the success of land reforms. Challenges noted globally which influence the success of land reforms include lack of awareness, lack of capacity in government departments, lack of legal awareness and economic, geography and linguistic constraints contribute to the achievement of an equitable land access ((Tur-Porcar, Roig-Tierno and Llorca Mestre, 2018). Therefore, the involvement of supporting opportunities emanating from the global community, international organisations, professionals in land reforms and all stakeholders are required to make land reform initiatives successful. In particular development practitioners, civil society and policymakers must share lessons of critical successes and failures of each case. These may play an important role in improving and providing areas of checks and balances on government decision making and development and implementation of land policy and law according to Mavedzenge *et al.* (2011).

At the micro level, there are land beneficiaries who are now new owners of land. Such examples of instant access to land need to be understood and realigned to the national developmental goals so that the benefits accrue to a nation at large. Created in this process are agro-dealers, farmers, markets and individual farmers. Agro- business entrepreneurs must consequently earn recognition as legitimate agro-business persons by reliably providing goods and services in a timely manner. Skills and knowledge on how to manage land resource have been noted as being an impediment to new farmers. Initial capital outlays as well as operational knowledge and marketing problems seem, consequently, to be common reasons for low productivity among newly resettled farmers. This has been evidenced by Scoones *et al.* (2011) that the newly resettled farmers in Masvingo Province, 46.5% of households, were finding it difficult and were not regarded as ‘successful’ farmers under Zimbabwe’s land reform. Notable failures in the process were new farmers ill equipped to handle the traditional obstacles and uncertainties related to setting up a new agro-business venture. Such past noted experiences that are correlated to farming business success were not with new farmers. These are relevant agro-business skills, well-developed farming networks, and a farming business reputation, that can be leveraged into subsequent success of the new farmer. The current Minister of Agriculture, Land, Fisheries and Water, and Rural Development, Mr Masuka, suggests that newly farm

owners must partner with business partners to venture into successful agricultural projects (Kamete, 2021).

Coping with challenges of owning land resource could in this respect involve several aspects related to the various ways the new farmer manages the obstacles and uncertainties related to having land (Ncube, 2017). Such challenges include finding financial start-up funding, governmental institutional support to new farmers, input support schemes with no punitive arrangements, infrastructural development to cope with changes, maintenance and development to have a vibrant technology-based farming business, adaptation to changes, having access to social and market networks and self confidence in the new dispensation of land ownership. Lack of knowledge about farm production, managerial capabilities to harness labour skills, marketing knowledge and product mix is a critical impediment to the new farmer. Past experiences of the new farmer could, in the event of learning and adaptation, be engaged to the current challenges and their solutions (Sifile, Chiweshe and Mutopo, 2021). Association to more linkages of value, staff development engineered at local, regional and national level that prepare the new farmer increase the certainty of success. What is envisaged in this new dispensation of farm ownership is an increased effectiveness to cope with the challenges of land ownership in this respect, to be manifested through the “growth” that the new farmers have created in terms of financial capacity, production capacity, market capacity and information capacities in developing a reputable agro-business entity (Tanyanyiwa, Kanyepi and Katanha, 2022).

2.2 Factors affecting agro-business entrepreneurship

Agro-business entrepreneurship has been influenced by varied factors that have a direct and indirect impact on socioeconomic development of a nation. The presence of these factors will influence the course of how a nation is managing its economy and in particular its agricultural sector. The following factors have been noted to be critical by Scoones (2011) and shaped the success and failures of land reforms in many developing nations driven by an entrepreneurial culture.

2.2.1 Political/Institutional factors

Political issues for businesses and the start-up ecosystem are uncontrollable, yet firms must respond to policy changes implemented by the existing government, as noted by Korsgaard (2007). When a political party gains power following an election, it has specific aims and goals

that play a significant impact in the growth of entrepreneurship in a given geographical area. Land reform generally implies reforms of institutional administrative rules and regulations related to land management. The primary focus of land reform is to impact positively to the rise in agricultural production and increase in the level of income and well-being of the nation. Therefore, institutional factors, along with technical elements, are playing an essential role in the fulfillment of the required purposes. Land reform practices, such as land ownership, tenure system, land holdings, geographical zones, are important in the determination of the best practices of land allocation. The institutional framework of land reform is earmarked to investigate the relationship between Government and land beneficiaries by ensuring land equity is exercised for optimum productivity and ensuring social justice. Groenewald (2003) argues that political structure affects the land and its process and affects the economy as well as the well-being of citizens as a whole. Irrespective of hurdles, it is the responsibility of the government of the day to inculcate policies as well as rules and regulations that aim at not only enriching the economy but also help land reform beneficiaries to flourish. For a guaranteed agricultural growth in the economy, proper agricultural growth projections are patterned into the reform process with all cause and effects weighed to infer acceptable outcome of the reforms.

The political will and bureaucratic tenacity of the government at play incorporates interests of various public and private stakeholders, by necessity and importance in the process of land reform. The government, provincial or local government and land beneficiaries all have crucial roles to play if land reform is to attain its goals. As noted by Groenewald (2003), in South Africa for example, at least the national and provincial departments of Agriculture, Land Affairs, Finance, Public Works, Finance, Environment and Agriculture, Trade and Industry, Education and Labour should be involved, in addition to municipal and in parts of the country, tribal authorities. Private and parastatal bodies that also have important roles to play include the Land Bank, private banks and other financial institutions, farmer associations, and commodity organisations among others. In Zimbabwe, the central government was at the centre of land distribution with Ministry of Agriculture involved at local, provincial and national level (Nyawo, 2012).

Pressure groups of war veterans, war collaborators, political parties, chiefs and villagers were incorporated in the selection and allocation of land (Moyo, 2011). It is evident that in such a complicated organisational mix, much can get lost in a bureaucratic maze; the different

institutions will not all regard the land reform process with the same sense of importance or urgency, and bottlenecks starting in one government agency can easily create costly delays (Mahachi, 2015). It is critically important and vitally necessary to clearly spell out the role and tasks of each public and private agency involved. The delimitation of their influence and roles in shaping the discourse of the process has to be clear, clearly defining each one's tasks and responsibilities. It is necessary to obtain clarity concerning relationships among agencies and to design accountability reports and feedback mechanisms with clear responsibilities.

The services of the best experts in public management and public administration should be incorporated in the creation of proper operational and strategic framework in the design and implementation of land reform programme. Tasks have to be defined, responsibilities designated and efficient methods of coordination designed. According to Rai (2022) land reform is a critical step for any government committed to assisting people living under adverse conditions. It is basically redistribution of land from those who have excess of it, to those who do not possess, with the objective of increasing the income and bargaining power of the rural poor. The purpose of land reform is to help weaker sections of society and restore justice through land distribution. While there is need to have land as a resource, land ownership and property rights are critical variables that stimulate the drive to use land as a resource. Mutema (2012) argues that ownership of land allocated by government rests upon the offer letters issued by government. However, the trend that these offer letters can be withdrawn any time by government, with no obligations to compensate for any improvements made on the farm, makes farmers insecure in utilising land entrepreneurially. These factors make agro-business entrepreneurship unsustainable because of insecurity of land tenure. Farmers are vulnerable as they possess land they do legally own. Rukuni (1999) recommends the basket of land rights that should be enjoyed by land beneficiaries such as user rights, transfer rights, exclusion rights and enforced rights. Conflicts over land resulted in double allocations. Some newly resettled farmers remain insecure as they face threats of eviction from new applicants wishing to either allocate themselves on prime land or simply out of political mischief of wanting to harvest others' crops (Matonde *et al.* 2011). This high level of insecurity of evictions has had a negative impact on productivity as most farmers are not willing to invest in the land that they fear can be retaken any time. Agro-business entrepreneurship becomes difficult, and actually a challenge to resettled farmers wishing to invest in long term projects. This hinders progress on their livelihoods and sustainable agriculture. Social stability has a considerable impact on corporate operations. Any disturbance in the country or a hostile takeover of a government will

result in looting, riots, and mayhem. Such circumstances may result in 'bands,' which can interrupt normal corporate activities (North, 1990).

Taxation allows the government to exert control over enterprises. Because the government aims to preserve the business interests of local, small, and medium-sized firms, foreign corporations who wish to set up shop frequently face significant taxes as noted in the study by Gaglio and Katz (2001). Imposing hefty taxes on foreign brands will compel them to eventually raise their prices, preventing people from purchasing more from local enterprises.

The government might raise or lower taxes for particular companies or business verticals while lowering taxes for others. In India, for example, the liquor sector accounts for one-third of the state government's revenue (Kirzner, 2009). The closure of pubs and bars during the epidemic resulted in no alcohol sales, leaving the state government cash-strapped. To make up for the lost money, the state government allowed liquor stores to open by raising liquor taxes.

Once a political party gains power, its principal responsibility becomes to advance wishes of its interest groups. This ensures power is retained. Politics has the capacity to gently modify demography, which can have a significant impact on businesses (Janda, 2022).

Political unrest has a negative impact on business continuity because it disrupts market activities and labour relations. For instance, if a political party in power was created from a coalition, there may be moments of instability in which one party's ideas disagree from the other, forcing the party to break up. This may result in new elections. The elections may result in a government enacting less business-friendly policies, as well as changes in corporate taxation and regulations. Budget measures also have an impact on business continuity. To illustrate, the government's efforts to make loans more accessible to SMEs and start-ups increased India's ease of doing business (Kirzner, 2009). The inclusion of pay commissions in the budget boosts citizens' purchasing power, causing customers to spend more, which is a good indication for businesses.

2.2.2 Financial environment of land reform factors

Land reform requires much funding from the national budget and donors. This may take the form of external financial support through various local and international sponsors. Local financial support normally arises from government subsidisation through mobilisation from

local borrowings and budget allocations. The necessary human capital and infrastructural arrangements to facilitate land distribution have taken up large chunks of national budgets. There is firstly the need to determine the costs to government of all the actions needed in a land reform programme, including the compelling demands on the fiscus stemming from the needed actions involved with all the government and parastatal agencies and other stakeholders.

The cost of executing a national mandate of land distribution by private players is met by government. Munyukwi and Gonye (2017) in the Zimbabwean daily newspaper *Newsday* of August 26, 2017, reported that former Zimbabwe President Robert Mugabe pleaded for financial support for the FTLRP which had largely remained underfunded amid lack of productivity at most acquired farms. Financial institutions should also come in to provide the needed capital that will get the programme moving. Banks would need to lower their interest rates because high interest rates are, in essence, an inhibition to progress and development.

The overall implication of land financing has received numerous critiques as bottlenecks in achieving a successful land reform. According to a South African Blended Funding Model: joint workshop, with DRDLR Minister and DAFF Deputy Minister PMG, the Blended Funding Model was a new policy initiative aimed at addressing challenges of land reform and development support for land reform beneficiaries and emerging commercial farmers in line with a commercialisation programme for black farmers (Semenya and Ngwenya-Mabila, 2019). It is the first blended instrument developed in partnership with the DRDLR and the Land Bank. The target was to commercialise at least 450 black producers over a 5-year period. The Blended Funding Model was established to provide black producers with the equity they lacked, in order to sustainably enter the agriculture, forestry and fisheries sectors in South Africa.

Through the application of the blended finance programme rules, black producers would simultaneously access loan funding and grow to such an extent that grant funding would no longer be required over time. The programme was supporting sustainable investment that would unlock and enhance production by black producers through deliberate, targeted and well-defined interventions. Such intervention from policy perspective is needed to ensure sustainable participation of land beneficiaries in the productive expectation of South Africa. The scenario is similar to Zimbabwe's FTLRP. The government has introduced command agriculture by which eligible farmers, small-scale, large-scale farmers' access inputs on a

particular crop. The subsidised loan will be paid back by supplying the proceeds to the Grain Marketing Board, a government owned institution.

In addition, expenses tied to land reform must be viewed as part of the government's overall fiscal and economic management policy. Macroeconomic perspective of land financing is part of the overall economic planning. The disruptive nature of financial haemorrhage in funding unbudgeted items has resulted in runaway inflation experiences in Zimbabwe. Hence, the calculative financial requirements of allotting sufficient funding to process land reform is needed.

Mukarati *et al.* (2019) investigated the impact of land redistribution policies on welfare in the short and long run using the computable general equilibrium model. According to their findings, rural land distribution boosts rural family income by a factor of 0.828 on average. However, the findings of their study suggest that, on a macro level, land redistribution has a negative impact in the short run, with a progressive increase in the long run. Similarly, Lahiff (2010) investigated the relationship between land reform and poverty alleviation in South Africa. The major findings were that there were substantial barriers that exist that make it difficult for poor and landless people to gain access to land that suits their needs and to receive the support necessary to engage in productive activities that meet their specific needs, including the need for direct food provisioning.

Kirsten *et al.* (2016) discovered that, among other things, farming experience, availability of capital, market access, and level of technical and financial management expertise all have an impact on the overall profitability of redistributed farms. Similarly, Zantsi and Greyling (2021) discovered that technical support is substantially related to the performance of redistributed farms. This very recent study aims to not only expand the study region by performing a national study (which includes all nine provinces), but also to significantly increase the sample size (1956 redistributed farms) in order to increase the variation in the dataset and the dependability of the results. Furthermore, Zantsi and Greyling (2021) employed production level (growing, steady, declining, and no production) as an outcome variable. Although measuring output (level of productivity) is crucial, it can only be comparable across farms if the produce is offloaded at the same market (or when farmer get the same price in the different markets used).

However, both anecdotal and scientific evidence reveal that farmers unload their output in several marketplaces with varying prices. As a result, instead of using output as an outcome variable, the current study uses net farm income to neutralise the effect of differing pricing and post-harvest losses, both of which have an impact on net farm income. The current study intends to analyse the factors related with net farm income, based on the premise that income is one of the essential aspects connected with welfare and that empirical evidence has indicated that land reform does have an impact on beneficiaries' income levels. Such data is essential not just for choosing beneficiaries, but also for developing training programmes and strategies to bridge resource and/or capacity gaps.

2.2.3 Land reform and human capital factors

Land reform beneficiaries constitute the needed human capital development but recent research by Albertus *et al.* (2020), highlighted the following findings:

- Land reform can generate distinct supply versus demand effects on education.
- Land reform can decrease human capital accumulation by decreasing demand.
- Land reform negatively impacted number of years of school attended in Peru.
- Individuals exposed to land reform stay in rural areas and have their children working on farm.

The driving mechanisms appear to be economic opportunity, as well as, income and child labour: individuals exposed to land reform are more likely to remain in rural areas and to have their children contribute labour to agriculture, driving down income in the long term (Albertus *et al.* 2020). Human capital is critical in shaping even the farm decisions criteria that is necessary for farm projects to be successful. One critical component is farm management for success. Management is the ability to organise and combine all factors of production in the farming business. Such management engages in planning, organising, controlling and evaluation of farming activities.

Farm business management has assumed greater importance with relevance not only in developed and commercial agriculture all round the world, but also in third world countries where subsistence farming has been the norm (Stoneman, 2018). A farm manager running an agro-based business project, must not only understand different methods of agricultural production, but must also be concerned with cost-benefit analyses. Their mandate is to manage

costs so that a good return on investment is realised. They must know how to allocate scarce productive resources on the farm business to meet set goals and at the same time optimise and react to economic forces that arise from both within and outside the farm. The need for individual farm management arises due to the following reasons given by Peters (2009):

- Agro-business entrepreneurship has objectives of maximising agro-business profits as well as improving the livelihood standards.
- Planning and organisation of farming activities with a view of optimising their return on investment.
- The realisation of agro-business profits is a function of the eclectic of institutional and fundamental interaction of the environmental forces comprising technological, political, social and economic issues of a nation.
- The resources or factors of production can be put to alternative uses.
- Agro-business management is concerned with resource allocation and the agro-business entrepreneurship has a set of farm resources such as land, labour, farm buildings, working capital, farm equipment and entrepreneurship skills.

The study of farm management would be useful to impart knowledge and skill for optimising resource use and maximising profit.

2.2.4 Agro-business management decisions

A farmer's capital talents rest on how agro-based decisions are being made. The ability and ingenuity of decision making is fundamental for a successful agro-business entrepreneurship process (Mupanedemo, 2021). Resettled farmers must be able to take appropriate decisions at appropriate times to manage the success of their enterprises because wrong decisions result in unnecessary losses which negatively influences the success of the entity. Incorrect and poor judgement results in the failure of entrepreneurship execution of farm plans and jeopardise a good return on investment. FTLRP beneficiaries need to make decisions based on the following criteria.

- Farm decision priority.
- Times in which decisions are made routine versus irregular decisions.
- Nature of decisions made with some being irrevocable decisions.
- Choices or alternatives of decisions made.

Agro-business management decisions vary as to the extent to which they are important and their degree of impact measurement. For the FTLRP beneficiaries, the evaluation of any agro-based decisions has to be made on the basis of immediate gains at the expense of strategic consideration. This is the measurement of the extent to which the farmer has gained immediate profit or return, instead of weighing the pros and cons of these decisions. The profit and loss consideration is not being used whenever farming projects are undertaken. The main reason, as argued by Kabonga (2020), is the immediate gratification realised by short term benefits at the expense of long-term sustainability. For example, a decision to engage in poultry production is relatively more important than a decision regarding the type and location of poultry shed, labour force engaged, the market and all required processes that ensure the project is successful.

Many agro-based business decisions assume importance on the farm because of their high occurrence and their repetitive nature. The main constraint in managing consistency, for example in feeding piggery at the right time with the correct feed quantity, is always compromised because of the labour turnover at the farm (Ngcukaitobi, 2021). Unskilled labour force is unreliable and needs to be inducted on how to manage a piggery project as well their monitoring for accuracy at the project site. The reliability of their engagement at the agro-business project is cause for concern because they are always shifting from farm to farm. It is very difficult to have a seasoned labour force given the prevailing turbulent economic environment in the country.

The penalty or cost of waiting with respect to different agro-based business decisions on the farm must be factored by the newly resettled farmers. Decision making is timely for it to be relevant and the success of agro-business entrepreneurship is measured on the basis upon which opportunities are realised in time (Moyo and Chambati, 2013). The cost of untimely decisions has a bearing on the outcome of every entrepreneurial effort. Such costs manifest in the form of losses, perishability of produce, farm thefts and pilferage, lack of confidence in the supply side, missing of timely opportunities to exploit and all negative influences that the farmer experiences. Experience shows that while it pays to act quite promptly in some cases, postponement is necessary in other cases till the required complete information becomes available. Agro-based business decisions can be changed at a much lower cost as compared to others. Complexity of agro-business entrepreneurship is coined in the alertness of managers to timeously act on emerging opportunities (Singh and Yadav, 2020). Reaction to the

entrepreneurial process has to be weighed and measured to ensure that the outcome be not detriment to the objectives of the business. The required capacity of human talents in running agro-business entrepreneurship has to be an investment by a nation as well as the individual beneficiary. Raising productivity by the newly resettled farmers remains a concern for government and stakeholders in the FTLRP (Motsi, 2021).

2.2.5 Land beneficiaries' critical skills

Agro-business entrepreneurship skills are required that the resettled farmers be able to optimally gain from farm investments. These skills range from idea generation, implementation, maintenance and evaluation. Establishment of an agro-business project has to go hand in hand with its growth and development. Without the appropriate skills required, then no significant progress and productivity will be realised. A major impediment to harnessing land productivity in FTLR in Zimbabwe was identified by Scoones (2011) as lack of critical agribusiness skills. Acquisition of land is a necessary but far from sufficient condition for successful land reform. Not every person can hope to be a successful businessman, lawyer, an engineer and perhaps also an agricultural economist, neither does everybody have the potential to be a successful farmer-entrepreneur or farm manager, employed either by himself/ herself or by another entity (Albertus *et al.* 2020). It is very difficult to have a well-founded criterion to allocate land beneficiaries in a politically driven land reform process. In all parameters of good allocation procedure, beneficiary selection should favour agriculturalists with experience and knowledge of farming. They should be people of a similar social background and have some capital of their own. According to Scoones *et al.* (2011) new land-owners must have special skills if they want to make a living from their farms. This is ascertained by Albertus *et al.* (2020) who note that experience has also taught that although knowledge, experience and capital are certainly necessary, these are not sufficient for success as commercial farmers.

In ascertaining the probability of a successful land reform there are methods which can be used to predict farmers' likelihood of success. Burger (1971), Scoones (2011) and Albertus *et al.* (2020) note the evidence of the following aptitude inherent in land beneficiaries as likely indicators to their success in agribusiness. Skills in the farming business, passion in farming, financial support and backup, support from the government departments, record keeping, the existence, type and functionality of business systems, their budgeting procedures; maintenance tasks; and organisation and control of labour. The strong positive relationship between farmers'

scores on this scale and their farming success, is evidenced of a successful land reform programme.

According to Albertus *et al.* (2020), beneficiary selection should also consider the attitudes of people in the areas concerned. In a survey of the attitudes of farm workers in KwaZulu/Natal, Johnson and Schlemmer (1998) asked respondents who, in their view, should benefit most from land reform and the transfer of ownership from white to black. The majority (55%) opined that people like themselves, living and working on white farms should be the main beneficiaries while only 14% opted for black people living in the former “homelands” and the remaining 31% said that both groups should benefit. Those wishing farm workers to benefit most were more prominent among the most educated, the very young and the most senior farm workers. Of those who had spent their entire life on white farms, 77% preferred farm workers to be the beneficiaries.

Differences occurred in responses from different districts, indicating that this factor could be handled differently in different areas. It may perhaps be added that in general, workers on white farms are more experienced and knowledgeable than subsistence producers in the “homelands”. This is possibly also true with respect to their comprehension of the concepts of property rights, as the “homelands” are areas in which communal farming preponderates. This is contrary to what happened in Zimbabwe. According to Marongwe *et al.* (2011), about half of all new settler households are from nearby communal areas and another 18% from urban areas. These are people who had little or very poor land in the communal areas or were unemployed or with poorly-paid jobs and living in town. The remaining third of household heads was made up of civil servants (16.5% overall), but increasing to around a quarter of all settlers in A1 self-contained and A2 sites), business people (4.8% overall), but again proportionately higher in the A1 self-contained and A2 sites), security service personnel (3.7% overall) and former farm workers (6.7% overall). Farm workers made up 11.5% of households in the A1 villagised sites, with many taking an active role in the land invasions (Sifile, Chiweshe and Mutopo, 2021). Based on the above argument, land beneficiaries must be vetted to determine their suitability to be potential agro-entrepreneurs. This accentuates the need to identify those who really want to farm, and can do so successfully, among prospective beneficiaries. On the issue of transport infrastructure, most parts of rural areas in South Africa and indeed practically in most parts of Africa, farmers are poorly served by roads (Devereux, 2016). This is an obvious and severe stumbling block for agricultural development and

successful land reform. This is largely a responsibility of the different levels of government, who will have to foot the bill. Planning should be done in consultation with local communities' other infrastructure (UNCTAD, 2022). Other infrastructural deficiencies that must be overcome include communications, health and water supply infrastructure. Part of these is public, community and part private sector responsibility. Government can for such purposes consider incentive schemes (*The Conversation*, 2022).

2.2.6 Land reform and government policies

Various government policies such as agricultural support policies, economic policies, taxation policies, international trade policies, and licensing requirements policies have meaningful influence on the development of agro-business entrepreneurship (Sifile, Chiweshe and Mutopo, 2021). The government must provide basic infrastructural facilities such as roads, dams, schools, support canter, electricity, banking, insurance, communications, water, raw materials, and warehousing facilities to make land reforms meaningful and successful to new settlers. In addition, the political structure and environment in a country also affect agribusiness entrepreneurial development. Government incentive towards agricultural productivity must be planned and availed in countries pursuing land reform. Most new land beneficiaries have little or no agro-business experience to harness their energy towards productivity. Many have just been settled with no clear focus as to what is expected. Farming is a business and the attitude of the farmer has to be harnessed to achieve success. Innovation is one of the influential factors affecting entrepreneurial success. The innovative use of technology in the agricultural sector is responsible for new products and growing income. Hence, the technological aspect, which highlights the importance of innovation, is the biggest contribution of agribusiness entrepreneurs to the development of the country (Nyawo, 2012). This calls for hard work, collective inventions, and national support incentives are needed to encourage productive initiatives from newly settled farmers. The emergence of agribusiness entrepreneurial spirit and land resource transfer among the population along with innovation is increasing the role of the state where it must provide the infrastructure or critical economic hardware for entrepreneurial success.

The government of Zimbabwe has come up with some policies which have been instrumental in shaping the land reform and redistribution pattern in the country. The major ones are:

2.2.6.1 Rural Land Act [Chapter 20:18]

The ACT which commenced on 1 November 1963 and was amended on 31 December 2017 provides for the acquisition of State land and the disposal of State land. It provides for the control of the subdivision and lease of land for farming or other purposes; to provide for limiting of the number of pieces of land that may be owned by any person and the sizes of such land, and for prohibiting or restricting the rights of non-residents to own, lease or occupy land in Zimbabwe, and to provide for other matters incidental to and connected with the foregoing. There is a Clause on 1.1.1 Lease or alienation of land which states that Land may be leased or alienated to a single individual or to a single corporate body but not to two or more persons jointly, without the consent of the appropriate Minister in writing.

2.2.6.2 Communal Land Act [Chapter 20: 04]

Major provisions are:

(1) A rural district council may, with the approval of the Minister, issue a permit authorising any person or class of persons to occupy and use, subject to the Regional, Town and Country Planning Act [*Chapter 29:12*] and any order issued in terms thereof, any portion of Communal Land within the area of such rural district council, where such occupation or use is for any of the following purposes—

- (a) administrative purposes of the State or a local or like authority;
- (b) religious or educational purposes in the interests of inhabitants of the area concerned;
- (c) hospitals, clinics or other such establishments for the benefit of inhabitants of the area concerned;
- (d) hotels, shops or other business premises;
- (e) any other purpose whatsoever which, in the opinion of the rural district council, is in the interests of inhabitants of the area concerned;

(2) A rural district council may, with the approval of the Minister—

- (a) impose such conditions upon the issue of a permit in terms of subsection (1) as may be specified in the permit; and
- (b) at any time, by notice in writing to the person to whom the permit was issued, cancel or vary a permit issued in terms of subsection (1) or any of the conditions subject to which it was issued.

(3) Any person who is aggrieved by—

- (a) a refusal by a rural district council to issue a permit in terms of subsection (1) or to vary any permit or any condition thereof in terms of subsection (2); or
- (b) the cancellation or variation of a permit or any condition thereof in terms of subsection (2); may appeal to the Minister within such time and in such manner as may be prescribed by regulation.

(4) In any appeal in terms of subsection (3) the Minister may confirm, vary, set aside or reverse the refusal, cancellation or variation appealed against or make such other order in the matter as he thinks just.

2.2.6.3 Land Commission Act [Chapter 20:29]

The Land Commission Act provides for the establishment of the Zimbabwe Land Commission, established by section 296 of the Constitution. It provides for the acquisition of State land and the disposal of State land. It provides for the settlement of persons on, and the alienation of, agricultural land; to provide for the control of the subdivision and lease of land for farming or other purposes; to provide for limiting of the number of pieces of land that may be owned by any person and the sizes of such land. It also served to repeal the Agricultural Land Settlement Act [Chapter 20:01] and the Rural Land Act [Chapter 20:18] to amend the Land Acquisition Act [Chapter 20:10]; and to provide for matters connected with or incidental to the foregoing. Sections 296 and 297 of the Constitution provide as follows:

2.2.6.4 Establishment and composition of Zimbabwe Land Commission

- (1) There is a commission to be known as Zimbabwe Land Commission consisting of—
 - (a) a chairperson and deputy chairperson; and
 - (b) a minimum of two and a maximum of seven other members appointed by the President.
- (2) Members of the Zimbabwe Land Commission must—
 - (a) be chosen for their integrity and competence in, and knowledge and understanding of, the best practices in land management and administration; and
 - (b) reflect the diversity of Zimbabwe's population, in particular its regional interests and gender balance.

2.2.6.5 Functions of Zimbabwe Land Commission

- (1) The Zimbabwe Land Commission has the following functions—

- (a) to ensure accountability, fairness and transparency in the administration of agricultural land that is vested in the State;
 - (b) to conduct periodical audits of agricultural land;
 - (c) to make recommendations to the Government regarding —
 - (i) the acquisition of private land for public purposes;
 - (ii) equitable access to and holding and occupation of agricultural land, in particular—
 - A. the elimination of all forms of unfair discrimination, particularly gender discrimination;
 - B. the enforcement of any law restricting the amount of agricultural land that may be held by any person or household:
 - (iii) land usage and the size of agricultural land holdings;
 - (iv) the simplification of the acquisition and transfer of rights in land;
 - (v) systems of land tenure; and.
 - (vi) fair compensation payable under any law for agricultural land and improvements that have been compulsorily acquired;
 - (vii) allocations and alienations of agricultural land;
 - (d.) to investigate and determine complaints and. disputes regarding the supervision, administration and allocation of agricultural land.
- (2) The Zimbabwe Land Commission, with the approval of the Minister responsible for land, may make regulations for any of the purposes set out in subsection (1).
- (3) The Zimbabwe Land Commission must exercise its functions in accordance with any general written policy directives which the Minister responsible for land may give it.
- (4) In discharging its functions, the Zimbabwe Land Commission must be guided by the principles set out in section 289.
- (5) The State and all institutions and agencies of government at every level, through legislative and other measures, must assist the Zimbabwe Land Commission in carrying out its functions and must protect its independence, impartiality, integrity and effectiveness.
- (6) The Government must make adequate and suitable provision, through legislation and other appropriate weans, to ensure that—
- (a) the Zimbabwe Land Commission is able to exercise its functions efficiently and independently; and
 - (b) persons employed by the Zimbabwe Land Commission carry out their duties conscientiously, fairly and impartially.

2.2.6.6 Critique of these government policies and statutes

The government's land distribution is perhaps the most crucial and most bitterly contested political issue surrounding Zimbabwe (Cousins and Scoones, 2009). It has been criticised for the violence and intimidation which marred several expropriations, as well as, the parallel collapse of domestic banks which held billions of dollars' worth of bonds on liquidated properties (Matondi, 2012). The United Nations has identified several key shortcomings with the contemporary programme, namely failure to compensate ousted landowners as called for by the Southern African Development Community (SADC), the poor handling of boundary disputes, and chronic shortages of material and personnel needed to carry out resettlement in an orderly manner. Many farm owners and farm workers have been killed during violent takeovers (Monda, 2021). Land reform has had a serious negative effect on the Zimbabwean economy and is argued to have heavily contributed to its collapse in the 2000s. There has been a drop in total farm output which has led to instances of starvation and famine. Increasing poverty levels combined with the increased informality of farming operations among farmers who received redistributed land has led to an increase in the use of child labour (Jakaza, 2019). The policies and legislation empowers the minister and senior government officials and politicians who have been very corrupt and grabbing several farms at the expense of the ordinary marginalised citizens. A recent topical issue which surfaced in April 2023, involves the late former President Robert Mugabe's daughter Bona, and her husband Simbarashe Chikore, who have been exposed through their divorce proceedings to have individually or jointly owned properties worth millions including 21 farms and more than 25 upmarket residential properties (Nehanda news, 2023).

2.2.7 Land reform and cultural values

A nation's cultural values are an influential factor affecting agribusiness entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurial growth requires appropriate objectives such as to make profit, income respect, and gaining socioeconomic status. Aspiring and talented men will take risks and innovate if this purpose is strongly embedded in their culture and values. The strengths of these objectives depend on the system of culture of society. If the culture is based economically sound, with the appetite of risk taking, agribusiness entrepreneurs will be appreciated. The accumulation of begotten wealth as a way of life would be learned and appreciated. The attitude of society towards agribusiness entrepreneurship must encourage uptake and use of land resource for the

benefit of society at large. Agribusiness mentality must be reinforced by repetitive purchase of consumers. This motivates the entrepreneur to sustain the business and earn a living.

Land rights are commonly understood to be the legal and legitimate rights to access, use, own, control, enjoy, and exploit land. Land rights, in terms of gender construction, go beyond simply the right to use or manage land as a vital economic asset, but also include the right to information about, decision-making about (for example, lease or sell), and eventually enjoying the advantages thereof (Jacobs, 2009). In South Africa, for example, despite the constitutional guarantee of gender equality, land reform has not benefitted women in many rural regions due to customary law practices that deny women access to land (Rangan and Gilmartin, 2002). In Africa, most of the land (about 75%) is held under customary tenure, which is governed by conventions, historical practices, and unwritten law based on tradition and cultural connection (Odeny, 2013). Effective land reform aims to redistribute wealth, achieve agricultural reform, expand access to land, and close the gender gap in the land sector.

Globally, at least 1.5 billion people now have some farmland as a result of land reform, and as a result, they are less poor. However, large inefficient land use and land inequality persist or have resurfaced in low-income nations (Lipton, 2009). Many low-income countries continue to call Africa home. As a result, establishing women's property rights is critical to the continent's socioeconomic progress (Garvelink, 2012). The United Nations' Millennium Development Goal 3, which promotes gender equality and women's empowerment, emphasises the importance of enacting laws and policies that eliminate women's social, economic, and political exclusions (United Nations Development Programme [UNDP], 2015). Global non-state actors such as the World Bank, the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO), and the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women continue to fight for gender equality in the land sector.

These organisations emphasise the importance of land in developing countries' development agendas. Land deprivation is linked to declining livelihoods and rising food insecurity on the African continent. Poverty prevails from the south to the east and west of Africa. Furthermore, the problem of soaring food costs endures, while food scarcity becomes problematic. A considerable proportion of women, like their male counterparts, are active farmers who rely heavily on the agricultural sector for a living. Similarly, Odeny (2013: 4) opines that:

Land is one of the cornerstones of economic development on which farmers, pastoralists and other communities base their livelihoods. Land is also a significant component of business assets, which play significant role in business investment strategies. Thus, securing land rights can have a profound impact on economic development...land is a source of identity and cultural heritage.

This reinforces the importance of land. Based on the prevailing land relations, most women remain dependent on the existence and goodwill of male relatives for access to land (Allendorf, 2007).

As a result, it has become critical to "investigate gender discrepancies in the control of productive resources, as well as the policies and institutional processes that underpin gender inequalities in land" (Tsikata and Amanor-Wilks, 2009: 3). In the 2000s, "women's rights to land remained at the heart of Kenya's struggle for gender equality" (Kameri-Mbote, 2009: 87). Although there are no legal restrictions to women's property rights in Kenya, as established in the National Land Policy (Government of Kenya, 2009), this provision has generated little progress in terms of women's land ownership. This is owing to several structural, economic, and cultural barriers. Of all the limitations, the most complex to abolish is the cultural restraint to the attainment of women's property rights.

Zimbabwean land politics and the study of rural interventions, including agrarian reform has been characterised by 'modes of belonging' and their 'cultural politics of recognition' (Rutherford, 2008). Modes of belonging are the routinised discourses, social practices and institutional arrangements through which people make claims for resources and rights, the ways through which they become 'incorporated' in particular places. Spatialised forms of power and authority, in particular where cultural politics of recognition operate, affirm cultural styles of interaction that trace a hegemonic mode of belonging identified as 'domestic government' put in place on during Zimbabwe's colonial period, and shows how it was shaped by particular political and economic conjunctures in the first twenty years of Independence after 1980 (Rutherford, 2008). Domestic government provided a conditional belonging for farm workers in terms of claims to limited resources on commercial farms while positioning them in a way that made them marginal citizens in the nation at large. This is the context for the behaviour of land-giving authorities which have actively discriminated against farm workers during the politicised and violent land redistribution processes that began in 2000. Most former farm

workers are now seeking other forms of dependencies, typically more precarious and generating fewer resources and services than they had accessed on commercial farms, with their own particular cultural politics of recognition, often tied to demonstrating support to the ruling political party (Mkodzongi and Lawrence, 2019)

2.2.8 Economic and business environment

The nation's economic environment is critical in supporting operational, strategic and personal business efforts of farmers. This environment also includes all economic factors that affect commercial and consumer behaviour including all the external factors in the immediate marketplace and the broader economy (Makanyeza and Du Toit, 2017). These factors can influence agribusiness activities in their operations. The economic environment consists of different things for different people. For example, for a farmer, the weather and price of fertilisers are important factors. In Zimbabwe, price determination before the agricultural season influences the farmer to plan and act accordingly. Such information relates to the micro and macro impact of economics on newly settled farmers. However, the international impact of commodity prices influences local level of agricultural production (Hosseini and Vanhaute, 2019).

According to Mhlanga (2018), Zimbabwe faces continued cycles of economic and humanitarian challenges of longer-term prospects, and indeed investment opportunities which remain contingent on addressing deep underlying structural challenges. Regardless of a bumper harvest realised in the agricultural season of 2021, the underlying challenges of political instability characterised by civil unrest, jostling for political ascendancy in 2023's elections has brought in memories of the past in view of instability in the economy (Saidi, 2022). Continuous rise in inflation with depressed produce prices for farmers has been noted as instability in the economy. These challenges include prohibitive and volatile foreign exchange controls, high inflation, fragile property rights, and pervasive corruption in the nation (Ndhlovu and Santos, 2022).

Low production in the main economy that gave rise to opening up import of competing products in the country is clear evidence of a crippling economy. However, the investment mantra in the agricultural sector driven by government engagements with the international community is slowly bearing positive returns to the economy. Policy measures taken to relax

government control in the economy through relaxation of the past indigenisation policies has been given positive accolades by business people. The UK government report on the competitiveness of Zimbabwean economy noted that Zimbabwe's global competitiveness has been declining since 2015 and is below the sub-Saharan African average. Zimbabwe ranks 124th out of 137 countries in the Global Competitiveness Index (GCI) (Rathnayake *et al.*, 2023). These are dampening portends to the newly resettled farmer, who has to be handled with extra care in positioning his readiness to venture more into agricultural development. The economy's perspective give rise to investment preparedness and need to take up agro-business entrepreneurship risk.

2.3 Land reform support system

Entrepreneurship support systems are the configured resources that are usable and enabling the entrepreneur to execute his/her entrepreneurial ability. Hence the need for an up-to-date resource capacitation for agro-based farmers is important and a requirement. Such facilities are embedded into the realm of efficiency and effectiveness of land use in any land resource location. Moyo (2020) ascertains that farm productive infrastructure includes facilities for input and output storage, grading sheds, roads, amenities like schools, clinics that facilitates habitable environment for the newly resettled farmers. Productive infrastructure has been noted to be unevenly distributed among A1 farmers. This has affected land use by the farmers given the absence of facilities to enable agro-based entrepreneurship that has lowered most farmers' income potentials. However, there is evidence of infrastructure not being used because farmers are following enterprises that do not match existing infrastructure capabilities.

The availability of support systems such as agricultural extension support systems, specific financial resources, advisory services, research, and investigations plays a role in developing agribusiness entrepreneurs. Lahiff (2012) has extensively studied land reform in South Africa and concludes that the lack of post settlement support is one of the factors that has led to the failure of many land reform projects. State actors responsible for distribution of land resources did not take responsibility for post-settlement (or post-transfer) support of beneficiaries (Moyo *et al.* 2020). These observations are supported by Xaba and Rood (2016) whose study concludes that land reform in the country has been marked by some failures, with little or no improvements in the livelihoods of the beneficiaries. Sekoto and Oladele (2012) also argue that the support had no impact on the productive capacity of beneficiaries.

The observations noted in the above research papers, have attributed this to insufficient attention given to land beneficiaries by the public, academics, politicians and other stakeholders involved in the land acquisition process. Sekoto and Oladele (2012), Scoones *et al.* (2011), also argue that the support had no impact on the productive capacity of beneficiaries. Clearly, the shortage of agricultural experts notably extension officers made it impossible for production to take place in newly acquired farms in Zimbabwe. As argued by Ncube (2017: 22), provision of extension services to smallholder farmers remains problematic due to “lack of meaningful contact with farmers, outdated extension methods, low numbers of staff and low aptitudes of extension staff.”

However, in a research survey conducted by Moyo (2011), interesting findings in support of success made by rural farmers in the FTLRP emerged. Under the umbrella of the African Institute of Agrarian Studies, Moyo (2011) found that FTLRP benefitted the unemployed from rural background. In spite of the financial constraints experienced by the FTLRP beneficiaries, there has been tremendous improvement in the yields of their farming business. This assertion is supported by the Food and Agriculture Organisation/ World Food Programme Report of 2009 which asserts that because of the FTLRP maize and cotton yields have been improved regardless of the constraints observed. The report goes on to indicate that the largest number of people who benefitted from the FTLRP are people who have relatively low social status with limited political connections and financial constraints. According to Moyo (2011), FTLRP benefitted most of the rural folks with rural farming backgrounds mainly communal farmers. The other category of farm allocations was done to farm workers who have been dislodged from their previous farming occupations. However, the report noted that the majority of FTLRP beneficiaries were rural farmers who lived near the farms and benefitted from the allocations while a lower proportion of land beneficiaries are still employed in the formal employment.

In another note to the success of FTLRP, Mkodzongi and Lawrence (2019) noted that fast track land reform Programme was successful as it stretched its benefits to the poor peasantry who have been previously marginalised and disadvantaged by the colonial system. The unemployed also benefitted by having access to land resource in the FTLRP of Zimbabwe by availing them with the land. He cited the main constrain of inadequate funding as an impediment to the success of FTLRP implementation as it impacted negatively on the yields of farmers.

Scoones (2015) noted the positive outcomes of the FTLRP in Zimbabwe. He noted that some crops grown by small-scale farmers during the beginning of land reform process in Zimbabwe

had increased in their output. Small grain production increased by 163%, edible dry bean production increased by 282% and cotton increased by 13%. This evidence of increased output and production is clear evidence of the success of FTLRP. However, Scoones (2015) also notes the challenges encountered in the FTLRP. Of main concern are issues of funding and neglected infrastructure which have been cited as the main impediments to the continuous success of land reform in Zimbabwe. The existence of these operational challenges has however, not in any measure negatively derailed the success of FTLRP.

Marketing infrastructure for land produce is another dilemma created by FTLRP in Zimbabwe. Historically, organised farmers' markets were grouped into associations which resulted in organised entities like Grain Marketing Board (GMB) and Cotton Marketing Board that assisted farmers to market their produce. Newly resettled farmers in the FTLRP have tended to depend on disorganised and informal urban markets to sell their produce. Their marketing is characterised by an unsystematic clogging of the urban markets with the same produce and as a result negatively influencing the prices of their produce. The imminent challenge with such markets is that they are unpredictable, unreliable and exploitative in nature.

In a study conducted in Norton by Kabonga (2020), farmers indicated that the prevailing market conditions where prices are fluctuating year by year has hindered the growth of farmers' activities into self-sustaining entities. Prices being offered for tobacco, maize, beans are very low such that farmers are not able to recoup inputs for the next agricultural season. This has forced farmers into contract farming which is in essence drawing these farmers back as they at times sell their produce to repay the contractors. Such a revelation is in line with Sithole (2006) who notes that in 2006, farmers who had produced the staple grain maize refused to sell through the GMB because the price offered amounting to USD132 per tonne was not profitable. As a result the farmers resorted to selling their produce through the black market system.

Most farmers expected government to establish close linkages between the farmers, processors, traders and retailers so as to coordinate supply and demand. These linkages may be established through setting up institutions like cooperatives and producer associations in order to eliminate the role of the contractors who are engaged by farmers out of sheer desperation. This notion is supported by Kabonga (2020), who argues that cooperatives enabled small holder farmers to sell their produce in bulk and which aids the farmers to dispose their produce at the most favourable time and guarding them against unscrupulous middlemen. In South Africa, as argued by Sekoto and Oladele (2012), they observed that lack of market support is a major

constraint to the success of new farmers under the land reform in the North West province. The marketing of farmers' products and services is not systematised nor do they have proper logistical support to reach the market. Marketing strategies are very weak and archaic in nature. Consequently, they have been an obstacle to growth in farm production and as a result they act as impediment to land reform success in Zimbabwe.

Access to agricultural information by newly resettled farmers enhances their agro-business entrepreneurship efficiency. Most of the resettled farmers expect to get information from government as input into their agro-business production plans. The information is sourced through government extension officers who are located in the area or near the resettled farmers. This information includes farming techniques, cattle rearing methods, crop production approaches, labour management and remuneration regulations in farming communities. Poorly developed information systems have resulted in farmers producing poor quality crops and lower profits margins (Jakaza, 2019). Farmers lack best practices in the best benchmarks of agro-business operations because of limited access to knowledge and information. Most of the newly resettled farmers have no understanding of the entire production process as well as on the operations of the auction systems, hence feel ripped off by the buyers as they perceive their produce to be of good quality.

The role and importance of market system and marketing efforts for agribusiness entrepreneurial growth is very important. In the modern competitive world, an entrepreneur can rarely survive in business in the absence of the market and marketing knowledge for the farm produce. In fact, the market availability and potential remains the major determinant of potential earnings from agribusiness entrepreneurship efforts (Mkodzongi and Lawrence, 2019). The market size and structure of both entrepreneurs influence their own ways to invest in the agribusiness. In fact, a particular product monopoly in a market becomes more influential for the entrepreneur than a competitive market. Hence, there is need to have in-depth knowledge of product mix and the market behaviour to engage in meaningful farm business ventures. In the FTLRP implemented in Zimbabwe, the issues above did not receive much attention. Farmers were just being allocated land of different sizes, with varying expertise in knowing what to grow. As a result, many resettled farmers resorted to growing their staple crop of maize which did not have any meaningful market value. Maize crop is controlled by government in terms of its production and distribution.

2.4 Global and regional contexts of land reform

The path of land reform in Sub-Saharan Africa has been visible as mainly for its lack of redistributive policies to the landless population (Willy, 2011). Traditionally imbalances noted in feudal and colonial-induced landlordism such as in the *prazo* estates of Angola and Mozambique existed but landlessness was considered by colonial and post-colonial administrations to be limited which was not so. There was widespread landlessness causing hunger in Sub-Saharan Africa as evidenced in Ethiopia and Egypt. Land distribution concerns were visible even before and during colonialism in Africa. Collective farming was adopted and also experimented to in Mozambique, Senegal, Somalia, Sudan, and Tanzania in the 1970s, as a way to inculcate productivity through mechanisation of farm use.

As argued by Willy (2011), Africa did not escape the advice of colonisers (now turned donors) and international non-governmental organisation agencies to privatise landholdings, and there was a flurry of new land registration laws in the 1970s. Land reform procedures between 1960 and 1990 were either meant to nationalise (as adopted mainly by pro-socialist governments), or more often, privatisation. This was intended to eliminate traditional land tenure systems inherent in the past, and especially any vestige of holding lands in common, to prompt a market in land, liberated from any local social or collective responsibilities. Inevitably, privatisation was most relevant to and targeted at farm and house plots, but in the process placed the existence of communal land assets like forests and pastures in jeopardy (Willy, 2011).

2.4.1 Land reform in Mozambique

Mozambique was a colony of Portugal until 1975 when it obtained its independence under the guidance of (FRELIMO), the Frente de Libertação de Mozambique with President Mondlane, as the president. The fundamental basis of land ownership in Mozambique was discriminatory and exploitative in its essence like in Zimbabwe and other southern African countries in general. According to Moyo *et al.* (2018) in an article “Mozambique Land Reform and rural transformation Overview” the new Mozambican government had to deal with the challenges of the colonial land tenure imbalances left behind by the Portuguese settlers. The settlers adopted the “*prazo*” land tenure system which disenfranchise the majority of Mozambicans into cheap labour that worked on the large commercial farms. This system denied people their livelihoods by turning them into a pool of labourers subjected to exploitation and abuse by colonial masters. As argued by Moyo *et al.* (2018), the Portuguese colonial land tenure

management system systematically dislodged and impoverished indigenous Mozambicans by alienating them from their traditional mode of farming and living to sustain their livelihoods.

According to Brink and Price (2008), the majority of almost 70% of the population, work and reside in the rural areas where they work on small scale holder farms as peasantry farmers. Between 2016 and 2017 the Mozambican economy experienced a recession induced by the devaluation their currency metical. This impacted on the need to create policies that bridge the gap between rural and urban lives with the objectives of minimising poverty gaps. The main focus of mitigating income inequality between the people is to have land reform policies that target management of the *prazo* system of land tenure. Dismantling its hegemonic impact on the lives of people and promoting the engagement of the Mozambicans in the mainstream functioning of the economy.

The Portuguese colonial government enforced the *prazo* system of land governance up till the attainment of the country's independence in 1975. This *prazo* system was a semi feudal system that created large farming estates, as well as, mining concessions owned by white colonial masters. Forced African labour was used with such brutal force and remuneration was nothing but a slave wage. Like in Zimbabwe, the indigenous people were forcibly pushed into semi-arid areas characterised by poor soils, low rainfall as well as debilitating conditions that were not suitable for agro-based farming activities. The end product of the *prazo* system was therefore a creation of a permanent pool of cheap labour force. The forced labourers were used to produce cash crops like tobacco, coconut, rubber and sugar for the European export market. The huge tracts of land acquired by the Portuguese settler farmers were endowed with rich mineral resources. The indigenous people were further impoverished by the enforcement of coercive and harsh taxation regime that further impacted negatively on the livelihoods of the people. The reserves created by the colonial system led to low crop yields and food scarcity. The indigenous way of farming was destroyed by the colonial system and monopoly of good and fertile land was vested into the hands of large-scale estates of the colonisers. Hence, the need for the government to undertake land reform and transform livelihoods through both nationalisation and market-based strategy, as argued by Moyo *et al.* (2018), failed to bring about expected change of land distribution in the country to manage the livelihoods of the people. No poverty alleviation was brought about due to this intervention due to the skewed nature of land governance. The government nationalised land plantations owned by large scale estates owners and land belonged to government which restricted its access by local people.

The socialist perspective of the government led by President Chissano failed to manage land access and its agro-entrepreneurship intent. Land ownership issues were greatly opposed by land owners because of the state regulation under the banner of nationalisation. This caused the incumbent government to shift from its socialist ideology to a market driven land governance. Land owner resistance impacted negatively on the productivity of agriculture in Mozambique with the collapse of agricultural industry in the country. Most of the rural population did not have alternative opportunities to improve their livelihoods with the majority of them being rural population. However, non-performing state farms acted as employment opportunities for the cheap labour force coming from rural people. The chaotic land governance system in Mozambique where the government nationalised land and failed to use it productively created a pool of idle labour force later involved in the civil rebellion to oust the government. This prompted the then incumbent, President Chissano, to shift land policy tenure to a free market land tenure management system. This phase of market driven land governance emphasised the provision of title to both rural people and to large-scale commercial farmers under the Land Act of (No. 19/97). Moyo *et al.* (2018) note how the market-based policy shift attracted the attention of donors and agro-business entrepreneurs in the rural communities. The argument raised was that rural communities were now able to use title deeds of their communal land to access financial assistance from commercial banks and engage in agro-business entrepreneurship. Access to capital with commercialisation of farming activities would have meaningful impact in improving livelihoods in rural communities. The tenets of private property rights noted the positive impact of the new policy that gave rights to rural people in their security of tenure to smallholder farmers in Mozambique.

The transformation by Mozambique government from socialist mode of socioeconomic transition to free market economy has had its challenges in sustaining the livelihoods of poor people. Access to land is now considered the fundamental right to everyone who wants it which is now secured by the constitution of the country. The title rights to land access and its use have now been allowed to have equal essence for both ordinary people and large scale estates in the country. As argued by Brink (2018), there is now security to local community and rights of women to access land rights through customary occupation and security of private investment in the country. However, the reality of the matter is very subjective as to the current legislation's practicality in implementation. Large scale commercial farmers have enough funding to acquire land from communal land right owners that is used for commercial purposes.

Hence, the continuous disruption of sustainable livelihoods measures of rural communities by large scale capital which continuously condemns rural communities to impoverishment. Despite government strides in making land governance more liberal, the government still has absolute control over land access and land use in such areas as national parks and other productive large scale protected lands. Hence, land reform practices in Mozambique favours large scale commercial farming, medium scale farming and disadvantages the growth and development of small scale agro-based entrepreneurial farming.

The land reform that provides title deeds is making value creation mainly to large scale farmers and disenfranchising the rural farmers as they are not able to secure funding for this process. The policy, as created in the laws of the country, needs foreign direct investment to stimulate country economic development through the injection of capital. However, the agro-entrepreneurship mandate of small-scale farmers in Mozambique riles under marginalisation of input into socioeconomic development due to the constraints and negativity of a private or market economy. Moyo *et al.* (2018) have noted that rural land use is largely for subsistence farming and is reliant on seasonal rainfall patterns. Food security is affected by market-based land reform as emphasis is placed on large scale commercial farming at the expense of small-scale farmers. While having title deeds to a piece of land is an advantage to land owners, the irony is that small scale land owners have no collateral to secure funding form financial institutions. Ideally, the logic of providing title deeds should allow rural communities and individuals to use their land as collateral which gives them access to capital from financial institutions. Such enabling resources would enhance agro-business entrepreneurship among landowners both commercial and small-scale farmers. The desired intention of putting all land under production to support national development for poverty alleviation is being hampered by the marginalisation of small-scale farmers. A national strategy focusing on inclusivity of both large scale and small-scale development partners based on an equitable shared resources and skills transfer across both groups of land owners, would be critical and immensely beneficial for Mozambique (Moyo *et al.*, 2018).

Impact of agro-based entrepreneurship through rural transformation can only be achieved through equal access to land and equitable distribution of land gains from agro-based entrepreneurship. This will bring out rural transformation that is effective in the alleviation of poverty and improvement of rural livelihoods. Hence, the political economy dimension of land reform is crucial to understanding needs of local communities. Chikohonero and Mbowane.

(2018), cite their reliance on agro-based entrepreneurship as a measure to mitigate the impact of poverty in their communities.

Inclusivity of all concerned parties to development has enshrined the vulnerability of women, children and youths by creating socioeconomic opportunities that are inherent in any land reform in many nations. Their enhanced strategies to confront the challenges of the day are made practical by the government's enforcement of the best benchmarks of interventions in land reforms. Such endeavour was evident of the FTLRP in Zimbabwe given the changes made to the national constitution for it to be relevant with the times of the generations.

The entrenched focus of the government of Mozambique socioeconomic development methodology is biased towards attracting capital investments through large scale commercial enterprises (Moyo *et al.* 2018). However, the enterprising aspect among the populace is still skewed in favour of large-scale commercial farmers. This is in contrast to the Zimbabwean FTLRP model which strives to allow land access to all including women as a measure to empower their agro-based entrepreneurship mindset. In Mozambique, Brink and Price (2008) argued that the government intervention in land governance is believed to impact on the growth of incomes and wealth to a large proportion of the population; however, such convictions are contrasted by the growing poverty population the country. Given the disparities of specialisation between large scale farmers and small-scale farmers in Mozambique, such gaps may not be easily managed but policy rhetoric that might assume so with no end to the suffering of the rural population. Chikohonero and Mbowane (2018) argued that that the government thrusts towards large scale commercial farming has negatively created poor, marginalised rural communities regularly undermined by large scale commercial farmers through labour exploitation. Government should create an enabling socioeconomic environment to allow small scale farmers to exploit entrepreneurial opportunities inherent in land reforms in order to alleviate poverty among their communities.

Moyo *et al.* (2018) conclude that land tenure governance in Mozambique has created a land management framework that gives title deeds with security of tenure to land owners both commercial and small scale farmers. However, there is more work to be done by government to enhance inclusion of rural communities who should not be marginalised in the new land reform dispensation. There is need for a more macro based intervention approach that supports

effective agro-based entrepreneurship models in agricultural sectors hence managing poverty alleviation in the country (Chikohonero and Mbowane, 2018).

2.4.2 Land reform in Tanzania

According to Chikohonero and Mbowane (2018), about seventy (70) percent of Tanzanians depend on agro-based entrepreneurial activities. The economy is anchored on agricultural activities that contribute the bigger share of the country's GDP. The land tenure and land ownership systems have been noted to impact positively in increasing land productivity in the country and sustaining economic development, and in turn improving government revenue. As alluded to by Chikohonero and Mbowane (2018), Tanzania achieved 7.0% economic growth in 2016, putting it among the fastest growing economies in Sub-Saharan Africa. There is admittedly uneven development in the country, with a wider gap emerging between rural and urban dwellers, despite the strong economic growth indicators. Gender disparities have also been observed and impact negatively on women and children who are left behind as males migrate to urban centres for economic emancipation. Poverty is worsened by the poor infrastructure and lack of finance hampering agricultural development in the rural setting. This is supposed to be mitigated by land tenure rights which give land ownership to rural land dwellers for agro-based entrepreneurial activities

Before Tanzania's attainment of independence in 1961, the traditional leaders following customary practices, allocated land to peasantry with rights to use land for agro-based entrepreneurship. While ownership of land was vested in the traditional leadership, the land beneficiaries only exploited use of land resource for their household benefits. Chikohonero and Mbowane (2018) note that land use conflicts between and among land owners was resolved by traditional leadership through the use of traditional channels of conflict resolution. This gave traditional leadership authority and power to manage land accessibility use and its distribution among the people. This meant that the traditional system has total authority over the management of land systems in the country.

In Zimbabwe, land tenure system was vested on the traditional leaders who had overall control of land distribution to the masses of people in their jurisdiction. In Tanzania the government is still in control of land access and use, through its traditional land management structure.

Chikohonero and Mbowane (2018) note that government is also using section 180 of the Land Act No 5 of 1999 as land management instrument in Tanzania. Like in Zimbabwe, land tenure system did not grant rights to women, as evidenced by gender accessibility disparities before land reform. Women were not accorded the right to own land on their own because of the traditional manner of gender biased system of land tenure systems. However, the FTLRP in Zimbabwe corrected this anomaly by distributing land to women. In Tanzania, this gender biased land tenure system is still in practice since before independence from colonial rule.

The colonial history of occupation of Tanzania by both British and Germans is characterised by land ownership belonging to the government of the day. Chikohonero and Mbowane (2018) expounded that one of the first acts of colonial land management decision rule in 1885 was to deliberately decree that all land issues belonged to the German King without any regard to existing indigenous land ownership arrangements. This disempowered the local indigenous people as land tenants, with the only rights to exploit and reside on the land. In 1923, the British became the administrators of the territory known as Tanganyika, current Tanzania. However, the coming of the Germans in Tanzania reversed the previous land decrees and declared and promulgated the Land Ordinance 113 which made land public without deeds under the governor's authority and control. The British also separated land ownership between settler land occupation and land for indigenous people (Chikohonero and Mbowane, 2018).

After independence in 1961, Tanzanian government instituted and promulgated a village Land Act No 5 of 1999, which established a land tenure system of large collective farms with modern ways of land use. Rural populations were moved into collectivised villages resembling socialist practices that was implemented and practiced in the former Soviet Union and China. This cooperative arrangement, which was spearheaded by the then late President Nyerere, was called "*Ujamaa*" in Swahili language. This system sought to establish a new socioeconomic dispensation which was characterised by a socialist cooperative movement to commercialise and industrialise agricultural activities in the nation. This post-independence arrangement saw government's continued grip on holding the land as the controlling authority whilst peasants were marshalled into cooperative farms to optimise production modelled on socialist principles. Government oversaw production, marketing, and distribution of land resources in an organised and centralised manner to depict command style of allocating resources. There was no decree of any kind as a reflection of an orderly way of land allocation based on the

tenets of modern democracy but mere orders or instruction instituted from the command perspective.

Ownership of land resource was primarily of government which exercised authority in its distribution and control of agriculture value chain in the country. *Ujamaa* did not allow participation and empowerment of peasantry in the agro-business entrepreneurship as everything was centralised, disempowering the rural communities. Hence, the need for government centralisation of all economic planning and management as depicted in the socialist countries emphasising the bureaucratic tendency of central planned economies (Soviet Union and China).

The Tanzanian government between 1991 and 1995 embarked on a process of reviewing the land governance which resulted in policies that did not differ much from the colonial era. The State continued to hold onto and control land with custodianship still vested in the President. The government could decide what to do with the land usage under the various forms of management like land transfer from the general purpose to the reserved land use. The Village Land Act mandated use of the general land to be used for residual purposes, and the reserved land to be used for the special purposes of forestry reserves, game parks and public utilities.

The agro-based entrepreneurship model to be deduced from land practices in Tanzania was observed to have shifted to other livelihood measures. In a National Survey Sample Census of 2007/2008, the agricultural practices in Tanzania of rural peasantry shifted to favour non-farming livelihoods. The main reasons noted to impact on this shift was lower agricultural productivity in agro-business entities constrained by high costs of production and lower producer prices to world commodity price fluctuations. The shift of economic activities of the nation is evidenced by a widespread concentration of vendor business in the country. The type of business that mushroomed in this phase are small ventures into brick moulding, salon businesses, hairdressing activities, carpentry, welding vending in bottled water, construction and other income generating activities of carpentry (Stephen, Raphael and Shayo, 2022). An interesting phenomenon was that gender balance, where women were involved in income generation, was evident in the country. Income realised in these activities was used to improve livelihoods of the villagers who had come out of the collectivised farms where production had slumped. This is clear evidence of innovation and creativity in the nation whereby agro-business entrepreneurship has been transformed to have relevance in the other sectors of the

economy. Lack of sufficient capacity in the form of infrastructure, as road connectivity, communication technology hindered the thriving of non-farming activities in the country (Stephen, Raphael and Shayo, 2022). The government recognised these national economic development constraints and through the National Development Plan intended to facilitate financial inclusion of the rural poor to increase accessibility to finance and engaging private partnership in the rural set ups for socioeconomic development enhancement.

Chikohonero and Mbowane (2018) acknowledge the impact of land reform on socioeconomic development in Tanzania as a key part of transforming structural impediments to poverty alleviation and also ensuring a significant number of rural citizens have opportunities to actively participate in and enjoy economic success. Such shifts in managing and navigating the measures to improve people's lives is an engaging strategy of transforming African societies, as evidenced in Tanzania. The role of the state in facilitating life transforming methodologies in developing nations, is akin to a poverty reduction mechanism. Such policy intervention is progressive and should be incorporated in the governance structure of Tanzania (Chikohonero and Mbowane, 2018).

2.4.3 Land reform in Senegal

The general land governance in Africa and Senegal in particular has been an important key part of the political dispensation landscape of African history. Past colonial authorities, notably the British and the French imperialists have influenced land governance in their colonies which is now being accounted for in any land reforms in these territories. Liz Adley Willy (2011) narrates that land reform in Senegal, in the 1960s, redefined the nation's land tenure system in the interests of nationalisation of land assets. Councils took over management of cultivated lands located at district level and whereas government took expansive uncultivated lands, the people were not displaced but the customary rights and traditional impact were reduced. In some cases, this did not affect the existing private sector (those properties which were already under state-guaranteed entitlement) whose owners retained their rights intact as was the case in Namibia and Malawi (Holden and Otsuka, 2014). Liz Adley Willy (2011) argues that some form of land reform is presently under way globally. Almost all these reforms have wider implications on the agrarian systems with a view to improve on the productivity and ownership of land resource. There is general acknowledgement that land is crucial to majority of livelihoods in many nations undertaking land reform. Hence, the involvement of government

departments, government policies, non-state actors, pressure groups and advocate agencies in facilitating and influencing land distribution processes.

2.4.3.1 Land tenure systems in Senegal

According to Mamadou (2016), Senegal land tenure system identified and managed three land types since 1976, “when Law No. 76-66 of 2 July 1976 regarding the Code on state land (domain foncier de l’État) supplemented Law No. 64-46 of 17 June 1964 on national lands (domain national”. These types of land categories are namely national, state and private land entities owned by land beneficiaries with titles to it. The year 1976 witnessed numerous legal changes that ushered in new social, economic, political and environmental issues that made land management in Senegal one of the most intricate natural resources to control in the interest of land hungry citizens. As alluded to by Mamadou (2016), lack of well-defined perimeters in mostly rural places in Senegal led to fights or incessant conflicts among the land holders because of the need for land for agricultural farming, grazing and other activities. The dominant regulatory framework of land governance as governed by the national laws continuously conflicts with traditional customary rules still under practice in the nation. While the rural land tenure system is still managed by the national domain, the customary practices are still practiced and applied in rural areas. Mamadou (2016) asserts that because of the conceptualised traditional sacredness of the land resource in Senegal, land ownership is a national prerogative and not a preserve of a few individuals. The concept of individual ownership of land did not exist. Land as a national asset is seen as a means to sustain lives of the citizens. There was no concept of private property.

Land allocation was the preserve of the land master; whose traditional role was that of a chief. The chief was responsible for the management and controlling of land allocation to land beneficiaries. The approach to land allocation was traditional as supervised from the traditional leaders. Such allocation is viewed from past generations as it cascaded to new generations of Senegalese. Mamadou (2016) argued that the main advantage of the customary system was that it enabled each individual or group to access land and make a living from it, in contexts where land was abundant relative to labour. This communal form of land husbandry also facilitated land sustainability as the land master ensured future generations would also access prime land.

2.4.4 Land Reform in India

Land reform legislation in India fell into four categories: the abolition of intermediaries who served as rent collectors under the pre-independence land revenue system; tenancy regulation, which aimed to improve the contractual terms faced by tenants, such as crop shares and security of tenure; a ceiling on landholdings with the goal of redistributing surplus land to the landless; and finally, attempts to consolidate disparate land holdings (Saha and Mehrotra, 2014). The elimination of intermediaries is widely regarded as one of the most successful aspects of land reform. In terms of the other components, the record is mixed and varies among states and over time. Landowners naturally resisted the implementation of these reforms by using their political clout, as well as, various methods of evasion and coercion, such as registering their own land under the names of different relatives to circumvent the ceiling and shuffling tenants around different plots of land so that they did not acquire incumbency rights as stipulated in the tenancy law. The political resolve of certain state administrations has fuelled the accomplishment of land reform, with the prominent achievers being the left-wing administrations in Kerala and West Bengal (Harriss, and Törnquist, 2015).

Besley and Burgess (2000) examined state-level data for the sixteen major Indian states from 1958 to 1992 and exploited changes in land reform legislation across states and across time to discover the effect of land reform on productivity and poverty. They construct a cumulative variable that sums the number of legislative reforms implemented in each state to date. After controlling for state and year fixed effects, as well as, several time varying economic and policy factors, they discover that the delayed version of their cumulative land reform variable has had a negative and substantial effect on poverty. Surprisingly, they discover that this is mostly owing to the tenancy reform component of land reform. However, it appears that this has had a negative impact on agricultural productivity, implying an equity-efficiency trade-off. The elimination of middlemen had a detrimental impact on poverty but had no impact on productivity. Imposing a landholdings ceiling does not appear to have had much of an effect on either poverty or productivity, whereas land consolidation had a favourable effect on productivity but had little effect on poverty. The authors find that land reform had little impact on land distribution and appeared to work primarily by modifying contractual relationships in agriculture (Besley and Burgess, 2000).

The previous study measures land reform through legislation rather than implementation. Given the widely accepted disparity between the two, one concern is that, as described in the preceding section, a poorly administered tenancy reform may have a net negative effect on productivity. This can be done by freezing the land leasing market, even though it may boost productivity and income for individual tenants. Research by Banerjee, Gertler and Ghatak (2002) focusing on West Bengal, a state where tenancy reforms were thoroughly implemented, provides substantially different results including that tenancy reforms increased agricultural output and small holder farmers entrepreneurship. Within a year after taking office in 1977, the left-wing administration introduced Operation Barga, a scheme to implement and enforce long-dormant agricultural tenancy regulations that restricted sharecropper rents and security of tenure. Tenants who registered with the Department of Land Revenue would be entitled to permanent and inheritable tenure on the land they sharecropped if they paid the landlord at least 25% of output as rent under these rules. There was a major improvement in terms of tenant contracts and more stable tenure in the decade following the commencement of Operation Barga.

Political variables were found to have a considerable effect by Besley and Burgess (2000). Congress administrations, in particular, hampered the passage of land reform legislation, particularly tenancy reform. Left-wing administrations, on the other hand, had a major positive influence. Besley and Burgess (2000) used these political variables as instruments for their land reform measures in order to address the argument that land reform is endogenous and may be influenced by factors that also influence the dependent variables of interest.

Conning and Robinson (2005) investigated the causes of land reform further and discover that, after controlling for other variables such as state and year effects, the likelihood of reforms increases when land inequality is larger and peasants have more political power. In a study of village-level data from West Bengal, Bardhan and Mookherjee (2005) discovered that land reform activity is highest where left-wing parties command a larger number of seats in the state legislature and, interestingly, where they face greater political rivalry.

2.4.5 Land reform in Mexico

A significant adjustment to Mexico's revolutionary land system was announced in the early 1990s. The agrarian reform began during the revolution and enshrined in Article 27 of the country's 1917 Constitution was to be demolished in a series of legislative revisions dubbed

"the reforms to Article 27." A new Agrarian Law (1992) permitted *ejido* communities (those who received inalienable land grants as part of the country's agrarian reform) to remove land from the tenure system that had previously allowed them to inherit and work but not sell, mortgage, or let it. *Ejidatarios* (named rights-holders in an *ejido*) might turn their plots into individual private property by assuming "full dominion" over them. Because Mexico's agrarian communities, some 29,700 *ejidos* and 2,300 *comunidades*, many of which were indigenous, owned more than half of the country's territory. These shifts had the potential to cause enormous alterations in the country's urban growth (Jones and Ward, 1998; RAN, 2019).

For some bystanders, that possibility became a reality. They connect Article 27 reform on the 'privatisation' of *ejido* to a remarkable change in Mexico's peri-urban landscape. This significant shift saw massive, outwardly homogeneous subdivisions of modest one- or two-storey dwellings raised around, and even beyond, the country's cities (Eibenschutz and Goya, 2009). In recent decades, the growth of large cities' built-up areas has far surpassed demographic growth (SEDESOL, 2012). The easily identifiable 'social housing' projects driving this expansion are built by private developers and financed by mortgages issued to lower-income purchasers by one of the country's provident funds, particularly INFONAVIT, the National Workers' Housing Fund Institute, to which employers contribute 5% of formal workers' salaries. They represent a radical departure from the existing model of housing production, which, for the poor, mostly involved self-help construction on illegally purchased land.

When events like the 1992 reforms and major changes in Mexico's peri-urban landscape coincide, it's natural to blame one on the other: developers' demand for inexpensive peripheral land must have been met by the sale of privatised *ejido* properties. Many observers believe it was a perfect example of neoliberal urbanisation (Sanderson, 2013; Murphy and Rossi, 2016). The urbanisation of *ejido* land has been portrayed as a by-product of dispossession accumulation and a prerequisite for the new housing model (Assies and Duhau, 2008). In most cases, no evidence is presented to back up these claims according to McAnany (2004). Reviewing the facts for the Mexico City Metropolitan Area to rectify this omission. The data shows that, while some projects are on old *ejido* land, developers have primarily targeted private property. Indeed, in other situations, housing is built on the ruins of an old hacienda that has been left undeveloped, despite the fact that it is bordered by *ejido* land acquired from the hacienda during the Revolution. Analysis of these twenty-first-century housing projects can

be considered heirs of the hacienda in various ways. Our findings shed light on broader debates about neoliberal urbanism, specifically the impact of neoliberalism, which is defined as a "politically guided intensification of market rule and commodification" (Brenner *et al.*, 2010: 184) on the relationship between formal and informal modes of urban space production.

Campesinistas wanted to free *ejidatarios* from the worst excesses of state interference, while technocrats wanted to recapitalise the sector and enhance productivity by attracting private investment. Despite the technocrats' efforts to foster market-friendly institutions, the eventual result was a compromise (Cornelius and Myhre, 1998). Reading the reforms via an economic lens overlooks the extent to which, rather than attempting to abolish the *ejido*, they reasserted political control in a new corporatist manner (Jones, 1996). Despite using language of freedom and justice, they created new government agencies with new ways of intruding in the *ejido*, and 'allowed the State to circumscribe the autonomy of the *ejidos* with a slew of rules and regulations that allowed interference' (Jones, 1996: 194).

The most notable of these regulations relate privatisation via *dominio pleno* adoption. Individual parcels roughly one-third of *ejido* holdings are the only ones eligible. To support full dominion, a special *ejido* meeting is required, with strict quorum and vote criteria. Individual *ejidatarios* may then desire complete control over their parcels. However, if they desire to sell, family, individuals who have worked the land, other community members, and the community itself have first refusal, with a documented assessment necessary. Another meeting is held to authorise individual ownership changes. Only 11.6% of the area held as separate parcels had been given full lordship by late 2017.

If any of the new legislative procedures were designed to stimulate housing construction, it would have been the formation of joint ventures in a *sociedad mercantil inmobiliaria* (property development business) between *ejidos* (giving land) and developers (providing finance). When the urban ramifications of reform were finally evaluated, both the agrarian and urban ministries preferred this alternative (Agraria, 1999). If it works, it could be an example of external investment making the peri-urban *ejido* profitable, as *ejidatarios* are unlikely to have the means required to develop their land. In general, it has not worked, at least not to the benefit of *ejidatarios*. Only a few *ejidos* in the Metropolitan Area have committed common-use land totalling less than 750 hectares to joint ventures. Between 1994 and 1999, the San Mateo Tlaltenango *ejido* formed four firms with various partners to develop premium residences and

a golf club in Cuajimalpa (CDMX). Joint ventures in neighbouring *ejidos* in Cuautitlan Izcalli catered to the other end of the market in 1997: Tepojaco and La Piedad collaborated with the same investor to offer land for 11,301 dwellings in Lomas de San Francisco (1999) and 2,849 in La Piedad (2001). The La Piedad conjunto is notable for its location on the *ejido's* outskirts, surrounding a centre of informal settlement now regularised with official and informal houses mixed in spots.

2.4.6 Land reform in South Africa

Land reform in South Africa is an emotive and politically fraught subject (The Conversation, 2022). This is because land was at the heart of the dispossession of Africans by colonial settlers. Successful land reform can help overcome this legacy and to serve as a basis for a cohesive society that needs a properly managed redistribution Programme. But nearly three decades since the first democratic elections in 1994, South Africa has yet to crack land reform. Opinions vary on what has gone wrong with efforts to institute land reform and how that should be done about it. The first problem is that the topic often rears its head close to election time (Matseke, 2021). In periods when the governing party, the African National Congress (ANC), gets closer to its national elective conference (scheduled for December in 2023), the country can expect another heated debate on land reform. But the debates in these charged environments tend to generate more heat than substance, for example, the decision of the 2017 ANC policy conference to amend Section 25 of the constitution was based on the political rationale that this would enable expropriation of land without compensation under specified conditions. This, in turn, would accelerate land reform but to no avail to date (Bank and Hart, 2019).

A prominent legal scholar on land reform, Tembeka Ngcukaitobi, pointed out in 2018 and 2019 that land reform had not been held back by the constitution but by capacity constraints and the lack of political will on the part of government (The Conversation, 2022). Ngcukaitobi wrote that the ANC's Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) set a target of redistributing 30% of agricultural land in the first five years of the new democratic government (Obeng-Odoom, 2021). The RDP was the socioeconomic policy framework of the first ANC government in 1994. Government missed this goal and has been shifting the goal posts ever since (Clark and Worger, 2022). The aim now is to reach the 30% goal by 2030. The achievements so far have been small with bleak chances for improved land redistribution in the near future (Matseke, 2021).

2.4.7 Land Reform in Namibia

Land reform is an important political and economic topic in Namibia. It consists of two different strategies: resettlement, and transfer of commercially viable agricultural land. Resettlement is aimed at improving the lives of displaced or dispossessed previously disadvantaged Namibians. The "Willing buyer, willing seller" principle applies. The government generally has avoided expropriating farms. Farms to be reallocated to previously disadvantaged people are mainly bought from farm owners that wish to sell their farms. This is called the *Willing buyer, willing seller* principle. Any farm that is to be sold on the free market must first be offered to government. A study by Shigwedha (2004) offers a critical review of the implementation and effects of the National Resettlement Policy (NRP) in Namibia. The NRP is part of the National Land Policy (NLP), which has been implemented in this country since independence in 1990. The analysis of data integrated both qualitative and quantitative methodologies. From the results obtained, the study concluded that the implementation of the resettlement Programme was not progressing well. The willing-seller-willing-buyer principle had brought inefficiency and ineffectiveness in land redistribution. In addition, there was no master list for applicants. As a result, corruption was rife. The plots of 1 000 hectares each are insufficient for cattle and crop farming. Women were given less prominence in the resettlement process. Those who benefitted from the resettlement process were still engaged in traditional farming activities and this tends to limit their productivity.

The study by Shigwedha (2004) recommended that the amendment of the Land Reform Act to pave way for the abolition of the willing-seller-willing-buyer principle, which contributes to the problems of land acquisition. He has been supported by Melber (2019) who suggests that government should design and introduce a heavy land tax system for absentee landlords so that they give up any excessive land they own. On the other hand, mechanisms should be put in place to fairly remunerate farmers who will be forced to give up their farms. At least 1 500 to 2 000 hectares should be allocated to each resettled farmer. Those who benefitted from this scheme should be trained in land utilisation. Lenggenhager, Bloemertz and Nghitevelekwa (2021) recommended constant consultations between the communities and those in charge of the resettlement programme particularly policy makers like government so that all parties have a synodal approach and value the resettlement process.

2.4.8 Land resource access for agro-business entrepreneurship

The intriguing part of the colonial past which has distorted the management of land through traditional system was the application of the Roman Dutch Law into traditional system of land management. The colonial objective was to create a system of land resource management that enabled its access and tends to promote their interests in support of trade activities. The approach adopted was to have rights and control over the free trade activities in the land with the owners freely transacting to attain access to finance and business support. Land would now be used as a means of exchange and guarantor to credit access in their business transactions. In order to constrain access to land to the majority of the Senegalese, the colonial system introduced a register regime of land tenure system. As argued by Mamadou (2016), recording enabled the land tenure services to identify land assets, while formal registration allowed them to remove the land from any customary rights. While the colonial system did not override the traditional system of land use, customary practices continued to exist in their method and manner of land use for their survival. This is evidenced by the spiritual attachment that is on land with its cultural significance in Senegal's rural communities (Mamadou, 2016). Meaning rural people still practice traditional rights over land use with their agro-entrepreneurial focus limited to their past experiences with government role still significant but with no power to dislodge traditional use of land under customary practices.

Modern land use for sustainable economic exploitation has been important as the government enacted Law No. 64-46 of 17 June 1964 which effectively designated 95 per cent of the land in Senegal as national land (Mamadou, 2016). In this attempt to nationalise land resource, the government through the law of 1964 classified all land as state land. This included unregistered land including customary and private rights over land which was not recorded in the national register as all land now belonged to the state. In order to improve on land tenure management to accommodate optimum exploitation of this resource for economic benefits, the government organised four types of land under its jurisdiction. These are, municipal land, forest reserves, residential land for housing purposes including rural land for rural livelihoods and unused land as virgin land. This gave government leeway in economically managed land as a resource to bring about notable benefits as to improve the socioeconomic dispensation of the nation. The government through local authorities managed municipal land through local government acts and rural councils oversaw the home territories as they managed rural land.

The land question in Senegal is still pending with the need to incorporate modern ways of land tenure that stimulate economic development. Impediments to agro-business entrepreneurship development have been attributed to government passiveness in enacting an enabling environment to this growth. There is need to stimulate private sector investment in the agricultural sector as evidenced by the government policies being shifted in 2013 in favour of the establishment of commercial farming in the country. The role of rural councils in augmenting government policies for economic use of land should be implemented by all stakeholders. Private sector engagements through acquisition of land rights for commercial farming, while resisted by customary practices, have been embraced by government to make land productive.

Munshi (2019) affirms that Senegal hopes to reap the rewards of modernising agriculture. He contends that Senegal hopes to become a middle-income economy in 2035 by modernising its agricultural sector. The industry employs most of the population and intends to engineer agro-business entrepreneurship focus to be self-sufficient in food production. Munshi, as quoted by the World Bank (2022) noted that the agriculture sector makes up roughly 15 per cent of gross domestic product and remains as a key source of foreign exchange. It employs at least seventy-seven (77) per cent of the population work force. The departure from the previous land governance systems and land management approach has ushered in reforms that are beginning to bear fruit as evidenced by the increase in production of cash crop from 268 per cent from 2011 to 1.4 m tones in 2017 (Munshi, 2019). Government policy focus on stimulating agro-business entrepreneurship has created opportunities in agribusiness sector and impacted positively to the growth of GDP.

2.5 Implication to Zimbabwean FTLRP

Land reform has also strongly come onto the political and public agenda in Zimbabwe during the colonial and post-colonial eras. The FTLRP in Zimbabwe has been viewed as a negative approach to dealing of land issues. However, it is the researcher's view to establish the extent and impact of this land reform on agribusiness entrepreneurship. Such reforms are necessary as evidenced to balance land ownership across the continent. But the productivity impact must also be accounted for to enhance and guarantee continuity in the production of goods and services. This prerogative is entrusted to entrepreneurship domain given its depth specialization and interest from the owners of land resource. In the Zimbabwe FTLRP, the A1 model of land allocation gave small plots for cultivating crops and use as pastures to landless and poor

farmers. A2 land allocation model created commercial farms with hectares ranging from 20 to 1000 hectares of land to farmers with skills and resources to farm profitably, reinvest and raise agricultural productivity (Mkodzongi *et al.*, 2019). It is acknowledged in the literature that the major beneficiaries of the land reform are peasants who now have access to better-quality fertile land and natural resources previously owned by a few whites under the colonial system. Land redistribution thus empowered villagers, farm workers, professionals and expanded the number of mid-sized farms, while downsizing the number, farm size and area of large-scale white farms, as well as of the agro-industrial estates. The FTLRP has alerted the current government to strategise basing on the view that the land reform is productive, while engaging even white farmers who used to own the land. The current contract arrangements between new land owners and agribusiness investors are a new phenomenon in the land reform. Empirical data shows that while tobacco contract farming arrangements have boosted productivity in the sector, some argue against such practice as continuation of exploitation of new land owners, (Scoones *et al.*, 2017).

The inflow of agrarian capital through contract farming has also intensified new forms of land grabbing. Disguised as joint ventures between the new farmers and remnants of former white commercial farmers and supported by the government, they have led to the gradual consolidation of farmland into large entities owned by syndicates. As Moyo (2013) notes, “Some former white farmers have moved up or downstream of the farming value chain by acting as contract financiers and marketers or supervisors of farming operations of contracted new farmers” (Moyo, 2013: 51). Under these arrangements (joint ventures, contract farming), there is an increasing demand ‘for the reintroduction of private property rights in agricultural land’ and a return to ‘neo-liberal economic and agricultural policies’ (Ibid.).

According to Scoones and Murimbarimba (2021), for the FTLRP to be successful, it needs serious capital investment and funding, skills training and development, and knowledge repository to manage the land reform capacitation, and targeted government support through agricultural extension. Marketing support is very important to newly FTLRP beneficiaries because they are prone to manipulation by market intermediaries. There is clear evidence of immense constraints among FTLRP beneficiaries as they are facing unprecedented challenges in accessing funding to alleviate working capital needs and acquisition of capital equipment. The financial markets in Zimbabwe are not majorly supportive of newly resettled farmers as they tend to demand collateral security to advance agro-based funding. The FTLRP enabled a

large pool of land beneficiaries to be allocated land, including former farm commercial workers, rural land beneficiaries, professionals including civil servants and all categories of society to access land. There is a growing awareness of agro-business entrepreneurship among FTLRP that wealth is created through land use. Hence, the sense that there is a strong appetite by smallholders to make a livelihood and wealth of the land as alluded to in the article. This sense of entrepreneurship has gripped small-scale tobacco farmers, horticultural farmers and small-scale animal husbandry farmers. They collectively see farming is a good source of wealth creation, as evidenced by the rich white community who are still into farming despite the negative implications of FTLRP.

2.5.1 Challenges of Land Reform Programme in Zimbabwe

Since colonialism, land has been a source of political tension in Zimbabwe, both among indigenous black groups and, particularly, between white settlers and black rural populations. Colonial expropriation practices granted a small number of white farmers' possession of enormous tracts of fertile "commercial" land, while the bulk of black people lived in congested, dry "communal regions." The Land Apportionment Act of 1930 was the first piece of legislation to formally create land segregation, designating half of the country's land for whites - who made up just 5% of the population and allocating them most of the better land. It also included measures for relocating indigenous farmers to drier, less fruitful areas.

The Lancaster House Agreement of 1980 was the first attempt to divide land more equally, and it included land purchase rules that safeguarded agricultural owners. It guaranteed government would not participate in forced land acquisition since land distribution was meant to take place based on "willing buyer, willing seller," with the government "paying promptly sufficient remuneration" for property. The first phase of reform was gradual, and the number of families resettled by the end of 2000 fell short of the 1980 objectives since the problem was not prioritised. During the 1990s, less than one million hectares of land was bought, and less than 20,000 families were relocated. According to Human Rights Watch cited by Kringger, 2015), much of the land obtained at this time was of inferior quality and was just 19 percent of the nearly 3.5 million hectares (8.65 million acres) of resettled land was judged prime, or farmable. The situation fuelled resentment, and in an attempt to reclaim control, the government held a referendum in 2000, which granted it additional constitutional powers, and held elections under the slogan 'Land is the economy, economy is the land.'

Commercial farmers, on the other hand, have driven economic growth in the country since independence, employing one-third of the national workforce and accounting for half of Zimbabwe's exports. These commercial farmers were known as among the world's most prolific farmers, with world records in yields and innovative conservation practices (Jakaza, 2019). In 2000, this was also the segment that backed the opposition. Despite losing the vote in February 2000, the Zimbabwean government continued with constitutional revisions to "fast-track its land reform project," allowing it to seize land compulsorily without compensation.

2.5.2 The public impact

The effectiveness of the land reform is still being debated, with some observers crediting them with some success in dispersing access to land and others stressing the severe impacts on Zimbabweans' economic and social position. The fast-track phase began in 2000, with the acquisition of 10,816,886 hectares and the relocation of 162,161 households. A total of 237 858 families were reported to have obtained land access under the initiative.

Agricultural production shifted significantly throughout the FTLRP period, affecting many crops and livestock. The four major large-scale commercial farming (LSCF) field crops: wheat, tobacco, soya beans, and sunflower have decreased planting area and output volumes" by 30 to 70 percent. Sunflower crop, primarily an LSCF preserve, saw an 87 percent fall in planted area between 2002 and 2003 and the 1990s average, resulting in an identical loss in output volume during the FTLRP period.

The agriculture industry's infrastructure and technology also failed. The optimal use of available technologies, particularly for the peasantry, was hampered by limited access to inputs such as machinery, equipment, and infrastructure, seeds, fertilisers, and chemicals, limiting the areas planted to most crops in the aftermath of droughts that scorched planted crops. The capacity of government institutions to handle the rising need for agricultural knowledge services (extension, research, market data, etc.) was restricted since organisations like AREX (Agricultural Research and Extension) and Veterinary Services were overburdened and underfunded. There were claims of widespread hunger and malnutrition, with very little up-to-date information, purportedly as a result of government efforts to hinder food supply and malnutrition surveys, particularly among youngsters. There were between 1.9 and 4 million "food insecure" persons in 2006. Furthermore, somewhere between three and four million individuals have fled Zimbabwe since 2000 (Centre for public impact, 2017).

Since 2000, more than 7 million hectares (17.3 million acres) of land has been transferred, which was described as "compensation for colonialism" Kringger (2015). Approximately 4,500 white farmers were evicted, sometimes forcibly, and a million black Zimbabweans landed on their property (Monda, 2021). Several new medium-sized farms were established, but the land was mostly transferred to small-scale farmers and to persons with close ties to Robert Mugabe's government. Some 300,000 black agricultural labourers were laid off because of the land reform (Shonhe, 2019).

2.5.3 Stakeholder engagement in FTLRP

Official government attempts were made to garner support from a variety of stakeholders, including those from the international community. In September 1998, an international donors' meeting on land reform and resettlement was organised in response to disagreements over the first phase of land reform. The goal of this event was to develop consensus among diverse stakeholders in land reform. To oversee 'phase two' of land resettlement in Zimbabwe, a set of principles was created, including respect for a legal procedure, transparency, poverty alleviation, affordability, and compatibility with Zimbabwe's broader economic goals. A technical group worked on finalising the new system's details.

However, the impacted communities were not involved in the concept and were only directly involved in the execution. According to reports, land reform was centralised under two sectoral ministries: agriculture and local government. Since planning was done in the offices of these two ministries, local engagement in relocation programmes and execution techniques was restricted. The community were only involved in the projects' latter stages. The programme was also met with official opposition. While these debates were taking place, many of those calling for economic and political reform banded together in 1997 to create the National Constitutional Assembly, an alliance of civil society groups that began a process of deliberation on the need for a new constitution. The Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) was founded in 1999 by leaders from several interest organisations. The MDC, in particular, was the first black party to gain support from white Zimbabweans en masse, and it garnered substantial financial backing from the white business and commercial agricultural groups. The MDC pledged 'people-driven land reform' in addition to advocating for national rebirth on a variety of subjects.

In reaction to a perceived strengthening of the opposition, the administration initiated a rewrite of the constitution. Former President Mugabe established a government group of over 400

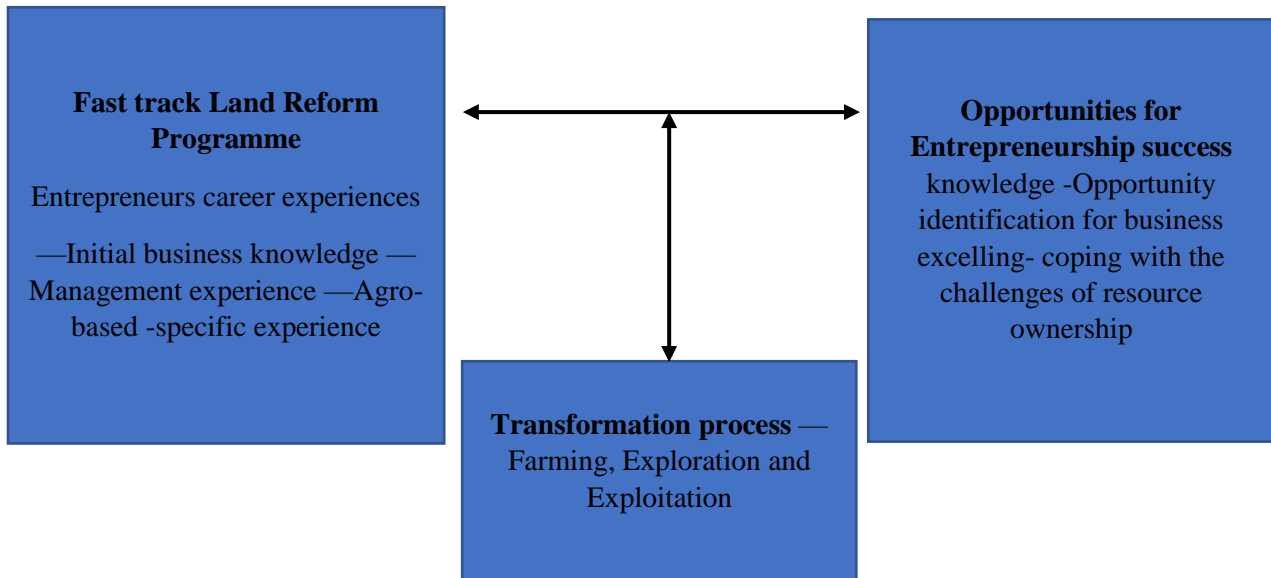
people to revise the constitution in 1999 (Magaya, 2015). A draft constitution was adopted against the protests of a substantial number of members of the constitutional commission and submitted to a national referendum in February 2000, including provisions that would greatly strengthen the executive at the expense of parliament and extend the government's powers to acquire land compulsorily without compensation. The administration lost the referendum, but continued with constitutional revisions, including the ones that resulted in the FTLRP.

2.6 Conceptual framework

According to Kurasha (2013) conceptual framework is a type of perception or belief that is influenced by ones understanding of a major concept. The working appreciation and understanding of agro-based entrepreneurship are based on the depth of conceptualising its working modus operandi in the discourse of agro-business management. In this regard, the researcher is reviewing the main concepts feeding into the agro-business entrepreneurship with its variables to bring out a dependent variable of successful agro-business aptitude. The conceptual framework should have a postulation that people pursue a range of livelihood outcomes by which they hope to improve or increase their wellbeing and reduce vulnerability. People are at the centre of development initiatives and in this case the study focused on how access to government aid will affect how farmers augment their livelihood in a sustainable way since land is a major means of production. The FTLRP was a poverty reduction measure embarked on by the government in order for people to create livelihoods out of resources and assets they have including skills, technologies, knowledge and capacity to utilise the land in a sustainable way. Diamanto (2005) identifies the conceptual framework that explains the process of entrepreneurial learning as an experiential process, and identifies three main components in the process of entrepreneurial learning. These are independent variables of essence in explaining entrepreneurial experiences of entrepreneurs. The variables are entrepreneurs' career experience, the transformation process, and entrepreneurial knowledge in terms of effectiveness in recognising and acting on entrepreneurial opportunities and coping with the liabilities of newness. Consideration of their relevance to this study was observed to unleash a new paradigm in the understanding and appreciation of agro-business entrepreneurship in land reform programmes. Discussion below targets the relevant variables in explaining the befitting of land reform policy in shaping and creating the entrepreneurship culture in the nation. However, variances to the expected standards and expectations of business success are explained in the context of a developing nation.

Figure 2.1 Conceptual framework of entrepreneurial learning as an experiential process

A conceptual framework of entrepreneurial learning as an experiential process



Source: Researcher’s own compilation (2021)

The conceptual framework is now explained below.

2.6.1 Fast track Land Reform Programme

The study looked at various legislation and government policies such as Rural Land Act [Chapter 20:18), Communal Land Act [Chapter 20; 04), Land Commission Act [Chapter 20; 29] and Land Acquisition Act [Chapter 20:10]. These have been looked at in detail especially under 2.2.6. The early years of the newly resettled farmers were marked by declining productivity and generated low financial income. With time farmers’ productivity has improved and consequently reaping of financial rewards and in some cases, some have accumulated physical assets. Non-Governmental Organisations and the Agriculture bank (Agribank), including contract farming has improved access to finances to promote entrepreneurship under land reform which has provided some opportunities despite challenges. Of major development was the establishment of the Department Of Agricultural Technical And Extension Services (Agritex) that aims for effective agricultural extension by providing competent and credible staff through in-service training. It also provides agricultural information through mass media. It is responsible for curriculum development; training needs analysis, editing, co-ordination of the Master Farmer training and provision of printing and documentation services and covering Marondera district.

2.6.2 Transformation Process

This refers to the actual implementation process by farmers' to engage in agriculture production by utilising allocated land through the government land reform programme. Manyeruke and Murwira (2014) say that this stage has been characterised by:

- **Farming:** The A1 and A2 type farmers in Marondera district after land allocation are then expected to engage themselves in activities or businesses that largely dwell on growing crops and raising livestock.
- **Exploration:** This is the process of delving, an activity which has some expectation of discovery (Baker, 2020). Exploration strategies can also be determined by technological breakthroughs that force traditional (mostly peasant farmers) in Marondera district to explore new knowledge and attain entrepreneurial skills to excel in agriculture by effectively utilising land attained.
- **Exploitation:** the action of utilising effectively and benefiting from the land resources by A1 and A2 farmers in Marondera district.

2.6.3 Entrepreneurship success

A1 and A2 farmers in Marondera should view farming as an enterprising and livelihood activity. This calls for:

-Farming knowledge (farmers should have been trained or acquired some form of knowledge through experience).

-Exploiting opportunities in the agricultural sector to survive competition and other business constraints.

-Managing resources such as land allocated through reform Programme, manpower and agricultural inputs, among others.

Ultimately, the farms should grow with increased production (output), profits and business growth.

2.7 Theoretical Framework

This study adopted the Institutionalism and Hybrid Entrepreneurship theory as an intellectual perspective. The underlying theories give the researcher a philosophy that organises the fundamental role of government in spearheading FTLRP as policy implementation programme. The group behaviour describing FTLRP beneficiaries in their endeavour to acquire land as a resource and using land to achieve entrepreneurship goals is paramount in this study. Hybrid Entrepreneurship theory has direct implication to FTLRP beneficiaries by defining the how,

what, where and when in pursuit of entrepreneurship process in utilising land resource. A combination of theories was used to frame issues in the FTLRP in Zimbabwe which facilitated the identification and allocation of land beneficiaries. The exploitation of land resource for entrepreneurship purpose is paramount in enhancing the expected changes of livelihoods in land beneficiaries.

2.7.1 Institutional approach

The phrase "institutional entrepreneurship" refers to "actions of players with an interest in specific institutional arrangements and who leverage resources to construct new institutions or modify existing ones" (Maguire *et al.*, 2004: 657). DiMaggio (1988: 14) is most closely connected with the phrase, arguing that "new institutions emerge when organised players with sufficient resources recognise in them an opportunity to realise interests that they value highly." Such people, known as institutional entrepreneurs, construct a whole new system of meaning that connects different sets of institutions together (Garud *et al.*, 2002:). Institutional entrepreneurship is thus a concept that reintroduces agency, interests, and power into organisational institutional studies. It consequently holds potential for scholars attempting to bridge the "old" and "new" institutionalisms in organisational theory. Institutionalism focuses on the deeper and more resilient components of social structure that emerge from a nation's socioeconomic and political dynamics.

The Institutional theory (Suddaby, 2010) is a theory on the deeper and more resilient aspects of social structure. It considers the processes by which structures, including schemes; rules, norms, and routines, become established as authoritative guidelines for social behaviour. Different components of institutional theory explain how these elements are created, diffused, adopted, and adapted over space and time; and how they fall into decline and disuse. An institutionally driven approach, as alluded to by Meagher (2006) and Lund (2006), is well explained in the policy anchor of government in the FTLRP which was the fundamental anchor of policy initiation, implementation and evaluation for impact. The study argued that institutions are the rules of the game in a society or, more formally, are the humanly devised constraints that shape human interaction (Lauth, 2015) and distinguishes between formal and informal institutions. Informal institutions comprise of codes of conduct, norms of behaviour and conventions while formal institutions include political and legal rules, economic rules and sociocultural contracts. Both formal and informal constraints might inhibit or prohibit entrepreneurship development. Formal institutions create an opportunity field for entrepreneurship while informal institutions influence opportunity recognition of potential

entrepreneurs. This has been lacking in Zimbabwe, resulting in entrepreneurs operating in an environment of lawlessness constraining the exploitation of entrepreneurship opportunities.

There is need to address the fundamental question in this context: how can institutional theory explain entrepreneurship? Based on the foregoing, one may better appreciate why institutional theory is a key tool for explaining and guiding entrepreneurship research. The environment is changing and evolving. This shift creates new opportunities. However, opportunities do not exist as objective things visible to all. An opportunity is a scenario in which a potentially profitable ends-means framework can be developed (Henry, 2021). As a result, they have the potential to be discovered by entrepreneurs with the appropriate idiosyncratic expertise (Shane, 2000). This includes challenging the notion of a separate physical reality, to which human language relates and which determines the truth value of assertions. The entrepreneur is the one who recognises opportunities and reshapes reality. As Kirzner (2009) has pointed out, an entrepreneur is aware of commercial potential that others have not identified. The rejection of the idea that entrepreneurship is about the characteristics of specific people, the entrepreneur, known as the "psychological approach," has led to consideration of the institutional approach to entrepreneurship research as a far more promising approach to explaining the phenomenon of entrepreneurship (Veciana, 2007).

In the Opportunity theory developed by Shane, the objective component of opportunities means that the entrepreneurial process starts with the perception or discovery of an opportunity (Shane, 2003). This makes individual cognition a key question in entrepreneurship research (Gaglio and Katz, 2001). It also entails a specific anthropology of the actor. The anthropology of opportunity theory works from a classic scheme: the active subject acting on a passive object existing in an independent physical reality. Moreover, entrepreneurship requires a decision by a person to act upon an opportunity because opportunities themselves lack agency (Shane, 2003). Agency is thus the privilege of individuals. However, if the opportunity does not possess the objectivity entailed by existing prior to discovery but rather an exteriority produced by the entrepreneurial process, then the modernist scheme begins to crack, and one might question the nature of subjectivity in the entrepreneurial process (Korsgaard, 2007: 10).

Poststructuralists believe attention must be shifted from the subject as an entity to the subjectivisation of a process. Rather than accepting the autonomous individual as a given, these writers strive to reveal the subject's becoming. That is, the Cartesian subject is a sort of creation,

forged in a particular cultural context and taking several forms throughout Western history. This is demonstrated in the writings of, among others, Michaels (1977), Zizek (1998) and Stöckl (2007).

This approach would require a shift in perspective from viewing the entrepreneur as an autonomous and given actor engaging in a series of transactions (with a given profile) that comprise entrepreneurship to focusing on the process of becoming an entrepreneur. The Institutional theory can describe the process of becoming an entrepreneur. The formal and informal institutions heavily influence the process of becoming an entrepreneur. According to North (1990), the key agent of change is the individual entrepreneur reacting to the institutional framework's incentives.

The issue in the field of entrepreneurship should be how the institutional context affects whether it promotes or inhibits the emergence of entrepreneurs, the rate of new business creation, and the growth and development of new firms. One can distinguish between old and new research in the realm of entrepreneurship. The former concentrated on the socio-cultural consequences on entrepreneurship, used a historical approach, and relied heavily on qualitative methods. New research, on the other hand, is far more diverse in terms of both research topics and technique, and has two additional characteristics: (a) it primarily refers to developing, emerging, or transition economies, and (b) research on public policy and support programmes predominates.

Max Weber was arguably the first author to point to and investigate the entrepreneurial phenomena from a socio-cultural perspective in his 1964 book *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism* (Weber, 2002). According to Weber, religious beliefs have a tremendous influence on the behaviour of the capitalist-entrepreneur. Carroll (1965), Jeremy (1984), and Singh (2000) conducted empirical studies that supported Weber's concept. Another classic publication is Cochran's (1960) research of the effect of cultural variations on entrepreneurial behaviour, in which he compared the United States to three Latin American countries (Mexico, Puerto Rico and Argentina). Schmolders' (1971) publication "Der Unternehmer im Ansehen der Welt" (Entrepreneur's Prestige in the World) covering the major countries (USA, Germany, UK, France, Japan, India) demonstrated how large the differences between the various countries were and how intellectuals, educators, and trade unionists influenced the entrepreneur's image.

Recent international entrepreneurship scholars have added to the body of evidence on the impact of informal limitations on venture creation and economic development (Dana, 1997). Other authors have used Kostova's (1997) country institutional profile, which consists of the three Scott's pillars, to demonstrate variances in the entrepreneurial inclination of other countries' residents (Busenetez *et al.*, 2005). As previously stated, formal constraints or regulatory dimension consists of laws, regulations, and government policies that can either enhance, support, or inhibit entrepreneurship. They increase or decrease risks for individuals starting a new firm and facilitate entrepreneurs' efforts to acquire resources. For instance, property rights, regulation on contracts or social security systems can make the creation of a new firm more attractive or riskier.

2.7.2 Hybrid Entrepreneurship theory

According to Solesvik (2017), changes in the labour market and growth in the diversity of non-standard working arrangements have heightened the interest of policy makers and entrepreneurship researchers in “hybrid entrepreneurship”, which is a combination of employment and entrepreneurship. Solesvik (2017) concludes that hybrid entrepreneurs should not be considered as a homogeneous group: some hybrid entrepreneurs may always stay at their waged jobs and others may tend to become full-time entrepreneurs. Luc *et al.* (2018) see hybrid entrepreneurship as the process that involves combination of self-employment and wage labour. It is a situation whereby an individual combines both paid job and entrepreneurial venture together. It implies that an individual works and still engages in self-employment activities. Hammarström and Nylén (2014) see hybrid entrepreneurship as the means by which a person tries out a business idea and business entrepreneurial skills while still maintaining wage-work in order to alleviate personal financial risk.

According to Dzomonda and Fatoki (2018), hybrid entrepreneurship is a situation where individuals integrate their time in both self and wage employment. In other words, the individual has a business of his own while he/she still works as an employee. Thus, hybrid entrepreneurship could be the mixture of an individual being an employee, as well as, employer in different organisations. Hammarström and Nylén (2014) further see hybrid entrepreneurship as method for minimisation of personal risk, which involves entrepreneurial venture and paid employment. The baseline appreciation of the theory is to interrogate the desire to establish a

business from entrepreneurs among developing nations' populaces. Having employment with sufficient income is an impediment to engaging in entrepreneurship but among the population there are people who have the honours to start businesses on their own. Mostly they are people with no background of education, employment but with the zeal to establish an income generating for self-employment generation. When studying the demographic of a developing nation's working class, the desire to start personal businesses increases on the background of lower salaries and wages earned in their careers. Such motivating instruments would augment entrepreneurship desire of a nation and cascade into newly resettled farmers to venture more into agribusiness. However, individuals are steadily more reluctant to take risks and start their own firms if they have secure jobs with high salaries and good social benefits (Schmitt and Lane, 2009).

Previous research demonstrates that there is a significant part of the population in different countries who have an entrepreneurial spirit and wish to start a business one day (Kelly *et al.*, 2016). This is evidenced by the waiting list of those who desire to be allocated some pieces of land in Zimbabwe. According to the Ministry of Lands, agriculture, fisheries, water and rural development thousands of people are on the waiting list to be allocated land. However, land allocation to Zimbabweans under FTLRP has not been following a set of criteria to uplift the motive of doing business (Chipenda, 2018). The major motive underlined in the FTLRP in Zimbabwe had to do with political motives characterised by land invasion, takeover of assets and seizure of land resources. In the process, most land beneficiaries did not exhibit any entrepreneurial attributes but emotional attributes manifesting in violence, destruction of property and loss of lives in some cases. In this scenario, there are different reasons why some individuals never realise their entrepreneurial intentions even after gaining land for farming. First, they lack any entrepreneurship background. That is the inert motive to create a business venture and make profits. Access to land allocation was triggered by the desire to have land as a resource. The idea that one has their own space of land is a career endeavour for many Africans (Groenewald, 2003). This criterion was rampant among civil servants, military personnel and professionals in Zimbabwe. They did not want to lose monetary and non-monetary benefits from wage jobs in formal employment. The motive to use their pieces of land for business purposes was a high risk given the uncertainties in the outcome of this venture. Because the land belongs to the state in Zimbabwe, the incentive to use it as collateral for financial assistance was not forthcoming (Hove and Gwiza, 2012). Hence, individuals are

not eager to bear opportunity costs of agribusiness entrepreneurship in the FTLRP in Zimbabwe.

While hybrid entrepreneurship can be an option to earn supplementary income in addition to the income from conventional jobs or to try a new business idea (Schulz *et al.*, 2016), the practice came later in the process of land reform. In case of business success and sufficient income generated from agribusiness entrepreneurial activity in the FTLRP in Zimbabwe, this is now being realised with a few A2 and A1 farmers in Marondera District (Manyeruke and Murwira). The initial phase of the process was characterised by lack of resources that can be used as start-up capital, lack of skills to engage in agribusiness ventures, and lack of incentives from the market. However, Baker and Nelson (2005) argue that Hybrid entrepreneurs are more likely to operate their businesses using the resources in hand, thereby acting as effectuators (Sarasvathy, 2001) rather than full-time entrepreneurs. Apparently, hybrid entrepreneurs may be motivated by a drive to “be their own boss” but can also work under the management of other people if necessary. FTLRP in Zimbabwe has been driven to please political objectives as argued by Scoones (2011). Marongwe *et al.* (2011) notes the disparity of success under this programme in Masvingo where above 15% of the resettled population have experienced an increase in the socioeconomic well-being of their lifestyle. Raffiee and Feng’s (2014) belief that the survival rate of firms started by hybrid entrepreneurs is higher than that of firms started by full-time entrepreneurs becomes pertinent.

2.8 Theoretical implication to the study

Institutional theory and Hybrid entrepreneurship theories resonate well and complement each other. Institutional theory has become an increasingly common lens in entrepreneurship research (David, Tolbert and Boghossian, 2019). Over the past years, a number of entrepreneurship studies have adopted institutional perspective in order to expand and grow. Institutional theory has also formed a foundation of understanding about how hybrid entrepreneurs not only create new products and services, but how they must also seek legitimacy for their new ventures (Faik, Barrett and Oborn, 2020). A venture must prove its value by demonstrating that it engages in legitimate activities. This is the challenge in Zimbabwe’s land reform as most resettled farmers do not have title deeds, which brings an element of insecurity. The ownership of land should have legitimacy and the institutional environment helps to determine the process of gaining cognitive and moral rights and

entitlements, which is critical for entrepreneurial opportunities to be exploited. Entrepreneurial organisations and their members need to behave in a desirable or appropriate manner within a socially constructed system or face sanctions for deviating from the accepted norms.

The government of Zimbabwe was the main actor in implementing FTLRP. Government has the role of organising society into systems that are responsive to its social policy framework. The A1 and A2 FTLRP beneficiaries were meant to benefit possible socio strata of the Zimbabwean society into meaningful land allocation. This separation brought in phases of implementing land reforms by targeting and decongesting rural areas with A1 schemes and reorienting A2 farm allocations for productivity. In ascertaining the institutional role of government in the FTLRP, government created the Ministry of Agriculture, fisheries and rural resettlement with the mandate to spearhead policy creation and implementation of FTLRP. Its mandate is to identify land beneficiaries in different provinces through land application, enlisting beneficiaries and allocating them land.

The widely held view is that there has been a decrease in production across the agro-based business sector in Zimbabwe. This has had impact on the yields and production of agro products (Munyoro, *et al.*, 2018). The majority have been feeling that the agro-business, should be an industry which directly relies on constant and uninterrupted supply of produce from producers and to end users alike. Munyoro *et al.* (2018) suggest that there is need to adopt a mobile based agro-retailing model which should meet the needs of both rural and urban consumers, such as the use of mobile phones for communication purposes between the agro retailer and the consumers, and financial transactions such as the use of plastic money. This is possible because there is high literate, mobile and internet activity in both rural and urban communities and the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe actively promotes this (Chigunhah *et al.*, 2020).

Government through the Ministry of Agriculture was tasked to create infrastructure to enable FTLRP beneficiaries to access. Such governmental mandate as alluded to by Institutionalism is clear to be informative of the role played by government in the FTLRP. However, the effectiveness of government involvement in the FTLRP has been assessed by Owens *et al.* (1999). They found that A1 farmers lack the services of agricultural extension officers because visits from these officers would increase net incomes. They highlighted that though farmers may have received technical advice on crop production, at times they are affected by shocks such as droughts which would cause them to suffer losses. However, they reiterate that frequent

visits from extension officers would provide farmers with additional knowledge which would help in cutting losses. Scoones *et al.* (2010), note that extension officers in resettled areas are few and far between and veterinary care is non-existent leaving farmers to rely on their own knowledge systems. That the Zimbabwean government intends to create a social structure in the FTLRP areas is evidenced by its declaration of land tenure systems. Every resettled farmer is required to submit a production schedule of the past year as reported in *The Herald* of 10 July, 2022. The government thrust towards farm productivity by all resettled farmers in the A1 and A2 resettlement schemes, is meant to harness the benefits of FTLRP through accountability and use of farm resources. Optimum use of farm land is the target of government involvement in issuing of mandatory reports from farmers. For example, eighty percent (80%) of A2 farmers who were resettled in the FTLRP submitted their production returns while sixty percent (60%) of A1 farmers did submit as per government requirements, accessed from (<http://opr.news>). Such institutional strength in guiding FTLRP farmers is part of the mandate of governance for posterity in Zimbabwe.

The Zimbabwe FTLRP has generated a hybrid entrepreneurship culture among land beneficiaries who have realised significant benefits from the land resource. In a study carried out in Masvingo FTLRP by Marongwe *et al.* (2011), a new mix of people in the new resettlement has been observed. In his study, the A2 schemes, for example 46.5% of new farmers have a 'Master Farmer' certificate, while in the A1 self-contained schemes 17.6% do. 91.6% of A2 farmers have been in education to Form 3 or above, while this proportion is 71.6% and 44.8% in the A1 self-contained and villagised schemes respectively. The new resettlement is dominated by a new generation of farmers, with most household heads being under 50, many born since Independence. A2 schemes are dominated by the over 40s, but often include people with significant experience and connections.

That overall 18.3% of households came from urban areas (increasing to 43.8% in the A2 schemes) is significant too, as connections to town have proved important in gaining access to services and support in the absence of official programmes in the rural areas. Overall, the new resettlement is populated by younger, more educated people with a greater diversity of backgrounds, professional skills and connections than their neighbours in the communal areas and old resettlement. Among the land beneficiaries in general professionals who have their salary perks are among the renowned agribusiness entrepreneurs. They are doubling in earnings by manipulating their access to knowledge and information regarding agribusiness ventures.

They are privileged to access farming inputs through various government departments in which most of them work. They are also privileged to have their farming products sold at competitive prices especially during the tobacco selling season, hence, sustaining their earnings. They opt to remain employed given the advantages they are getting both as agro-based business ventures and employees. While another section of the land beneficiaries made up of unemployed villagers who accessed land through the decongestion programme of the government have registered significant progress in changing their livelihoods.

Kabonga (2020) notes that new farmers have accumulated physical assets in form of investments in irrigation equipment, ploughs, hoes, vehicles and many other assets because of their access to land resource in the FTLRP. The early years of the newly resettled farmers were marked by declining productivity and attendant low financial income. With time farmers' productivity has improved and consequently reaping of financial rewards has allowed the accumulation of physical assets and changed their livelihoods for the better. This is a clear indication of agro-business entrepreneurship impact through the use of land as a resource. While the Hybrid theory of entrepreneurship is not complete in explaining the parameters insinuating the position of this group of the beneficiaries, it retains a degree of use. This group have some who have graduated to be full time entrepreneurs in the agribusiness arena. Some of them have grown in specialising in the farming of special farm produce and are known to supply the urban markets continuously. Hence, they have resorted in deepening their knowledge in enterprising in the area of expertise. However, evidence is that this group critically need assistance in the form of funding, skill update, and training in agribusiness systems. Infrastructural development is lacking in most of their farms as witnessed by high costs of transportation and lack of access to lucrative urban markets. This group is subjected to high exploitation by middlemen in the marketing of their produce. Hence, the need for government to stretch its assistance programmes in reaching and facilitating development programmes to benefit land beneficiaries.

2.9 Conclusion

This chapter reviewed literature focusing on the entrepreneurial opportunities as enshrined in the Institutionalist view of entrepreneurship. The land reform experiences of other nations in Africa brought in some semblance and similarities to FTLRP in Zimbabwe, while some variations were noted. Kenya, Senegal, Tanzania land reforms were compared to the Zimbabwean FTLRP. The theoretical framework of the study has also been looked at. The

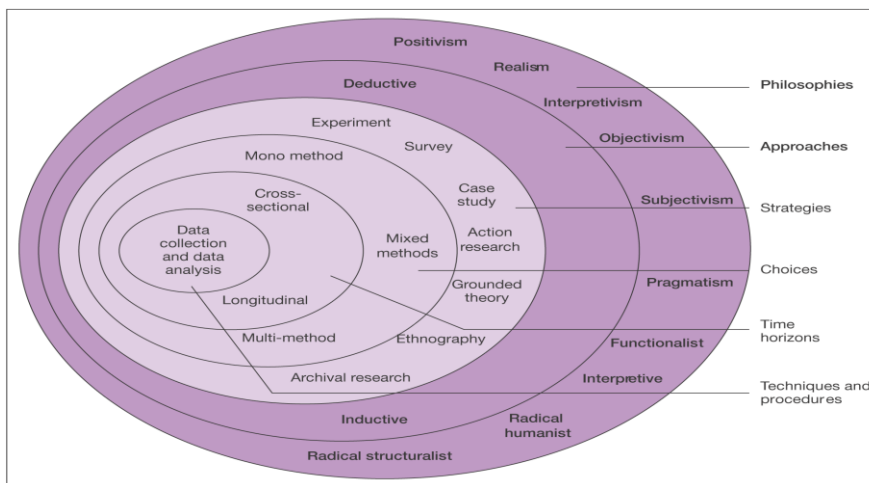
framework included Institutional theories supporting land reform. These have been complemented by the Hybrid entrepreneurship theory and both have been explained, with the aim of justifying need for agribusiness entrepreneurship. The next chapter focuses on the research methodology.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The chapter discusses the research methodology used in the study. Research methodology refers to the techniques applied in a study to collect research data from the field (Creswell, 2019). The methodology embodies an array of procedures used by the researcher in studying the problem (Saunders, 2016). This refers to a procedure that followed a precise order used to realise the objectives of the research. It includes a description and justification of the research philosophy, research design and approach, the population, sample frame, sampling techniques and sample size that was used in this study. Data gathering procedures, data gathering instruments, data analysis strategies adopted to this study. The validity and reliability of the study were done and the justification given. A pilot study was conducted to test the validity and reliability of the instruments. Also discussed were ethical considerations. In the context of the methodology of this study, the research onion which provides a systematic approach to research shown as Figure 3.1 below was applied in order to assist the researcher with knowing how to select and align appropriate techniques.

Figure 3.1: Research Onion



Source: Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012).

3.2 Research philosophy

The worldview that guides the research in developing knowledge is described by Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2012) as the research philosophy. Research philosophy refers to knowledge foundations anchoring the study (Sarantakos, 2013). There are several research

philosophies available namely; pragmatism, realism, interpretivism and positivism (Punch and Qancea, 2014).

This study adopted the pragmatist research philosophy. The ontological status of pragmatists involves both objectivism and subjectivism to establish the nature of reality (Robert, 2014):

Objectivism: This refers to the position of reality and the independence of social actors which is largely self-representative. In the context of this study, objectivity refers to the deployment of quantitative techniques in data collection and analysis. The philosophy of numbers removes the errors of subjectivity from creeping into the study (Robert, 2014).

Subjectivism: This aspect of ontology represents the social phenomenon which is created by perceptions and the consequent actions of affected social actors. In the context of this study, the behavioural aspects involving corporate culture and sales growth were used to cover the weaknesses of quantitative techniques in data gathering, thus justifying the need for interviews to fill gaps left by questionnaires (Robert, 2014).

3.2.1 Justification of using the pragmatism philosophy

This research used the pragmatism research philosophy as it proffers that concepts are only relevant where they support action (Kelemen and Rumens, 2019).

- (i) Pragmatists use a multiplicity of methods that enable the production of credible, well informed, reliable and relevant data (Leedy and Omrod, 2016). In the context of this study, the philosophy of pragmatism allowed the researcher to collect both qualitative and quantitative data from the field. The main justification of this philosophy was that the researcher considered methods that could address the research problem adequately. The study blended both the quantitative and qualitative methods to produce a coherent whole in terms of data collection and analysis.
- (ii) Data collected is usually credible, well-founded, reliable and relevant data by taking advantage of the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative data with minimal limitations (Sahay, 2016). The pragmatist philosophy therefore anchored this study to ensure that both quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analysed. The philosophy is justified on the strength that the weaknesses of quantitative analysis would be covered by the strengths of the qualitative analysis (Sahay, 2016). This infers that if the issue is best depicted utilising the quantitative methodology, the researcher

is at liberty to apply the quantitative strategy to get data, and if the data is best portrayed by utilising the qualitative method, the researcher would likewise be at liberty to apply the technique as well (Bazeley, 2017).

The Zimbabwean FTLRP has been influenced by people of varied interests ranging from political, economic, cultural and technological dispensation of having entrepreneurship domain in managing livelihoods (Matondi, 2012). Hence, the practice dominating their behaviour is motivated by the expected end game of the interactive intermediation of interests. Government's interests are enshrined in the will of the people governed and the people in turn fulfil their daily requirements through satisfactory actions as order of the day. Therefore, the pragmatism research philosophy gives convictions as to qualify how best to address and answer the research parameters to fulfil the study purpose.

3.3 Research paradigm

The study combined both aspects of the quantitative and qualitative research thereby adopting mixed methods (Punch and Qancea, 2014). Mixed methods research is a methodology for conducting research that involves collecting, analysing and integrating quantitative (experiments, surveys etc.) and qualitative (focus groups, interviews etc.) research. This paradigm of research is used to provide a better understanding of the research problem than either of each alone would (Bazeley, 2017).

3.3.1 Justification for using the mixed methods paradigm

- (i) Provides balanced strengths that address the shortcomings of both quantitative and qualitative research. Whereas quantitative research has limitations of understanding the context in which participants behave, that is what the qualitative research makes up for (Bazeley, 2017).
- (ii) Whereas qualitative research is viewed as having the potential for biased interpretations that may be made by the researcher, as well as, the difficulty in generalising the findings to a large group of the target population, quantitative research does not have such weaknesses (Leedy and Omrod, 2016).
- (iii) By using both paradigms of research, each one's strengths can make up for the limitations of the other. Ultimately, that provides a balanced and comprehensive understanding of the research problem than if either is used alone (Cresswell, 2011).

3.4 Research Design

The study adopted a case study design. Newman (2014) remarks that a case study is research that is an in-depth examination of an extensive amount of information about very few units or cases for one period or across multiple periods of time. Therefore, this study focused on the Fast track land reform programme in Marondera district only and no other districts. The design is user friendly as it enables elaboration on an entire situation or process holistically as it permits the incorporation of multiple perspectives or viewpoints. According to David and Sutton (2011), research design is a blueprint or framework for conducting the research study while specifying the details of the processes necessary for gathering empirical evidence needed to structure and solve the research problems. Furthermore, David and Sutton (2011) classified the research design into two broad categories; exploratory and conclusive research, where the objective of exploratory is to provide insights into, and an understanding of the problem confronting the researcher, while conclusive research is designed to assist the decision maker in determining, evaluating and selecting the best course of action to take in a given situation. The nature of the research and its ontological prescription adopted the qualitative research design. The approach has an in-depth, exploratory focus to understand the problem and discover what people think, how they behave and the reasons behind their behaviour. The researcher believed that to best understand agro-business entrepreneurship behaviour among land beneficiaries, the context in which FTLRP was conducted and beneficiaries acted in accordance with their daily decisional requirements.

Kumar (2014) states that a research design is a procedural plan that is adopted by researchers to answer questions objectively, accurately, economically and with validity. This is a research blueprint or detailed plan of action on how a research study is to be completed. This implies the process of selecting operating variables for measurement and validation, sample selection, data collection and analysing the results of interest to the study. The design is the logical sequence that connects gathered empirical data, research objectives, research questions and research conclusions (Kumar, 2014). Bryman (2012) stresses that research design should provide the overall structure and orientation of an investigation as well as a framework within which data can be collected and analysed. McNeill (2006) also provided detailed descriptions of the essential considerations in designing the research project.

Furthermore, McNeill (2006) emphasised that the main purpose of the research design is to manage a situation in which the collected evidence does not address the initial research questions, but a research design deals with a logical problem. In conclusion, Neuman (2014) described a research design as a blueprint or a plan for action, specifying the methods and procedures for collecting and analysing the needed information, fulfilling the research objectives, and finding the solutions.

Justification of using a case study

- (i) It requires an intensive study of a specific unit.
- (ii) This method offers a continuous analysis of the facts.
- (iii) It is a useful approach to take when formulating a hypothesis.
- (iv) It provides an increase in knowledge.
- (v) It offers a comprehensive approach to research (Leedy and Ormrod, 2016).

3.5 Study Population

In this study, the researcher identified respondents or stakeholders with information on aspects of the FTLRP. These respondents or informants are the newly resettled farmers, Ministry of Agriculture officials, agribusiness people and non-governmental organisations that are interested key players in supporting the FTLRP. According to the Ministry of Lands, Agriculture, Water, Fisheries and Rural development (2020), Mashonaland East Province has 17 731, A1 and 4 700 A2 farmers, representing 5.4% and 1.4% respectively of the total provincial households. Marondera district is one of the twelve districts of Mashonaland East province and has been chosen to represent the province in this study.

According to the Mashonaland East Province Chief Lands Officer, Marondera district has 101, A1 and 86, A2 farmers in Marondera District, 30 District Extension Officers and 18 agro-based business people, 140 professionals who benefitted from the land reform programme and constituted the sample frame to this study. The sampling frame refers to all those elements which the research wishes to draw a conclusion. In other words, it is the total of units from which the representative sample is to be chosen. In this study, the study population comprised A1 farmers, A2 farmers. Others included civil servants (professionals), government extension officers, agro business dealers in the district of Marondera.

Table 3.1: Target population

Description	Number of participants
A1 Farmers in Marondera District	101
A2 Farmers	86
The Ministry of Lands, Agricultural and Resettlement District Extension Officers	30
Agro-based business people in Marondera District	18
Professionals who benefitted from the land reform (Civil servants)	140
Total	375

Source: Fieldwork Research, 2022.

3.6 Sample size and sampling technique

The sample frame for this study constituted A1 and A2 farmers in Marondera District. A1 farmers are land beneficiaries who were allocated smaller area of land for resettlement purposes. A1 farmers in Marondera District were conveniently chosen to reflect areas they are allocated and their distribution. A2 farmers are, meanwhile, considered large to medium scale farmers with land allocation more than 6 hectares. They were considered to have economic potential to be productive and farm commercially. A2 farmers have also been conveniently chosen as they are reflected in the fewness and spatial distribution in the district. Extension Officers from Mashonaland East Province were selected as they constitute official government workers aligned to land reforms. The delimitation of the study is Mashonaland East Province, hence their inclusion in the study. Agro based business people in Marondera District were included in the study to reveal their agro-business operational activities. This is important to evaluate the economic essence of agro-business potential in the FTLRP.

3.6.1 Sample Size

Newman (2014) argues that qualitative research sample sizes are usually small as more emphasis is put on quality of information collected. Dworkin (2012) states that, a sample size ranging from thirty to five hundred (30 -500) participants for qualitative research is ideal. In this study, the researcher used a sample size of sixty respondents. The sample size was chosen using non-probability convenience sampling approach. Nonprobability sampling plans are more dependable than probability sampling as they offer an important trigger to potentially useful information regarding the population (Newman, 2014). The category of non-probability sampling used in this study was convenience sampling to obtain information from specific

target groups of land beneficiaries, government officials who administered FTLRP, agro-based dealers who are active providers of agro-based inputs and services. The sampling was confined to specific types of people who can provide the desired information, and who conform to some criteria set by the researcher. The researcher relied on convenience sampling in collecting data from the informants who benefitted from the FTLRP to establish the extent of the exploitation of agro-based entrepreneurial opportunities. Bryman (2001: 97) observes that a convenience sample is “one that is simply available to the researcher by virtue of its accessibility.” Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling method where units are selected for inclusion in the sample because they are the easiest for the researcher to access.

Justification of using convenience sampling

- (i) Convenience sampling is very easy to carry out with few rules governing how the sample should be collected.
- (ii) The relative cost and time required to carry out a convenience sample are small in comparison to probability sampling techniques. This enables one to achieve the preferred sample size in a relatively fast and inexpensive way.
- (iii) The convenience sample may help to gather useful data and information that would not have been possible using probability sampling techniques, which require more formal access to lists of populations. The following sample frame shows all those who participated in the study (95). Three instruments were used to collect data.

Table 3.2: Sample size

Description	Number of participants/respondents
A1 Farmers in Marondera District	50
A2 Farmers	20
The Ministry of Lands, Agricultural and Resettlement District Extension Officers	5
Agro-based business people in Marondera District	10

Professionals who benefitted from the land reform (Civil servants)	10
Total	95

Source: Fieldwork Research, 2022.

3.7 Data gathering procedure.

The researcher gave much attention in the development and production of appropriate questionnaires with the intended impact in collecting needed responses from the respondents. Close attention was allotted to create synergy in harnessing the intents in the minds of the respondents through appropriate question structures. Enough time, energy and participation was invested in developing questionnaires with the intended outcome and expected rigour level of the study. The study was portioned into three main components of data gathering procedure. The data collection approach used questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussions arranged into appropriate research themes such as: to interrogate nature of agro-business entrepreneurship opportunities being practiced by the respondents, to interrogate the key drivers that are inherent in the nature of agro-business entrepreneurship practices, to interrogate the obstacles and constraints to agro-business entrepreneurship among FTLRP beneficiaries. Copies of the questionnaire were distributed to the 60 respondents of the FTLRP beneficiaries. A two-week notice was given to allow respondents to fill in the survey questionnaires and the researcher collected after the two-week period. Focus group discussions were organised among FTLRP beneficiaries and their opinion and contributions were recorded and gathered for analysis. Interviews were conducted with FTLRP participants who were selected conveniently. The interview questions were organised and responses clustered in an orderly way. Along with primary data, the researchers also made use of secondary resources in the form of published articles and literature to support the survey results.

3.8 Data collection instruments

The researcher specifically set up subjects for the research which included land beneficiaries comprising individuals, agro-dealers, government extension officers, civil servants who participated in the land reforms and professionals who benefitted from FTLRP. Their opinion was sought out on specific issues pertaining to agro-entrepreneurs' activities as outlined in the research study objectives. Interviews, questionnaires, focus group discussions and observing

people and phenomena are the main data collection methods used in this study. According to Kumar (2014), data is collected after the development of the research questions.

This study used both primary and secondary sources of data. According to Haralambos and Holborn (1990: 720), primary sources “consist of data collected by researchers themselves during the course of their work.” The sources would include data collected by the researcher using questionnaires, conducting interviews and carrying out participant observation whilst secondary sources included official statistics, government reports, and journals on land reform programmes in other countries as well as Zimbabwe. In this study, secondary sources consisted of critical works related to the present enquiry. The use of secondary sources was invaluable to the research because the ideas in the sources were of great importance in establishing the extent of agro-based entrepreneurial opportunities inherent in the FTLRP. Government policy documents sourced from the Statistics Department of Zimbabwe Government were used for this study. The secondary data reviews from government official documents, individual agro-business contracts, previous studies from electronic sources, journals, books, conference papers, proceeding papers were conducted.

The questionnaire was developed based on literature reviews and further enriched by a pilot study outcomes, suggestions and comments. The objective was to establish the hidden link in unravelling agro-business entrepreneurship opportunities. The data collected from the research were analysed to bring out the relevant experiences and practices on the ground. Narrative analysis focused on the stories farmers told about their experiences, challenges and aspirations using the language that made sense to them. Discourse analysis was adopted to deepen the discourse of current affairs relating to FTLRP, to get a thorough understanding of the socio-political, cultural, and power matrices in the current setting of Zimbabwe.

3.8.1 Unstructured Interview guide

An interview is a verbal way of collecting information (Bell, 2007). The researcher used face to face unstructured interviews to collect data on the implications of agro-business entrepreneurship opportunities in the FTLRP. An unstructured interview is a data collection method that relies on asking participants questions to collect data on a topic. Also known as non-directive interviewing, unstructured interviews do not have a set pattern and questions do not have to be arranged in advance (Chauhan, 2019). Face to face interviews were conducted with due diligence accorded to the restriction of this method caused by covid-19 restrictions.

Wearing of masks and maintenance of recommended physical distance was adhered to throughout the whole interview process. The main aim in interviewing was to understand, first-hand, the subjective meanings of how participants participated and understood the implications of FTLRP. With this instrument there was a high degree of certainty about who answered the questions, and their feelings were captured through the interview by the nature of the questions used. The researcher was also able to assist participants in simplifying questions with a view to appreciate the importance of the study for individual and policy implications. The interview also enabled the researcher to pursue in-depth information around the research area concerning the agro-based entrepreneurship practices and opportunities. Additional benefits of using face-to-face interviews in this research included the capturing of non-verbal cues such as emotions and body language, which were more telling than verbal responses.

A1 and A2 farmers, agricultural extension officers, agro-based business-people, as well as, professionals were interviewed. These were regarded as key informants because they were the individuals who had benefitted from the FTLRP and were willing to share their experiences with the researcher. Interview numbers were given to identify and collect data for the purpose of analysis in this study. The number of participants interviewed had various experiences and knowledge about the importance of land reform. Different scholars including Jupp (2006), Wellington and Szczerbinski (2007), David and Sutton (2011), among many others define an interview that method of data collection, information or opinion gathering that specifically involves asking a series of questions. David and Sutton (2011) observe that interviewing involves asking people questions, but it is equally about listening carefully to the answers given. The researcher then carefully analysed the response from the informants to compare and contrast responses in order to align them with the tenets of entrepreneurial development. According to Jupp (2006), an interview represents a meeting or dialogue between people where personal and social interaction occur. In this research, the researcher relied on face-to-face interviews. Jupp (2006: 25) proffers the following on types of interviews:

Most commonly, interviews are conducted on a face-to-face basis, and they can take a variety of forms. They can range from informal, unstructured, and naturalistic, in-depth discussions through to very structured formats with answers offered from a prescribed list in a questionnaire or a standardised interview schedule.

This study employed face-to-face interviews that were in-depth and unstructured.

3.8.2.1 Justification of using unstructured interview guide

- (i) The interview method was used to collect data from farmers and other stakeholders, as this helped to follow up on leads given by the informants. The researcher was able to probe an interviewee's thoughts, values and perceptions regarding entrepreneurial benefits of the land reform.
- (ii) Respondents are more at ease. The more natural flow of unstructured interviews can help the respondent to feel comfortable and at ease.
- (iii) It generates more detail and nuance (Punch and Qancea, 2014).

3.8.2 Structured questionnaire

The researcher gathered information from identified key respondents who included A1 and A2 farmers, Agricultural Extension Officers and professionals who benefitted from land reform. A total of sixty (60) respondents were given questionnaires to respond to. The researcher preferred the questionnaire method because informants preferred them to interviews as questionnaire provided privacy and greater confidentiality. Creswell (2014) stated that a questionnaire is a list of questions sent to a number of persons for them to answer. On the other hand, Jupp (2006) stated that the questionnaires is a set of carefully designed questions given in exactly the same form to a group of people in order to collect data about some topic(s) in which the researcher is interested. The researcher had to collect answered questionnaires from the respondents. The questionnaire method helped to collect large quantities of data from considerable numbers of people over a relatively short period of time (Haralambos and Holborn 1990). Questionnaires were useful in this study to collect data from the beneficiaries of the land reform Programme. The researcher also used questionnaires to obtain expert and insider information from Agricultural Extension Officers who preferred questionnaires to interviews.

The structured questionnaire was the most extensively used instrument for data collection in this study. Basically, a questionnaire according to Kumar (2011) comprises of a list of open ended and closed- ended questions, the answers to which are provided by the respondents. The responses are collected in a consistent way, so questionnaires are more objective in comparison to interviews. The questionnaire aimed at finding out what FTLRP stakeholders think and feel about their agro-entrepreneurship experiences if any on their newly farms. The close-ended questions ensured that respondents chose between the options that were provided to them. The questions focused on the different research questions posed in this study. Furthermore, the use of this approach as an instrument of data collection is advantageous as there was no interaction

with the researcher, who could influence the responses of the respondent, and this increased the chances of getting honest opinions. Respondents also had time to think about their answers. They were not required to reply immediately.

Justification of using a structured questionnaire:

- (i) The close-ended questions ensured that respondents chose the best between the options that were provided to them.
- (ii) Easy to administer and manage (Kumar, 2014).

3.8.3 Focus Group Discussion guide

Focus Group discussions are frequently used to collect in-depth understanding of social issues. The method collects data from a selected group of individuals rather than a statistically chosen sample of a large population. In some cases, focus group discussions are viewed the same as interviews especially semi-structured, “one-to-one” and group interviews (Parker and Tritter, 2006). Similarities between these techniques relate to the tendency to uncover people’s perception and values. The researcher used the focus group discussions to unearth the various stakeholders’ perceptions on the entrepreneurial opportunities they recognised and exploited. The discussions were used to obtain farmers’ perceptions on the FTLRP in relation to agrobusiness entrepreneurship opportunities (Krueger and Casey, 2009). The informal group arrangement was limited to seven participants who shared the common aspect of owning a farm through FTLRP and had a direct experience of farming. These were treated as experts in the farming experiences. Discussions were facilitated by the researcher who acted as the moderator.

Justification of using Focus Group Discussions

- (i) They offer an in-depth understanding of the participants. This enables researchers to uncover personal attitudes and beliefs that other market research methods cannot replicate which, in turn, means more insightful results.
- (ii) Enhance clarifying and testing pre-conceived notions and findings can be done by getting feedback in participants’ own words and voices.
- (iii) They help in generating more ideas about a topic, in this case the FTLRP.

3.9 Data analysis strategies

According to Creswell (2014) and Jupp (2006) qualitative data analysis is a process of interrogating, with critical thinking, collected data with a view of deducing needed evidence for the purpose of producing a meaningful interpretation and relevant understanding to the research questions asked in the process of investigation. The researcher accumulated important research outcomes in the form of data generated from questionnaires, interview records, focus group discussion and observation notes about agro-business entrepreneurship activities inherent in the FTLRP. Deducing meaning from data collected entailed the researcher to categorise the information into critical patterns and putting them into appropriate categories to benefit the meaning and intent of this research. Appropriate generalisations and deduced trends of agro-based entrepreneurial behaviour among FTLRP beneficiaries were the main focus of this process. The textual data generated was in the form of interview transcripts, questionnaire responses recorded, focus group discussion transcripts, document analysis records and observation notes. These were systematically categorised into thematic areas of essence to the study. The use of Nvivo statistical package was helpful in highlighting the data according to themes emerging in the transcriptions. The researcher had the task of deducing agro-business entrepreneurship values, meanings, thoughts, practices, experiences, feelings and beliefs inherent in beneficiaries of FTLRP. Data was coded and grouped into thematic areas of demographic information, nature of agro-based entrepreneurship, agro-based entrepreneurship opportunities, obstacles and constraints of agro-based entrepreneurship in the FTLRP.

Triangulation of data analysis approaches was used to have a balanced insight into the meanings and trends of agro-based entrepreneurship data. This was heavily aligned to the research objectives, purpose of the study and research questions. This assisted the researcher to have a trade-off of weaknesses by adopting one method given the voluminous array of data details in the study. Thematic analysis was used to deduce patterns of meanings in the research questionnaires and interview responses. This was collated and compared between the data collection approaches used and put according to similarities and variations in befitting themes and categories. People's experiences, views and opinions in the FTLRP were important in qualifying use of this approach.

Focus group discussion records were analysed within the entrepreneurship environment of the FTLRP beneficiaries using the discourse analysis method. The agro-business entrepreneurship

language noted among the participants clarified the interactions of various stakeholders in the FTLRP. There was synergy between the various groups in identifying agro-business opportunities, challenges and successes experienced in day to day agro-based activities. Content analysis was used to unpack secondary data which was retrieved from Ministry of Lands, agriculture, water, fisheries and rural development, official documents, newspapers articles, reports from NGOs and political speeches made in the phase of FTLRP. The instigation of land invasion that triggered FTLRP in Zimbabwe was well orchestrated through political speeches in support of land invasion.

The view of agro-based entrepreneurship experiences of FTLRP beneficiaries was well captured through interviews conducted. The narrative analysis approach was used to capture the guided responses of interview participants. The interview was guided by the researcher who probed the participants through interview guide. As alluded to by Sarantakos (2013), narrative analysis is all about listening to people's experiences in highlighting challenges and successes encountered in the implementation of FTLRP. The critical insights into their stories as guided by the interview questions gave the researcher an added and insightful narrative focus to answer the overarching questions this study seeks to answer.

In brief, the analysis of data was as follows:

- **Qualitative data analysis**

For data collected through interviews and focus group discussions, responses were then analysed using the thematic analysis technique. Thematic analysis is a technique of analysing data that is qualitative and usually applied to a set of texts, such as interview transcripts (Joffe, 2012). There was also the use of narrative statements where the participants (key informants) were quoted verbatim. The researcher collated and synthesised the data to identify common themes, ideas, topics and patterns of meaning that emerged repeatedly or more frequently than others.

- **Quantitative data analysis**

The quantitative data was largely analysed by using descriptive statistics that utilised tabulation showing both absolute and relative frequencies and at times means and standard deviations.

3.10 Validity and reliability

According to Creswell (2014), validity implies the measure to which the research instrument derives what it is intended to measure in the study. Hence it is argued that valid instruments are always reliable in bringing up the intended outcome of the research where it is used (Creswell, 2014). The researcher assessed the content validity of the research instruments in view of the expected results. Questionnaire structuring incorporated closed ended questions and Likert scale designing to provide adequate coverage of all intended responses from the research. Interviews and focus group discussions had open-ended questions. The researcher accounted for the instruments that were not biased to the different respondents and participants in the study. The interrelatedness with other reliable theoretical suppositions was considered in formulating both the interview question and focus group discussion guide. In considering the reliability of the instruments, the researcher noted the need for consistency of the results generated in agglomerating the questionnaire, focus group discussion and interviews to the core of the research objectives. Stability of the research instruments was established through a pilot study to check their viability and reliability.

3.11 Pilot study

Data generating instruments were subjected to a pilot study with a view to authenticate their intent and purpose in collecting data (Nieuwenhuis, 2010). This was critical to the main study as the pilot study was meant to identify research design issues that could have impacted negatively on the whole study. Variables of time, cost of the study, feasibility, and language tone used by the researcher were tested and verified in their suitability. The selected sample was derived from FTLRP beneficiaries and government officials in the district of Marondera and numbered twelve. The pilot study assisted the researcher to manage research instrument flaws. Major areas of correction were the tone of the language to be used which was corrected to avoid the political message likely to be misinterpreted by the respondents and participants. The duration of the questionnaire was also managed with a view to raise interest of the respondents to answer the questions. The notable performance of the pilot study was above average as it gave the researcher vigour to conduct the main research in the delimited areas. The researcher was now prepared to face the research challenges in an informed perspective of the respondents and participants he was dealing with.

3.12 Ethical considerations

Ethical consideration includes the following: informed consent, voluntary participation, confidentiality, anonymity, researcher's positionality, protection from harm of subjects, safety in research, and storage of research data (Newman, 2014; Leedy and Omrod, 2016). All these were observed to ensure that participants did not suffer any harm. Consent to interact with the respondents was sought from the respondents and participants. The researcher fully explained the purpose of the research to respondents and participants. Participants and respondents were assured of high degree of confidentiality and anonymity which the researcher sought to uphold. Ethical clearance was approved by the University to carry out the study and permission was given by the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Rural Resettlement to enable the researcher visit research sites in the province. Other authorities such as the District Administrator for Marondera district and local traditional leaders were notified of the study in which there was cooperation.

3.13 Conclusion

The chapter has discussed the methods of obtaining data for the research. The research was both quantitative and qualitative in nature and the primary sources of data were the respondents and key informants from whom data was collected through questionnaires, focus group discussions and interviews. Secondary sources were used to concretise arguments raised in this research. It is pertinent to indicate that secondary sources allowed the researcher to make informed judgments on the benefits of the Fast Track Land Reform Programme to the beneficiaries. Chapter 4 presents findings from the various methods used in collecting data (questionnaires, focus groups, interviews and secondary sources) focusing on key drivers of agro-based entrepreneurship.

CHAPTER 4: KEY DRIVERS OF AGRO-BASED ENTREPRENEURSHIP

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents findings based on the use of the concurrent triangulation design synthesised from data collected from questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussions. The data is presented, analysed and interpreted. The researcher sought to assess the drivers of Sustainable and Scalable Growth in agro-based entrepreneurship in view of FTLRP because sustainability helps entrepreneurs innovate and bring about a massive change by aligning business processes to the existing resources in more efficient and effective ways (Busenetez *et al.*, 2005). Scalability, meanwhile, is simply that which makes business big. Nonetheless, there are numerous challenges that act as barriers to these fundamental factors of growth. The findings in this regard were analysed and presented according to sections of bio-data and objective 1.

4.2 Response rate

For the questionnaire, originally 70 (A1 farmers 50 and A2 farmers 20) were identified using convenience sampling. After issuing 70 questionnaires, 60 were returned giving a highly satisfactory response rate of 85.7%. The final sample size used for the questionnaire was 60 respondents. The other stakeholders participated in focus group discussions and interviews in order to triangulate and complement questionnaire results.

4.3 Demographics

Table 4.1: Gender distribution of respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	46	77
Female	14	23
Total	60	100

Source: Fieldwork Research, 2022

Most respondents were male (77%). This is supported by Nyawo (2012) and Mutopo (2012) who believe that because of historical and cultural dimensions, females were not invested much in agriculture or its business side, especially the actual ownership of the land.

Table 4.2 Age distribution of respondents

Age (years)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Below 25:	2	3
25-30	3	5
31-40	10	17
41-50	19	32
Above 50	26	43
Total	60	100

Source: Fieldwork Research, 2022.

Most of the respondents were in the age range above 50 years. These are people who are advanced and ageing. This could be attributed to how when the FTLRP started around the year 2000, which is 23 years ago, this majority were probably in their thirties and forties.

Table 4.3 Academic qualification

Qualification	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Ordinary level	30	50
Advanced level	21	35
Bachelor's Degree	4	7
Post graduate degree	1	1
Other	4	7
Total	60	100

Source: Fieldwork Research, 2022.

Most respondents were Ordinary level holders (50%) with the other half being those who had done at least Advanced level. The fact that majority had attained Ordinary level, shows that the respondents were literate and therefore able to answer the questionnaire. The results seem to concur with Scoones *et al.* (2011) who in their study found that most of the people who were in farming had attained basic education up to secondary school level. Farming among the black community was associated with mainly peasant farmers who were not into commercial business.

Table 4.4 Years of ownership

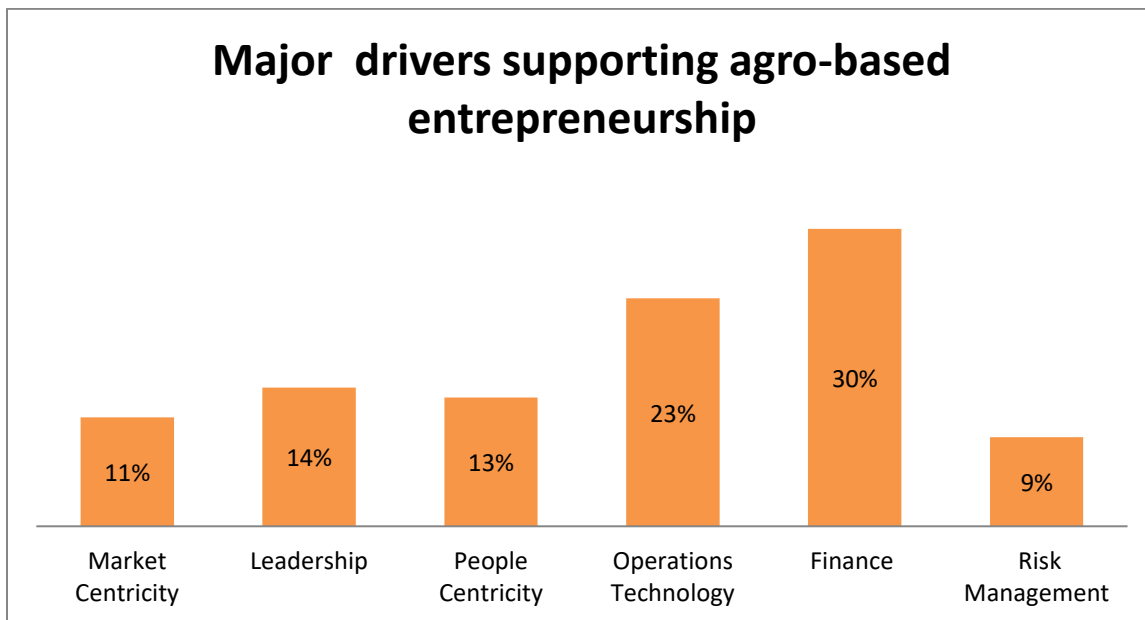
Number of years	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Below 3	0	0
3-5	4	7
6 – 10	20	33
11 – 20	32	53
above 20	4	7
Total	60	100

Source: Fieldwork Research, 2022

The bulk of the respondents had been allocated land for relatively longer period of between 11 and 20 years. The results show that the respondents have been in the agro-business for a fairly long time and should have adequate experience to deal with farming issues and knowledge about the land reform programme and related dynamics.

4.4 Major drivers supporting agro-based entrepreneurship Figure 4.1 Major drivers supporting agro-based entrepreneurship

Fig 4.1 Major drivers supporting agro-based emterpreneurship



Source: Fieldwork Research, 2022

The study revealed that major drivers of agro-based entrepreneurship were in the following order; Finance (30%), operations technology (23%), leadership (14%), people centricity (13%), market centricity (11%) and risk management (13%).

The findings almost entirely agree with Mutopo (2012) and Monda (2021) who also reiterate that entrepreneurs in agriculture related ventures or businesses were driven by financial motives, adapting to technology, improving leadership capacity and working with other people (stakeholders) by cooperating with them for success.

4.4.1 Agro-business entrepreneurship markets

The researcher sought to find out whether FTLRP beneficiaries are involved in serving any markets with their produce. Such critical entrepreneurship knowledge and actions give a clear-cut appreciation of the efforts of the newly resettled farmers to service these markets as agro-business people. Thirty respondents were asked through research questionnaires to indicate which markets they are serving. Subsistence was identified as production for family consumption only. In this market, there is no excess output that could be sold in other markets for commercial purpose but the market serves household consumption. Local market is where excess produce is sold with the objectives of earning income for the newly resettled farmers, whereas export market is where the excess output or targeted production is done to meet export demands. Such arrangements are done through contract farming where export agencies engage local farmers to produce agricultural output that is exported. The following table illustrates these findings:

Table 4.5 Agro-business entrepreneurship markets

Subsistence	Local markets	Export markets	Total percentage
85%	10%	5%	100%

Source: Fieldwork Research, 2022.

Eighty-five percent (85%) of the respondents are in the subsistence farming. Ten percent (10%) respondents produce to sell excess output in the local markets. Five percent (5%) respondents are producing for export markets. One of the interviewees who is an expert in agro-business had to say:

Small farms, corporate farms, collectives; distributors; producers of farm equipment, herbicides, and genetic modifications for crops and livestock; feed and seed suppliers; and others all employ agricultural marketing tactics. Furthermore, there are government entities that oversee and direct agriculture activities. Farmers want increased pricing for their crops, as well as protection against price swings. They work to eliminate post-harvest waste and get sales guarantees for their goods. They may also try to establish new markets or distribution methods, such as selling directly to consumers rather than via manufacturers. (Agro-business expert 2).

Another A2 farmer added on by saying:

Agrichemical firms provide agricultural issue solutions, such as increased yields and insect prevention. However, without excellent public relations, many remedies would be more strongly opposed by consumers. State government agencies promote agricultural output. The Zimbabwe Agricultural Marketing Service operates a variety of initiatives to encourage agricultural sales (and prices). Mashonaland East, an agriculturally rich province, generates almost \$30 million in agricultural goods each year and is one of the world's major food exporters. To preserve this investment, the state has government-mandated programmes that cover around 66% of its agricultural output (A2 farmer 8).

Findings from focus group discussions

In terms of business entrepreneurship, most of the group members were into subsistence farming and sold to local market. They were predicting that demand for grains, meat, fish, and roots and tubers was on the rise. However, the decline was considerably more severe for vegetable oils, which have grown rapidly over the last decade. Very few were into other business ventures apart from subsistence farming.

Discussion of findings

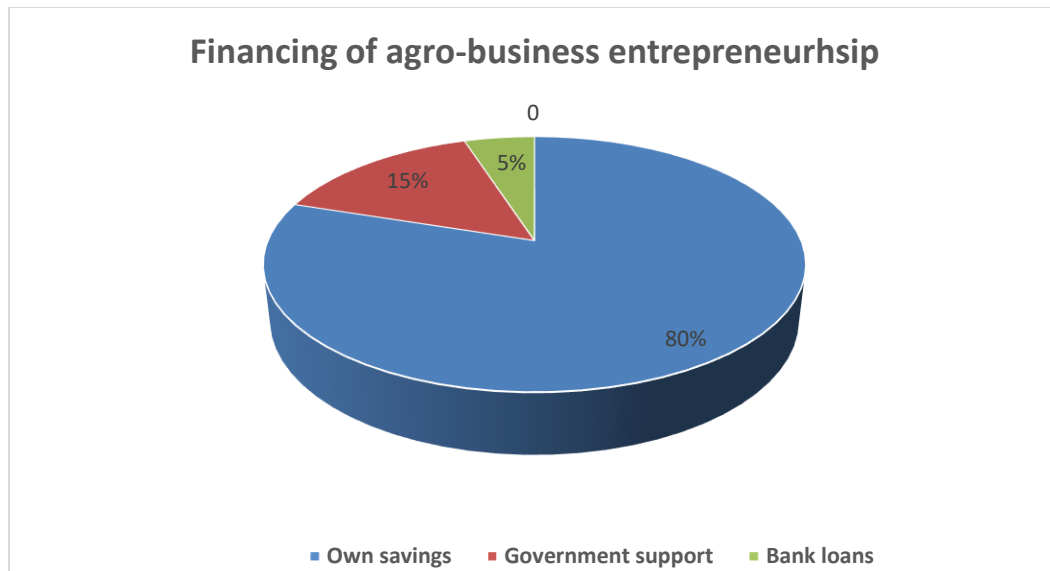
The findings are consistent with those of Kabonga (2020) who concludes that land reform necessitates significant support from the government budget and donors. This could take the shape of external financial assistance from a variety of local and worldwide sponsors. Local financial assistance is often provided by the government through mobilisation of local borrowings and budget allocations. Large portions of national budgets have been devoted to the requisite human capital and infrastructure preparations to support land distribution Kabonga (2020). First, the costs to the government of all the measures required in a land reform programme must be determined, including the compelling demands on the fiscus resulting from the necessary acts involving all government and parastatal agencies, as well as other stakeholders.

Scoones *et al.* (2011), on the other hand, believe the expense of fulfilling a national mandate of land distribution by private parties is matched by government. As previously mentioned, former Zimbabwe President Robert Mugabe repeatedly asked for financial backing for the much-touted FTLRP which has mostly remained underfunded due to low output in most acquired farms. He believes financial institutions should also avail funding at generous subsidised rates.

4.5 Financing agro-business entrepreneurship

The research sought to enquire about the extent of risk taking among newly resettled farmers on finance preparedness. This is important as to determine own resource financing as opposed to borrowed. Many FTLRP beneficiaries were assumed to have sufficient financial resources to undertake agro-business when the government allocates them land. However, the non-performance of the agricultural sector is indicating otherwise. The following responses were given and they are illustrated through a histogram.

Fig 4.2 Financing agro-business entrepreneurship.



Source: Fieldwork Research, 2022.

The above illustration shows that eighty percent (80%) of respondents used their own savings to finance FTLRP activities. Respondents were probed to elaborate on their own sources of finance in which they indicated their use towards capital expenditures of the land. Fifteen percent of respondents showed that they draw their financial support from government. This was explained as access to government land facilities that are meant to support farmers during a particular season. Such facilities were contract farming, GMB fertiliser support to both A1 and A2 farmers. The remaining five percent (5%) indicated that they access funding from banking institutions. They admitted to sourcing these loans to finance their farming projects through agro--facilities offered by banks.

One of the informants who participated in interviews noted that:

Prior to the FTLRP, the government through annual budget allocations, agriculture purchasing bodies such as the Grain Marketing Board and the Cotton Company of Zimbabwe through input schemes, finance companies, the Agriculture Finance Corporation (AFC), and agricultural cooperatives were among the institutions that provided credit to farmers. Through contract farming agreements, private sector entities such as Seed Producing Companies and tobacco merchants also supplied finance to farmers. During the same time period, agriculture funding was structured in

such a way that banks offered short-term funding (0-2 years) for seasonal crop production requirements, medium-term loans (2-6 years) for irrigation development, and long-term loans (6-30 years) through AFC for dam construction and land purchase. AFC formerly received support from the EU and the World Bank. The agricultural loan market experienced a major policy shift at the start of the 2000 FTLRP as problems of land tenure, including land ownership, transferability, and marketability, became uncertain. Property acquisitions were done without adequate government management in the early phases of the 2000 FTLRP until the issuing of 99-year leases to land proprietors in the Programme's final years (Agritex Officer 1).

One agro-based expert had this to say:

...direct or indirect involvement by governments and donors to finance or construct institutions that finance rural development follows the rationale for compensating the agricultural sector for distorted and urban biased policies and market dynamics that tend to disadvantage the agricultural sector. The perceived imperfections in agriculture credit markets stem from adverse agricultural characteristics that make it costly and risky to provide smooth banking services in the sector, such as the sector's systematic reliance and vulnerability on the vicissitudes of the weather, output price volatility, small loan sizes, geographical dispersion of farmers, lack of collateral, political pressures, and, in many countries, weak legal systems that make it difficult to enforce. As a result, where agriculture financing has been made accessible, it has tended to favour big scale commercial farmers, with relatively little flowing to small scale farmers. This has resulted in extended periods of underdevelopment and poverty for the bulk of small-scale farmers (communal, resettlement, and A1) farmers. Credit intervention in the industry is justified on equality and development grounds due to assumptions that the private advantages of funding small-scale farmers outweigh the social benefits (Ago-business expert 1).

Findings from focus group discussions

Most of the group members said they were self-funding their activities. Majority relied on cash generated from selling of grain and cash crops to local market like the Grain marketing Board and also from sale of vegetables. The other form of funding came from the Presidential farming inputs

scheme which benefitted most rural farmers but the scheme was erratic and characterised by corruption and politically biased.

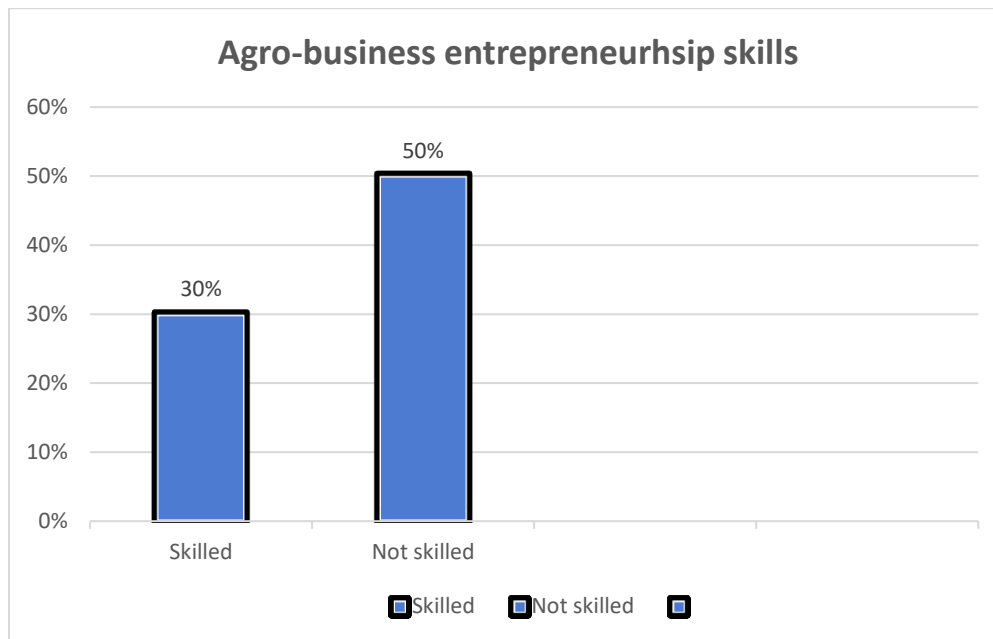
Discussion of findings

Funding of small-scale farmers and at times large commercial farmers in Zimbabwe has been a major drawback in attempts to improve agricultural production. The failure by the 92-year-old state-run GMB to timeously pay producers for their grain in recent years has short-circuited the ability of small-scale farmers to generate cash flow to fund agricultural inputs for the following season (Rukasha, Nyagadza, Pashapa and Muposhi, 2021). Small-scale farmers are the backbone of the country's food security and provide about 70 percent of its staple crop, maize, according to agricultural analysts and government estimates (Shonhe, 2019). Previous funding that AFZ used to enjoy soon after independence has been adversely affected by the economic sanctions imposed on Zimbabwe that are detrimental to the economy. Hence there is urgent need to find a lasting solution for their removal (Nyoni, 2019).

4.6 Agro-business entrepreneurship skills

To execute successful businesses, entrepreneurial skills are important. These include the knowledge and attitude required by the investor in order to manage the business entity successfully. Agro-business entrepreneurship skills are important to land users all over the world. Kabonga, (2020) notes the skills invested in newly resettled farmers in Norton that have contributed to their success. Scoones *ET. Al* (2011) admitted to an increase in land productivity by resettled farmers in Masvingo. For a profitable farm to run successfully, the implementers must be equipped either through training or expertise in the venture or through accumulated experience in running farming business. The researcher sought to evaluate the skills preparedness of FTLRP beneficiaries in Zimbabwe. The following diagram shows the responses from respondents.

Figure 4.3 Agro-business entrepreneurship skills



Source: Fieldwork Research, 2022.

Sixty respondents were asked whether they had entrepreneurship skills when they were given land. Fifty percent (50%) had no entrepreneurship skills required to run agro-business operations successfully. Thirty percent (30%) of respondents acknowledged that they had agro-business entrepreneurship skills when they were offered land while twenty percent (20%) respondent admitted being semi-skilled. Skills were acquired through college training in agricultural specialisations and some admitted to have gone through farmer training Programmes when they were employed at commercial farms. While the majority of FTLRP beneficiaries admitted to a 'learning on job' criteria but could not display competencies needed to run a successful agro-business entity on a day to day basis. The data obtained from interviews is in sync with sentiments from focus group discussions where one key informant said:

Interpersonal skills, analytical skills, managerial skills, technological skills, problem solving skills, such as the ability and understanding of what causes post-harvest skills and how to reduce them, are among the most significant talents in agriculture. You do not have to be an expert in top technological skills, but you should ensure that you understand technology in connection to agriculture. The way the two are interwoven and how they are

applied is crucial. In the agriculture business, the capacity to employ technology in irrigation, growing techniques, harvesting, storage, and transportation is critical. At the very least, farm owners or operators should be aware of new technologies and how they might be applied, as well as the adoption of new instruments, processes, and other improvements in their businesses.

Agriculture is currently experiencing a number of issues, including harsh weather conditions and rising demand, all of which must be addressed via the use of modern technologies. The Internet of Things (IOT) in agriculture can be used for livestock monitoring, smart greenhouses, agricultural drones, farm management systems, crop management systems or devices, and so on.

Food loss and waste have several negative economic and environmental consequences. They are a wasteful financial investment that may reduce farmer revenue and raise consumer expenditures. Waste and food loss have a wide range of environmental consequences, including needless greenhouse gas emissions and inefficient land and water usage, which can lead to diminishing natural ecosystems and their benefits. Understanding ways for reducing post-harvest loss and waste is beneficial to any farm practitioner (AI farmer 12).

Findings from focus group discussions

Most participants said that they did not have entrepreneurship skills but wanted land for survival means. Few had been previously employed by white commercial farmers and had attained some knowledge that they were applying. However, with the advent of technology and exorbitant costs of setting up infrastructure and procuring machinery, there was stagnation in terms of growth as they did not have the prerequisite skills to keep pace with technology.

During focus group discussions, one participant had this to say:

Agricultural experts should endeavour to learn how to create effective agricultural policies in order to meet the growing need for sustainable food and nutrition. The agriculture sector is currently confronting a number of unforeseeable challenges, including climate change. As a result, strategies for increasing production, improving farmers' resilience to market

shocks, and ensuring effective adaptation to climate change should be developed. (A1 farmer 9).

Discussion of findings

Agricultural players should have enough policy evaluation training to solve the industry's diverse concerns (Michael, Maurico and Ricardo, 2020). Efficient agricultural policies should be consistent and successful to help the agricultural sector develop its potential and achieve major public policy goals. Having monitoring and evaluation abilities in agriculture may assist project managers modify their actions to the demands and restrictions of farmers, as well as provide planners and policymakers with important information on agricultural trends. Monitoring and evaluation also assists agricultural experts in eliminating regulatory barriers to resilience and sustainability (Munyoro *et al.*, 2018).

This scenario was noted by Kahan (2012) who observed that a farm business provides the best context for the farmer to learn and develop entrepreneurial knowledge, skills and behaviour. Learning becomes effective since the farmer is consciously functioning as an entrepreneur. Learning is easier because of the relationship between the farmer and the farm.

According to Lipton (2009), agriculture has always been about serving the requirements of customers. In today's agricultural production, it is prudent to produce what people want, not what a farmer can persuade them to want. Knowledge of these dynamics comes from rigorous market research, which helps identify one's best plan of action for success. This includes making a product or service tailored for the consumer and providing greater variety so that there will never be a lack of options when browsing grocery stores across town.

4.7 Conclusion

The chapter presented and analysed findings on key drivers of agro-based entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe's FTLR because sustainability helps entrepreneurs innovate and bring about massive change by aligning business processes to the existing resources in more efficient and effective ways. Finance and operational technology have been implicated as the major drivers of agro-based

entrepreneurship. The next chapter looks at the nature of agro-based entrepreneurship opportunities in Marondera district.

CHAPTER 5: NATURE OF AGRO-BASED ENTREPRENEURSHIP OPPORTUNITIES IN MARONDERA DISTRICT.

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents findings largely based on documentary evidence or desk research on the nature of agro-based entrepreneurship opportunities in Marondera district. Nature has gifted many benefits to humans. From the air one breathes, the water people drink, and the food one eats, nature enhances our wellbeing and freely provides the essentials for our survival. Areas covered were the location (topography), business ventures and potential for entrepreneurship in Marondera district.

5.2 Statistics of agro-based ventures

Table 5.1 Statistics of agro-based ventures

Nature of business	Frequency	Percentage
Primary production	45	75
Agricultural input products and services	9	15
Agricultural chemical retailing	5	8
Agricultural consultancy services.	1	2
Total	60	100

Source: Fieldwork Research, 2022.

The survey revealed that from the total number of 60 respondents, seventy-five percent (75%) of Fast Track Land Beneficiaries are engaged in primary production of agricultural products. Fifteen percent (15%) said they trade in agricultural input products and services, eight per cent (8%) are engaged in agricultural chemical retailing and two per cent (2%) are engaged into agricultural consultancy services.

From the interviews conducted, most were basically into small-scale farming and vast parts of the land were not being utilised owing to a litany of challenges (obstacles) that are stated in the next chapter.

Findings from focus group discussions

Most of the group members were into subsistence farming and sold to local market

Discussion of findings

The findings relate that FTLRP beneficiaries are into primary production as they do agro-based businesses. Such inclination to primary production may not mean that they are into agro-business entrepreneurship but mere subsistence farming (Mafusea, Abbysiniab and Zivengec, 2021). For many developing economies, their main comparative advantage will be in producing primary products because developing economies have a large and elastic supply of labour willing and able to work under any circumstances (Oqubay, 2015).

5.3 Statistics of size of land occupied/owned

Agro-based entrepreneurship opportunities also relate to the land size in which FTLRP beneficiaries have as shown below.

Table 5.2 Statistics of size of land occupied/owned (Hectarage)

Hectarage	Frequency	Percentage
Less than six hectares.	30	50
Seven to twenty hectares	18	30
Above twenty-one hectares.	12	20
Total	60	100

Source: Fieldwork Research, 2022.

The findings on land size showed that fifty percent (50%) of respondents own land measuring less than six hectares. Thirty percent (30%) of respondents have land measuring seven to twenty hectares and the twenty percent (20%) of respondents own land measuring above twenty-one hectares.

Findings from focus group discussions

Majority had land ranging from 5 to 25 hectares with very few exceeding 25 hectares

Discussion of findings

This land distribution approach in the FTLRP is clear indication of government of Zimbabwe's intent to decongest rural places by allocating land to landless peasantry (Kabonga 2020). The medium land sizes of seven to twenty hectares were clear allocation to have a middle class of land owners with inclination towards land use. These beneficiaries have been observed to practice agro-based entrepreneurship with the intention to market their farm produce (Cousins and Scoones, 2009). The above twenty hectares given to fewer FTLRP beneficiaries is clear motive to commercialise FTLRP operations. The demographics of those who own more than twenty hectares indicate that they should belong to the class of professionals, former commercial managers and government officials including ministers (Jakaza, 2019).

5.4 Potential for agro-based entrepreneurship

As an Agriculture hub, Marondera district houses the only fully fledged agricultural university in Zimbabwe, Marondera University of Agricultural Science and Technology (MUASt). In 2022, MUASt established an agro-industrial park at the college after receiving ZWL\$262 million from government. The agro-industrial park is part of the government's new strategic plan, which mandates universities and other tertiary institutions to be drivers of innovation and industrialisation for the provision of goods and services to the economy. It covers 1020 hectares with 400ha being arable land, and of that 300ha already cleared for cropping. The mandate of the MUASt agro-Industrial Park is to spearhead agricultural practices that constitute the entire value chain of livestock and crops. The industrial park will also be used as a teaching laboratory for students where they will be exposed to highly mechanised and precision farming and this will ensure that upon graduation, they will be highly competent in crop and livestock production.

During an interview with Key Informant 7 who is MUASt Vice Chancellor, noted that:

We are about 70 percent complete in terms of its establishment and we are planning to start off in winter through winter wheat Programme, we will start with 140 ha wheat and 20 ha under horticulture.

He added that one of MUASt's key mandates was to collaborate with local A1 and A2 farmers in order to empower and capacitate them so that the local communities benefit from these synergistic advantages. Key informant 17, an A1 farmer said:

We are a region with good climate receiving above average rainfalls and we have all year round agricultural activities including market gardening and horticulture though the economic climate is posing some challenges, for example, we get delayed payment for supplying maize to GMB and even tobacco sales which government said should be paid 90% USD component, buyers do not comply with that and they are only interested in paying using the local RTGS currency.

To shed more light on the nature and agro-business potential in Marondera district, a study by Mafusea, Abbysiniab and Zivengec (2021) on the production and marketing of maize in Marondera district showed that farmers are technically, allocatively and economically inefficient in both production and marketing stages. Farmers were performing better at production stage than at marketing technically while there was better allocative and economic efficiency at marketing stage. Formal maize markets were more efficient than informal markets. Results for determinants of technical efficiency at production stage showed that, cattle ownership, farming experience, access to credit and social capital significantly influenced maize production efficiency while access to credit, access to market, distance to market and road condition influences marketing efficiency. They recommended that the government of Zimbabwe improve the institutional environment and arrangements in terms of provision of better roads, access to credit facilities and markets so as to improve both production and marketing efficiency. Farmers were also recommended to join or form farmer organisations as this would assist in improving both production and marketing efficiency.

5.5 Conclusion

The chapter presented and analysed data obtained on obstacles and best practices of agro-based entrepreneurship. The poor financial environment and the suppressive role of government on land reform have been implicated as key drawbacks of successful agro-based entrepreneurship. The next chapter concentrates on policies and institutions that promote agro-based entrepreneurship.

CHAPTER 6: OBSTACLES AND BEST PRACTICES OF AGRO-BASED ENTREPRENEURSHIP

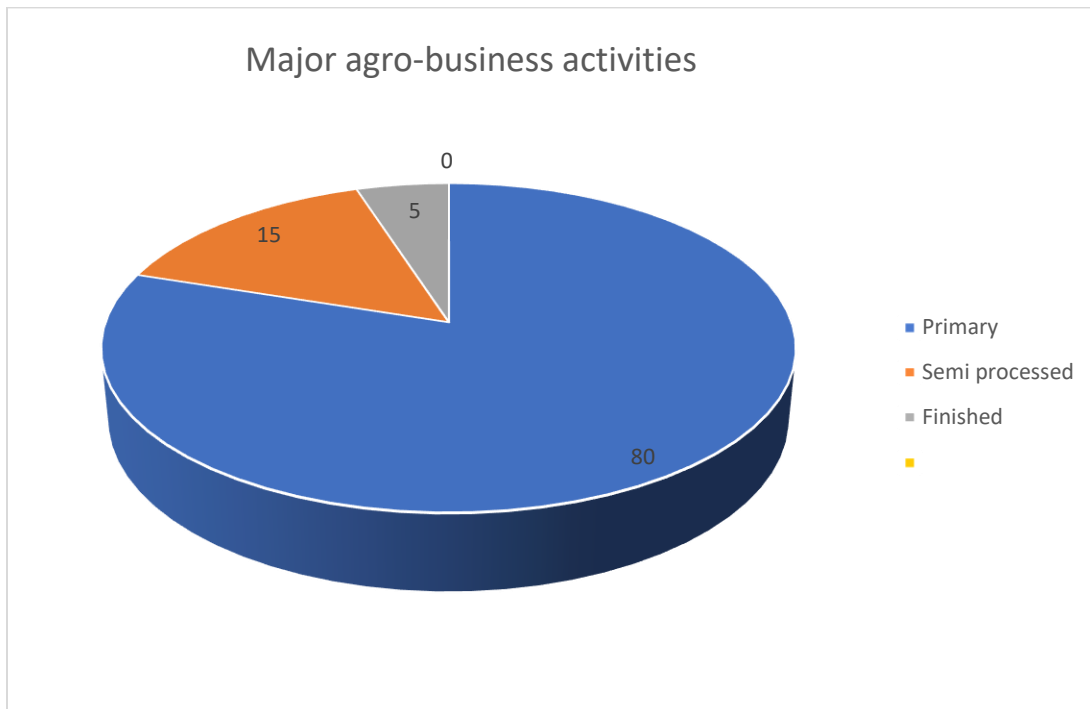
6.1 Introduction

The researcher made successful efforts to validate the claim that agro-business entrepreneurship has been influenced by varied factors that have a direct and indirect impact on socioeconomic development of a nation. The current chapter also presents data on the nature of agro-based business in FTLR in Marondera.

6.2 Key entrepreneurial activities

In venturing into any investment project, there are issues or drivers that make the foundation to successful entrepreneurship as discussed in the previous chapter. The researcher sought to find out from FTLRP on key entrepreneurship drivers that they have or seek. But to do so, the key entrepreneurial activities first had to be established. Respondents were asked on the nature of the product they are producing whether primary, semi-processed or finished products. This was important for the researcher to identify whether the newly resettled farmers were aware of what they were doing and the vested interests in pursuing agro-business entrepreneurship in their allocated farms. Eighty percent (80%) of the respondents were aware of the primary products they were producing. They correctly identified primary produce as raw materials that could be consumed by final consumers as well being sold to manufacturers as input into their production process. Fifteen percent (15%) of respondents noted that they are into the production and processing of semi-processed produce. These were mainly from dairy farming, perishables like tomatoes, vegetables and stock feed products. Five percent (5%) of the respondents were into finished products and mainly dairy farmers, horticultural farmers and animal husbandry category. The following figure illustrates these findings.

Figure 6.1 Agro-business entrepreneurship key drivers



Source: Fieldwork Research, 2022.

The above scenario is illustrative of the nature of Zimbabwe’s FTLRP characteristic. In view of agro-business entrepreneurship’s motive of land benefiting owners, it evidenced that the majority of FTLRP beneficiaries are not inclined towards entrepreneurship. The motive of holding land is not to use it for business purposes but for settlement purpose. The government’s objective, meanwhile, was also to decongest overpopulated areas in the rural places as outlined in the Land Reform Act of 2009. The demand for food and agricultural products is changing in unprecedented ways. Increases in per capita incomes, higher urbanisation and the growing number of women in the workforce engender greater demand for high-value commodities, processed products and ready-prepared foods. A clear trend exists towards diets that include more animal products such as fish, meat and dairy products, which in turn increase the demand for feed grains (FAO, 2007). There is also a growing use of agricultural products, particularly grains and oil crops, as bio-energy production feedstock. International trade and communications are accelerating changes in demand, leading to convergence of dietary patterns, as well as, growing interest in ethnic foods from specific geographical locations.

One of the farmers said:

Ploughing, tillage, cropping, installation of best management techniques, sowing, cultivating, and harvesting for the production of food and fibre goods (excluding commercial logging and wood harvesting operations), animal grazing and rearing, aquaculture are some of the activities that we perform but most of them deal with primary production (A2 farmer 3).

However, another A2 farmer said:

Today, agriculture is divided into two categories: subsistence and commercial, which approximately correlate to the less developed and more developed regions. One of the most major differences between developed and developing regions is how people receive the food they require to thrive. Most individuals in developing nations work as farmers, producing the food that their families require to survive. Farmers make up less than 5% of the population in Northern Marondera. These farmers can feed the surviving residents of Marondera's northern side while also producing a significant surplus. Subsistence agriculture, which is usually prevalent in less developed nations, is the cultivation of food primarily for the farmer's use. Small-scale farming in subsistence agriculture is largely cultivated for consumption by the farmer and their family. If there is an abundance of food, it may be sold, but this is uncommon. The basic goal of commercial agriculture is to generate a profit.

The most frequent form of agriculture practised in the area is intensive subsistence agriculture, which is heavily reliant on animal power and is widespread in humid, tropical places across the world. Significant attempts to alter the terrain to boost food production are indications of this form of farming. As the name indicates, this type of subsistence agriculture is extremely labour-intensive on the farmer, requiring limited area and waste. This is a common practise in East Marondera, where population concentrations are high and land is scarce. Wet wheat fields are the most prevalent type, but non-wet rice fields such as wheat and barley may also exist (A2 farmer 4).

Focus group discussions

Most of them said that they were basically into farming of grains and vegetables to compliment by being used for market gardening especially during winter and autumn which was literally primary production.

Discussion of findings

Data from interviews and questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussions suggest most businesses in the sampled area fall under primary production concentrating on provision of raw agro-products. The findings are consistent with those of Odeny (2013), who asserts that the shifting structure of agrifood demand provides unprecedented prospects for diversification and value addition in agriculture, particularly in poor nations. The 1990s saw a diversification of output in developing countries towards non-traditional fruits and vegetables as a result of shifting customer demand. In recent years, developing countries' proportion of global trade in non-traditional fruits and vegetables has grown substantially (FAO, 2007). According to Rabobank, global processed food sales are anticipated to be well over US\$3 trillion per year, accounting for around three-quarters of total food sales globally (Rabobank, 2008). While most of these sales are in high-income countries, the percentages of global manufacturing value addition created by developing nations in the main agro-industry manufacturing product categories have nearly doubled in the last 25 years (FAO, 2007).

The possibilities for ongoing expansion in demand for value-added food and agricultural goods provide an impetus to pay closer attention to agro-industry development in the context of economic growth, food security, and poverty-reduction efforts (Sifile, Chiweshe and Mutopo, 2021). Agro-industries, defined here as a component of the industrial sector in which agricultural raw materials are added value through processing and handling processes, are well-known as efficient engines of growth and development. Agro-industries have large multiplier effects in terms of employment creation and value addition due to their forward and backward linkages (Moyo and Yeros, 2015). For example, a new dairy processing factory creates jobs not only at its own transformation facilities, but also at dairy farms, milk collecting, farm input supply, and product distribution. An agro-industrial enterprise's demand drives enterprises far beyond its direct input suppliers and product consumers; a wide range of ancillary services and supporting activities in the secondary and tertiary sectors of the economy benefit as well. Because agricultural goods are often perishable

and bulky, many agro-industrial units and smaller-scale agro-processing firms are located near their key raw material suppliers. Consequently, their immediate socioeconomic impacts tend to be exerted in rural areas such as Marondera district (Mahachi, 2015).

6. 3 Performance of agro-based entrepreneurship

To have a better comprehension of the nature of agro-based business in Marondera District, the researcher had to solicit information on the general performance of the businesses in question. General performance indicators such as profitability, working capital management and return on investments were considered for the purpose of this analysis. Data obtained in that regard is presented in table 6.1 below.

Table 6.1 Performance of agro-based business in FTLRP

Instrument	Performance of Agro-based businesses		
		Mean	Std. Deviation
Questionnaire	Very good	53.8750	10.62931
	Good	8.7000	4.76212
	Not Good	6.1667	6.64466
	Total	58.0000	7.60671

Source: Fieldwork Research, 2022.

Data collected and presented in Table 6.1 shows that more respondents are of the view that performance of agro-based enterprises in Marondera was positive with mean of 53.8 and 8.7. However, a staggering 6.1 mean represents respondents who are not convinced by the performance of current agro-based firms. For those confirming that agro-based firms are well performing high standard deviation scores suggest that the data are dispersed (less dependable), whereas a low standard deviation for those disputing indicates that the data are closely concentrated around the mean (more reliable).

During interview, one of agro-business expert opined that:

Agriculture is regarded as the backbone of developing countries such as Zimbabwe since it provides the most employment and money. The sector has contributed to the well-being of the rural residents of Marondera. I can personally attest that wheat agriculture in Marondera was unable to eradicate poverty between 2007 and 2016, but it is now capable of doing so. Agricultural production initiatives, such as crop diversification programmes, have made a significant contribution to lowering effective poverty in Mashonaland East. My personal investigation revealed that agriculture has a negative influence on rural family incomes, and those who rely heavily on agriculture do worst (Agro- business expert 1).

Focus group discussions

There were contrasting findings on business performance with a number saying that there was stagnation in growth owing largely to economic hardships.

During a focus group discussion, one A1 farmer said:

Agriculture's performance has been outstanding. Agriculture's gross domestic product (GDP) increased by an average of 2.0 percent each year from 2000 to 2004, outpacing population growth of 1.6 percent per year. This expansion, fuelled by rising productivity, reduced the actual price of grains in global markets by around 1.8 percent per year over the same time. In the early 2000s, modern cereal crop types became widely used. The area dedicated to better varieties has continued to grow, and by 2000, they had been planted on almost 80 percent of Mashonaland East's grain land, up from less than 10 percent in 1999. Marondera is also growing the usage of enhanced cereal types, which reached 22 percent of the cereal area there in 2000 despite a late start.

Except for a few areas in the district, the usage of chemical fertilisers has increased dramatically throughout the developing globe. The developing world's proportion of worldwide fertiliser consumption has increased from around 10% in the 1960s to more than 60% now. Farmers in Marondera are the primary consumers, with consumption increasing dramatically from an annual average of 6 kg per acre. Over the last three decades, increased fertiliser use has contributed for at least 20% of the growth in developing-country agriculture (A1 farmer 4).

Discussion of findings

From the above, the findings are consistent with those of Paramasivan and Pasupathi (2016), who discovered that the production of food goods and beverages accounted for more than half of the entire output of India's agro-based sectors. Manufacturing of grain mill products, starches and starch products, and prepared animal feeds dominates this sector, accounting for 53% of total output. According to Paramasivan and Pasupathi (2016), the number of textile manufacturing units is the highest percentage after food products and beverages, but it has decreased slightly from 2006-07 to 2011-12 due to a continuous decrease in spinning, weaving, and finishing of textiles from 27.25 percent in 2006-07 to 26.68 percent in 2011-12. During the study period, the manufacture of leather products followed the same pattern.

The finding is also consistent with Laxmikantreddy's (2014)'s observation that industrial development is dependent not just on innovation and capital outflow in a country, but also on the availability of raw materials and suitable physical infrastructural facilities. Agriculture is a major raw material provider sector for major industries such as paper, sugar, textile, fertilisers, chemicals, edible oil, and so on. Agro-based industries can play an important role in alleviating poverty, unemployment, and inequality in India, as well as significantly contributing to the overall development of the economy.

Groenewald (2003) holds a distinct perspective, establishing that decompositions of productivity increase regularly lead to research and development (R&D) investment as important sources of growth. It is estimated that hybrid rice alone generated half of China's rice output improvements between 1975 and 1990. From 1971 to 1994, improved varieties generated 53 percent of overall factor productivity improvements in Pakistan Punjab. Even in Sub-Saharan Africa, the role of R&D in (limited) productivity increase has been established. According to Scoones *et. al* (2011), infrastructure, particularly roads, has also been an essential role in Asian agricultural prosperity.

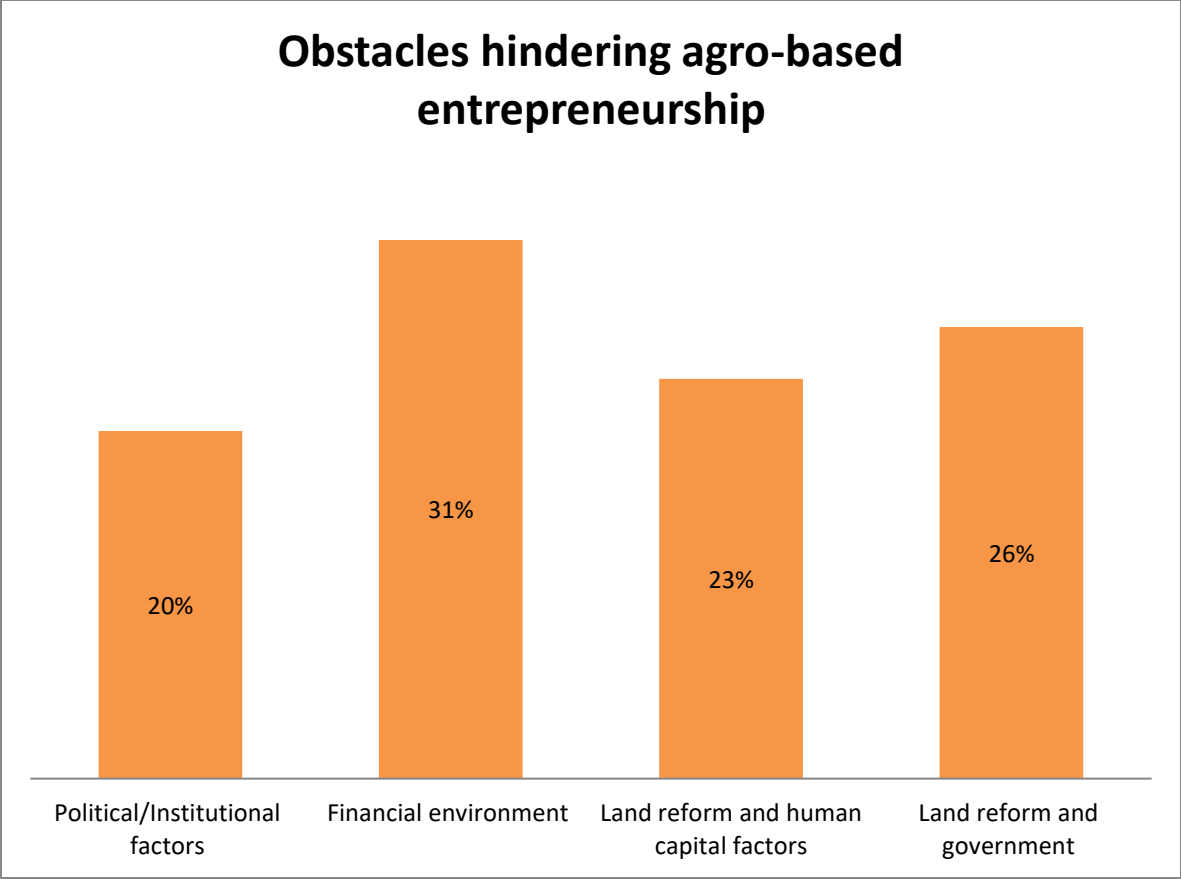
In India, rural road investments provided almost 25% of agricultural output increase in the 1970s, with large payoffs. Human capital investments that improve education, health, and nutrition have been demonstrated over and over again to raise aggregate productivity. One research for Sub-Saharan Africa discovered that calorie availability had a considerable favourable influence on agricultural output, demonstrating the interrelationship between malnutrition, hunger, and agricultural growth.

Policy and structural reforms are also likely to have contributed significantly to productivity increase, while few studies have specifically quantified their effects (Krueger and Casey, 2009: 2). One such research is the well-documented influence of China's home responsibility system, which was the primary factor encouraging agricultural growth and eliminating rural poverty between 1978 and 1984.

6.4 Obstacles affecting agro-based entrepreneurship

The researcher made successful efforts to validate the claim that agro-business entrepreneurship has been influenced by varied factors that have a direct and indirect impact on socioeconomic development of a nation. The presence of these factors will influence the course of how a nation is managing its economy and in particular its agricultural sector. The researcher asked the respondents to rank barriers to successful entrepreneurship according to weightage. The results obtained were summarised and presented in Figure 6.2 below.

Figure 6.2 Obstacles affecting agro-based entrepreneurial activities



Source: Fieldwork Research, 2022.

The majority (31%) implicated unstable financial environment as the major drawback against agro-based entrepreneurial businesses. A significant part of the respondent base (26%) is of the view that land reform programme by the government negatively impacted on the agro-based sector. Finally, human capital factors, and political upheavals were implicated by 23% and 20% respectively. One of the interviewees opined that:

Rural regions are similarly affected by rural-urban migration, particularly male movement. This leads to a lack of educated and trained labour in rural regions. The lack of professional and management workforce in rural regions is mostly due to a lack of adequate educational institutions. Furthermore, those who are otherwise rural do not wish to return to rural regions to work because of the different issues that rural areas face. Any task is made easier by infrastructure. To engage in any economic activity, including founding a business, a certain degree of prior-built-up infrastructural facilities must be

available. However, rural regions, in particular, suffer from a lack of or inadequate infrastructure in terms of roads, rail, telecommunications, energy, market information networks, and so on. This, in turn, has a negative impact on the effective use of existing agri-resources on the one hand, and on the efficiency and mobility of labour on the other. If the evidence of the pudding is in the eating, the proof of production is in the consuming. Production is worthless unless it is sold or consumed. Agri-entrepreneurship has enormous marketing challenges due to a lack of marketing channels and networks, promotional facilities, a support system, poor product quality, and competition from medium and large-scale firms.

Agri-preneurs' businesses frequently do not have a marketing organisation as a result, their products perform poorly in comparison to the quality of items made by medium and large-scale enterprises (Professional beneficiary 7).

Another A2 Farmer suggested that:

Today is the age of information technology, and knowledge is seen as power. To compete with competitors, technology provides competitive advantages in numerous forms. For example, demonstrates how technology enables rural farmers to promote their crops. However, one of the biggest obstacles faced by agri-entrepreneurs, particularly in rural regions, has been inefficiency or a lack of essential equipment and technology. Satellite-based geographic information systems (GIS) offer more efficient use of existing resources and more effective management efforts, yet these technologies are inadequate in most agribusiness businesses, particularly in rural regions. While this has an impact on product quality, it also raises the price of the items.

Transportation infrastructures are required to make inputs available at corporate locations and outputs available at consumer locations spread over broad region. Because most agri-businesses are located distant from metropolitan areas, they face transportation challenges for both inputs and products.

As a result, either there is a lack of availability of essential inputs and outputs at the correct time and location, or whatever is accessible comes at a greater cost, making the product ultimately more expensive than items given by firms based in metropolitan areas. Various industrial policies proclaimed in our country during the past demonstrate that policy

allows accomplishing things in a desirable and more effective manner. There is reason to suppose that diverse industrial strategies have aided in setting the proper tone and tempo of industrial growth in our country (A2 farmer 7).

Findings from focus group discussions

The following were given as major obstacles affecting agro-based entrepreneurial activities

- delayed payment by the Grain Marketing Board (GMB)
- high input costs
- Funding challenges
- effects of droughts at times, and
- political interference as land was heavily polarized towards those with allegiance to the ruling government.

Discussion of findings

According to Groenewald (2003), the political structure influences the land and its processes, as well as, the economy and the general well-being of individuals. Regardless of the obstacles, it is the obligation of the government to implement policies, rules, and regulations that aim to not only benefit the economy but also assist land beneficiaries in achieving result-based land reform. Proper agricultural growth projections are patterned into the reform process for a guaranteed agricultural growth in the economy, with all cause and effect assessed to infer an acceptable conclusion of the reforms.

By necessity and importance in the process of land reform, the government's political will and bureaucratic persistence include the interests of many public and private parties. If land reform is to succeed, the national government, province or municipal governments, and beneficiaries must all play critical roles. As earlier argued by Groenewald (2003), in South Africa, several stakeholders are involved in land reform initiatives. These include national and provincial departments of Agriculture, Land Affairs, Finance, Public Works, Finance, Environment and Agriculture, Trade and Industry, Education, and Labour, municipal and tribal authorities, private banks and other financial institutions, farmer associations, commodities organisations, and other private and parastatal bodies all play major roles. In Zimbabwe, the government was at the centre

of land redistribution in Zimbabwe. The Ministry of Agriculture was also active at the local, provincial, and national levels. In the selection and allocation of land, pressure groups comprising war veterans, war collaborators, political parties, chiefs, and villagers were included.

This finding invalidates Jacobs' (2009) survey because it is very debatable if the current situation of Dominica's agro-processing sector is due to a lack of adequate indigenous raw materials and the availability of such raw materials in desirable amounts. In addition to bananas, plantains, sugar cane, and coconuts, Caribbean countries are endowed with a diverse range of exotic primary commodities, many of which have found success in the agro-processing sector. Most popularly known fruits have been utilised in the manufacturing of jams and jellies, as well as fruit nectars and drinks. Herbs, spices, and root crops are also often used materials. However, it has been asserted that only few of these commodities are available in sufficient amounts throughout the year, and so a successful agro-processing sector cannot be supported. Based on his experience in Grenada's agro-processing sector, Jacobs (2009) is certain that this viewpoint is incorrect. One must clearly distinguish between seasonality of growth and availability of raw resources for processing. Hot peppers and seamoss, for example, are available for processing all year since we have developed semi-processed forms in which they can be stored. A similar amount of attention has not been paid to the variety of exotic tropical fruits with significant year-round processing possibilities (Mahachi, 2015). This constraint must be overcome by performing fundamental and practical research targeted at generating know-how for better, more innovative indigenous resource utilisation procedures.

In contrast to Zimbabwe, Dominica has prioritised crop diversity. However, this initiative is once again targeted toward the fresh fruit export market, with little, if any, emphasis placed on the production of selected commodities for processing (Motsi, 2021). The assumption remains that the surplus from the fresh fruit market will be channelled into the agro-processing sector. Surpluses created from fresh fruit market varieties may not be best suited to agro-processing, or the prices demanded by the farming community may be prohibitively expensive. The establishment of state farms could be one answer to the problem of enough raw material supplies throughout the year. Select commodities that would be routed into the agro-processing sector might be propagated and developed in stages to fulfil the processing sector's demands (Mandisvika, Chirisa and Bamako,

2015). Another possible approach is to create a process that ensures adequate raw material supplies from the farming community throughout the year. Later, if one looks at a vertically integrated agricultural/agro-processing sector, it would be ideal to build on this method.

The foundation for structural transformation of primary agriculture and the building of connections for the development of a dynamic and lucrative agro-industrial sector must next be established in national policy. To supply raw materials for the development of this sector, adequate attention must be paid to the promotion and organisation of local production. The most fundamental limitation that must be addressed is the lack of a defined policy framework for the production and consumption of these commodities (Makanyeza and Du Toit, 2017).

6.5 Chapter Summary

The chapter presented and analysed data obtained on obstacles and best practices of agro-based entrepreneurship. The poor financial environment and the suppressive role of government on land reform have been implicated as key drawbacks of successful agro-based entrepreneurship. The next chapter concentrates on policies and institutions that promote agro-based entrepreneurship.

CHAPTER 7: POLICIES AND INSTITUTIONS THAT PROMOTE AGRO-BASED ENTREPRENEURSHIP

7.1 Introduction

This chapter gives a detailed presentation of results on policies and institutions that promote agro-based entrepreneurship. The researcher inquired on the principal institutions and their respective policies in promoting and inhibiting agro-based entrepreneurship in the FTLRP.

7.2 The significant policies that impacted on agro-based entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe

The respondents and key informants (participants) were asked to describe the specific effects that each policy had on agro-based industries. The most important post-independence regulations were considered. Table 7.1 below provides a summary of the responses.

Table 7.1 The most significant policies that impacted on agro-based business in Zimbabwe

Policy	Negative	Positive
The Land Reform Programme	98%	2%
The Zimbabwe's Programme for Economic and Social Transformation (ZIMPREST)	56%	44%
The Millennium Economic Recovery Programme (MERP)	23%	77%
The National, Economic Revival (NERP)	96%	4%
The Zimbabwe's Agenda For Sustainable socioeconomic Transformation (ZIMASSET)	9%	91%
The Basic Commodities Supply Side Intervention (BACCOSI)	82%	18%
The National, Economic Revival (NERP)	34%	66%

Source: African Development Bank (2019).

Table 7.1 above shows that the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP), the Land Reform Programme, and the Economic Policy Revival (NERP), in that order, have the biggest negative effects on the agro-business sector. On the other hand, the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustained Social Economic Transformation (ZIMASSET), the Millennium Economic Recovery Programme (MERP), and The National, Economic Revival are programmes that had a positive impact on the agriculture and hospitality industry (NERP).

On the other hand, one interviewee offered the following viewpoint:

Zimbabwe's policies cause tension between residents and business-people, and they favour international farmers over indigenous. Zimbabwe's National Agriculture Policy was unveiled in 2014, 34 years after independence and four years after the Programme was established, with the goal of, among other things, developing indigenous agriculture. If rules continue to favour foreigners over locals, domestic agriculture will be unable to adequately promote commerce. As a result, the study intended to ascertain the extent to which Zimbabwe's policy environment influences domestic agricultural performance.

The law's purpose was to encourage native Zimbabweans to engage in business and profit from economic resources if the Zimbabwean economy grew more indigenous (Ministry of Youth Development Indigenisation and Empowerment, 2012). The current Zimbabwean policy on indigenisation seeks to give indigenous people a majority stake in foreign-owned firms. During the Act's formulation, the appropriate ministry met with key stakeholders such as the Zimbabwean Youth Council, the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe, the National Chamber of Commerce, and the Congress of Zimbabwe Industries (CZI). However, once the Indigenisation Regulations were passed in 2010, the Parliamentary Legal Committee (PLC) produced a negative report, saying that the practise violated the Bill of Rights (A2 farmer 5).

Findings from focus group discussions

Most group members said that farming was very vibrant before the market reforms of the late 1990s and since then policy shifts had adversely affected viability of small-scale farming due to

- unstable currency since 2000 up to date due to numerous changes in local versus multicurrency system or regime changes.

- struggling economy worsened by poor government priorities and
- economic sanctions imposed on Zimbabwe that were politically motivated.

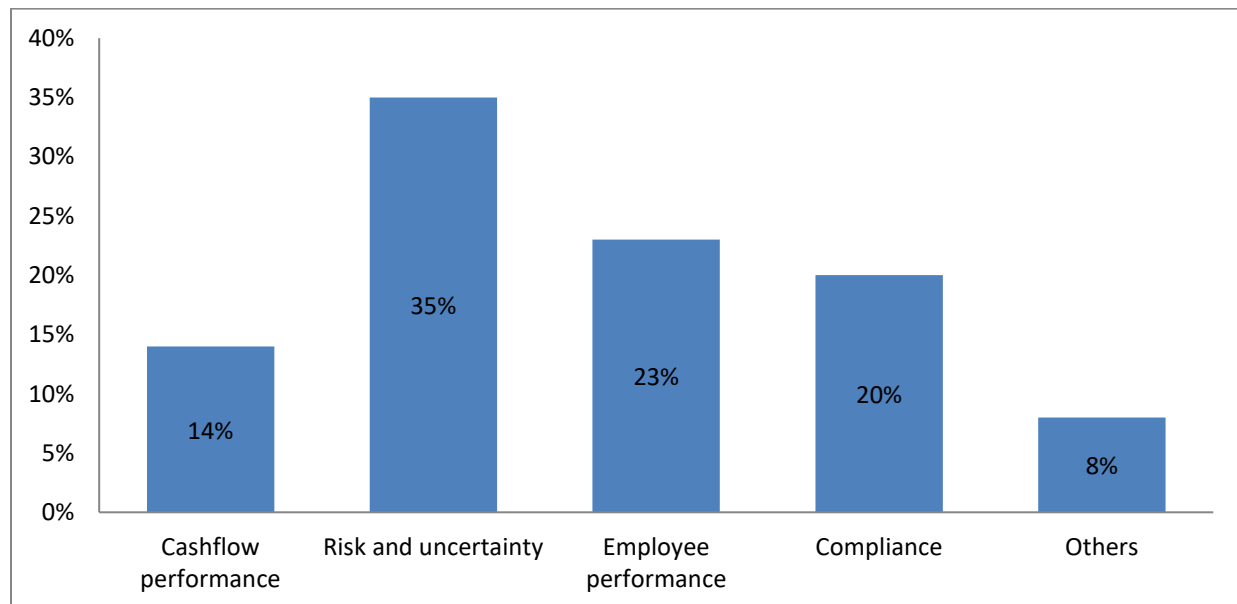
Discussion of findings

These findings support Barnes (2012) contention that entrepreneurs and small businesses are less motivated to launch and grow their operations in an environment where policies are uncertain. Zimbabwe currently has a highly polarised environment and remains dogged by financial crises. (Patterson, 2011; Barnes, 2012). The bankruptcy of Lehman Brothers and the nearly complete collapse of the entire financial system caused governments all over the world to experience previously untold problems.

7.3 Business aspects affected by government policies in agriculture industry

The researcher asked the respondents to reveal aspects of business in which government policies have impact. The responses provided are summarised in Figure 7.1 below.

Figure 7.1 Impacted aspects



Source: Fieldwork Research, 2022.

As seen in Figure 7.1 above, most respondents believed that government policies had the greatest impact on risk and uncertainty in the agriculture sector. Issues with employee performance and

compliance were greatly impacted, either favourably or unfavourably. Government policies have an impact on cash flow performance, according to a relatively small portion of the sample.

One of the interviewees indicated the importance of government in effecting policies that allow agro-business to flourish:

There is also growing acknowledgment of the need to supplement these demand-cutting initiatives with attention to supply-side challenges. Governments have traditionally supported and influenced agricultural output, primarily to improve farmer livelihoods and food security. Because of hefty subsidies to maize producers, the United States produces 40% of the maize traded on the world market. The recent recognition of the significant cost posed by non-communicable diseases (NCDs) adds a new public health component to this role of government, with a focus on shaping crop output to foster nutritious foods supply and reducing harmful products in the consumer environment, such as tobacco. This global public health imperative requires research in agriculture-related fields, but there has been little application of findings to public health research issues or cross-sector policy debate. Understanding this knowledge base will be critical for public health policymakers and other stakeholders seeking to develop successful policy recommendations (Agro-based expert 1).

Furthermore, one A2 farmer said:

Tobacco and food are key agricultural commodities for many nations, and as a result, agricultural production is intertwined with several policy domains and market pressures, making it a difficult task to solve through policy and Programmes. Adding to the difficulty of regulating output is the fact that if demand stays high, then decreases in production may result in price rises for the commodity, thus motivating producers to return to production of that item. However, production is wrapped up with the rhetoric of harmful product-producing businesses, such as the tobacco industry, opposing demand reduction initiatives. Health advocates must have a solid evidence basis and a profound grasp of agriculture production theory and practice to overcome potential political and economic obstacles (A2 farmer 6).

Findings from focus group discussions

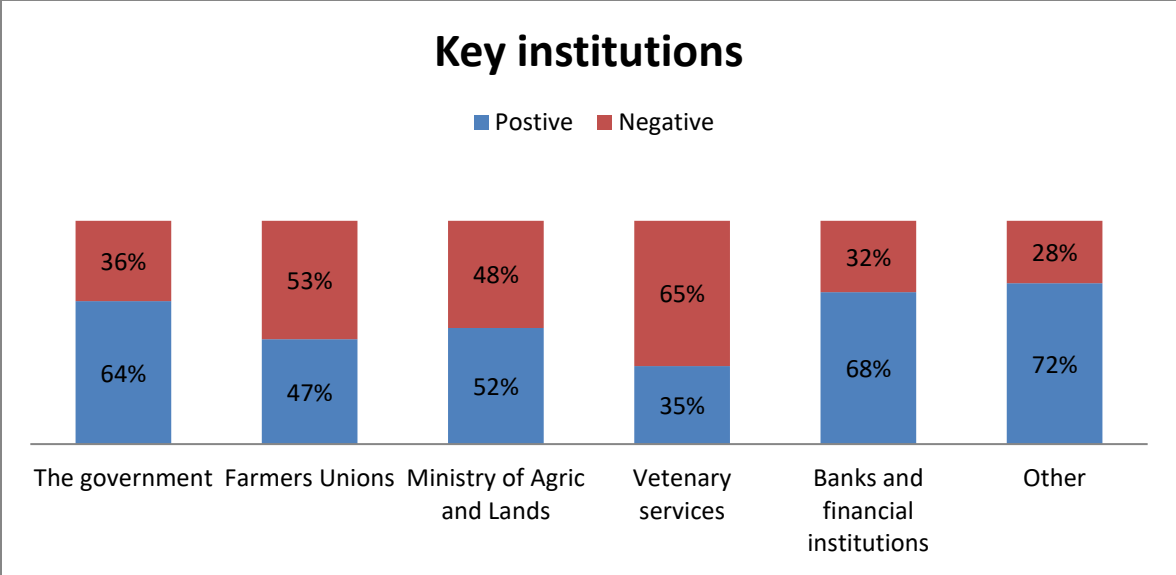
Participants were very disappointed with the many government policies which did not yield results and making life very difficult for business. Most of the policies did not have solutions to improve business operations but were merely stop gap measures to arrest a hyperinflationary environment.

Discussion of findings

The findings support those of Krueger and Casey (2009), who argue that the fundamental reason for lowering tobacco output is because tobacco smoking is still a leading cause of unnecessary mortality and morbidity worldwide. Articles 17 and 18 of the Framework Convention on Tobacco Control require governments to vigorously pursue a policy agenda that supports alternative livelihoods for tobacco growers, therefore directly and indirectly lowering tobacco supply. Other reasons for reducing tobacco production include the negative effects of cultivating tobacco leaf on farmers' health and economic livelihoods, as well as the environment. Despite the obvious logic, implementing actions to encourage alternative livelihoods has been difficult. The complicated political economics of tobacco production necessitates extensive interventions that fulfil farmers' demands, from input supply to market access for other crops. "While full-scale crop substitution for tobacco growing... may not be a feasible aim, at least in the near to medium term," Hu and Lee (2015: 48) writes, "encouraging tobacco farmers to transition to other crops offers inherent benefits... Governments should invest in infrastructure to assist farmers in growing and marketing alternative income crops."

The researcher inquired on the principal institutions and their respective policies in promoting and inhibiting agro-based entrepreneurship in the FTLRP. The information obtained was analysed and presented in Figure 7.2 below.

Figure 7.2 Principal institutions



Source: Fieldwork Research, 2022.

From the data presented in Figure 7.2 above, it can be inferred that the government (64%), Ministry of Agriculture and Lands (52%), other for example retailers and millers (72%) and Banks (68%) are believed to be pushing agro-based entrepreneurship towards economic success. However, veterinary services and farmers unions were implicated as negatively affecting agro-based industry due to their inactivity when it comes to pushing policies meant to promote the sector.

Some of the results above were supported by an agro-expert interviewed who said:

External stakeholders in the agricultural supply chain include agricultural input companies (such as seed and fertiliser companies), agricultural retailers, farmers and ranchers, agricultural credit institutions, crop consultants and advisors, aggregators, processors, distributors, transportation and refrigeration companies, and ingredient manufacturers. Supply chain partners may create trust and openly support one another as they work toward common goals. By boosting communication along the chain, you may set timetables and processes for conveying progress reports, as well as hold each other accountable when progress falls short (Agro-based expert 2).

Group focus discussions

One of the participants during focus group discussions said:

Depending on your company's organisational structure and the nature of your supply chains, you may need to engage with a large number of stakeholders regarding sustainable agriculture. In many circumstances, your sustainability team will collaborate closely with your company's procurement, sourcing, and merchant teams to determine which goods or ingredients to obtain and how to get them. Understanding these other teams and their methods is a vital step in establishing your sustainability plan.

Following the identification of these important stakeholders, you should aim to establish which of your agricultural supply chains are directly under your company's control versus those that you can impact but have less control over. Some food and agriculture corporations, for example, deal directly with farms and processing facilities, whilst others purchase processed components with no touch with the farm that created the raw material (A1 farmer 9).

Discussion of findings

A multi-sectoral approach is essential. In the selection and allocation of land, pressure groups comprising war veterans, war collaborators, political parties, chiefs, and villagers were included (Mahachi, 2015). It is obvious that much can get lost in a bureaucratic maze in such a complicated organisational mix; different institutions will obviously not all regard the land reform process with the same sense of importance or urgency, and bottlenecks beginning in one government agency can easily create costly delays (Jakaza, 2019). It is imperative to clearly define the roles and responsibilities of each public and private agency engaged. The delimitation of their influence and roles in shaping the process discourse must be clear, defining each one's tasks and responsibilities. It is necessary to obtain clarity regarding agency relationships and to design accountability reports and feedback mechanisms with clear responsibilities (Zacka, 2017).

The services of the top specialists in public management and administration should be incorporated in the design and implementation of a proper operational and strategic framework for land reform. Tasks must be specified, responsibilities assigned, and effective mechanisms of coordination devised. According to Yadav and Singh, (2019), land reform is the key move taken by the government to help those living in poverty. It is essentially land redistribution from those who have excess land to those who do not, with the goal of enhancing the income and bargaining power of the rural poor. The goal of land reform is to benefit the most vulnerable members of society and

to ensure fair land allocation. While there is a need for land as a resource, land ownership and property rights are important factors that motivate the desire to use land as a resource. Mutema (2012) contends that ownership of government-allocated land is based on offer letters provided by the government.

Agricultural assistance policies, economic policies, taxation policies, international trade policies, and licensing requirements laws all have a significant impact on the development of agro-business entrepreneurship. To make land reform relevant and successful for new settlers, the government must provide basic infrastructure such as roads, dams, schools, support centres, electricity, banking, insurance, communications, water, raw materials, and warehousing facilities. Furthermore, the country's political environment influences agribusiness entrepreneurship development. In land reform countries, government incentives for agricultural output must be developed and executed. Most freshly land recipients have little or no agro-business experience with which to channel their energy. Many people have simply moved in with little ideas of what to anticipate (Mutema, 2012).

Farming is a business, and the farmer's mindset must be harnessed to achieve success. One of the important variables influencing entrepreneurship success is innovation. The agriculture sector's inventive use of technology is responsible for new goods and rising income. As a result, the component that emphasises the importance of innovation is the most significant contribution of agricultural entrepreneurs to the country's development (De Wilde, 2016). Personal effort, collective inventiveness, and national support incentives are required to stimulate efforts from newly settled farmers. The growth of an entrepreneurial spirit in agriculture and land resource transfer among the population, combined with innovation, is expanding the role of the state, which must supply the infrastructure or crucial economic hardware for entrepreneurial success.

This finding is consistent with Prosser and Cater (1994), Nguyen (2020), and Lee and Kwag (2013) who identified four social change strengths that drive sustainability in agriculture, namely dissatisfaction with current products, environmental awareness and cultural sensitivity, efforts from agriculture destinations to address the scarcity of their resources and shifts in tour operators' attitudes. Sustainability is frequently viewed as a "vehicle" for overcoming the negative impacts of agriculture and for long-term survival. This is corroborated by Bramwell and Lane (1993) who viewed it as a constructive method of easing the tension brought on by the intricate interactions

between the agriculture industry, visitors, the environment, and local communities so that the capacity and long-term quality of both natural and human resources could be preserved.

7.4 Conclusion

The chapter presented findings on policies and institutions that promote agro-based entrepreneurship. From analysis of the data, FTLRP was also implicated among major policies impacting agro-based entrepreneurial activities with government being the major player in spearheading the process. However, veterinary services and farmers unions were implicated as negatively affecting agro-based industry due to their inactivity when it comes to pushing policies meant to promote the sector. Issues with employee performance and compliance were greatly impacted, either favourably or unfavourably. Government policies have an impact on cash flow performance, according to a relatively small portion of the sample. The growth of an entrepreneurial spirit in agriculture and land resource transfer among the population, combined with innovation, is expanding the role of the state, which must supply the infrastructure or crucial economic hardware for entrepreneurial success. The findings from interviews, questionnaires and focus group discussions seem to corroborate each other. The next and last chapter covers the summary, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER 8: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the research findings and conclusions derived from the analysis of data done in chapters 4, 5 6 and 7. Conclusions and recommendations derived from the findings are presented, followed by a hint on areas for possible future study.

8.2 Summary

The purpose of this study was to assess agro-based entrepreneurship opportunities in the FTLRP in Zimbabwe. The researcher wanted to find out the depth of agro-based entrepreneurship activities inherent in the FTLRP in Zimbabwe. This was influenced by negative publicity accorded to FTLRP in Zimbabwe, as the erstwhile government of the day defends its stance to distribute land to landless Zimbabweans. The researcher stated the objectives to explore the entrepreneurial practices that could be observed among newly resettled farmers in the FTLRP. The mixed methods paradigm and case study design were used as the nature of the study dealt with respondents and participants of the FTLRP who are the beneficiaries and government officials who spearheaded redistribution of land in Zimbabwe. A category of selected agro-dealers in the area was chosen to respond to a set of questionnaires. Focus group discussions were chosen as an ideal empirical data collection approach because of its direct approach in collecting primary data. Focus groups are also useful in achieving group consensus. Interview approach was also noted to be very relevant to triangulate data collection approaches. A review of related literature on land reforms in different nations was undertaken to check the trends, prevalence and phenomenon of entrepreneurship inherent in these reforms.

Conceptual frameworks to the study focused on attributes common in entrepreneurship practices that would be ideal in any agro-business operations. The entrepreneurial experience, background, skills and opportunity recognition were noted to drive the agro-business entrepreneurship mantra. This is required to set a benchmark on how effective agro-business entrepreneurship would be in any land reform. This research's findings are drawn from the administration of the questionnaire, interviews and a focus group discussion with FTLRP beneficiaries who included government officials, professionals and agro-dealers. Sixty (60) participants were given self-administered questionnaires. The eventual number of those interviewed was based on the data saturation

technique. Those participants used in the Focus Group Discussions were based on purposive sampling. The study assessed the legality of FTLRP, accessibility of agro-based entrepreneurship resources to new farmers, impact of agro-based entrepreneurship activities on farmers' livelihoods and agro-business opportunities inherent in the FTLRP. Best practices inherent in agro-business entrepreneurship were checked in this section. Government support and enabling agencies in land reform like banks, government agencies and non-governmental organisations were also evaluated. The study also intended to find out about land ownership, use of land and its size, output levels and return on investment. It was also used to elicit responses to livelihoods impact and levels of employment in the FTLRP. Key agro-business entrepreneurship drivers focusing on markets, products, finance and entrepreneurial skills were interrogated through the triangulation technique.

8.2.1 Objective one: To establish key drivers of agro-based entrepreneurship

The study sought to find out key drivers of agro-based entrepreneurship in the FTLRP which were markets, products, and finance and agro-business entrepreneurial skills inherent in the beneficiaries of FTLRP. The researcher noted that the products known by FTLRP farmers were in the category of primary products which constitute raw materials such as maize, sunflower, soya beans produced for resale into the processing industries. Eighty percent (80%) of the respondents were aware of the products they were producing. They sell their produce in the primary markets locally. Fifteen percent (15%) of the respondents produced finished products that are being sold in the markets locally. These finished products are perishables like tomatoes, vegetables and grain such as maize that is consumed locally. The respondents indicated that they are not producing excess output that could be sold to manufacturers or industries for production process. The five percent (5%) of respondents indicated that they are processing their produce into semi-finished products. These respondents are in the dairy sector, milling industries and stock feed producers. Eighty-five (85%) of respondents are producing for personal consumption hence fall in the subsistence farmers' category. Those selling in local markets were ten percent (10%) of respondents, while five percent (5%) respondents are exporting their produce through contract farming or linkages with foreign buyers.

On capitalisation, whether the resettled farmers were self-financing, eighty percent (80%) of FTLRP beneficiaries are self-financing on capital expenditure on their agro-business projects, while fifteen percent (15%) admitted to accessing financing from government led programmes

such as contract farming and command farming. Five percent (5%) of respondents reported that they leveraged on accessing loans from local financial institutions. These sentiments were also consistent with submissions from interviewees in the study. While they admitted being in agro-based business, the development of their projects is being hampered by lack of financial resources and the reluctance of financial institutions to lend them funds. Asked as to the assistance likely to be given from the financial sector, interviewees unequivocally accused the financial sector of not helping them, nor allowing them access to short term loan facilities to finance their business. When the researcher probed further on the willingness of banks to finance their business, the interviewees mentioned the lack of collateral security to secure meaningful finance from banks. Findings from the focus group discussion indicated the constraints faced in implementing agro-based entrepreneurship, with all participants noting lack of support by financial institutions. They admitted lacking sufficient collateral securities to enable borrowing of sufficient funds. They acknowledged support government is giving through availing extension officers in their areas.

Agro-business entrepreneurship skills are important to land users all over the world. For a profitable farm to run successfully, farmers must be equipped either through training or expertise in the venture or through accumulated experience in running a farming business. FTLRP in Zimbabwe allocated land to most beneficiaries who are not skilled. The researcher found out that fifty percent (50%) of respondents are not skilled in running agro-business entrepreneurship activities. Another thirty percent (30%) are skilled while twenty percent (20%) semi-skilled. Findings from interviewees indicated that they are either semi-skilled or skilled in running agro-based projects. The majority of the participants have skills to enable running of their agro-business ventures, since most of them were either trained or experienced in running farming business before the FTLRP.

8.2.2 Objective two: To identify the nature of agro-based entrepreneurship opportunities in Marondera district

The analysis of the responses to this objective was embedded in the questions made to elicit respondents' views by evaluating the nature of their agro-based business activities. The crux of the question was to establish whether their entrepreneurial practices ranged from agro-chemical retailing, agricultural input dealership, primary production of agricultural products and services and agricultural support services of consultancy and related services. The survey revealed that

from the total number of 60 respondents, seventy-five percent (75%) of FTLRP are engaged in primary production of agricultural products. Fifteen percent (15%) trade in agricultural input products and services, eight per cent (8%) are engaged into agricultural chemical retailing and two per cent (2%) are engaged into agricultural consultancy services. The findings confirm FTLRP beneficiaries are into primary production as they do agro-based businesses. Such inclination to primary production may not mean that they are into agro-business entrepreneurship, but mere subsistence farming.

Agro-based entrepreneurship opportunities also relate to the land size which FTLRP beneficiaries have. The findings to land size show that fifty percent (50%) of respondents own land measuring less than six hectares. Thirty percent (30%) of respondents have land measuring seven to twenty hectares and the twenty percent (20%) of respondents own land measuring above twenty-one hectares. This land distribution approach in the FTLRP is clear indication of government's intention to decongest rural areas by allocating land to landless peasantry (Kabonga 2020). The medium land sizes of seven to twenty hectares were clear allocated to a middle class of land owners with inclination towards land use. These beneficiaries have been observed to practice agro-based entrepreneurship with the intention to market their farm produce. The above twenty hectares given to fewer FTLRP beneficiaries is clear motive to commercialise FTLRP operations. The demographics of those who own more than twenty hectares indicate that they belong to the class of professionals, former commercial managers and government officials including ministers.

The researcher sought to evaluate agro-business entrepreneurship by asking respondents how they are using their land. The categories of animal husbandry, crop production and mixed farming emerged for land use among FTLRP beneficiaries. Thirty percent (30%) of the respondents indicated that they use their allocated land for animal husbandry and ten percent (10%) of the FTLRP beneficiaries are into mixed farming while sixty percent (60%) are using land for crop production. Markets are an indicator of vibrant opportunities emerging from the farming business. Their availability and the prices in which they operate tally with the farmers' produce are indicative of clear motives to engage into agro-based entrepreneurship. The FTLRP consideration for markets and marketing activities has been observed as a major impediment to realising the returns to agro-based entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe. Former commercial farmers have been castigated for

disrupting organised markets for their produce which was operating before FTLRP. After the reforms, these markets were disbanded with no one in place to organise and assist new farmers on how to sell their produce. However, the researcher sought to find out about the markets and their returns to FTLRP beneficiaries.

The questionnaire enquired about the markets that are supplied by FTLRP beneficiaries. Subsistence markets were supplied by the output from households. Local markets were found to service local farmers in selling their produce and export markets are meant to assist farmers producing for export. Eighty-five percent (85%) of the respondents are in subsistence farming. Ten percent (10%) respondents produce to sell excess output in the local market. Five percent (5%) respondents are producing for export markets. Availability of markets to FTLRP beneficiaries has been found to be a constraint in assisting newly resettled farmers to sell their produce. The prices offered in the local markets are not attractive enough to lure investment into agro-business entrepreneurship. The researcher observed that there is now preference for contract farming among FTLRP beneficiaries. This arrangement is guaranteeing newly resettled farmers the market for their produce especially tobacco farming. While the farmers are complaining of the lower prices given by contractors, they complain that the margins are not attractive but have no choice to market their produce.

In view of the need to have leading indicators of agro-business entrepreneurship opportunities, the research must factor in the important issue of return of investment. While the term and language might be complex to the new farmer, many of them have insights of what is expected after they have invested their monies into any farming project. The study sought to measure investment returns on land use projects by FTLRP beneficiaries. The research study established that the majority sixty percent (60%) respondents are realising less than ten percent (less than 10%) return on their investment in the farming projects. Those earning eleven to twenty percent (11-20%) return on land use were thirty percent (30%) and ten percent (10%) respondents acknowledged realising above twenty-one percent (above 21%) return on land use on their farming projects.

8.2.3 Objective three: To identify obstacles and best practices of agro-based entrepreneurship

The study essence was to seek an informed opinion on the extent to which FTLRP in Zimbabwe has been undertaken. Literature review is awash with divergent views regarding how Zimbabwe's land reform was undertaken. The researcher sought to find out from FTLRP beneficiaries the manner in which the process was done. The legal issues regarding FTLRP in Zimbabwe have received global attention, while local sentiments have gained a political dimension meant to drum up support from the beneficiaries. A total of sixty respondents responded to this issue through a questionnaire administered. Thirty-five percent (35%), constituting most of the beneficiaries, strongly believe the FTLRP was done legally. Twenty-five (25%) agreed with the legality of FTLR. Fifteen percent (15%) are on the neutral position, neither accepting nor denying the fact that FTLRP was done legally. Fifteen percent (15%) of the respondents do not agree with the assertion that FTLRP was done legally. Ten percent (10%) strongly disagreed with this conviction and fifteen percent (15%) disagreed. According to World Bank, (2003), property rights affect perceptions in various ways. Regardless of the government allocated land to land beneficiaries, the issue of property rights has remained a concern to FTLRP farmers. Farmers feel vulnerable because they lack ownership rights thus making them prone to eviction. Offer letters issues to farmers cannot be used as collateral to obtain bank loans to carry out agro-business activities. According to Mutema (2012), offer letters can be withdrawn arbitrarily by the government, with no obligation to compensate for any improvement which the farmer might have made. Therefore, farmers cannot farm sustainably as they are unable to borrow money from banks to support agro-business entrepreneurship. The findings of the study indicate the grave concern of FTLRP beneficiaries' assurance of ownership on the allocated farms. The findings show a slight majority of resettled farmers agreeing to FTLRP while most farmers are neither agreeing with the land allocation process. Such concern has been observed through focus group discussions where participants have been concerned with the land tenure and their security to their investments.

In probing further obstacles to practising agro-business entrepreneurship, the research found all focus group discussion participants confirming the constraints arising from non-accessibility of agricultural finance. Lack of collateral security from FTLRP beneficiaries is hindering them to be given loans from banks and micro finance institutions. The questionnaire probed FTLRP

beneficiaries' access to finance to support their agro-business entrepreneurship. In checking whether there is support given by national agencies like banks, seed companies and government agencies, few respondents of five percent (5%), strongly agreed that there is support while ten percent (10%) agreed to the assertion of support. Fifteen percent (15%) were on the neutral implying that they are neither agreeing nor disagreeing with the notion. A very large number of respondents (thirty percent (30%) and forty percent (40%) categorically strongly disagreed and disagreed respectively that FTLRP is being supported by national agencies.

The researcher sought to find out whether land resource access to FTLRP beneficiaries was an enabling factor. Fifty-five percent (55%) being majority of the respondents agreed to this assertion with twenty-five percent (25%) in support. Ten percent (10%) of the FTLRP beneficiaries were very neutral on this question. Ten percent (10%) of respondents strongly disagreed and disagreed with this assertion that FTLRP gave new farmers agro-business opportunities. Given the newly resettled farmers' preparedness to manage and harness effective agro-business entrepreneurship practice on the farms fifteen percent (15%) of the respondents agreed to the assertion that FTLRP brought in them best practices to undertake agro-business entrepreneurship. These are the minority to this research with fifteen (15%) percent being neutral. Seventy percent (70%) of the respondents either strongly disagreed or disagreed with the assertion that FTLRP brought in best practices in managing agro-business practices. Such negative sentiments are reflective of the level of productivity in this sector. Newly resettled farmers are reported by Scoones *et. al* (2011) as regressing in performance compared to levels before land reform. Hence, the underlying conclusion is that lack of appropriate skills, knowledge and practice to agro-business entrepreneurship is an obstacle in effectiveness and entrepreneurship efficiency in any setting.

The required support to FTLRP was probed by the researcher to bring out whether government help is sufficient to facilitate agro-business entrepreneurship. The national support of FTLRP agencies like financial institutions, government departments and non-governmental organisations assistance to FTLRP beneficiaries was also evaluated through questionnaire, depth interviews and focus group discussion. The findings of the study revealed that government is supporting farmers through extended access to agricultural inputs, fuel and availability of extension officers in the farming areas. However, this support is not being well-received by FTLRP beneficiaries given the intervention or favours given to recipients based on political affiliation. In respect to FTLRP

farmers' perception of government support sentiments, thirty percent (30%) strongly agreed and agreed that government ministries are providing support to them. Ten percent (10%) of FTLRP beneficiaries are neutral, neither affirming nor denying government support. The prevalent view, (sixty percent (60%)), strongly disagree and disagree that government support is given to them. There is widespread belief that there is government resource abuse by government officials and government support ministries.

Financial institutions were found not to be fully assisting newly resettled farmers by asking for collateral security from farmers. In probing the respondents whether there is support given to them by national agencies like banks, seed companies and government agencies, few respondents of five percent (5%), strongly agreed that there is support while ten percent (10%) agreed to the assertion of support. Fifteen percent (15%) were neutral implying that they are neither agreeing nor disagreeing with the notion. A very large number of respondents (thirty percent (30%) and forty percent (40%) categorically strongly disagreed and disagreed that FTLRP is being supported by national agencies.

8.2.4 Objective four: To suggest key policies and institutions that promote or inhibit agro-based entrepreneurship in the Fast Track Land Reform

The study sought to find out from the focus group if farmers were aware of key policies and institutions that facilitate FTLRP. The enabling environment required to make FTLRP a success was also probed using questionnaires, in-depth interviews and focus group discussions. The participants were also asked about the legality of FTLRP, land tenure, government support to FTLRP beneficiaries and access to land. Eighty percent (80%) of participants agreed that the government of Zimbabwe was justified to partake in the FTLRP. Ten percent (10%) of participants were neutral, neither qualifying nor denying that government FTLRP was legal. Ten percent (10%) did not approve government programme on FTLRP. The policy to resettle people was approved and seen as a positive step the government of Zimbabwe took in redistributing land. There is literature variation in justifying FTLRP with the majority from Western nations categorically accusing the government of Zimbabwe of violating property rights of former land owners. This was echoed in the USAID Country Profile (2009) which opined that uncompensated and unpredictable land takings crippled agricultural development in Zimbabwe. The implication of FTLRP legality on agro-business entrepreneurship has affected newly resettled farmers with no

assurance that they will not be evicted from these lands. However, recent government announcements asking resettled farmers to submit productivity reports annually is clear indication of the extent to which land ownership is now a risk. Productivity is required from newly resettled farmers. They must be able to use land and convince government that they are productive. Such arrangements are viewed by FTLRP beneficiaries as efforts by government to reverse the gains of FTLRP.

Government support to FTLRP has been questioned by respondents as well as participants interviewed by the researcher. Most participants in the FGD as well in-depth interviews conducted denied that government is having enough support to FTLRP beneficiaries. The participants cited access to government led agricultural programmes of fertilisers given to farmers. They accused government officials of diverting fertilisers to their personal needs through theft, cronies support and other measures denying FTLRP access to these resources. These sentiments were noted by respondents in the questionnaire where they denied that enough government support exists to enhance their agro-business entrepreneurship. The results of the research can be interpreted as that government support towards FTLRP is not enough to stimulate agro-business entrepreneurship. The government is being called upon to go an extra mile in providing required resources of information, training and support to FTLRP beneficiaries.

Participants noted the need for government to have shops located in growth points in the country. These shops will be stocked with government inputs that are sold at cheap prices with the aim of enhancing agro-business entrepreneurship. With this support, the FTLRP beneficiaries can improve on their agro-based entrepreneurship focus as they are assured of government support and assistance. Institutional support to FTLRP is needed through the re-engineering of the roles and function of agricultural support institutions in the country. The role played by financial institutions has been labelled as non-supporting as they cited the prohibitive requirements asked by banks when FTLRP beneficiaries want to access loans. The issue of collateral security required by banks from FTLRP beneficiaries to secure loans is a major barrier. Financial support is needed to ensure that agro-business entrepreneurship is successful. Manomano (2020) notes in *The Herald* of 27 July, 2020 that there is clear need for FTLRP beneficiaries to access funding. The farmers indicated that the cost of inputs such as fertilisers, seed and high labour costs were a major drawback to the growth of their farming enterprises. Profit margins are strained because they are not able to

purchase at the existing price range. The farmers also highlighted limited or no access to funding from banks due to myriad of challenges such as collateral issues. The researcher established that it is difficult for FTLRP beneficiaries to fund themselves if they are to realise meaningful profits from their farming business.

The need for support from non-governmental organisations and development partners is also echoed by the majority of participants. The researcher established that development partners have chipped in with assistance of irrigation facilities, inputs and agricultural knowledge to prop up FTLRP beneficiaries. The objective is for the newly resettled farmers to minimise reliance on rain fed agriculture. However, the FTLRP beneficiaries bemoaned need for training and development in how to manage agro-based entrepreneurship ventures. The research established that newly resettled farmers are keen to participate in training programmes that enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of their businesses.

8.3 Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study, several conclusions can be drawn from the FTLRP policies. FTLRP beneficiaries are aware of the products and services they are producing and the markets in which they are sold. While the majority of FTLRP beneficiaries are specialising in the production of primary products, they lack the initiative to have surplus output that could be sold in the production process. The dominant mode of agro-based enterprise among FTLRP farmers is crop production. This form of agro-business entrepreneurship is easier to follow with limited resources. The majority of FTLRP beneficiaries are not encouraged to produce for export purposes given the constraints of agro-entrepreneurship knowledge and skills. Most newly resettled farmers are not aware of the benefits of engaging in agro-business processes that are export oriented.

Inadequate financial support to FTLRP beneficiaries is a constraint in increasing land productivity and agro-business growth in the agricultural sector. The notable issue of collateral security as required by financial institutions is a major constraint to FTLRP beneficiaries. Absence of greater security of tenure among newly resettled farmers to be used in the assurance of accessing bank loans has affected their confidence in accessing funding from banks. For a profitable farm to run successfully, the research concludes that FTLRP beneficiaries are not equipped either through training or expertise in the venture or through accumulated experience in running farming

businesses. Those with the capacity of running agro-business ventures are semi-skilled with experience accumulated during the period before FTLRP implementation.

Return on investment is a key indicator as to the efforts of an entrepreneur in running an agro-based business. The majority of FTLRP beneficiaries are neither calculating their return on investment nor are not aware of the cost -benefit analysis needed in running an agro-based business. This was revealed by the degree of non-conformity to the best benchmarks of running a business venture. Most projects are not generating any meaningful return on investment which is the lifeline of an entrepreneur's success.

Most landowners have been allocated land of smaller hectarage as opposed to fewer land beneficiaries owning land above twenty hectares. Those who were allocated smaller hectarage are not skilled, do not have sufficient capital to invest in the land and are producing mainly for subsistence farming as opposed to the few who are producing for export purposes. This approach to land distribution is in line with Zimbabwe government argument that they are decongesting rural areas. Fewer allocations made with high hectarage is meant to boost commercial agriculture as evidenced by readiness to invest capital to boost agro-based entrepreneurship.

Land tenure has been noted as insecure by farmers who feel vulnerable as they lack ownership rights thus making them prone to eviction. Offer letters issued to farmers cannot be used as collateral to obtain bank loans to carry out agro-business activities. They can be withdrawn any time by the government with it having no obligation to compensate for any improvement which the farmer might have made. Therefore, these farmers cannot farm sustainably as they are unable to borrow money from banks to support agro-business entrepreneurship.

Most FTLRP beneficiaries approved the FTLRP. They argued that the FTLRP enabled them to access land as a resource that is important in facilitating agro-business enterprise. Government support towards agro-based entrepreneurship has been viewed differently. Many FTLRP farmers agreed that there is little government support to enhance agro-business entrepreneurship. Access to subsidised inputs, provision of training to enhance agro-based entrepreneurship, access to government extension officers in the areas they are farming has been viewed as critical. The thin coverage of extension services has hindered FTLRP beneficiaries' accessibility to entrepreneurship infrastructure of markets, roads and extension services. Majority of FTLRP farmers are travelling long distances and this has led to weak farmer-extension worker linkages.

Some farmers have resorted to using their own indigenous knowledge in crop production leading to poor yields in most cases. Poor coordination between agricultural research and extension services has reduced the speed of transfer of new technology to farmers and impacted negatively on agro-business enterprise. The conclusion of the study is that government is supporting farmers through extended access to agricultural inputs, fuel but limited availability of extension officers in the farming areas affects FTLRP farmers' ability to cope with modern farming techniques. However, as stated earlier, this support is not well received by FTLRP beneficiaries given the intervention or favours given to recipients are often politicised. There is widespread acceptance that there is rampant resource abuse by government officials and support ministries.

The legality of FTLRP has been viewed and supported by many farmers who have been given land under the FTLRP. It is the research's conclusion that most farmers allocated land were listed through government administrative departments under the Ministry of Lands, agricultural and rural development. Those given larger hectareage were noted to have been given under unclear circumstances notably through government ministers' intervention or army and security personnel. The method used by farmers to access land under FTLRP has great impact on agro-based entrepreneurship operations. Government's new requirement that annual productivity reports be submitted on every FTLRP beneficiary is also instructive. This new requirement offers a stimulus of encouragement to FTLRP beneficiaries. The need to use land as a business tool is now a reality which is championing agro-business entrepreneurship among farmers for personal and national benefit. The FTLRP beneficiaries have no title rights to land because the government and village heads reserve control of land. Agro-based entrepreneurship is hampered because FTLRP beneficiaries cannot invest in the land in which they do not own. If tenure is given to FTLRP beneficiaries, it can unlock value, energy and entrepreneurship not only in Zimbabwe but across the continent.

The FTLRP beneficiary livelihoods have been changed to the betterment after accessing land allocation through FTLRP. There is evidence of asset accumulation in form of motor vehicles, farming equipment, cattle, goats, and diversification into other farming activities. Farmers are now able to supply local, especially urban markets, with perishable products and supply GMB with grain products. These opportunities are a result of FTLRP beneficiaries' use of land given to them. Hence, FTLRP gave farmers an opportunity to secure their livelihoods through agro-based

entrepreneurship. There remains greater space for agro-based entrepreneurship practices in Zimbabwe premised on the entrepreneurial attributes inherent in the farmer and environment of FTLRP.

Available markets for agricultural products, animal husbandry and ancillary services are organised to match the supply side of the economy, though pricing mechanisms remain hampered by unpredictable economic climate. However, in conclusion, there is need to complement the entrepreneurial efforts being made to harness the gains already achieved by FTLRP beneficiaries in supplying local and export markets.

8.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings, this study makes the following recommendations:

- There is need for greater land use with increased hectarage through more intensive farming options with specialisation of selected crops that will fetch bigger margins of return on investment and farmers enjoying economies of scale. There is also need for increased output of a specialised product that fetches high market prices during a farming season.
- FTLRP beneficiaries must focus on produce that are in demand to avoid incurring losses during a farming season. FTLRP beneficiaries should diversify agro-based businesses to avoid over-reliance on one product. Multiple sources of income can also be generated. This is important so that they can hedge against seasons when prices are depressed in the market.
- FTLRP beneficiaries must be members of an organised farming association that they benefit from critical information given to members on the situation prevailing in the industry in which they belong. Such membership while being subscribed, offers benefits that far outweigh affiliation costs. Information is disseminated faster through these associations and use of current technology using social media groups, (WhatsApp, Twitter and Facebook). These bodies can also collectively lobby stakeholders like government, banks and markets to be responsive to FTLRP farmers' interests.
- Government should help establish and regulate consistent markets as they are key to agro-business entrepreneurship. This can eliminate the use of middle men who procure products at very low prices and then resale at rip off prices to the detriment of farm beneficiaries. This has trapped many FTLRP farmers and exposed them to vicious cycles of poverty.

- FTLRP has brought in agro-based opportunities to farmers in Zimbabwe. It is an enabling variable to developing agro-business entrepreneurship culture in the nation. These opportunities must be viewed through agro-business perspectives instead of being politicised, especially by government.
- Government must restructure the land tenure issue and be able to give title deeds to FTLRP beneficiaries that unlock value, energy and entrepreneurship focus. Government should improve tenure security on the farms which can allow farmers individually to access loans to improve their farming activities thereby weaning them from being dependent on continued government support, thus making them self-sustainable. This allows them to borrow from the financial markets and use land as collateral security.
- FTLRP beneficiaries must be informed through government extension services of the market trends of prices and demand condition of different farm products that they be able to timeously supply when the prices are high.
- FTLRP beneficiaries should continuously seek training and development in areas where they have insufficient skills and knowledge. Such on-site training, workshop attendance, field visits and annual agricultural shows in their community, province and the nation are critical to improving their required agro-business expertise.
- Government should promote and arrange partnership agreement with close allies like China and Russia in order to mobilise finances for agro-based entrepreneurship. Diversity in sources of finance for the FTLRP beneficiaries is needed with modifications of collateral security to harness what the farmers have. Government should guarantee farmers to access funding at least cost. Greater mobilisation of financial resources by government and development partners is needed so that there are diverse sources of funding created for the support of agro-based entrepreneurship process. For example, a special vehicle fund where farmers can access loans without need for collateral.
- Contract farming and partnerships can help raise funds for farming outside government resources and therefore alleviate pressure on government.
- Government should enact appropriate legislative provisions and administrative laws for land ownership dispute management, land registration, lease management and land use options that assist in stimulating agro-business entrepreneurship among FTLRP beneficiaries.

- An effective farmer support system is needed that includes engagement with development partners, farmer to farmer collaboration initiatives, farm advisory services of private and public organisations, as well as, farm business management services partners.

8.5 Areas of further study

The study focus was entrepreneurship opportunities in the FTLRP of Zimbabwe in Marondera district. The area is significant in revealing the way Zimbabwe tackled its land reform programme. The research revealed that agro-based entrepreneurship opportunities are inherent in the FTLRP reforms, while notable challenges were discovered in its implementation as revealed in the study findings. The pursuit of tooling and eventually evolving FTLRP beneficiaries to commercial farmers is a required policy effort for government, development partners and FTLRP beneficiaries. Regardless of the challenges and impediments for their uplifting to higher productivity strata, it is to the benefit of the whole economy and Zimbabweans at large. Hence, new research should be geared to uplift this entrepreneurship opportunity to a higher level by including selected districts to be drawn from the ten geographical provinces of Zimbabwe to allow the generalisability of extant findings.

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Appendix 1: Structured questionnaire

Dear valued respondent

I am a student at University of South Africa, studying a doctor of philosophy degree and conducting a thesis entitled: “*An assessment of Agro-based Entrepreneurship Opportunities in the Fast Track Land Reform Programme in Marondera District, Zimbabwe.*”

I am therefore kindly requesting you to assist by answering this survey questionnaire. Your responses will be kept as confidential since the study is solely for academic (educational) purposes only.

For purposes of this study, the following definitions should assist you in answering the questionnaire:

Instructions

Kindly **tick or mark (X)** your responses in the relevant spaces provided. Your name or any other form of identification is not required.

- **Agro-based Entrepreneurship** refers to how farmers use creative ways of improving the quality and quantity of agricultural produce by utilising the piece of land given through the government of Zimbabwe land reform Programme which has been in place since 2000.
- **Opportunities** refer to the environment or set of circumstances that make it possible for farmers to utilise their land for productive purposes.

Yours faithfully

Vincent Murwira

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHICS

Gender: Male Female

Age Range (years): Below 25: 25-30 31- 40
 41-50 Above 50

Education Level attained: Ordinary level Advanced level
 Certificate/Diploma Bachelor’s Degree Post graduate degree
 Other specify.....

Years of farming at current land Below 3 years 3-5 years
 6 – 10 years 11 – 20 years above 20 years

SECTION B: KEY DRIVERS OF AGRO-BASED ENTERPRENUERSHIP

1. Indicate the major key driver of agro-based entrepreneurship from the following

Driver	Tick or an X
Market centricity	
Leadership	
People centricity	
Operations technology	
Finance	

1.2 Indicate the agro-business entrepreneurship market that you are in

Market	Tick or an X
Subsistence	
Local markets	
Export markets	

2. Give the major source of funding for your business?

Source	Tick or an X
Own/Business savings	
Bank loans	
Export markets	

3. Indicate if you had entrepreneurial skills when you were allocated a piece of land (farm)

Level of skills	Tick or an X
Skilled (yes)	
None (No)	

SECTION C: OBSTACLES AND BEST PRACTICES OF AGRO-BASED ENTREPRENEURSHIP

1. What is the nature of your agro business?

Nature/Type of business	Tick or an X
Primary	
Semi-processed	
Finished	

2. In terms of performance of agro-based business after the land reform, what is your comment?

Comment	Tick or an X
Poor (not good)	
Good	
Very good	

3. Identify the major obstacles (barriers) hindering agro-based entrepreneurship.

Obstacle (barrier/constraint)	Tick or an X
Agro-based entrepreneurship	
Political/institutional factors	
Financial environment factors	
Land reform and human capital factors	
Land reform and government factors	

SECTION D: POLICIES AND INSTITUTIONS THAT PROMOTE AGRO-BASED ENTREPRENEURSHIP

1. Rate the following policies on their impact of agro-based business in Zimbabwe? Indicate whether there is positive or negative impact.
2. Indicate which aspects of business were adversely affected by the above policies and programmes? (LRP, ZIMPREST, MERP, NERP, ZIMASSET, BACOSI and NERP)

Business aspect	Tick or an X
Cash flow performance	
Risk and uncertainty	

Employee performance	
Compliance issues	
Other- specify.....	

3. To what extent does each of the following institutions or groups positively contribute towards economic success?

Group/Institution	Tick or an X
Government	
Farmers union	
Ministry of Agriculture and Lands	
Veterinary services	
Banks and financial institutions	

Thanks for your invaluable input and unwavering support

The End

Appendix 2: Interview guide (unstructured)

Answer the questions to the best of your knowledge

Section A: Key drivers of agro-based entrepreneurship

1. What is the major key driver of agro-based entrepreneurship?
2. Indicate the agro-business entrepreneurship market that you are in.
3. What is the major source of funding of your business?
4. Indicate if you had entrepreneurial skills when you were allocated a piece of land (farm)?

Section B: Obstacles and best practices of agro-based entrepreneurship

1. What is the nature of your agro business?
2. In terms of performance of agro-based business after the land reform, what is your general comment?
3. Which are the major obstacles (barriers) hindering agro-based entrepreneurship?

Section C: Policies and institutions that promote agro-based entrepreneurship

1. How do you rate the following policies on their impact on agro-based business in Zimbabwe?
Explain whether there has been positive or negative impact?
 - Land Reform Programme (LRP)
 - Zimbabwe Programme for Economics and Social Transformation (ZIMPREST)
 - Millennium Economic Recovery (MERP)
 - National Economic Revival Programme (NERP)
 - Zimbabwe Agenda For Sustainable Social Economic Transformation (ZIMASSET)
 - Basic Commodities Supply Side Intervention (BACOSSSI)
 - National Economic Revival Programme (NERP)
2. Which aspects of business were adversely affected by the above policies and Programmes (LRP, ZIMPREST, MERP, NERP, ZIMASSET, BACOSSSI and NERP)?
3. To what extent does each of the following institutions or groups positively contribute towards economic success?
 - Government
 - Farmers union
 - Ministry of Agriculture and Lands
 - Veterinary services
 - Banks and financial institutions

Appendix 3: Focus Group Discussion guide (unstructured)

2 groups of 7-10 participants discussed the following questions based on each objective

1. Drivers of agro-based entrepreneurship

- What could you say are the major key drivers of agro-based entrepreneurship?
- Indicate the type of production and market that you are in.
- What can you say is the major source of funding of your business?
- What entrepreneurial skills did any of you have when you were allocated a piece of land (farm)?

2. Obstacles and best practices of agro-based entrepreneurship

- What is the nature of your businesses?
- How much is your land size?
- In terms of performance of your farming activities and business after the land reform, what is your general comment?
- Which are the major obstacles (barriers) hindering your farming business?

3. Policies and institutions that promote agro-based entrepreneurship

- Which periods after the land reform programmes could you say were good and those that were bad for your business? (These shall be related to the policies by government such as LRP, ZIMPREST, MERP, NERP, ZIMASSET, BACOSI and NERP)
- Which business aspects were affected by government policies in agriculture industry?

Appendix 4: Permission from the Ministry to conduct research/study

All correspondence should be addressed to

“THE SECRETARY”

Telephone: 706081/9
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Telex: ZIM AGRIC: 22455 ZW



**MINISTRY OF LANDS,
AGRICULTURE, FISHERIES,
WATER AND RURAL
RESETTLEMENTS**
Ngungunyana Building
1, Borrowdale Road
Private Bag 7701
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Harare

Ref: Academic Research/ Vincent Murwira

Vincent Murwira
9497 Chipukutu Park
RUWA

23 June 2021

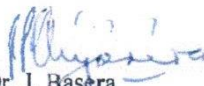
REQUEST FOR AUTHORITY TO UNDERTAKE FIELD RESEARCH ARTICLE: “AGRO-BASED ENTREPRENEURIAL OPPORTUNITIES IN THE FAST TRACK LAND REFORM PROGRAMME IN MARONDERA DISTRICT”: UNISA

The above matter refers.

It is my pleasure to advise you that your application requesting to undertake a field research on “*Agro-Based Entrepreneurial Opportunities in the Fast Track Land Reform Programme in Marondera District*” has been approved.

However, please be advised that the research findings that you will undertake should not be subjected to external consumption and must solely be for use by yourself and your learning institution. In addition, upon completion of the research interviews and production of the research article, the Office of the Secretary for this Ministry would be grateful to being favoured with a copy of the article.

It is our hope that your research findings will be a reference point which will help the Ministry in coming up with strategic interventions and actions in the study areas you would have undertaken.


Dr. J. Basera
SECRETARY FOR LANDS, AGRICULTURE, FISHERIES, WATER AND RURAL RESETTLEMENT

