

## EMPIRICAL STUDY ON THE FAST TRACK LAND REFORM PROGRAM (FTLRP) AND HOUSEHOLD FOOD SECURITY IN ZIMBABWE

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### ABSTRACT

In Zimbabwe, food security had been at the centre of all its developmental goals and strategies since independence in 1980. The first Millennium Development Goal (MDG) is to halve the proportion of people living on less than US\$1 a day and those who suffer from hunger before 2015. Therefore, the aim of this study is to determine the relationship between the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP) and household food security in Zimbabwe. A total of one hundred and forty four respondents were used for the study. Questionnaires were used; Descriptive and Inferential Statistics were also used in analyzing the data. Findings indicated that there was a strong positive relationship between FTLRP and household food security. Recommendations included the diversification of the economy and entrepreneurial policies be put in place to improve people's disposable income so that Model A1 households are able to access food in the event of extreme drought.

**Keywords:** Fast Track Land Reform (FTLRP), Household Food Security and Zimbabwe.

### INTRODUCTION

Land reform has been a recurring theme of enormous consequence in world history and food security is one of the primary goals of enhancing agricultural productivity and is also at the heart of sustainable development in the modern world; in the aftermath of colonialism and the Industrial Revolution, land reform has occurred around the world, from the Mexican Revolution of 1917, Communist China, 1952, Bolivia in 2006 and in Zimbabwe in the year 2000. Land reform (Moyo, 2010) had been especially popular as part of decolonization struggles in Africa and the Arab world, where it was part of the program for African socialism and Arab nationalism.

In Europe for instance, Albania has gone through three waves of land reform since the end of World War II in 1946 the land in estates and large farms was expropriated by the communist government and redistributed among small peasants; in the 1950s the land was reorganized into large-scale collective farms; and after 1991 the land was again redistributed among private smallholders. At the end of World War II, the farm structure in Albania was characterized by high concentration of land in large farms (Theron, 2011).

In Middle East and North Africa, The Ottoman Land Code of 1858 was the beginning of a systematic land reform programme in Ottoman during the latter half of the 19th Century, with the overall aims of increasing state revenue generated from land and for the state to be able to have greater control over individual plots of land. This was followed by the 1873 Land Emancipation Act. In Iran, land reform took place under the Shah as part of the socio-economic reforms of the White Revolution, begun in 1962 (Theron, 2011).

In South Africa, Land restitution was one of the promises made by the African National Congress when it came to power in South Africa in 1994 (Chitsike, 2003). The Land Reform Process focused on three areas: restitution, land tenure reform and land redistribution. Restitution, where the government compensates individuals who had been forcefully removed, has been very unsuccessful and the policy has now shifted to redistribution with secure land tenure. Land tenure reform is a system of recognizing people's right to own land and therefore control of the land. Redistribution is the most important component of land reform in South Africa. Initially, land was bought from its owners (willing seller) by the government (willing buyer) and redistributed, in order to maintain public confidence in the land market (Chitsike, 2003).

According to (Musemwa, et al, 2011), the first Millennium Development Goal is to halve the proportion of people living on less than US\$1 a day and those who suffer from hunger before 2015. In Zimbabwe, food security has been at the centre of all development goals and strategies since independence in 1980, Zimbabwe inherited an agricultural sector characterised by duality and a racially skewed land ownership pattern. Zimbabwe's land reform and resettlement programme can be classified into two broad phases.

The first stretched from 1980 to 1997 and was based on a willing-seller/willing-buyer approach in line with the government's policy of national reconciliation and the restrictive Lancaster House Constitution. However, in 1997 the government of Zimbabwe initiated a process of radical land reform premised on extensive compulsory land acquisition and redistribution (Moyo, 2006). This marked the start of the second phase of the programme. The Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP), which was officially launched in July 2000 as part of the second phase.

The FTLRP primary objective was to accelerate both land acquisition and redistribution. The implementation mechanisms of the FTLRP are to speed up the identification of not less than five million hectares of land for compulsory acquisition for resettlement (Moyo, 2006). Compulsory acquisition was largely to be made from white commercial farmers, private companies and absentee landlords. The programme comprises two models: Model A1 is intended to decongest communal areas and is targeted at land-constrained farmers in communal areas. This model is based on existing communal area organisation whereby peasants produce mainly for subsistence. Model A2, on the other hand, is a commercial settlement scheme comprising small, medium and large-scale commercial settlements intended to create a cadre of black commercial farmers (Moyo, 2006).

However, the once thriving Zimbabwe agriculture lost its position as once the bread basket for Southern Africa. From a net exporter of maize to a net importer, Zimbabwe agriculture plunged into mourning. On the fiscal review of 2011, the then Minister for Finance Mr. Biti indicated that the mining sector in Zimbabwe had contributed a significant 65% of the national exports for the country and had surpassed other sectors like agriculture and manufacturing (Moyo, 2010).

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP)**

In Europe, Albania has gone through three waves of land reform since the end of World War II; the land in estates and large farms was expropriated by the communist government and redistributed among small peasants; in the 1950s the land was reorganized into large-scale

collective farms; and after 1991 the land was again redistributed among private smallholders (Scoones, et al, 2011).

The centrality of land in human life, making it the main reason for the struggle for Kenya's independence from British colonial rule, the complexity of the laws governing land ownership in Kenya, and the historical genesis of how these laws were applied to different parts of Kenya, the abuse of existing land laws and other state powers that have allowed the irregular allocation (grabbing) of public land to a favoured and privileged few and the disorganization, mismanagement and corruption at the Ministry of Lands headquarters and the various District Land Offices in the country (Owens, 2005).

Efforts at land reform in Zimbabwe under President Mugabe moved, after 15 years, in the 1990s, from a willing seller, willing buyer approach to the FTLRP. This was accelerated by popular seizure led by war veterans associated with the ruling party (Scoones, et al, 2011). FTLRP was designed to be undertaken in an accelerated manner relying on domestic resources. The Programme was a fundamental departure from previous philosophy, practices and procedures of acquiring land and resettling people (Moyo, 2006).

However, those disadvantaged by the FTLRP are landless farm workers: large numbers of farm workers have been laid off from paid work; yet farm workers have not been among the groups targeted to benefit from land reallocations (Scoones, et al, 2011).

### **Household Food Security**

According to Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO, 1983), food security is a multifaceted concept, variously defined and interpreted. At one end of the spectrum, food security implies the availability of adequate supplies of food at a global and national level while at the other end it is concerned with adequate nutrition and well being.

Food security can be defined in terms of three dimensions: food availability, food access, and utilisation. According to Young and Jaspars (1995), food availability is a situation whereby food is physically available as a result of local production, processing, or importation, for example food availability in the markets and shops, its production on local farms or its availability as part of food aid. Sen (1981) adds that food availability can be affected by disruptions to the food transport and production systems, due to blocked roads, failed crops or changes in import and export tariffs, amongst other factors.

According to Scoones et al, (2011), the Commercial Farmers Union estimated that close to 250,000 head of cattle (nearly 20 percent of the national commercial herd) had been forcibly destocked by late 2001, and that over 1.6 million hectares of grazing land had been burnt out, while commercial maize planting was down to 45,000 hectares from 150,000 hectares in the 1999/2000 season (Napoli 2011).

The situation in Zimbabwe has become more complex, because even those with entitlements have been failing to access food on the markets, while food production declined substantially during the FTLRP period for various reasons. Zikhali (2008) explained the production differences mainly as a result of access to better quality soils and high levels of input use and better input combinations in resettled areas than in communal areas. Zikhali (2008) acknowledges that the Fast Track Resettlement Program replaced mostly experienced farmers with inexperienced farmers who were subsistence oriented. These beneficiaries lacked the

necessary agricultural skills required to achieve meaningful production and that the necessary extension services required were limited due to capacity challenges faced by the country.

### **Effects of FTLRP on Household Food Security**

The Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP) carried out in Zimbabwe, between 2000 and 2002 is considered to be a radical effort at pro-poor distribution of land. Arguably, the programme is said to have addressed, to some extent, the country's worrisome legacy of historic land injustice and social and racial inequities and broadened the base of economic participation (Moyo, 2006).

Several scholars (Marongwe, et al, 2003) have studied directly the ways in which food security is linked to access to land. Access to land determines access to other critical resources such as food, water and wildlife. Therefore, land reforms can be viewed as being a critical strategy that will facilitate not only access to land by the landless but also access to food. Land, land tenure and food security are linked so as to comprise a dynamic system in which decisions about production, marketing, consumption and investment generation are driven by structural changes over time in the distribution of land.

A range of studies by Deninger and Squire (1998) show that in situations with an equitable distribution of land, agricultural growth can be powerfully pro-poor. A more egalitarian land reform not only leads to higher economic growth but also helps to ensure that any economic growth that is achieved is more beneficial to the poor. In instances where countries have had an inequitable distribution of land, agricultural growth has tended to be less pro-poor. Examples of these incidences include South Africa, Zimbabwe and Namibia, and many parts of Latin America (UNECA, 2004). The most apparent qualitative link that these studies suggest is that increased security of access to land enables more efficient and profitable agricultural production and hence greater access to food (UNECA, 2004). Where land and food are explicitly conceptualised together, they generally fall within a linear framework that begins with access to land and proceeds casually through production, income generation, and consumption to food security (Maxwell and Wiebe, 1999).

Napoli (2011) is in view that it has interfered with judicial independence, in particular by forcing resignations from the Supreme Court, after the court ruled the FTLRP unconstitutional, and replacing judges with individuals perceived to be loyal to the ruling party. The new court accepted the government's arguments that the rule of law had been restored to land reform by legislation attempting to retroactively validate occupations carried out in violation of legal procedures.

The FTLRP has thus violated rights to equal protection of the law, non-discrimination, and due process (Human Rights Watch, 2002). The violence accompanying land occupations has created fear and insecurity on white-owned commercial farms, in black communal areas, and in fast track resettled areas, and threatens to destabilize food security of the entire Zimbabwean countryside.

### **Theoretical Framework**

Government of Zimbabwe embarked on FTLRP in July 2000, and was designed to be undertaken in an accelerated manner relying on domestic resources. Land reform has been a source of political conflict in Zimbabwe since colonization, when the country was known as

Rhodesia. Under British colonial rule and under the white minority government that in 1965 unilaterally declared its independence (UDI) from Britain, white Rhodesians seized control of the vast majority of good agricultural land, leaving black peasants to scrape a living from marginal tribal reserves. An end to white minority rule came after a protracted war of liberation in which land was a major issue, but was ultimately negotiated through talks brokered by the British government that led to a settlement known as the Lancaster House Agreement (Frankenberger and Coyle, 1996).

The FTLRP carried out in Zimbabwe, between 2000 and 2002 is considered to be a radical effort at pro-poor distribution of land. Arguably, the programme is said to have addressed, to some extent, the country's worrisome legacy of historic injustice and social and racial inequities and broadened the base of economic participation (Moyo, 2004). The most important commodity contributing to food security in Zimbabwe is maize which is the staple food for the overwhelming majority of the people. This commodity is followed in a distant second place by wheat which is consumed mostly by urban dwellers. It can be said that the annual output of both of them have a very direct impact on the food security status each year. Regarding maize, in non-drought years more than half the crop has traditionally been grown by small scale farmers both pre- and post the onset of the FTLRP (Musemwa, 2011) According to Musemwa, et al (2011), Zimbabwe's gross domestic product (GDP) has shrunk to less than half the size it was in 1998. FTLRP has played a very substantial part in inducing the contraction because of reductions in commercial farm output. The non-servicing of debts and the erosion of property rights have kept investors away.

## METHODOLOGY

### Research Design

The research was conducted using quantitative research method. Correlational design was used which refers to a statistical technique which show whether and how strongly pairs of variables are connected (Creswell, 2008). Generally, a correlational design is used to describe the statistical association between two or more variables – FTLRP being Independent variable ( $X_2$  and  $X_3$ ) and Household Food Security being the Dependent variable ( $X_2$ ).

$$X_1 = a + bX_2 + bX_3 + X_4$$

Where:

$$X_1 = \text{FTLRP}$$

$$X_2 = \text{Food security}$$

$$X_3 = \text{Livelihood}$$

$$X_4 = \text{Success}$$

$$a \text{ and } b = \text{Regression Coefficients}$$

### Data Analysis

Data collected for the study was coded and analysed using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS). Quantitative techniques used included both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics used included mean and inferential statistics used were Pearson Correlation, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Simple regression. The advantage of using these inferential statistics is that they permit the researchers to analyze relationships among a number of variables in a single study (Gall and Borg, 1996).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

### Descriptive Statistics

The respondents when asked about the soil fertility, rainfall pattern, accessibility of the plot and beneficiaries of the FTLRP. The responses were on a four point likert scale coded tables.

Table: 1: Mean and Standard Deviation of Respondents

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Fertility of the plot ( $X_4$ )	3.125	0.938
Rainfall pattern ( $X_5$ )	2.918	0.522
Accessibility ( $X_6$ )	2.889	0.337
Benefits ( $X_7$ )	1.910	0.288

Source: data from the filed 2014

From the coding tables it can be concluded that:

$X_4$  with a mean of 3.125, suggesting that the plots of land are **very fertile**

$X_5$  with a mean of 2.918, suggesting that the rainfall pattern in their area is **good**

$X_6$  with a mean of 2.889, indicating that the plots are **accessible**

$X_7$  with a mean of 1.910, suggesting that the people are **benefiting** from FTLRP

## 4.2 Inferential Statistics

### 4.2.1 Linear Multiple Correlation

Linear multiple correlation was used to analyze the data to establish the extent to which the independent variables ( $X_2$ ,  $X_3$  and  $X_4$ ) affect the dependent variable ( $X_1$ ). The correlation coefficient ranges from -1.0 to +1.0 that means a correlation can be positive or negative. A higher absolute value of correlation coefficient indicates a close relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable, while a small value indicates a less definite relationship.

Table 2: Correlation between the Variables

	Food Security $X_2$	Livelihood $X_3$	Success $X_4$
<b>Food security (<math>X_2</math>)</b>			
<b>Pearson Correlation</b>	1		
<b>Sig</b>	-		
<b>Livelihood (<math>X_3</math>)</b>			
<b>Pearson Correlation</b>	0.197*	1	
<b>Sig</b>	0.18		
<b>Success <math>X_4</math></b>			
<b>Pearson Correlation</b>	0.337**	0.302**	1
<b>Sig</b>	0.000	0.000	

\* Correlation significant at 0.05 in a two tailed test

\*\* Correlation significant at 0.01 in a two tailed test

From table 2 above:  $X_2$ ,  $X_3$  and  $X_4$  where highly correlated to  $X_1$  (FTLRP), the highest correlation is between  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ . The correlation was 0.337 and it was significant at 0.05

levels in a two tailed test. This can be interpreted that, the most important factor that can lead to FTLRP in Zimbabwe is food security. Other factors that lead to the FTLRP in Zimbabwe is  $X_3$  (livelihood) and  $X_4$  (success). It was clear that there was a strong positive correlation between each variable and the FTLRP. Conversely, any reduction in the FTLRP will also have a negative impact on the variables in question

The result from this study was in tandem with that of Chitsike (2003) there is a direct link between poverty reduction and land reform and issues of household poverty reduction cannot be curtailed without addressing land issues. The Land Reform Program can therefore be used as a policy to ensure food security and eradicate poverty. Most of the resettled (Model A1) farmers indicated that they never experienced food shortages and that also improved their livelihoods.

## CONCLUSIONS

There is a strong positive relationship between the FTLRP and Food Security in Model A1 Resettlement scheme. The study shows that the land reform programme has a positive impact on household food security through the provision of larger pieces of more fertile lands in better agro-ecological regions. This has managed to expand livelihood options and ensured better yields that guarantee better access and availability of food to its beneficiaries. Diversification of the economy by the government is very important and policies for income generating projects and employment should be put in place to improve people's disposable income so that Model A1 households are able to access food in the event of extreme drought.

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