

THE EFFECTS OF LAND REFORM ON THE AGRICULTURE RETAILING INDUSTRIAL SECTOR IN ZIMBABWE: A CASE STUDY OF FARM AND CITY CENTRE

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ABSTRACT

The land distribution in Zimbabwe after colonization was well inclined to the white settlers and the black majorities were driven to stay in reserves, that were meant to disempower people and unfortunately these areas were infertile and this was part of the plan by whites to control blacks which later led to land reform. This was followed by a drop in the economic performance of the country, as the agricultural productivity was heavily affected and the manufacturing sector reduced productivity and the whole economy shrunk and this affected employment levels. As stated above, the effects of land reform were not just felt in agricultural sector only but in several sectors such as retailing sector in general and agriculture retailing sector in particular. Thus, this study was aimed at ascertaining the impact of the land reform program on the agricultural retailing sector in Zimbabwe. This was achieved through the use of interpretivism research approach, which relies on subjective understanding of and intervention with reality. This position is described as anti- positivist but views it as post- positivist since it is asserted that there is fundamental difference between the subject matters of natural and social sciences. The results show that there is need for retailers in the agricultural retailing sector to get into strategic alliances with suppliers in order to survive and grow in the current competitive economy. In addition, agricultural retailers should work with agricultural contractors who will offer farmers with financial assistance each farming season as outsourcing finance is a good alternative for getting assistance. Conclusively, the increase in the financing of farmers will increase sales in the agricultural retailing sector resulting in the resuscitation of the sector, which will have a positive knock effect on the Zimbabwean economy.

KEYWORDS: Unequal Land Distribution, Land Reform, Land Rights, Property Rights, Black Majority, Second Chimurenga, Independence, Agriculture Sector, Agricultural Productivity, Agricultural Retailing

INTRODUCTION

Zimbabwe is well known across the world for having carried out a divisive land reform exercise which was chaotic and resulted in the collapse of the Zimbabwean economy (Paulo, 2004; Scoones et al, 2011). This came as a result of unequal distribution of land by the British, when they colonized the country in 1890, which left the black majority struggling as they were stripped of their mining and land rights whilst whites were enjoying the benefits of the Zimbabwean resources (Herbst, 1987; Paulo, 2004; Masilela and Weiner, 1996; Debale et al, 2014). The tension between the blacks and whites resulted in the first and second Chimurenga wars which were aimed at having a controlling stake by black majority on the economy drivers of the country (Chitsike, 2003). The fighting at the end led to the independence in 1980 of Zimbabwe (Juana, 2004; Rukuni, 2006; De Villiers, 2003). As suggested by Juana (2006) after independence,

the land redistribution program was aimed at decongesting the communal lands in addition to poverty alleviation but surprisingly this was followed by a drop in the economic performance of the country (Ghatak and Roy, 2007; Deininger et al, 2002; Richardson, 2004), as the agricultural productivity was heavily affected (Mutondi, 2012) and the manufacturing sector reduced productivity and the whole economy shrunk by 15% by 2003 (Chitiga and Mabugu, 2008; Richardson, 2004). In addition, this program also affected employment levels, because prior to the fast track land reform program, the agricultural sector employed more than 70 percent of the labor force (Chitiga and Mabugu, 2008; FAO, 2006). As stated above, the effects of land reform were not just felt in agricultural sector only but in several sectors such as retailing sector in general and agriculture retailing sector in particular. Thus, this study aims to ascertain the impact of the land reform program on the retail sector in Zimbabwe with specific reference to agricultural retailing sector also known as the agribusiness sector. In addition, the study aims to determine the current performance of the agricultural retailing sector in Zimbabwe.

Background of the Study

The land distribution in Zimbabwe after colonization was well inclined to the white settlers (Christodolou, 1990) who were only 3% of the total population yet controlled 51% of the land leaving 49% of the land to 97% of the population (Mutasa, 2015; Palmer and Hermemann, 1997). The black majority were driven to stay in reserves (Herbst, 1987; Paulo, 2004) that were meant to disempower people (Utete, 2003). These areas were degraded and infertile (Dabale et al, 2014; Mutasa, 2015) and this was part of the plan by whites to control blacks (Sullins, 1991) which later led to land reform (Chitsike, 2003).

What is Land Reform

Land reform is defined by Griffin et al (2002) as the establishment of communal forms of farming, state sponsored land tenure reforms involving agreements between the land owners and those who are to cultivate the land. Another generally accepted definition of land reform is the redistribution of property rights in land (Griffin et al, 2002; Boyce et al, 2005).

The History of land Reform in Zimbabwe

In summary, the land reform programme in Zimbabwe can be referred to as the transferring of land from a minority white farming group to blacks (Moyo, 1995). Land reform is viewed as a changing political event, a reallocation of wealth (assets), effected only by political means (Griffin et al, 2002). Land reform went through four different phases (Mutasa, 2015).

The Arrival of Whites and the Starting of Colonization Period (1890-1930)

Land reform originated from the process that shaped imbalanced land tenure and social classes, which is colonization and having control over land was key to the exercise of colonial command (Christodoulou, 1990). In 1893 Zimbabwe was colonised by the whites, leaving the black majority without control over the land they used own. The Ndebele Kingdom was the first and then the Shona. By 1914, white settlers, numbering 23 730 owned 19 032 320 acres of land whilst an estimated 752 000 Africans occupied a total of 21 390 080 acres of land (Palmer and Heinemann, 1977; Mutasa 2015). By 1910 the whites had claimed approximately 23% of land while allocating only 26% to blacks as native reserves (Herbst 1987; Paul, 2004). With these land acquisitions, the pre-1920 period can be referred to as the land hostility period, which was branded by expropriation of land and mining rights (Masilela and Weiner, 1996). This led to the

formation of the Gwaai and Shangani reserves (Paulo, 2004). This was a move to drive Zimbabweans into infertile lands which were barely habitable (Mutasa, 2015). Sullins (1991) suggest that the reserves were aimed at providing the whites with labour for mining and farming. The rights of Zimbabweans were violated continuously in these reserves (Utete, 2003). During the period 1896-1897 the Shona and the Ndebele started the first Chimurenga which later gave birth to the second Chimurenga and these are the collective efforts that led to Zimbabwe being independent in 1980 (De Villiers, 2003).

The Introduction of Land Apportionment act Period (1931-1976)

In 1930 the whites introduced a Land apportionment act that legally enforced the de facto land stratification which stated that 51% of the country was for whites only (Mutasa, 2015). This left the blacks with 22% of the land as the other 27% was set aside for wildlife and forestry as stated in the table below.

Table 1: Racial Distribution of Land by Settler Government in 1930

Category	Acres	% of the country
European areas	49 149 174	51
Native reserves	21 127 040	22
Unassigned areas	17 793 300	18.5
Native purchase areas	7 464 566	7.8
Forestry areas	590 500	0.6
Undetermined areas	88 540	0.1
Total	96 213 120	100

Source: Palmer (1977)

This led to the overcrowding and overstocking in the reserves, which resulted in people being unable to meet their expenses (Moyana, 1984). Another hindrance to production by the blacks was the introduction of Maize Control Act and the Cattle Levy Act (PCA, 1980) which limited the marketing outlets for blacks. A cattle levy act was also introduced to limit the number of cattle owned by an individual (Masilela and Weiner, 1996). Overcrowding in these reserves also led to severe land degradation of the native areas, resulting in the foundation of The African Land Husbandry Act of 1951 (Sullins, 1991). The land degradation continued in these areas as there was pressure on the land itself, more children were being born and some maturing requiring their own land. The government at the time responded by enacting the Tribal Trust Land Act and this act was effective from 1969 to 1970 (Paulo, 2004). Land issues were always at the centre of most activities like the bush wars of the late 1960s and 1970s, which were fought on the basis of attaining political power and also to ascertain a return on the land (De Villiers, 2003). The only achievement of The Tribal Trust Land Act was to rename native reserves to Tribal Trust Lands (TTLS) where customary power regained authority to allocate land (Masilela and Weiner, 1996).

The Introduction of Land Tenure Amendment Act Period (1977-1980)

In 1977 there was a Land Tenure Amendment Act that was later developed into The Tenure Repeal Act of 1978. This led to the rural resettlement policy at independence in 1980 (PCA, 1980: Paulo, 2004). This can be termed as the land reform program.

Post-Independence: Phase One- Market System Period (1980-1990)

This period lasted from 1980-1990. The beginning of this phase was marked by the negotiations that took place at Lancaster House in Britain (Paulo, 2004). Attendants to the negotiations included representatives of the following groups; Rhodesian government, United National African Congress (UANAC), Zimbabwean African National Union Patriotic Front (ZANU PF) (Moyo, 1995). The participants like UANAC and Rhodesian government did the negotiations in bad faith as they intended to secure relationships (Surplus People Project, 1992). The constitution that was formed at these talks handicapped the land reform as it emphasized on a willing buyer willing seller exchange (Paulo, 2004), yet the thrust of the government was to depopulate the crowded areas and assist the poor with land. The task was massive as there was need for great financing to put the needed infrastructure in place, for example clinics, schools, water points, roads and veterinary services (UNICEF, 1994). During this phase land was exchanged on the basis of a willing buyer willing seller, which saw middle class Zimbabweans being able to move to commercial farms within white farming areas (Moyo, 1995). The government was able to resettle 75 000 people out of the targeted 162 000 on 2.6 million hectares of land against the targeted 8.3 million hectares (Mutasa, 2015). The greatest challenge that was being faced was the unwillingness of white commercial farmers to sell their land at reasonable prices. The government admitted that the resettlement programme was a depressing disappointment (Surplus People Project, 1992).

Phase Two- Compulsory Acquisitions (1991-1998)

The phase aimed at changing previous understandings of the land question and policies to resolve the then current problems of emerging market economy (Moyo, 2000). The period saw the introduction of the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) which was meant to rejuvenate the economy (Paulo, 2004), so the land issue was to be resolved without destabilising national employment, production and investor confidence (Moyo, 2000). In 1992 the government also introduced a Land Acquisition Act that enabled compulsory acquisition of land with little compensation to the land owner. This act was in line with the Land Acquisition Act of 1985 (Moyo, 2000). The second phase intended to resettle 110 000 families on 5 million hectares; to promote blacks in commercial farming through training and agricultural support services and to bring in land tax (Moyo, 1995). Three years after introducing the land policy the government also selected 90 and acquired 13 farms (Moyo, 1995). The slow pace at which the land reform policies were being implemented killed the foundation of the phase before it took off (Utete, 2003). As a result of this slow pace the government started receiving pressure on the speed in which they were executing the land reform (Paulo, 2004). Things were not getting better economically as ESAP was also a failure because it focused on one sector of agriculture which promoted racial and class conflicts within agriculture (Moyo, 1993). This phase was barely successful as it lacked funding. Donors like the British refused to offer funding stating corruption in the government resulting in the government going it alone without donor funding and paying for land expropriated by colonialists as a politically moral stance (Mutasa, 2015; Paulo, 2004; Moyo, 2000). As a result only 600 families were resettled during this phase (Mutasa, 2015).

Phase Three- Extrajudicial Land Acquisitions (1998-2000)

In the late 1990s Zimbabweans were tired of government fake promises of resettlement. Self-mobilised groups of war veterans started invading farms close to them. The government tried to intervene but realised that the public was in support of the land acquisitions. This phase marked a critical turn in the economic performance of the country as well as the political situation (Mutasa, 2015).

Phase Four- Fast Track Land Reform (FTLRP) (2000-Present)

In June 2000 the government legalised the land acquisitions and reinforced the practice by introducing the Rural Land occupiers Act (2001) which prevented the eviction of resettled farmers (Mutasa, 2015). The “Fast Track Land Resettlement Programme” was launched on 15 July 2000 and intended to be undertaken in an accelerated way with dependence on domestic resources (Utete, 2003; Dabale et al, 2014). The programme was a fundamental move away from previous viewpoint, practices and techniques of acquiring land and relocating people (Moyo, 2006). The FTLRP in Zimbabwe is the world’s most widespread state-sponsored redistributive land reform of the twenty-first century (Scoones et al, 2010). This stage was also termed third Chimurenga (Paulo, 2004). The reform had aims to provide limited basic infrastructure and planning demarcation of all acquired farms (Business Tribune, 2004). The farm invasions were spearheaded by war veterans targeting occupation of white owned farms (Paulo, 2004). This gave a hint of the political drive to the process as the war veterans were sympathizers of the ruling party (Zunga, 2003). Zikhali (2008) acknowledges that the Fast Track Resettlement Programme replaced mostly experienced farmers with inexperienced farmers who were subsistence oriented. The reform displaced about 5 000 or so farm owners owning 29% of Zimbabweans to leave about 400 who owned approximately 1% of the land (Derman, 2006; Chitsike 2003). The FTLRP brought about mixed feelings on the program and its executors. It is a known fact that the land issue has been the epicenter of Zimbabwe’s socio-political and economic struggles since colonial times and it is hardly disputable (Mutasa, 2015). Most beneficiaries in the FTLRP reflected social patterns of differentiation in terms of wealth, gender, social status and class. Moyo’s investigation pointed to urban households constituting about 13% of the beneficiaries even including in the A2 schemes reserved for people with resources and the ability to embark on farming with the least government support (Moyo, 2005). People from the town areas gained right to use up to 34% of resettlement land. Powerful people and the rich, including rural based business people, teachers, civil servants, political leaders and chiefs constituted about 10 percent of the beneficiaries in this group (Sachikonye, 2005; Marongwe, 2007). Unfortunately, the new farmers had no inputs and as a result production went down, the farmers were dependant on borrowing from a government that was theoretically bankrupt as there was very little agricultural input into the industry. This condition dried up foreign currency (Zunga, 2003). The table below shows the land that was redistributed at each stage;

Table 2: Distribution of Land Acquired to Beneficiaries

	Resettlement Phase	Number of Families	Area (Hectares)
First (1980-1998) and second phase (1992-1998)	Willing buyer willing seller combined with compulsory government acquisitions	71 000	3 498 444
Third phase (1998-2000)	Inception of the violent land acquisitions	4 697	168 264
Fourth phase (2000-2008)	FTLRP:A1 Module for smallholder schemes	145 775	4 137 085
	FTLRP: A2 Model for large scale commercial schemes	16 238	2 681 642
	Total	237 858	10 485 435

Source: Government of Zimbabwe, (2009).

Retailing

Retailing is the final delivery of the product to the final consumer personally (Nebard, 2011; Berman and Evans, 2001). The process is completed by several intermediaries that enables the transfer of goods produced from the producer to

the retailer. Consequently, a retailer is a person, agent, agency, company or organisation which is instrumental in reaching the goods, merchandise or services to the ultimate consumer. Furthermore, retailers perform specific activities such as anticipating customer wants, developing assortments of products, acquiring market information and financing (Berman and Evans, 2001). The common assumption is that retailing only sells goods in stores. However, retailing also refers to the sale of services like those offered in a restaurant, parlor, or by car rental agencies. Thus, in this study retailing encompasses selling through the mail, the internet, door-to-door visits or any channel that could be used to approach the consumer. In short, retailing has several theories as discussed below.

Theories of Retailing

These are philosophies which explain how different retail setups arise.

The wheel of Retailing

The retail wheel hypothesis stands out as a theory that best describes the evolution of retailing (McNair, 1957). The hypothesis holds that new types of retailers usually enter the market as low- status, low margin and low-price operators. Gradually the retailers acquire more elaborate establishments and facilities with both increased investments and higher operating costs. Finally they mature as high cost and vulnerable establishments (Hollander, 1960). McNair (1957) based his study on two strategic characteristics of the retailing industry. First there are no barriers to entry in this market, apart from state set of laws on the establishment of outlets; therefore a profitable originality can be quickly imitated by competitors (Das-Nair and Dube, 2015). Second, the potential for differentiation of a retail format are very limited as they lie in the management of the product variety, the relative price level, site and the outlet design (Wu et al, 2007).

The Environment Theory

For any given retailer to survive, it should evolve according to environmental needs or else might be pushed out of the business (Basi, 2014). The factors include changes of consumers, financial system, expertise, society, culture, legal framework and competitors (Blizzard, 1976: Brown, 1987). A practical change is in technology as the evolution in the sector will leave retail transactions a click away (Basi et al, 2014). Retailing in general is slightly different from agriculture retailing as discussed below.

Agriculture Retailing and Value Chain Analysis

Retailing in agriculture is a result of progressively more assorted and complicated consumer preferences (Matterson and Hunt, 2012). Responsiveness of the agricultural sector is usually seen by the growth in farmers' markets in a community. Agriculture retailing has relationships with many other sectors and can be the key to food security and improved economic welfare. This is supported by Pedzisai et al (2013) who link agriculture to many aspects of community development. Agriculture retailing can be said to have two separate market segments; urban agriculture and rural agriculture. Urban agriculture is said to have benefits which include poverty reduction, economic development and cost effective waste management (Pedzisai et al, 2011). A value chain refers to the full life cycle of a product or process, including material sourcing, production, consumption and disposal/recycling processes (WBCSD, 2011). However, all these activities describe the interactions of firms and processes that are needed to deliver products to end users (Ensign, 2001).

Retail Agriculture Value Chain

The value chain approach generally provides a framework to examine the nature and factors of competitiveness in value chains in which small farmers can participate (Rich et al, 2009). Nyoro (2007) stipulates that in Africa value chain players are driven more by desire to develop markets than by the profitability. Businesses have been using value chain analysis and execution principles for years to put together and put into practice competitive strategies (Webber and Labaste, 2009). Agriculture continues to be an essential tool for sustainable growth and poverty reduction (World Bank, 2008). Mucavele (2009) shares a similar view that value chain is very essential in encouraging agricultural development.

Research Methodology

The study adopted interpretivism research approach. It relies on subjective understanding of and intervention with reality (Lather, 2006; Flowers, 2009). This position is described by Hatch and Cunliffe (2006) as anti- positivist but Blaikie (1993) views it as post- positivist since it is asserted that there is fundamental difference between the subject matters of natural and social sciences. There are basically three variations on interpretivists which are conservative, critical and deconstructionist (Lather, 2005; Butler, 1998). In the social world it is argued that individuals make sense of situations based on their individual experience, memories and expectation (Yanou and Schwartz-Sher, 2011; Flowers, 2009). In this study, the focus is on getting different perceptions of the land reform from farmers as they had different experiences (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003; Willis, 2007). Furthermore, the study adopted the case study because the research design, according to Burns and Grove (2003) outlines for conducting a study with utmost control over issues that may interfere with the weight of the findings. In addition, case studies explore and investigates real life phenomena though analysis of a given number of situations as noted by Zainal (2009). The case study approach was implemented because there was need to answer the ‘what’ questions of the land reform and retailing sector. Yin (2003) and Stake (1995) agree to the use of a case study for an interpretivism approach to research as there is a belief that the truth is subjective. In addition, a case study method selects a small geographical area or a very limited number of individuals as the subjects of study. Furthermore, this technique is often used to narrow down a very broad field of research into one or a few easily researchable examples (Stake, 1995).

In this study, the population referred to all farmers (20 000) affected by the land reform and their retailer suppliers (136) and their AGRITEX officers (4500). In addition, the sample comprised of farmers from Mashonaland West. The sample also included branches of Farm and City and AGRITEX officers in the selected provinces. The specification of the sample used is a total of 200 A1 farmers, 190 A2 farmers, 50 AGRITEX officers and 10 Farm and City employees at branches in the stated provinces. Thus, data was collected using questionnaires and focus groups. The researcher ensured that the questionnaire was valid, reliable and unambiguous. The questionnaires had both unstructured and structured questions, these helped in getting diverse information. The structured questions had a two types; one to tick the necessary space and the other to tick were necessary on a likert scale ranging from strongly agree (SA) to strongly disagree (SD). The advantages of a questionnaire that were noted are; that its collects a lot of information while retaining privacy of respondents and also they are a time-efficient way of collecting data from many people A total of 450 questionnaires were issued out by the researcher. However the use of questionnaires presented a challenge as it was time consuming to distribute questionnaires to farmers that are located several kilometers apart. A focus group discussion allowed a group of 8 – 12 informants to freely discuss a certain subject with the guidance of a facilitator. The issues discussed at focus groups

included how the farmers were affected by the land reform, how they adjusted and how they wish the land reform would have been conducted, also if there were any changes in buying behaviours in the period pre and post Fast Track Land Reform Program (FTLRP). The researcher grouped the respondents as follows; commercial farmers, general farmers, Farm and City general staff and farm workers. The data was analysed using SPSS.

DATA ANALYSIS

The Importance of Land Reform

The land reform program proved to be an important event in the history of Zimbabwe as it resulted in two Chimurengas in an effort to gain control of the land (Chitsike, 2003).

Table 3: Land Reform as an Important Event

Land Reform was an Important Event			
		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	107	24.7
	Agree	211	49.1
	Neutral	50	11.6
	Disagree	56	13
	Strongly disagree	6	1.6
	Total		



Source: Authors

Figure 1: Line Graph: Land Reform as an Important Event

The importance of land reform was driven by the notion of equally distributing the land and hence empowering the local farmers thereby giving them buying power to support the agriculture retailing sector (Deigner et al, 2014).

Retailing and Land Reform

The research findings indicated that the respondents were in general agreement to the fact that the agricultural retailing sector was affected by the land reform. This is evidenced by the fact that 12.5% of the respondents strongly agreed, while 67.5% agreed to the fact that retailers were affected by land reform. However, 6.6% decided to stay neutral as they were not sure on the effects. The other 13% disagreed to the fact that the agricultural retailing sector was affected by the land reform with the remaining 0.4% strongly disagreeing. The supply of agro inputs was also affected by the land

reform. Operations in Farm and City indicate a drop in business activity in the period around the fast track land reform program. Moyo (2009) also agrees to the fact that retailers’ businesses were affected by the land reform program as he speaks of reduced economic activity after the land reform.

Table 4: Retailing

Retailing Sector was Affected by Land Reform			
		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	55	12.8
	Agree	279	64.8
	Neutral	37	8.6
	Disagree	57	13.3
	Strongly disagree	2	0.5
	Total	430	100

Source: Authors

Table 5: Supply of Inputs

The Supply of Inputs was Greatly Affected by the Land Reform			
		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	93	21.6
	Agree	268	62.3
	Neutral	33	7.6
	Disagree	34	7.9
	Strongly Disagree	2	0.4
	Total	430	100

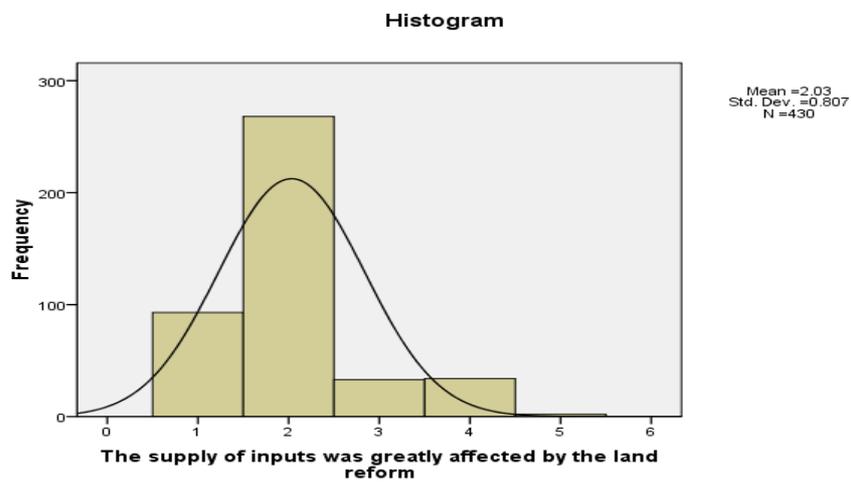


Figure 2

Source: Authors

21% of the respondents strongly agreed to the fact that the supply of inputs was affected by the land reform program with the other 62% just

Sales and Competition for in the Agriculture Retailing Sector

Table 6: Sales and Competition

Sales reduced after the land reform program * Competition is the same for the period pre and post land reform Crosstabulation

Count		Competition is the same for the period pre and post land reform					Total
		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	
Sales reduced after the land reform program	Strongly agree	0	4	3	44	16	67
	Agree	1	35	29	174	45	284
	Neutral	0	7	2	18	7	34
	Disagree	1	4	5	22	12	44
	Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total		2	50	39	258	81	430

Bar Chart

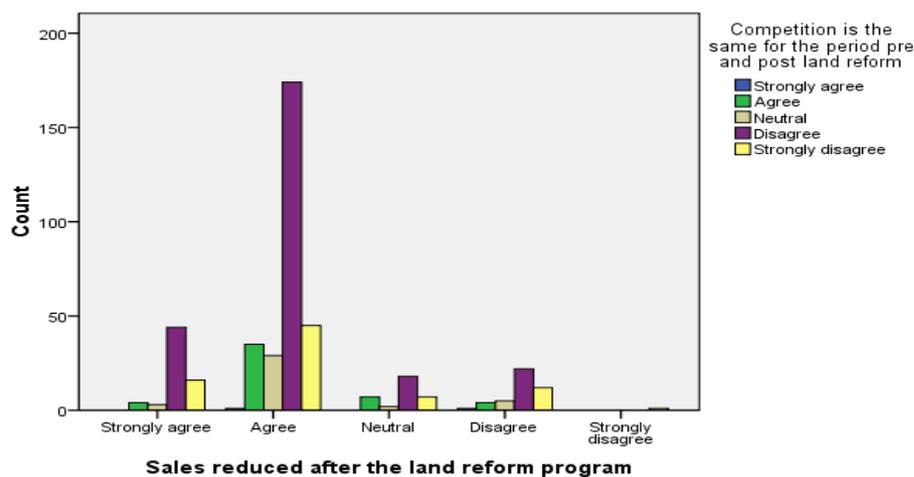


Figure 3: Sales and Competition

Source: Authors

The general trend for retailers after the land reform was a drop in sales. Respondents are in agreement as 15.5% of the respondents strongly agreed and the other 66% just agreed to the fact that sales reduced after the land reform program. Comments by respondents revealed that farmers resorted to using cheap farming methods like the use of manure hence no support went to the agro retailer. Reduced agricultural activity resulted in a drop in economic productivity, because agriculture is the backbone of the economy, Richardson (2004) supports the notion as he states that the gross domestic product in Zimbabwe reduced in after the land reform. Competition in the agriculture retailing sector increased after the land reform as many players started to enter the market. Most of the new shop owners were employees from companies like Farm and City who were retrenched on downsizing companies after the land reform.

Farmers and Input Sources

Table 7: Input Sources

Farmers are Buying Inputs from the Manufacturer				
		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	82	19.1	19.1
	Agree	256	59.5	78.6
	Neutral	31	7.2	85.8
	Disagree	57	13.3	99.1
	Strongly disagree	4	.9	100.0
	Total	430	100.0	

Source: Authors

The opinion of respondents was tested in terms of farmer relationships with traders in the retailing sector. Most farmers agreed to the fact that they were buying inputs from the manufacturer direct. This shown by the mean of the respondents which is 2.17 and it is in the range of agreement. The standard deviation is 0.921 and leaves a few respondents disagreeing as most respondents are agreeing and only a few are not sure. Additional comments by farmers indicated that the suppliers of inputs are now offering agriculture inputs at better prices than the retailers hence the informed customers are going direct to the manufacturers. This leaves the agro retailers with reduced sales given the increased competition as well. This causes a discord in the economic system hence the economic collapse (Mutasa, 2015).

The data analyzed above can be presented graphically as below;

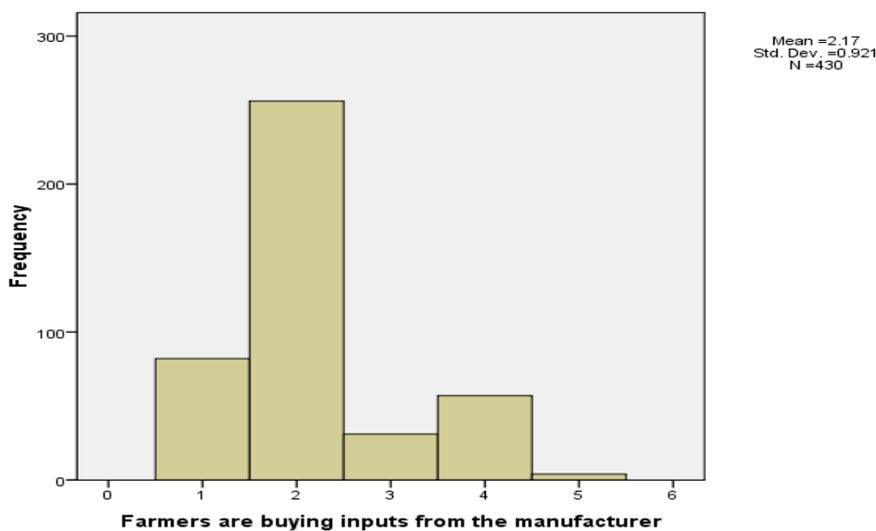


Figure 4: Input Source

Source: Authors

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The categories defined by Profession ≤ 2.00 and > 2.00 occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The categories defined by Age ≤ 30.00 and > 30.00 occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
3	The categories defined by Period of current position ≤ 2.50 and > 2.50 occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.091	Retain the null hypothesis.
4	The categories defined by Land reform improved the economy ≤ 1.50 and > 1.50 occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
5	The categories defined by Agriculture retailing is growing in Zimbabwe ≤ 1.50 and > 1.50 occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
6	The categories defined by Do you think the performance of retailers in your area was affected by land reform ≤ 1.50 and > 1.50 occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
7	The categories defined by Living standards of farmers have improved with the land reform ≤ 3.00 and > 3.00 occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
8	The categories defined by Land reform increased farm yields ≤ 3.00 and > 3.00 occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
9	The categories defined by Land reform reduced farm yields ≤ 3.00 and > 3.00 occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
10	The categories defined by Retailing sector was affected by land reform ≤ 3.00 and > 3.00 occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
11	The categories defined by The supply of inputs was greatly affected by the land reform ≤ 3.00 and > 3.00 occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
12	The categories defined by Farmers are buying inputs from the manufacturer ≤ 3.00 and > 3.00 occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
13	The categories defined by Farmers are buying inputs from local retailers ≤ 2.50 and > 2.50 occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
14	The categories defined by Sales reduced after the land reform program ≤ 3.00 and > 3.00 occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
15	The categories defined by Competition is the same for the period pre and post land reform ≤ 3.00 and > 3.00 occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
16	The categories defined by Prices of products reduced after the land reform program ≤ 3.00 and > 3.00 occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
17	The categories defined by Farm inputs are expensive as a result of the land reform ≤ 2.50 and > 2.50 occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
18	The categories defined by Product availability changed after the land reform ≤ 2.50 and > 2.50 occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Findings

The findings are as follows:

Land Reform Program has a Negative Impact on Agriculture Retailing

Although the land reform was an important event, the exercise was badly executed (Richardson, 2004; Sachikonye, 2003). This is also reflected by 77% of the retail agricultural retail respondents who suggested that they were likely to close their shops because the sales are going down especially in the past sixteen years (Sichten, 2013).

Land Reform Reduced Farm Yields

The study showed that farm yields reduced after the land reform. This is also supported by Sichten (2013) who notes that the food and livestock production collapsed from three million tonnes in 2000 to 1.3 million tonnes sixteen years later. Reduction in farm yields was mostly due to lack of resources such as finance. This resulted in revenue reduction for the farmer consequently affecting sales and revenue for agricultural retailing sector (Business Tribune, 2004).

Supply of Inputs was Greatly Affected by the Land Reform Program

Farm inputs became expensive in manufacturing after the land reform, due to the economic meltdown that followed the land reform as suggested by Richardson (2004). The country was no longer able to produce raw materials resulting in serious shortage of inputs. This was made worse when the country resorted to either importing raw materials or the imports themselves (Derman, 2006). This was also made worse by political instability that followed just after the land reform program which chased away investors within the country and those who intended to come to Zimbabwe to invest (Musemwa et al, 2011; Ghatak and Roy, 2007).

Farm Inputs Became Expensive After the Land Reform Program

The difficulties in importing agricultural raw materials fueled the increase in prices of agricultural inputs as noted by Derman (2006). This affected the agricultural retailing industry as most new farmers could not afford to buy inputs such as fertilisers and seeds from agricultural retailers (Matondi, 2005) resulting in some retailers closing down. Transportation costs increased worsening the situation (Derman, 2006).

Agricultural Retailing Sector is Nearing Collapse After Land Reform

Given the above arguments, it is clear that agriculture retailing is collapsing after the land reform because the economy is performing badly (Richardson, 2004) and most A1 farmers are struggling to make ends meet as suggested by Dabale et al (2014) and Moyo (2008). To survive in the industry small agricultural retailers resorted to trading in fake products illegally obtained from various countries hence compromising quality of products being offered in the sector however the strategy had little or no success at all. Conclusively, the retailing sector is continuously shrinking and the situation is being made worse by government programs such as command agriculture which are aimed at helping farmers with agricultural inputs which are bought straight from manufacturers by passing retailers as the inputs are distributed by the Grain marketing board (Solidarity peace trust, 2006).

Recommendations

The recommendations are as follows:

Strategic Alliances

Retailers in the agricultural retailing sector need to get into strategic alliances with suppliers in order to survive and grow in the current competitive economy (Baker et al, 2005). Effective alliances in agricultural retailing include backward integration and forward integration as supported by Martinez (1999) who states that vertical integration should include members at different stages in a value chain. Forward integration will see agricultural retailers have working relationships with the farmers as they are ahead in the distribution channel (Kotler, 2001). There will be a guarantee that a given customer buying from their shop, notion is supported by Berkema et al (1991) as he sites premiums of being vertically integrated (Young and Hobbs, 2002). A strategy like this will help fight competition being offered by government programs such as the command agriculture which is not including the retailers but the suppliers only. Backward integration will see agricultural retailers combining operations with suppliers as they are before the retailers in the distribution channel (Kotler, 2001). This will help with products availability and better costs for products (Kotler and Keller, 2009) hence benefiting the companies as there will be better chances of increasing sales and profitability. Agriculture retailers should do more marketing campaigns like road shows, radio adverts and fliers for their companies as it helps on publicity and customers will trust an advertised brand more.

Financing Schemes

Agricultural retailers should work with agricultural contractors who will offer farmers with financial assistance each farming season as outsourcing finance is a good alternative for getting assistance (Modgettes and Kuratko, 2001). The challenge of having unfinanced farmers as suggested by Mutondi (2015) in certain areas will be solved while retaining most of the farmers for the benefit of Farm and City. Conclusively, the increase in the financing of farmers will increase sales in the agricultural retailing sector resulting in the resuscitation of the sector, which will have a positive knock effect on the Zimbabwean economy.

CONCLUSIONS

It is clear from the study that land reform was a noble idea, but the process was chaotic resulting in low yields and consequently affecting the level of agricultural production and poor economic performance which resulted in some sectors such as agricultural retailing nearly collapsing. The conclusion is that farmers should be supported by providing them with farming skills as well as inputs which should be distributed through agricultural retailing channels such as Farm and City. This will help the retailing sector to grow. It is also recommended that the sector should also form alliances with farmers as well as manufacturers as this will result in the production level going up and this has a positive impact on the sales of Farm and City and other agricultural retailers in the sector.

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