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**An Investigation of the role played by Agricultural Cooperatives in
Employment-creation and Poverty Reduction: The Case of Mangwe and
Bulilima Districts in Zimbabwe.**

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**Dissertation submitted to University of Fort Hare in fulfilment of Requirement
of Master of Commerce in Developmental studies**

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January 2016

DECLARATION

I, Andile Princeleen Gama do hereby declare that the content of this dissertation is my own original work and has not been previously submitted to any other University for the award of a degree, either in part or in its entirety. I also declare that I am fully aware of the University of Fort Hare's policy on research ethics and have taken all precaution to comply with the regulations .I have obtained an ethical clearance from the university of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee



Signature..... Date.....

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To God be the Glory, honour and adoration for the strength that was granted, especially when the road ahead seemed to have many obstacles. My gratitude also goes to my supervisor Dr W Kachere, your humility and words of encouragement went a long way. May the Good Lord always meet you at your point of need; you gave guidance with humility and were patient at all times. To my family, thank you very much for your prayers. My friend, Wayne Malinga, your assistance went a long way.



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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my family. Here is a peace of my mind on these societal challenge called poverty and unemployment. Vuyelwa Siyeka you were my pillar of strength and at the receiving end of all the frustration, thank you very much for everything. This one is for you; my prayer and wish is that one day you surpass this level and contribute more solutions to the challenges facing our people.



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ABSTRACT

The study's main aim was to investigate the role played by agricultural cooperatives in employment-creation and poverty-reduction in Mangwe and Bulilima Districts in Zimbabwe. Literature supports the need for the establishment and growth of these agricultural cooperatives to ensure sustainable development. Thus, the study used the qualitative research methodology as its methodological approach. Data was collected using interviews which were carried out with cooperative members, communities, Government Departments and NGOs. Questionnaires were also used, and the study used the case study research design. Some of the findings from the study indicated that there has been little intervention on the part of Government, NGOs, Private and Public Sectors with regards to financial support and development of agricultural cooperatives in Mangwe and Bulilima Districts. Despite this, agricultural cooperatives in the districts contribute to employment creation, especially at household level where cooperative members are able to earn a form of income.

However, agricultural cooperatives are faced with a lot of challenges such as lack of funding and credit access, low membership, lack of leadership and managerial skills, lack of education and training, lack of markets for their produce and environment and climate changes, and this has hindered their progress and growth. Conclusions drawn from the study indicate that agricultural cooperatives have the potential to create employment and reduce poverty in Mangwe and Bulilima District if properly supported with credit facilities and the necessary resources.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACDI	Agricultural Cooperative Development International
AIB	Agricultural Information Bank
AREX	Agriculture Research Extension
CBO	Community Based Organisation
COPAC	Committee for the Promotion and Advancement of Cooperatives
CSO	Central Statistics Office
DDF	District Development Fund
DFID	Department for International Development
DTI	Department of Trade and Industry
DVS	Department of Veterinary Services
EMA	Environmental Management Agency
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organisation
FEWSNET	Famine Early Warning System Network
GOZ	Government of Zimbabwe
ICA	International Cooperative Alliance
ICLS	International Corporation Listing Service

ICRISAT	International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
ILO	International Labour Organisation
LPD	Livestock Production and Development
LRP	Land Reform Programme
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
NCBA	National Cooperative Business Association
NGO	NON- Governmental Organisation
OCDC	Ohio Cooperative Development Centre
ORAP	Organisation of Rural Associations for Progress
RDC	Rural District Council
SADAD	Southern African Department Agriculture Division
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SLA	Sustainable Livelihoods Approach
UN	United Nations
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USDA	United States Department of Agriculture
VOCA	Volunteers in Overseas Cooperative Assistance
WB	World Bank

WFP World Food Programme

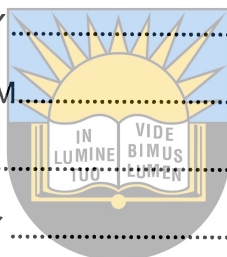
WHO World Health Organisation



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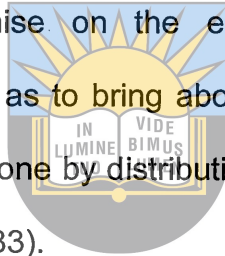


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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Cooperatives are an ideal instrument for poverty-reduction and employment creation. Agere (1983) noted that in many African countries, cooperatives are in the forefront in addressing many socio-economic ills facing the country. Hence, the study mainly focuses on uncovering the important role played by agricultural cooperatives in employment-creation and poverty alleviation. Cooperatives are seen as the foundation for the socio-economic development of countries and as a tool which communities can use to maximise on the environmental potentialities with techniques that are appropriate so as to bring about social transformation, thereby accommodating the needs of everyone by distributing resources equitably and fairly in the rural communities (Agere, 1983).



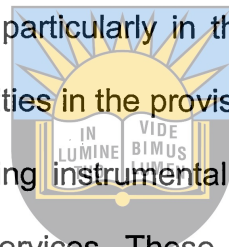
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1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Over the years, the developing world, especially African countries, has been characterised by poverty and unemployment which has hampered efforts to address socio-economic development. However, after gaining independence in 1980, Zimbabwe established her to be the bread basket of Africa. Hence, agriculture performed as the backbone of the country's economy. Subsequently the controversial Fast Track Land Reform Programme, Zimbabwe faced a lot of economic problems which include: poor economic growth, inflation, poor foreign direct investments, poor agricultural performance, to include a few; these have culminated in alarming rates of poverty and unemployment, which has adequately affected rural communities.

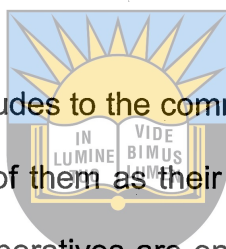
In its Poverty Vulnerability Assessment report, the World Bank (2006) highlights four main factors that have contributed immensely to household poverty levels. These mainly include: sizes of households which are big at times; lack of employment opportunities which are not related to agriculture or farm activities; non-availability of markets that are reliable; and the failure to access markets due to poor road infrastructures. Consequently, cooperatives have been seen as an alternative to poverty and unemployment in rural areas. The International Labour Organization (ILO) (2011) emphasises the importance of cooperatives by seeing them as an instrument that helps rural areas, particularly in the wake of ignorance by private businesses and other public authorities in the provision of basic services. In addition, cooperatives are also seen as being instrumental in providing employment to the rural areas and also in offering services. These mainly include services inclined towards: education, market access with improved roads, healthcare and potable water; the most important issue is that cooperatives, through such initiatives, “give a stronger voice to rural groups” (ILO, 2011).



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It is, therefore, imperative to understand that the whole cooperative movement dates back to the 19th century. It was propounded by the Rochdale Society members who, in this particular case, are the pioneers of the notion of people coming to work together collectively (Zeuli, 2004). This, in turn, provided a leeway for understanding the concept of cooperatives. Modern times now define a cooperative as an “autonomous association of persons, voluntarily, to meet their common social and economic needs. A cooperative is simply viewed as a socio-economic organisation that is expected to have its members’ interest truly at heart” (Singh & Pundir, 2000).

It is against this backdrop and definition that Agere (1983) noted, with reference to Zimbabwe, that there are so many dynamics about the cooperative movement and its role and implications to different actors. Amongst these is the idea that an improvement in technology and conditions of living, production inclined to peasants and workers, and the mobilisation of families can all be realised through cooperatives. Underlying this is the concept that contends the inclusiveness of the cooperative movement which villages, districts and the nation use as an apparatus used for development (Agere, 1983).

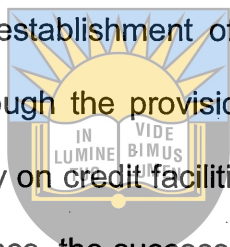


In addition, Schwettmann (2000) alludes to the commercial nature of cooperatives as a recipe to the successes of most of them as their profit is realised collectively and not individually. As a business, cooperatives are engulfed in fair economic practices which are on an open and voluntary basis by ensuring that markets and services are equally accessed. Since communities are owned by the consumers of the services they provide, co-operatives tend to make decisions that balance the need for profitability with greater interests of the community which they serve (Schwettmann, 2000).

The potential of co-operatives to respond to the social and economic needs of communities and to constitute a distinctive and dynamic sector of the economy has been recognised internationally. Schwettmann (2000) is of the contention that, in the African set up, (40%) of households are members or are aligned to a cooperative society. A closer look at this reveals that cooperatives are an important entity in Africa and might actually be the biggest non-governmental organisation. Their role of

creating jobs and employment in many African economies cannot be over-emphasised.

In the Zimbabwean context, cooperative movement dates back to the times of colonialism in the 1950s where it suddenly emerged (Nyandoro, 2007). These cooperatives, as reiterated by Nyandoro (2007), would prove to play a pivotal role in providing the much needed services to African farmers and establish marketing bodies for their produce more than in the urban societies which saw no value in these cooperatives. As such, the establishment of these cooperatives meant the farmers could purchase inputs through the provision of credit facilities (Nyandoro, 2007). Cooperatives also widely rely on credit facilities as a source of financing both investment and working capital. Hence, the success of cooperatives is linked to their access to affordable credit facilities, especially in rural areas.



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With the attainment of independence, this idea of using cooperatives in poverty alleviation, economic growth amongst African peasants, and addressing the inequalities that existed in many of these societies, was adopted by the new African governments (including Zimbabwe). However, due to enthusiasm amongst these newly established independent African governments, many cooperatives were created and established, however they were not a resounding success as most of them collapsed either in a few months or years (Southern African Department: Agriculture Division, 1989). A lot of reasons have been attributed to these cooperatives' collapse, and these include: government interference, lack of resources, lack of funding and in the case of Zimbabwe, failure of the economy to grow over the years has affected the growth of agricultural cooperatives (Nyandoro,

2007). Also the incapacity of the government to invest in the agricultural sector has contributed to the collapse of the country's agricultural department.

The post-colonial era evidenced the Fast Track Land Reform Programme which has seen the redistribution of land to the majority of Zimbabweans, but it has still left rural communities without adequate land. Land still remains in the hands of the few (the African elite), and agricultural growth has declined due to lack of resources. There has been no full utilisation of land and no prescribed conservation measures to demarcate lands for grazing and crop cultivation (Nyandoro, 2007). The few local elites who managed to get land and government support through farm machinery and key inputs are not managing to feed the hungry population of Zimbabwe. They got land in order to enhance their status rather than increasing agricultural production.



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The government of Zimbabwe, in its plight to promote the cooperative movement and development, had to put in several measures that included legislation being prepared for the new cooperatives. A cooperative policy paper in 1983 was prepared and was inclined towards longevity of the lifespan of these cooperatives; the governmental staff gradually increased as a support mechanism for these cooperatives through constant supervision (Southern African Department: Agriculture Division, 1989). There are several successes that were brought in by the cooperative movement in the country such as: poverty alleviation, increased agricultural productivity, food security and creation of employment, amongst others just before the country attained its freedom in 1980. Cooperative have become the engines for socio-economic growth in the country side.

However, recent times have provided a gloomy picture with the failure of the Zimbabwean economy to perform, thereby leading to poverty and unemployment. Makumbe (2009) clearly articulates that politics is one factor that has adversely affected Zimbabwe in its efforts to address its socio-economic challenges. In addition, Masaka (2011: 1) is of the contention that, “political polarisation and an apparently desperate economic policy shifts that were, by and large, predicated on political expediency rather than economic rationality ushered in a cocktail of economic and moral crises that have dealt a heavy blow to Zimbabwe’s economy”. In essence, all the problems related to the social and economic meltdown of Zimbabwe are related to politics.

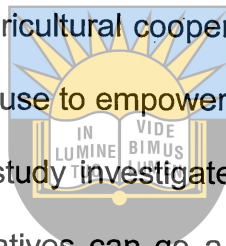


The situation in Zimbabwe, according to Dansereau (2005), resembles that, “of many countries in Sub-Saharan Africa experiencing increasing conflict and instability after rising debt levels and the introduction of structural adjustment and governance conditionalities, weakened national economy, narrowed state capacities and political options”. A further analysis by Dansereau (2005) is that, “the state is left with few tools to meet rising demands from popular groups and others excluded from the benefits of development, especially as they conflict with pressures from business and donors.

Instead the ruling elite, in a bid to protect itself, takes the carrot proffered by donors, along with the stick, drawing economic benefits from its proximity to the state, while entrenching itself politically through state repression”. As a result, Zimbabwe is entrenched in problems which have resulted in increasing socio-economic challenges. The most affected by this scenario is the rural populace. Politics, in this

context, adversely affected socio-economic development in the country with politicians, especially in rural areas, ripping the people off most of their benefits. Apart from this, at some point, NGOs were no longer allowed to work in rural communities, which proved detrimental to the livelihoods of rural communities.

Most people in rural communities mainly rely on subsistence and small scale farming as their main source of livelihood. It was against this background that agricultural cooperatives were formed so as to manage and control resources amongst rural communities (Agere, 1983). The agricultural cooperative movement in rural areas is one tool that rural communities can use to empower themselves and develop socially and economically. Therefore, this study investigated whether the resuscitation and revitalisation of agricultural cooperatives can go a long way in addressing poverty and unemployment in rural communities in Zimbabwe.



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1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In recent years, Zimbabwe has faced a lot of economic challenges which have seen an escalation in poverty and unemployment levels. An estimated 2.2 million people are projected to be food insecure at the peak of the 2015/2016 lean season, according to Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment committee (Zim VAC). The high level of unemployment has resulted in social deterioration, with a large number of people living in less than \$2 a day, and the most adversely affected by this phenomenon are the rural people whose source of livelihood has been compromised as clearly indicated by the 2013 (Zim VAC) rural livelihood food insecurity level report. As such, most rural communities, as noted by Schwettmann (2000), have resorted to the establishment of agricultural co-operatives in order to sustain

themselves in the wake of poor economic growth across the country. In essence, it is important to examine the role of agricultural co-operatives as an alternative to employment-creation and poverty reduction.

Despite the number of cooperatives that continue to grow in rural Zimbabwe, unemployment and poverty still remain a big challenge, as noted by Nyandoro (2007). Although the International Labour Organisation (ILO) notes that the unemployment figures in Zimbabwe are unreliable - ranging from 4% to as high as 95%, work done by both donors and governments has been inclined towards the promotion of cooperatives so as to improve the living conditions of the rural population through increased production. They aimed at improving the quality of life of the people in rural areas, but not at increasing the number of jobs or self-employment opportunities, as highlighted by Emanu (2009) who noted that “cooperatives have developed around persons of limited means who lacked the financial strength to adequately capitalize their organizations, thus leading to the low operations with a limited number of employees”. This has created a gap in the cooperative association as one of their major roles is to create employment, yet these cooperatives fail in the provision of employment. Schwettmann (2000) notes that, “cooperatives are not a miracle solution to unemployment and other problems, but they are a development option that must not be neglected”.

1.3 OBJECTIVES

The main objective of the study is to investigate the important role played by agricultural co-operatives in employment-creation and poverty reduction. In so doing, the study sought to:

- Examine the role played by agricultural cooperatives in employment creation, food security and income generation.
- Identify the problems and constraints faced by the agricultural cooperatives in Zimbabwe.

In line with these objectives, the study attempted to answer the following research questions: To what extent have been agricultural cooperatives contributed towards improving household food security and employment creation? What have been the major challenges against agricultural cooperatives in Zimbabwe? Is the government doing enough to promote agricultural cooperatives?



1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

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Little has been written or researched on agricultural cooperatives as an alternative to poverty-reduction and employment-creation in rural communities in Zimbabwe. The whole idea on cooperatives, since the attainment of independence, was that they are seen as organisations that empower the rural communities to be in charge of their own businesses and lives (Nyandoro, 2007).

The study is significant in that it examined the important role played by agricultural co-operatives in employment-creation and poverty reduction. It is important to underline that the idea of cooperatives is not to create employment for communities but to simply provide basic services that are economically related to its members. In essence, cooperatives provide the impetus to address key issues affecting humanity in rural communities such as unemployment, poverty and social integration.

Therefore, this study demonstrates that agricultural cooperatives can effectively create and maintain self-employment in the rural areas of Zimbabwe and thus lead to poverty reduction. This, in turn, will mutually benefit communities and all concerned actors in rural development on strategies that can be employed to address the plight of rural people. Moreover, the study will serve as an entry point for further research undertakings in areas of agricultural cooperatives and rural development. This study will also contribute to the body of literature by highlighting the importance of agricultural cooperatives on employment-creation and alleviation of poverty in Zimbabwe.



1.5 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

The study is organised into five chapters, namely:

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Chapter one gives the introduction and addressed the following: background to the study, statement of the problem, significance of the study, objectives and delimitations of the study.

Chapter two focused on the literature review and theoretical framework. This is where previous work by different scholars was reviewed pertaining to the subject of cooperatives and emerging theories were also discussed.

Chapter three focused on the research methodology. Key issues that were discussed included the research area, research design, population and sampling, methods of collecting data, methods of analysing the data and ethical issues.

Chapter four presented data, results and analysis.

Chapter five presented the conclusion and recommendations with regards to agricultural cooperatives being alternatives to employment-creation and poverty alleviation in rural communities.



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CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature that is relevant to the researcher's study. The key concepts underpinning the study are clarified and articulated. It also reviews various literatures on unemployment, poverty-reduction and agricultural cooperatives. Conceptualisation of terms such as *unemployment* and *poverty* is done. Furthermore, this chapter gives the empirical review of cooperatives, specifically agricultural cooperatives, as they are more prevalent in rural communities.

Lastly, this chapter discusses the theoretical framework underpinning the study as well as the argument for and against the theories discussed. Collective action theory and sustainable livelihoods approach were the theories used in this study to understand the role of agricultural cooperatives and their role in employment-creation and poverty alleviation.

2.1 The concept of unemployment

Various definitions have been employed to try and understand the phenomenon of unemployment. In 1985, the International Labour Organization (ILO) released guidelines for categorising this phenomenon in a labour market. According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO) guideline, a person is unemployed if the person is not working, currently available to work and actively looking for work. In line with (ILO), Investor Words (2015: 1) defines unemployment as, "an economic condition marked by the fact that individuals actively seeking jobs remain unhired". Therefore, unemployment is expressed as a percentage of the total unavailable workforce, and the level of unemployment varies with economic conditions and other circumstances (Investor words, 2015: 1). Investopedia (2015) also provides another

definition which purports that unemployment occurs when a person who is actively searching for employment is unable to find work. In essence, unemployment can be viewed as an economic measure, and one of these measures that are frequently used when looking at unemployment is the unemployment rate. This can be measured by dividing the number of people in the labour force by the number of unemployed persons (Investopedia, 2015).

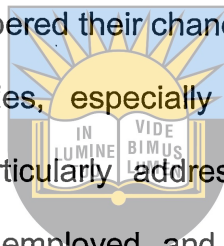
Chirisa and Muchini (2011:3) also explain that unemployment refers to a “situation whereby those who are willing and able to work find themselves deprived of such opportunities in the existing job market”. Meanwhile, Luebker (2008) agreeing with (ILO,1998:58) guidelines stating that “under the labour force framework, employment and unemployment are conceptualised as mutually exclusive categories and the first definitional criterion for unemployment is firstly, that a person is (without work)and actively looking for a job.”

This means that given the opportunity, a person would be ready and able to work. The availability criterion of the standard definition is that a person must be actively “seeking work” in the sense of having undertaken “specific steps in a specified recent period to seek paid employment or self-employment” International Convention of Labour Statisticians (ICLS, 2008).

Therefore, the standard definition of unemployment, thus, requires that a person is simultaneously without work, currently available for work and actively seeking work (Luebker, 2008). It is imperative to understand that many different variations of the unemployment rate exist with different definitions concerning who is an “unemployed person” and who is in the “labour force”. The various schools of economic thought

differ in their explanation of the causes of unemployment. Neoclassical economics postulate that the labour market is efficient if left alone, but that various interventions such as minimum wage laws and unionisation put supply and demand out of balance.

It is, therefore, imperative to understand the important role played by agricultural cooperatives in the wake of high unemployment levels in the rural areas. Most men, women and youth are eligible contenders for employment; however, lack of employment opportunities has hampered their chances, thus leading to most of them migrating to neighbouring countries, especially in the context of Zimbabwe. Unemployment, in this study, particularly addresses the various groups (men, women and youth) that are not employed and the contribution of agricultural cooperatives in alleviating this detrimental situation.

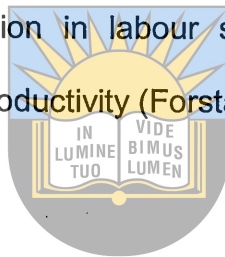


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2.2 Unemployment and socio-economic development

Unemployment, the failure to obtain employment that earns wages or salaries paid in money, thus has a dire impact on the jobless; it is also associated with tremendous social and economic costs for society as a whole (Forstater, 2004: 1). Unemployment has tremendous social and economic costs (Piachaud, 1997). Unemployment causes permanent loss of output of goods and services. The unemployed are faced with financial insecurity, resulting in poverty and indebtedness. Certain kinds of criminal activity are directly related to unemployment and family disruption, suicide, ill health (physical and mental), drug addiction, homelessness, malnutrition, poor prenatal care, school dropouts, racial and ethnic antagonism and other social problems (Jahoda, 1982).

Unemployment can also destabilise business expectations, as fears of low demand cool private investments. Related to this, unemployment can also lead to technological stagnation. Karl Marx suggests that high levels of employment stimulate technical innovation, and unemployment is associated with less innovation. Firms with high and stable levels of demand have the resources and the incentives to support going high tech; with high unemployment and thus cheap labour, firms lack the resources and the incentive to retool. It has also been shown that unemployment leads to deterioration in labour skills. All of this suggests that unemployment may lead to lower productivity (Forstater, 2004).



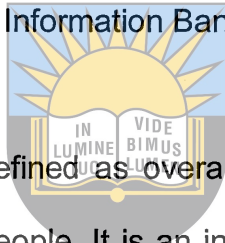
2.3 The concept of rural development

Rural development is a strategy to enable a specific group of people, poor rural women and men, to gain for themselves and their children more of what they want and need (Chambers, 1983). Another definition claims that it is a process leading to sustainable improvement in the quality of life of rural people, especially the poor (Singh, 1999). Therefore, rural development has to be applied in the context of the rural communities in Zimbabwe. In essence, rural development basically has to deal with improving the lives of rural people paying particular attention to employment-creation and poverty reduction.

Rural development, in general, is used to denote the actions and initiatives taken to improve the standard of living in non-urban neighbourhoods, countryside, and remote villages. These communities can be exemplified with a low ratio of inhabitants to open space. Agricultural activities may be prominent in this case whereas economic activities would relate to the primary sector, production of food

and raw materials. These agricultural activities, in this case, also involve agricultural cooperatives, in rural areas, that perform and produce agricultural products (Hassan & Sadegh, 2015)

There is no universally accepted definition of rural development. The term is used in different ways in vastly divergent contexts. Rural development speaks unto overall development of rural areas with a view to improve the quality of life of rural people. This comes as a result of various physical, technological, economic, socio-cultural and institutional factors (Agricultural Information Bank, 2011).



Rural development may also be defined as overall development of rural areas to improve the quality of life of rural people. It is an integrated process which includes social, economical, political and spiritual development of the poorer sections of the society (Agricultural Information Bank, 2011). Rural development can be defined as helping rural people set the priorities in their own communities through effective and democratic bodies by providing the local capacity, investment in basic infrastructure and social services, justice, equity and security, dealing with the injustices of the past and ensuring safety and security of the rural population, especially that of women (Agricultural Information Bank, 2011).

According to Robert Chambers, 1983 rural development is a tool that enables people, poor rural women and men in particular, to gain for themselves, and their children more of what they want and need. The group includes small scale farmers, tenants and the landless

The definition of rural development has evolved through time as a result of changes in the perceived mechanisms and/ or goals of development. A reasonable definition

of rural development would be: development that benefits rural populations; where development is understood as the improvement of the population's standards of living or welfare. This definition of rural development, however, has to be further qualified (Anriquez & Stamoulis, 2007; 2).

Rural development is essentially a part of structural transformation characterised by diversification of the economy away from agriculture. This process is facilitated by rapid growth, at least initially, but leads, ultimately, to a significant decline in the share of agriculture to total employment and output and in the proportion of rural population to total population (Johnston, 1970). Rural development though, by definition, is oriented more toward benefiting, primarily, the poor (Anriquez & Stamoulis, 2007:3) Since the 1970s, rural development, as a concept, has been highly associated with the promotion of standards of living and as a precondition for reducing rural poverty. This pro-poor bias was born from the understanding that particularly in societies where wealth is extremely concentrated, mean incomes could grow without improving the wellbeing of the most dispossessed. Thus, if the general definition of rural development is accepted, i.e. the improvement of the welfare of all members of the rural populations, then this pro-poor bias is justified (Anriquez & Stamoulis, 2007; 3)

2.3.1 Conceptualising 'Rural'

The concept of rural development has been discussed, but it is also imperative to discuss the concept of 'rural'. A demarcation line should be put as a way of identifying who the rural people are. There is no single universally preferred definition of rural, nor is there a single rural definition that can serve all policy purposes.

Features defining rural are based on geographic units that are sometimes combined with population or provider characteristics. Rural definitions can result in different outcomes from those intended when target areas and populations have not been carefully specified; data used to conceptualise the rural definition are unavailable, or consequences of applying the chosen rural definition are not fully considered (Coburn *et al.*, 2007).

Much has been written on the concept “rural”. The treatises of alternative views are numerous and varied. One of the longstanding debates has rested on concerns whether “rural” is a geographical concept, a location with identifiable boundaries on a map, on whether it is a social representation, a community of interest, a culture and way of life (du Plessis *et al.*, 2002).



The definition of “rural” differs by country, though it is usually used in contrast to “urban”. Therefore, the use of “rural”, including fishing and mountain villages as a relative concept to “urban”, based on social, economical and natural conditions in each country, may be most adequate. The term could also be used to describe areas where the majority of the residents are engaged in agriculture in a broad sense (including livestock farming, forestry and fisheries).

It is important to define what rural is. (Anriquez & Stamoulis, 2007; 4).states that there is no single definition of what constitutes rural “A natural definition of rurality is to define it by exclusion, as to that which is not urban, where urban is defined on the basis of population agglomerations”.

In the case of Zimbabwe, the “rural” are identified as people not living in urban centres who live in small populations. In addition, the rural people, especially in Matabeleland South, live in areas where there are poor road networks, water and

sanitation, transport system, lack of access to healthcare facilities, poor service delivery, and their geographical location is an impediment to rural development. Geographically, they are placed in areas that are poor in terms of rainfall, access to water, land fertility and are vastly affected by climate change. Therefore, it is imperative to understand “rural” so as to identify the various problems its population faces due to their geographical location.

2.4 Rural Poverty

While poverty can be a blunt term, the desperate circumstances that rural people face can be broken down into a number of more descriptive categories. Food insecurity, for example, is extremely high in the rural areas. According to Wildschut and Hulbert (1998: 15), “relatively few of the people in rural areas enjoy food security, and the incidence of malnutrition amongst children in these areas is very high”. Coupled with this is also the high rate of unemployment in rural than urban areas.

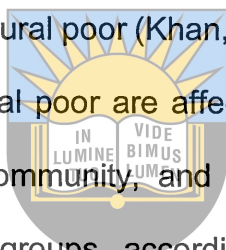
Globally, extreme poverty continues to be a rural phenomenon despite increasing urbanisation. Of the world’s 1.2 billion extremely poor people, 75 % live in rural areas and for the most part, they depend on agriculture, forestry, fisheries and related activities for survival. The promotion of the rural economy in a sustainable way has the potential of increasing employment opportunities in rural areas, thereby reducing regional income disparities, stemming pre-mature rural-urban migration, and ultimately reducing poverty at its very source. In addition, development of rural areas may contribute to the preservation of the rural landscape and the protection of indigenous cultures and traditions, while rural societies could serve as a social buffer for the urban poor in periods of economic crisis or social urban unrest (Anriquez & Stamoulis, 2007: 1).

However, public policies at national level and resource mobilisation at both national and international levels have not always recognised the multiple potential of the rural economy. Public policies and investments in developing countries have historically favoured industrial, urban and service sectors at the expense of agricultural and other rural sector development. In many cases, a coherent rural development policy (by its very nature cross-cutting) has fallen victim of the lack of a cross-sectoral institutional frameworks (Anriquez & Stamoulis, 2007; 1).

Rural development has been neglected, according to Janvry (2006: 10), and, “75 % of world is rural, but only 25% of the major donors’ portfolios goes to rural development”. Not only is the incidence of poverty much higher in rural areas, so is the security of the poverty. Rural areas systematically lag behind urban areas in every area: education, the status of women, child mortality, maternal health, the incidence of endemic diseases, and environmental stress (Janvry, 2006: 10).

One reason that the world has neglected rural development is that past efforts at rural development have often been met with mixed success. Those development agencies that do not invest in rural anti-poverty programs have directed their money to welfare transfers rather than to raising rural incomes, which is far more difficult (Janvry, 2006: 10). The modest decline in the share of total poverty that is rural has been due more for urban migration than to improvement in rural incomes, in other words, ill-prepared rural migrants have been displacing poverty to the urban sector (Janvry, 2006: 10). Rural poverty accounts for nearly 63% of poverty worldwide, reaching 90% in countries like China and Bangladesh and ranging from 65 to 90% in Sub-Saharan Africa (World Bank, 2000).

The exceptions are several countries in Latin America in which much of the poverty is in urban areas. In almost all countries, there is a higher incidence of poverty in rural than in urban areas, and the conditions of the rural poor are far worse than those of the urban poor in terms of personal consumption levels and access to education, health care, potable water and sanitation, housing, transport and communications. Persistently high levels of rural poverty, both with or without overall economic growth, have been feeding into rapid population growth and migration of people to urban areas. In fact, much of the urban poverty is a reflection of the poverty alleviation strategies of the rural poor (Khan, 2000: 6).



The economic conditions of the rural poor are affected by a variety of assets (and their returns) at the household, community, and supra-community levels. These assets can be classified into four groups, according to Khan (2000: 9): Physical assets, human assets, infrastructural assets and institutional assets.

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Most rural people, particularly the landless households and rural women, are greatly handicapped by inadequate assets and their low and volatile returns (Khan, 2000: 9).

Most of the world's poor live in rural areas. IFAD estimated in 2001 that among the poorest 1.2 billion people in the world, surviving with less than a dollar per day, three out of four lived in rural areas. They constitute the poorest one fifth of the world population and do not earn enough to cover their food needs. In a World Bank study, Ravallion et al (2007) estimated that in 2002, 75% of the developing world poor still live in rural areas. Part of this correlation between rurality and poverty is given by the fact that some countries indirectly define the poor as rural. As one of the most accepted characteristics of development is a secular decline in the share of agriculture, countries with larger rural population shares are expected to be poorer

since the main activity in the rural economies is likely to be agriculture (Anriquez & Stamoulis, 2007: 6).

Even though poverty has been coming down in some parts of the world in recent years, not least in East Asia and China, and more recently in South Asia, its persistence in large parts of Africa where it's high on the agenda. Poverty persistence is, to a large extent, related to a poor growth performance in national economies (Dercon, 2008).

2.5 The Cooperative movement and its role in development

Internationally, "cooperatives" is a common theme around sustainable development. In the context of global financial and economic crises of 2008/2009, cooperatives have proved to be resilient alternatives to conventional capitalistic companies, apart from the fact that many people are increasingly dissatisfied with social inequality and poor labour conditions associated with a market-driven economy. The United Nations declared 2012 the year of cooperatives and encouraged all member states and other relevant stakeholders to promote them. The UN also recognises the contribution of cooperatives to social and economic participation by all people as well as their potential to contribute to the eradication of poverty and the creation of sustainable livelihoods (UN, 2010).

Many countries worldwide have discovered this potential and are actively promoting cooperatives. The initiative seems especially attractive to emerging economies that have potentially high economic growth rates and often struggle with the social effects of rapid industrialisation accompanied by extreme social inequality (Derr, 2013: 1). Groups of individuals around the world have worked together in pursuit of common goals. Examples of cooperation, or collective action, can be traced back to

prehistoric predecessors who recognised the advantages of hunting, gathering and living in groups rather than on their own.

Although the word “cooperative” can be applied to many different types of group activities, in this study, it is used to reference a formal business model, which has relatively recent origins. The earliest cooperative associations were created in Europe and in North America during the 17th and 18th Centuries. These associations were precursors to cooperatives. The pioneers of the Rochdale Society in 19th Century England are celebrated for launching the modern cooperative movement. The unique contribution of early cooperative organisers in England was codifying a guiding set of principles and instigating the creation of new laws that helped foster cooperative business development (Zeuli & Cropp, 2004: 3).

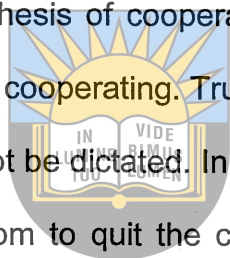


Cooperatives are diverse and as a result, there is no universally accepted definition of a cooperative that exists, however, there are commonly used definitions. According to the International Cooperative Alliance (ICA, 2005), a cooperative is an autonomous association of persons united voluntarily to meet their common economic, social and cultural needs and aspirations through and jointly owned and democratically controlled enterprise. Cooperative leaders around the world recognise the ICA, a non-governmental organisation with over 230 member organisations from over 100 countries, as a leading authority on cooperative definition and values (Zeuli & Cropp, 2004: 3). In addition, International Cooperative Alliance (2005) notes that there are seven internationally recognised cooperative principles and these include:

- i) *Voluntary and open membership;*
- ii) *Democratic member control;*

- iii) *Member economic participation;*
- iv) *Autonomy and Independence;*
- v) *Provision of education, training and information;*
- vi) *Cooperation among cooperatives; and*
- vii) *Concern for the community.*

The ICA definition recognises the essential element of cooperatives: membership is voluntary, and coercion is the antithesis of cooperation. Persons compelled to act contrary to their wishes are not truly cooperating. True cooperation with others arises from a belief in mutual help: it cannot be dictated. In authentic cooperatives, persons join voluntarily and have the freedom to quit the cooperative at any time (Zeuli & Cropp, 2004: 3).



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Another widely accepted cooperative definition is the one adopted by the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) in 1987, namely: a cooperative is a user-owned, user-controlled business that distributes benefits on the basis of use. This definition captures what are generally considered the three primary cooperative principles: *user ownership, user control, and proportional distribution of benefits*. The “*user-owner*” principle implies that the people who use the co-op (members) help finance the co-op and therefore, own the co-op. Members are responsible for providing at least some of the co-operative’s capital. The equity capital contribution of each member should be in equal proportion to that member’s use (patronage) of the co-op. This shared financing creates joint ownership (part of the ICA cooperative definition) (Zeuli & Cropp, 2004: 3).

The “*user-control*” concept means that members of the co-op govern the business directly by voting on significant and long-term business decisions and indirectly through their representatives on the board of directors. Cooperative statutes and by-laws usually dictate that only active co-op members (those who use the co-op) can become voting directors, although non-members sometimes can serve on boards in a non-voting, advisory capacity. Only co-op members can vote to elect their board of directors and on other cooperative actions (Zeuli & Cropp, 2004: 3).



“*Distribution of benefits on the basis of use*”, describes the principle of proportionality, another key foundation for cooperatives. Members should share the benefits, costs and risks of doing business in equal proportion to their patronage. The proportional basis is fair, easily explained (transparent), and entirely feasible from an operational standpoint. To do otherwise distorts the individual contributions of members and diminishes their incentives to join and patronise the cooperative (Zeuli and Cropp, 2004; 3).

In general, cooperation constitutes a natural part of people’s culture that enhances an economic and social life of rural areas. The existence of cooperatives in the agricultural sector is induced by a number of biologically related conditions that imply greater uncertainty. Moreover, a farmer is always “small” in comparison with his trading partners. Driven by this economic force for survival, by joining together farmers tend to achieve a greater bargaining strength, which is indeed one of the main reasons why they form cooperatives (Chloupkova, 2003; 2).

Many types of cooperatives have been established worldwide to serve the interests of members, including consumer, producer, worker, and service cooperatives. According to the NCBA (2005), there are 48, 000 cooperatives serving 120 million people in the USA, whereas globally some 750, 000 cooperatives serve 730 million members. The various cooperative types provide members with diverse products and services, including financial services, equipment and farm supplies, marketing of agricultural products, consumer goods, utilities (e.g telephone, electricity), housing, and other services (e.g insurance). Barton (2000) points out that, although cooperatives are common in many parts of the world, their most extensive and successful use during the last century has been in North America and Europe.



2.5.1 Contextualisation of Agricultural Cooperative

Agricultural cooperatives are defined as, “groups of farmers mutually linked in the corporation, which they form and whose services they avail themselves of, in a double relationship of active participation and full membership. Their principle activity is not agriculture, as might be expected from their title, but it is the farmers’ concerted use of the means at their disposal to facilitate and develop their economic activities” (Vienney, 1980).

In general, agricultural cooperatives can be classified into three broad categories according to their main activity, namely marketing cooperatives (which may bargain for better prices, handle, process or manufacture, and sell farm products). Farm supply cooperatives (which may purchase in volume, manufacture, process or formulate and distribute farm supplies and inputs such as seed, fertiliser, feed, chemicals, petroleum products, farm equipment, hardware and building supplies,

and service cooperatives (which provide services such as trucking, storage, ginning, grinding, drying, artificial insemination, irrigation, credit, utilities and insurance) (Cropp and Ingalsbe, 1989, USDA, 2004). These cooperatives usually vary greatly with regard to functions performed and can also vary greatly in size. Most of the agricultural cooperatives are relatively small businesses (Ortmann and King, 2007; 43). For the purpose of the study the agricultural cooperative that are under study fall on the first category that is marketing cooperatives.

2.5.2 Cooperatives in developing countries

In developing countries attempts to organise farmers into cooperatives have often failed, although cooperatives have the potential to supply farm inputs and market farm products that are both important for agricultural development (Hoyt, 1989). Akwabi-Ameyaw (1997) suggests that in Africa farmer cooperatives have often failed because of problems in holding management accountable to the members (i.e. moral hazard) leading to inappropriate political activities or financial irregularities in management. However, cooperatives in developing countries have provided the leeway to employment-creation as many of the unemployed in rural areas are able to work in these cooperatives (Hoyt, 1989).

Van Niekerk (1988) reports that cooperative failures in the former (less-developed) homelands of South Africa were due mainly to lack of management experience and knowledge, lack of capital resources, and disloyalty of members due to ignorance. The underlying view is that these cooperatives have provided a baseline to accommodate the unemployed especially in rural areas despite their failures. Some successes include food processing cooperatives in Argentina and Brazil, and cooperatives processing and marketing milk, sugar and oil seeds in India (Hoyt,

1989). Government policies regarding cooperatives are critical because they can constrain or enhance independent cooperative development (Hoyt, 1989).

Another view is that the pattern of cooperative structures is different in different parts of the world, depending on their initial stages of development. For example, in the least developed countries, there are only few cooperative organisations that would qualify to be members of the International Cooperative Alliance (ICA). In least developed countries, primary agricultural cooperatives are the dominant type whilst credit cooperatives are connected to the primary agricultural cooperative (ICA, 1998).

Furthermore, these countries might have various types of precursors of cooperatives and more or less informal work groups belonging to the old culture. On the other hand, 25% of developing countries have cooperative organisations that belong to the ICA (ICA, 1998). The largest proportion of them seems to be the credit cooperatives, followed by agricultural consumer, fisheries and workers cooperatives. In newly industrialised countries, such as South East Asia, ICA membership is quite high, and cooperative organisations have been expanding since the 1970s (ICA, 1998).

Agricultural credit, consumer and multi-purpose cooperatives are the dominating types. In the industrialised countries with market economy, most countries have cooperative organisation that belong to the ICA. In these countries, consumer cooperatives predominate, closely followed by agricultural and insurance cooperatives. In industrialised countries, the cooperative pattern is more diversified, with an increased level of credit cooperatives and housing cooperatives; however,

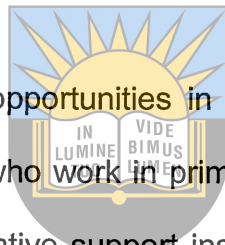
they still constitute relatively small parts of the total cooperative sector. Credit unions account for the largest cooperative part, especially in the USA, Canada and France (Chloupkova, 2003: 8).

In developing countries, cooperatives have played a key role in improving the lives of the people in the rural areas. Hence, they have been able to contribute to rural development. Employment opportunities have been provided for the rural people, which goes a long way in reducing poverty levels. Despite the failures of most governments to support these cooperatives, they have, however, proved to be vital in the socio-economic development of most rural areas. Therefore, to address the high unemployment levels and rising poverty levels in rural areas, agricultural cooperative type seems to be one of the alternatives (Schwettmann, 2000).

2.5.3 Employment-creation Potential of Cooperatives

Cooperatives play a significant role in employment-creation and income generation (ILO/ICA, 2014: 8). In recent years, “community empowerment”, “consultation” and “people-based approaches” have increasingly been part of the agenda including methodologies of governments and development agencies. However, the focus has mainly been on household-based approaches, and less attention has been paid to the significant potential of collective action through both formal and informal community-based organisations amongst the rural poor (ILO, 2004: 4). Therefore, such empowerment and people-based approaches can be used as well in the Zimbabwean case so as create employment and reduce poverty. Lack of empowerment has been one of the factors that has adverse rural development in Zimbabwe as most rural communities are not empowered enough to be in charge of their own development.

There are many challenges facing the world economy such as socio-economic issues, unemployment, inequality, educational mobility and innovation, and the cooperative sector can contribute to solutions for a number of these (Smith & Rothbaum, 2013: 2). Cooperatives can have an important role to play in times of economic turmoil and crisis. For example, in the late 1970s and early 1980s, another time of very slow job growth, cooperatives in developed countries experienced a much faster rate of employment growth than the economy as a whole (Smith & Rothbaum, 2013: 2).

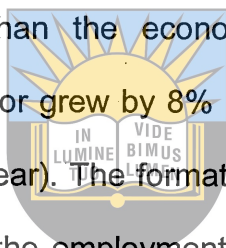


Cooperatives create employment opportunities in three different ways. First, they offer wage employment to people who work in primary and secondary cooperatives as well as in governmental cooperative support institutions (for example ministries, departments, cooperative colleges). Secondly, cooperatives offer self-employment to members whose participation in the economic activities that they make possible substantially guarantees a decent income. Thirdly, cooperatives also indirectly employ through the spill-over effects of their activities on non-members whose income-generating activities are only viable through the transactions they have with, as well as opportunities created by, cooperative ventures (Fapojuwo & Alarima, 2012: 5). In most cases, especially in developing countries, cooperatives normally employ using the second method or criteria. Cooperatives are supposed to empower communities and at the same time, be able to provide self-employment so decent wages or income can be realised.

Empirical evidence shows that there is employment growth in the cooperative sector, and the economy as a whole. For example, employment in Italy from 2007-2011 in

the cooperative sector as well as the entire economy, broken down by agriculture, and industry declined, and the economy as a whole stagnated. However, employment in the cooperative sector grew by 8% between 2007 and 2011 (1.9% per year). Italian cooperatives experienced a much larger percentage increase in employment than the economy as a whole or any subsector (Smith & Rothbaum, 2013: 4).

Another case in point is that of France where the cooperative sector also saw more growth in employment recently than the economy as a whole. From 2005, employment in the cooperative sector grew by 8% (1.6% per year) as compared to 1.5 % in the economy (0.3 % per year). The formation of cooperatives during times of economic hardship may explain the employment performance of cooperatives in France over the last few years (Smith & Rothbaum, 2013: 4).



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Meanwhile, Germany just like Italy, also experienced fast employment growth in the cooperative sector. Since 2003, worker-owned cooperative employment increased by 26 % (3.4 % per year), while total employment increased 8.2 % (1.1 % per year). The employment growth in worker-owned cooperatives in Germany also expected the growth rate in industry over both periods (Smith & Rothbaum, 2013: 4). In the African context, more than 40 % of all households are members of a cooperative society. Taken as a whole, the cooperative movement is Africa's biggest non-governmental organisation; cooperatives play a significant role in many national economies and have created a great number of salaried jobs and self-employment opportunities in Africa (Schwettmann, 2000).

The role of cooperatives in employment-creation has been neglected by employment planners, cooperative promotion agencies, social partners and donor organisations alike. In many African countries, cooperatives were considered primarily as tools to execute certain economic or political functions on behalf of the government, not as autonomous, member-based organisations that create and consolidate self-employment (Schwettmann, 2000). This policy of “incorporation” has done great damage to cooperative development in Africa. Fortunately, government policies towards cooperatives have changed after the economic reforms and democratisation processes that have taken place in most African countries. The economic, political, legal and administrative environment of many nations is conducive to the development of genuine, self-reliant and autonomous cooperatives and similar organisations which can greatly contribute to job creation and to the empowerment of the poorest (Schwettmann, 2000; 1).



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African cooperatives have created a sizeable number of salaried jobs, yet their biggest employment-creation potential lies in the field of direct and indirect self-employment-creation (Schwettmann, 2000). Cooperatives do have a comparative job creation advantage over other types of enterprises: they are labour-intensive by nature; they are cost-effective because of member commitment and participation; they generate economies of scale and scope through horizontal and vertical integration; they establish links between the informal and the formal sectors; and they put economic and social development on a broader base.

Worker-owned cooperatives provide their members with decent, permanent jobs; client-owned cooperatives, which are predominant in the agricultural sector, can

stabilise existing self-employment in rural areas; financial cooperatives can mobilise savings among the poorest and thus accumulate capital for productive investment; and social cooperatives provide self-employed workers with a minimum of social security while creating jobs in the social service sector (Schwettmann, 2000)

In total, about one billion people are involved in cooperatives in some way, either as members/customers, as employees/participants, or as or both. Cooperatives employ at least 100 million people worldwide, and the livelihoods of nearly half the world's population have been estimated as made secure by cooperative enterprise. The world's largest cooperative enterprises have collective revenues of USD 1.6 trillion, which are comparable to the GDP of the world's ninth largest economy-Spain (ILO/ICA, 2014; 1).



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As value-based and principle driven organisations, cooperative enterprises are, by nature, a sustainable and participatory form of business. They place emphasis on job security and improved working conditions, pay competitive wages, promote additional income through profit-sharing and distribution of dividends, and support community facilities and services such as health clinics and schools (ILO/ICA, 2014; 1). Cooperatives foster democratic knowledge and practices and social inclusion, making them well-placed to support the achievement of sustainable development. Cooperatives have also shown resilience in the face of economic crises (ILO/ICA, 2014; 1).

Empirical evidence has shown the role played by cooperatives in employment-creation and poverty reduction. Despite most of the shortcomings in developing

countries such as lack of funding and government interference, their potential to address the socio-economic development of most developing countries has not been unnoticed. Therefore, this study aimed at exploring the employment-creation potential of these cooperatives and their contribution to poverty-reduction in rural communities of developing countries.

2.5.4 Cooperatives and poverty reduction

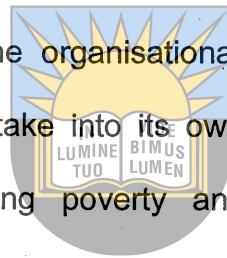
Poverty is a complex concept which does not fit into a neat definition (Sizya, 2001: 3). Therefore, there is no uniform approach for defining poverty. Some scholars use the income approach and define poverty as a lack. A commonly used standard in the income approach is an income/day measure (for example, 1USD/day in 1985 Purchasing Power Parity; Chen & Ravallion, 2008; or alternatively 1.25 USD/day or 2.00 USD/day). Other commonly used measures in the income approach are headcount, poverty gap and squared poverty gap indices (Sumelius et al, 2013: 1).

Some other scholars believe that the definition of poverty is the lack of basic needs of life. Economist and philosopher Amartya Sen (1981) sees poverty as, “the deprivation of basic capabilities rather than merely as lowness of income, which is the standard criteria of identification of poverty”. A third group of scholars use the proportion of total household expenditure used on food as a criterion for defining poverty (Parviainen, 2012).

With almost half the world’s six billion people living on less than two dollars a day, alleviation of poverty has become the biggest challenge to human society. In response, the global campaign against poverty has gained momentum, with various actors suggesting the use of different instruments to alleviate poverty. However, there is an emerging consensus among many actors, including the United Nations (UN), the International Cooperative Alliance (ICA) and the European Union (EU), that

the cooperative enterprise is one of the few forms of organisation that meet all dimensions of poverty. The broad argument is that cooperatives have the advantages of identifying economic opportunities for the poor; empowering the disadvantaged to defend their interests; and providing security to the poor by allowing them to convert individual risks into collective risks. Consequently, cooperatives are increasingly being presented as a pre-condition for a successful drive against poverty and exclusion more so in Africa (Birchall, 2003, 2004; ILO/ICA, 2003).

Cooperative enterprises provide the organisational means whereby a significant proportion of humanity is able to take into its own hands. The tasks of creating productive employment, overcoming poverty and achieving social integration continue to be an important one. (ICA, 1996).



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Cooperative organisations have great potential in agricultural development in general (Zarafshari et al., 2010). They are catalysts for local entrepreneurial growth; cooperatives retain within the communities in which they operate the capital that they mobilise there, as well as surplus derived from outside transactions, both accumulating for further entrepreneurial development. As direct beneficiaries, cooperative members have a strong incentive for efficient operation and continuous innovation in response to changing business environments, achieving thereby high rates of both initial success and long-term viability (Zarafshari et al, 2010).

An important contribution of the cooperative movement, according to the Committee for the Promotion and Advancement of Cooperatives (COPAC), continues to be its capacity for promoting and supporting entrepreneurial development (COPAC, 1999).

According to Ohio Cooperative Development Center (2007), the way out of poverty via transformational development has three pathways, and cooperatives are unique in addressing all the three simultaneously:

i) The Economic Pathway- Economically, the cooperative business model has helped millions of low-income individuals in developing countries to improve their income;

ii) The Democratic Pathway- Democratically, cooperative members learn first-hand the principles of democratic governance, transparency and member participation; and

iii) The Social Pathway- Socially, cooperatives increase trust and solidarity, leading to social well-being and stability, in some cases in the face of adverse conditions and conflict.



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Cooperatives increase the productivity and incomes for small-scale farmers by helping them collectively negotiate better prices for seeds, fertiliser, transport and storage. Cooperatives help farmers expand market access and capture more of the value chain, for example, by getting involved in processing activities. Farmer groups can help farmers more out of poverty, and cooperatives are one form that these groups can take (DFID, 2010: 3).

2.6 The collective action theory

The study of collective action has developed extensively during the past 50 years since the publication of Mancur Olson's, "The Logic of Collective Action in 1965". While Olson attempted to build a general theory based on a minimalist conception of the factors affecting collective action, scholars were motivated by Olson's work to delimit the core concepts, undertake further theoretical work and engage in empirical

analysis. Olson, thus, further opened up a rich field of theoretical and empirical work. The empirically supported theory that has evolved utilises a richer conception of the type of goods involved in collection action and of the institutions that can be used to provide, produce and allocate these goods (Ostrom, 2003: 239).

Collective actions or those “actions taken by two or more people in pursuit of the same collective good” (Marxwell & Oliver, 1993: 4) are typically framed as resulting in some shared outcome or “public good”. Of particular interest are those public goods produced by the collective action of two or more people rather than by the individual action of a resource-rich actor contributing alone. The dynamics of such collective actions have been elaborated in considerable detail in the literature, which suggests, for example, that obstacles to initiation of public goods provision (Markus, 1990; Marxwell & Oliver, 1993) and once public goods are established early, contributors receive benefits that are only equal to those of the other participants (Oliver et al, 1985). Two of the central elements of traditional collective action theory are the problem of “free riding” (Hardin, 1968; Olson; 1965; Sweeney; 1973) and the importance of formal organisation as one means to overcome it (Olson, 1965).

Collective action theory is bound by shared interests, purposes and values among individuals. Harris and Stefanson (1996) highlight that at the core of any form of collective action lies a key group of individuals who recognise that they face a common problem or perceived opportunity and are prepared to work co-operatively to address the common goal. Therefore, the most important principle of this theory is that it portrays not an individual action but a collective action which includes all

members in the cooperative. All members have shared interests and pursue a common goal.

The collective action approach is an alternative mechanism to facilitate the participation of local communities in promoting strategies for economic and social development. However, this approach has been criticized in that although common economic or social issues represent necessary conditions for co-operative development, they do not appear to be sufficient conditions (Harris & Stefanson, 1996).



In his much quoted book *The Logic of Collective Action*, Olson (1965) clearly explains that when the decision to provide the collective good is analysed from the individual point of view, there is a high incentive to free-ride on the efforts of the others and to provide sub-optimal level of the good oneself. Of course, if everybody acts in such a way, very little if any of the collective good would be supplied to the group as a whole. Thus, in his book, Olson argues that unless a group has very specific characteristics, the provision of the collective good is doomed to fail. Such a view by Olson (1965) can also be used to explain the failure of some of the agricultural cooperatives in developing communities, including rural areas in Zimbabwe.

2.6.1 Sustainable Livelihoods Approach

The concept of “sustainable rural livelihoods” is increasingly central to the debate on rural development and poverty-reduction (Scoones, 1998: 3). The term “sustainable livelihoods” relates to a wide set of issues which encompass much of the broader debate about the relationships between poverty and environment. However, in the

existing literature, there is often little clarity about how contradictions are addressed and trade-offs are accessed. As Carswell *et al* (1997: 10) point out: “definitions of sustainable livelihoods are often unclear, inconsistent and relatively narrow”.

Most of the discussion on Sustainable Livelihood so far has focused on rural areas and situations where people are farmers or make a living from some kind of primary self-managed production. A classic 1992 paper by Chambers and Conway presented the following composite definition of a sustainable rural livelihood: “A livelihood comprises of the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living: a livelihood which can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation; and which contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in the short and long term, is sustainable” (Chambers and Conway, 1992; 7-8).

The sustainable livelihoods approach is a holistic approach that tries to capture and provide a means of understanding the fundamental causes and dimensions of poverty without collapsing the focus onto just a few factors (e.g. economic issues, food security etc). In addition, it tries to sketch out the relationships between the different aspects (causes and manifestations) of poverty, allowing for more effective prioritisation of action at an operational level (Majale, 2002: 3). The sustainable livelihoods approach (or approaches-given that there is not set way of doing things) aims to help poor people achieve lasting livelihood improvements-sustainable livelihoods-measured using poverty indicators that they themselves define (Sustainable Livelihoods Support Office, 1999).

The ability to pursue different livelihood strategies is dependent on the basic material and social, tangible and intangible assets that people have in their possession. Drawing on an economic metaphor, such livelihood may be seen as the 'capital'-base from which different productive streams are derived and from which livelihoods are constructed. The four types of 'capital' include:

- i) **Natural Capital**- the natural resource stocks (soil, water, air, genetic resources) and environmental services (hydrological cycle, pollution sinks) from which resource flows and services useful for livelihoods are derived;
- ii) **Economic or Financial Capital**- the capital base (cash, credit/debt, savings, and other economic assets, including basic infrastructure and production equipment and technologies) which are essential for the pursuit of any livelihood strategy;
- iii) **Human Capital**- the skills, knowledge, ability to labour and good health and physical capability important for successful pursuit of different livelihood strategies; and
- iv) **Social Capital**- the social resources (networks social claims, social relations, affiliations, associations upon which people draw when pursuing different livelihood strategies requiring coordinated actions.



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Sustainable livelihood approach also goes a long way towards shedding light on why it has been applied to poverty reduction. Krantz (2001: 10) identifies three factors in understanding the relationship between sustainable livelihoods approach and poverty reduction. The first one is the realisation that while economic growth may be

essential for poverty reduction, there is no automatic relationship between the two since it all depends on the capabilities of the poor to take advantage of expanding economic opportunities. Thus, it is important to find out what precisely it is that prevents or constrains the poor from improving their lot in a given situation, so that support activities could be designed accordingly (Krantz, 2001:10).

Secondly, there is the realisation that poverty, as conceived by the poor themselves, is not just a question of low income, but also includes other dimensions such as bad health, illiteracy, lack of social services as well as state of vulnerability and feelings of powerlessness in general. Moreover, it is now realised that there are important links between different dimensions of poverty such that improvements in one have positive effects on their health standards, which, in turn, may improve their production capacity. Reducing poor people's vulnerability in terms of exposure to risk may increase their propensity to engage in previously untested but more productive activities and so on.

Finally, it is now recognised that the poor themselves often know their situation and needs best and must, therefore, be involved in the design of policies and projects intended to better their lot. Given a say in design, they are usually committed to implementation. Thus, participation by the poor improves project performance (Krantz, 2001: 11). The sustainable livelihoods approach upholds the view that it is a way of understanding the livelihoods of poor. This approach is useful in the study in that it helps formulate development activities that are people-centred, sustainable and conducted in partnership with the public and private sectors.

This is in line with the formation of cooperatives as they depend on both public and private institutional support (Osmani, 1997). More so, this approach is relevant to the study as these cooperatives work as a form of providing employment and increased household income in most rural communities. Serrat (2000) further states that the sustainable livelihoods approach facilitates the identification of priorities for actions that are based on the views and interests of those concerned. Just like cooperatives, the sustainable livelihoods approach is aimed at meeting the demands of people by allowing people to identify their needs and act upon them through various activities such as sewing, manufacturing, farming and mining so as to increase their household incomes and alleviate poverty.

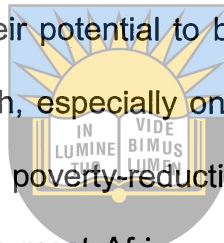


The sustainable livelihood approach works hand in hand with the values of cooperatives in that cooperatives work for the sustainable development of their respective communities. However, this approach has its disadvantages as it does not embrace participatory development. In this context, not everyone living in the rural areas is poor; hence not all the local people in a community are obligated to participate because some of them are not poor. In addition, this approach seems to put much emphasis on poor people whilst cooperatives, on the other hand, incorporate everyone in a community regardless of status; it accommodates skilled, illiterate and semi-skilled. Despite these demerits, the sustainable livelihoods approach was used for this study as it forms the basis of cooperative development in rural areas and that it accommodates for the involvement of local people to come together and share ideas and interests so as to achieve one goal.

2.7 Conclusion

Much has been discussed on the subject of cooperatives across all spectrums and in particular, the role they play in bringing about development in both the urban and rural sectors. The United Nations declared 2012 as a year of cooperatives, and this clearly shows the important role played by cooperatives in development. Apart from this, cooperatives have also been viewed as playing a key role in the new agenda of “Sustainable Development Goals” (SDG’s) with the end of the “Millennium Development Goals” (MDG’s) agenda in the end of 2015.

The subject of cooperatives and their potential to bring about development in rural areas has not been discussed much, especially on their potential as a panacea to the problem of unemployment and poverty-reduction, especially in the context of deteriorating economic conditions in most African governments. Their full potential has not been realised due to various factors such as too much government interference, lack of financial support for these cooperatives and poor policy formulation and implementation. This is shown through the empirical evidence from different cooperatives not only in Africa but also in Europe and Latin America. Therefore, the study focuses on agricultural cooperatives with reference to unemployment and poverty in rural communities.



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CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0. Introduction

As indicated in chapter one, the study sought to evaluate the role played by agricultural cooperatives in employment-creation and poverty-reduction in Mangwe and Bulilima District. Therefore, this chapter describes in detail how the data was collected for the study and ethical considerations. It also discusses the approach that the researcher used in conducting the research.

The study was carried out in Marula and Empandeni wards in Mangwe District and Izimnyama and Masendu wards in Bulilima District in Matabeleland, South Province in Zimbabwe. Primary and secondary methods were used to collect information for the study. The choice of Mangwe and Bulilima District for the study, as opposed to other districts, was based on the availability of agricultural cooperatives, NGOs and government departments in the area. The researcher's knowledge of the place was also of great assistance. The local languages, Kalanga and Ndebele, were used greatly to ensure easy communication with the targeted groups. Questionnaires were translated from English to Kalanga and Ndebele for those who had a challenge with English as a medium of communication.

3.1. Description of Study Area

The research focused on various development projects in both in Marula and Empandeni wards in Mangwe and Izimnyama and Masendu wards in Bulilima district in Matabeleland, South Province in Zimbabwe. These included cattle breeding, nutrition gardens, and small-scale farming as strategic business units. These projects, according to Khanye (2005), are aimed at enhancing the livelihoods of the

rural people. The research focused on the role played by agricultural cooperatives in employment-creation and poverty-reduction in these wards.

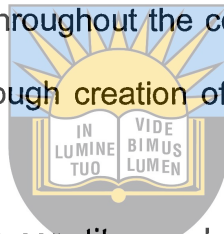
The research was carried out in two villages of Magwe district, Izimnyama ward and Empandeni ward. Mangwe is a vast district of 12 wards, and the district is bordered by Bulilima District on North and West, Matobo to the South-East and Botswana to the West. The district falls under regions 4 and 5, which is basically conducive for livestock rearing and wildlife.

Mangwe Area is situated in the South-West of Zimbabwe along the border with Botswana; what used to be one District has since developed into three Districts, namely, Mangwe, Plumtree and Bulilima (Magadza, 2006). The population of the District is approximately 225 000 (Central Statistics Office, 2011). It is a highly rural district with most of the population living in villages, often with dispersed or scattered homesteads, save Plumtree which is the only urban settlement within the district. Economic activities are mainly confined to agriculture and wildlife utilization, with very minor service provision. A large amount of the District falls into Natural region IV of Zimbabwe, which is most suitable for semi-extensive farming. Rainfall is very low and uncertain for any significant cash-cropping; traditionally, most of the population rely on livestock production and growing of a few drought resistant crops (Moyo, 2002).

Izimnyama communal ward is situated 10km from Plumtree town along Plumtree – Mphoengs road in Mangwe district. The ward is close to Plumtree town, and the economic drivers are livestock, cross-border trading and bee-keeping. An Agricultural Rural Development Agency (ARDA) estate also provides employment to only a few locals, leaving most of them engaged in waged employment. Many of the people

who work within the district are state officials such as agricultural extension workers, teachers, nurses, police officers and non-governmental organisations' staff.

Mangwe district is of Kalanga origins, but the effects of migration and colonization have seen an infiltration of Ndebele speaking people. Izimnyama and Empandeni wards have both Ndebele and Kalanga speaking communities, which explains why two different tribes can fall under the jurisdiction of one chief. Bulilima District is found in Matabeleland South Province and came into existence after the government carried out a delimitation exercise throughout the country in 2008, with the view of improving governance of areas through creation of smaller districts that are easily manageable.



This resulted in old Bulilima-mangwe constituency being demarcated and giving birth to Bulilima and Mangwe Districts (Parliament Research Department, 2011). The area is situated in the South-West of Zimbabwe along the border of Botswana with 22 Wards; the district is further divided into two, namely: Bulilima West (11 wards) and Bulilima East (11 wards) Constituency.

It is a highly rural district with most of the population living in villages, often with dispersed homesteads, with Plumtree Town (often referred to "*Kutitji*" by the Kalanga and "*Esititshini*" by the Ndebele) the only urban settlement.

3.1.1. Historical background of selected cooperatives

The study was conducted in four cooperatives in the four wards of Izimnyama, Masendu, Marula and Empandeni in Mangwe and Bulilima Districts. The information about these agricultural cooperatives was gathered from book keepers of these cooperatives and Agriculture extension officers also assisted greatly in disseminating the nature and history of the selected cooperatives.

Kanyekanye Makhelwane Cooperative

This Cooperative was established in 1985. It was one of the first cooperatives to be established in this area. A lot of unemployed youths including both women and men joined this cooperative as a way of remaining productive and raising finance to meet family needs. The cooperatives since its formation have been receiving numerous government support. This was in the form of credit, market and inputs to improve their farm operations. At first the cooperative constituted of 50 members. The number gradually increased over the years until the 2008 economic crisis when members started to decline in numbers. Most of the agricultural cooperative members had to look for greener pasture across Limpopo River (South Africa). Agricultural mired with country's economic crisis the cooperative were now performing below full capacity, situation which affected their revenue.



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The cooperative is situated in Izimnyama ward and merely focuses on small livestock and growing vegetables; it currently has a membership of 45 people. It grows vegetables like spinach, cabbages, tomatoes and onions. On livestock, the cooperative rears goats. They often sell their agricultural products to the local community and nearby towns. The cooperative sometimes receive funding from other NGOs operating in the area. This has helped them a lot since the government is no longer able to support them with their farming operations. However the cooperative is hailed for championing food security in the community.

Bambanani agricultural cooperative

The history of Bambanani agricultural cooperative can be traced from 1990. It is situated in in Masendu ward in Bulilima District. The Bambanani agricultural cooperative is a typical development project planned by the Zimbabwean

government in consultation with community in an attempt to improve the living standards and job opportunities around that community. The word Bamberani is a Ndebele word meaning let's work together. People have to form a cooperative as a way of working together in up lifting themselves from the shackles of poverty. They realise that people should not work as an individual but as a group. To them unity is their only strength of overcoming their socio-economic challenges.

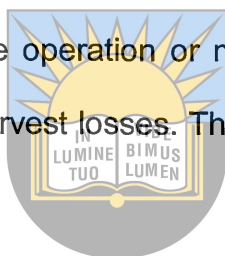
The government have to negotiate with the community residents to establish an agricultural cooperative in their area. Hence, it was established in by a group of community members who were interested in farming activities. Planning of the project went through several revisions. Currently, the project consists of 20 hectares of irrigated land. In support of this project, the government helped in giving them support to increase their agricultural productivity. This cooperative deals with crop production and vegetables. Much of the products that are produced by the project range from cabbages, carrots, summer potatoes, green peppers, maize, onions, spinach and butternut. The cooperative prospered in the 1990s and managed to sell its produce to markets in both rural and urban areas. During its establishment, its membership was 100, and it had a sharp increase, but since 2010, the membership has declined from 189 to 83.

Makwe agricultural cooperative

Established in 1982, this is one of the oldest cooperatives in Mangwe district. It was created as a farmers' association with the aim of improving access to farming inputs. It started off with a membership of 150 and thrived in selling agricultural crops and vegetables. Membership in the cooperative is limited to individual farmers whose main occupation is farming and who operate and live within a radius of 10 kilometres

from the cooperative's headquarters. This means that only those individual within 10km radius are the ones who benefited from this agricultural cooperative.

The cooperative has operated reasonably successfully since its inception and has continued to provide input loans to its members. However, the marketing of members' produce has been a challenge. The cooperative only managed to buy produce from their members for a period of two years (1990-1992) and during these two years, they faced problems with marketing due to lack of market information and (to some degree) poor management of the produce. Lack of infrastructure development have also affected the operation or marketing of this cooperative. In most cases they suffer from post-harvest losses. This exacerbated by lack of proper storage facilities.



Mzinyathi agricultural cooperative

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The cooperative started with a group of 60 farmers in 1997 with the aim of addressing the problem of access to input markets. Since its inception, the cooperative has operated reasonably successfully. The cooperative benefited from both Africare input scheme and government input distribution. The cooperative was one the most successful agricultural cooperative in the region. It have been awarded with numerous awards at regional level. However, political interference have been an obstacle in the development and growth of the cooperative. Most prominent politician have hijacked the objective and mission of the cooperative. It has lately been used as political rather than a developmental tool.

On the other hand, its success is based on the fact that it has been able to survive for such a long period of time. However, the marketing of members' produce was undertaken for only a period of two years (2000-2002), and this has resulted in

losses. The cooperative engage in both crop and poultry production. They rear chicken for both egg and meat production. However, being situated far from Bulawayo, which is the main city, the cooperative has incurred high transportation costs and difficulties in accessing market information. Membership has also sharply declined from 2010 to 2015. Also lack of fair prices in the rural areas have hindered the performance of the agricultural cooperative.

3.2 Research Design

According to Vaus (2001), a research design refers to overall strategy that one can choose to integrate the different components of the study in a coherent and logical way, thereby ensuring effective address of a research problem. It constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and the analysis of data; one point to note is that the research problem determines the type of design and not the other way round. Research design deals with a logical problem and not a logistical problem (Yin, 1989). Before a builder or architect can develop a work plan or order materials, they must first establish the type of building required, its uses and the needs of the occupants. Therefore, research design is the conceptual structure within which research would be conducted. The function of research design is to provide for the collection of relevant information with minimal expenditure of effort, time and money.

In addition, social research needs a design or a structure before data collection or analysis can commence. A research design is not just a work plan. A work plan details what has to be done to complete the project, and the work plan flows from the project's research design. Significantly the research design indicates who will be studied, when, where and circumstances under which they will be observed (Mpofu, 2011). The function of a research design is to ensure that the evidence obtained

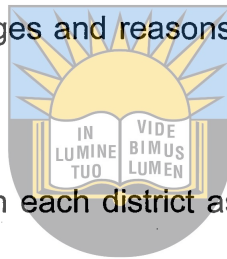
enables the researchers to answer the initial question as unambiguously as possible. Obtaining relevant evidence entails specifying the type of evidence needed to answer the research question, to test a theory, to evaluate a programme or to accurately describe some phenomenon.

According to Vaus (2001), sound research design follows these five steps in chronological order:

- Identify the research problem clearly and justify its selection, particularly in relation with alternative designs that could have been used;
- Review and synthesize previous published literature associated with the problem;
- Clearly specify research questions central to the research problem;
- Effectively describe data which will be necessary for an adequate test of hypotheses and explain how data will be obtained; and
- Lastly, describe the methods of analysis which will be then applied to the data in determining whether the hypothesis is true or false.

The researcher made use of a research design called a Case Study due to its advantages, as noted by Flick (2009) who states that the term “case” is rather broadly understood since you can take persons, social communities (e.g. families), organizations and institutions (e.g. a nursing home) as the subject of a case analysis. A case study is an in-depth study of a particular research problem rather than a sweeping statistical survey. It is often used to narrow down a very broad field of research into one or a few easily researchable examples. The case study research design is also useful for testing whether a specific theory and model actually applies to phenomena in the real world.

The researcher adopted the case study design primarily because of the need to evaluate the role played by agricultural cooperatives in employment-creation and poverty-reduction in Mangwe and Bulilima Districts. Flick (2009) states that case studies can capture the process under study in a very detailed and exact way. The case study enables the researcher to focus on more than one ward, which also made it possible to use a multiple number of sources and methods of investigation, which contribute in bringing out clear findings. Scholars such as Creswell (2005) emphasize that case studies are able to fully use the potential of certain methods. As a result, this is one of the advantages and reasons why the case study design was employed.



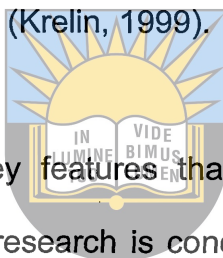
The researcher chose two wards in each district as they are close neighbours with similar social and cultural values. These wards often work hand-in-glove towards trying to improve their living conditions, with the aim of reaching development outcomes such as: employment, food security, poverty alleviation, livelihoods, participation (training and education) and good governance of these cooperatives.

The case study design was more suitable for this research as it greatly helped in discovering the association of different variables and making it easy to apply these. The research mainly aimed at uncovering the views of the local people, Government institutions, Cooperatives members, Community Based Organisations and NGOs regarding the role of agricultural cooperatives in employment-creation and poverty-reduction.

3.3 Research methodology

Research methodology is a way to systematically solve the research problem. The study used a qualitative research methodology. In broad terms, qualitative research

is an approach that allows the researcher to examine people's experiences in detail by using a specific set of research methods such as in-depth interviews, focus group discussions and observations (Hennick, Hutter & Bailey, 2011). Qualitative research makes it easier for the researcher to flexibly explore the field with the aim of assessing specific information to come up with accurate results. In addition, qualitative research is used to gain insight into people's attitudes, behaviours, value systems, concerns, motivations, aspirations, culture or lifestyles (Ereaut, 2007). It is used to deepen the understanding of complex social and human factors in ways that cannot be understood with numbers (Krelin, 1999).



Babbie (1999) stresses a few key features that must be visible in qualitative research, and these features are: research is conducted in the natural setting; the primary aim is an in-depth understanding of the actors and events; and the focus is rather on the process rather than the outcome. In this study, the qualitative research approach provided the researcher with the chance to determine the challenges, experiences and views of the research participants. Hence, the point by Denzin and Lincoln (2008) that qualitative research involves an interpretative naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative research is the study of things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of and interpreting phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them.

Qualitative research made it easier for the researcher to flexibly explore the field with the aim of assessing the impact of agricultural cooperatives on employment creation, poverty alleviation and the factors affecting cooperatives so as to come up with accurate results. In broad terms qualitative research is an approach that allows one

to examine people's experiences in detail, by using a specific set of research methods such as in-depth interviews, focus group discussions and observations (Hennick, Hutter & Bailey 2011). Babbie (1999) stresses the few following key features that must be visible in qualitative research:

- Research is conducted in the natural setting;
- The primary aim is an in-depth understanding of the actors and events; and
- The focus is on the process rather than the outcome.

In addition the research used a historical approach to support the qualitative method so as to validate information gathered from the field with secondary data such as government reports, articles and NGO reports. Historical research is viewed as the systematic and objective location, evaluation and synthesis of evidence in order to establish facts and draw conclusions about past events (Borg, 1963). It is an act of reconstruction undertaken in a spirit of critical enquiry designed to achieve a faithful representation of others from documents and records, and researchers often have to contend with inadequate information so that their reconstructions tend to be sketches rather than portraits. Indeed, the difficulty of obtaining adequate data makes historical research one of the most taxing kinds of enquiry to conduct satisfactorily (Borg, 1963).

3.4 Research Population

Population is defined as a collection of all the elements that are being studied and that are used to drawing conclusions. According to Leads (2005), a research population refers to the total set of units in which the investigation is interested. Bulilima-Mangwe district has a population of 225 000 (Central Statistics Office 2011). In this study, the research population included residents of Izimnyama and Mmandeni wards where agricultural cooperative are dominant. It also looked at

Bulilima district beneficiaries of the socio-economic development projects; the targeted population were the cooperatives members and community members.

3.5 Sampling procedures

When conducting research, it is almost always impossible to study the entire population that one is interested in. As a result, researchers use samples as a way to gather data. A sample is a subset of the population being studied. It represents the larger population and is used to draw inferences about that population. It is a research technique widely used in the social sciences as a way to gather information about a population without having to measure the entire population. In light of the above, a sample of the population was used for the purpose of the study since the whole population in both wards is rather too large. A sample is a relatively small section from within the population. It is out of this population that the study selected direct participants to form the research sample based on the sampling method outlined.

Trochim (2006) defines sampling as the process of selecting units (e.g. people, organisations) from a population of interest so that by studying the sample, one may fairly generalize the results back to the population from which they were chosen. This study used simple random sampling in selecting two villages each from Empandeni ward and Izimnyama ward. Huysamen (2001) states that, simple random sampling is useful because it is representative of the whole population as each member of the population has the same chance of being included. Easton (1997) defines simple random sampling as the basic sampling technique used to select a group of subjects (a sample) for study from a larger group. The simple random sample is the basic sampling method assumed in statistical methods and computations. To collect a simple random sample, each unit of the target population

is assigned a number. A set of random numbers is then generated, and the units having those numbers are included in the sample.

3.5.1 Sample size

The sample of the research comprised project beneficiaries, community members in general and the field operations officers of the various government departments working within these communities as these were key respondents in this study. Moreover, the respondents were chosen on the basis of their participation in these communities' cooperatives. The study sample comprised 100 cooperative members and 40 community members. Unstructured open-ended questionnaires were administered to project beneficiaries, namely, include men, women and the youth. The participants for the questionnaires were selected using systematic random sampling. In-depth interviews were carried out with 8 NGOs and 8 governmental officials; this was done to get a deeper understanding of the agricultural cooperative projects that were being implemented and their contribution to employment-creation and poverty alleviation.

3.5.2 Purposive Sampling

The study used a purposive sampling technique to select the respondents from government ministries and NGO officers working in the district. Seale, Gobo, Gubrium and Silverman (2004) state that purposive sampling is the most important type of non-probability sampling because researchers rely on their experience, ingenuity or previous research findings to deliberately obtain participants in such a manner that the sample obtained may be regarded as representative of the relevant population. The basis for choosing purposive sampling technique is that it allowed the researcher to select the respondents who had better knowledge of the

agricultural cooperatives communities that are facilitated in the wards in Mangwe and Bulilima District.

3.5.3 Systematic Random Sampling

The study also employed systematic random sampling for validity purposes. Huysamen (2001) contends that systematic random sampling and cluster sampling are simpler and more convenient than random sampling, especially when a representative sample from the entire population is to be obtained, as in large scale opinion polls. A systematic random sample is obtained by selecting one unit on a random basis and choosing additional units at evenly spaced intervals until the desired number of units are obtained (Salient & Dillman, 1994).

Seale *et al* (2004) highlights that systematic random sampling or the implementation of probability sampling in social sciences is theoretically weak because it works only when the population is known. In reference to this study, the number of project beneficiaries in both was made known to the researcher; a list of the names was given to the researcher so as to conduct the sampling procedure. In addition, Castillo (2009) points out that the advantage of using this type of sampling over random sampling is its simplicity, the mere fact that it allows the researcher to add a degree of system into the random selection of the subjects and lastly, there is assurance that the population is evenly sampled.

3.6 Data Collection Methods

The study relied on in-depth interviews and open-ended questionnaires directed to the leaders of agricultural cooperatives, the government, community members and cooperative members, as well as secondary data such as books, journals, and document analysis on the role played by agricultural cooperatives in employment-creation and poverty-reduction in Mangwe and Bulilima Districts. An open-ended

questionnaire allows researcher to better access the respondent's choices that actually reflect their feelings (Downey 2010). Questionnaires were distributed to cooperative members and community members.

3.6.1 Interviews

In-depth interviews were also used as a method of collecting data in this study. Qualitative researchers rely quite extensively on in-depth interviewing. Kahn and Cannell (1957) describe interviewing as "a conversation with a purpose". It may be the overall strategy or only one of several methods employed. In essence, an interview is a conversation with the respondent to gather data and cross-validate information from the reports. Interviews were held with the government officials and NGO project officers, and the research questions were used as a guide in the interviews; these gave the opportunity of instant feedback and enabled probing of complex answers.



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According to Cohen and Crabtree (2006), in-depth interviews allow the respondents the freedom to express their views in their own terms; they provide reliable, comparable qualitative data. On the other hand, Kotler (1999) identifies two forms of face-to-face interviews, namely: individual and group interviews. The researcher used individual interviewing to collect information from the project officers. As was mentioned before by Cohen and Crabtree (2006), these interviews enable the participants to speak freely. Moreover, individual interviewing gave every respondent the opportunity to voice out their line of thought without having being influenced by group psychology. The in-depth interviews encouraged the respondents to go deeper and deeper into their levels of understanding, and one of the merits of utilizing in-depth interviews was that the researcher was able to use non-verbal

communication during interviews and read facial expressions of respondents on sensitive topics.

3.6.2 Questionnaires

A questionnaire is defined as an instrument for collecting data through carefully laid down questions. Leady and Ormrod (2009) view a questionnaire as a common place for observing data beyond the physical reach of the observer. They further states that a good questionnaire must have three characteristics, and these include: clarity, devoid of leading and unambiguous questions. Questionnaires, therefore, must be simple and easily understood questions those individuals can interpret and make meaning and sense out of them.



The questionnaires had open-ended questions and, thus, allowed the respondents to fully express their opinions. Unlike close-ended questions, this includes possible answers and subjects, thereby allowing the respondents to fully express themselves.

The researcher personally administered the questionnaires to the selected sample of participants. This was done to ensure that all the sections of the questionnaire were answered and ensured that all questions were understood well. Apart from allowing the respondents to freely express their feelings, open-ended questionnaires were designed to focus specifically on a particular problem. The focus of the study was drawn on the role played by agricultural cooperatives in employment-creation and poverty-reduction in Mangwe and Bulilima District.

3.7 Archival Data

The research extensively used reports, books and journals in gathering archival data (secondary data). The advantage of using archival data is that it provides three qualities in the study, and these are: convenience, accuracy and affordability. Mpofu

(2011) asserts that secondary data can also be gathered more quickly and is less costly. However, one of the disadvantages of this type of source is that at times, data that does not address the exact problem the researcher is addressing may be found; moreover, some materials are outdated and do not help much in giving the current information (Dirwai & Gwimbi, 2003). For the purpose of this study, secondary sources were used to clarify the role played by agricultural cooperatives in employment-creation and poverty-reduction in the districts of Mangwe and Bulilima. These secondary sources were also harmonised with the primary sources.

3.7.1 Data Analysis and Validation

According to De Vos (2005), data analysis entails the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data. The researcher used thematic analysis as it is a descriptive presentation of data of which, according to Braun and Clark (2008), is widely used in qualitative data. Thematic analysis allowed the researcher to discuss common themes from the data gathered on the role played by agricultural cooperatives in employment-creation and poverty reduction. It offers an accessible and theoretically flexible approach to analysing qualitative data.

3.7.2 Ethical Considerations

For the data to be collected, the researcher had to apply for an ethical clearance from the University of Fort Hare and from both Bulilima and Mangwe Rural District Councils so as to carry out the research. As a result, the researcher complied with the University of Fort Hare ethics. It is important that the population being studied greatly benefit from the findings of the research, and as such, the recommendation of the study will be made available to participants. The purpose and nature of the study had to be explained to the participants so as to avoid deception. Creswell (2005) further goes on to say that ethical issues need to be considered mostly during

the data collection process. In this study, data collected from the respondents was, thus, treated with confidentiality, and people who participate remain anonymous and their cultural views are well respected.

To achieve confidentiality, the researcher had to ensure that the names of respondents were not included in the questionnaires. Researchers want to receive credit for their contributions and do not want to have their ideas stolen or disclosed prematurely, thus the researcher acknowledged the citations used for the study. (Resnik, 2010)

3.8. Conclusion

In conclusion, the research methodology is an important part of this study as it lays down the foundation for conducting the research; it also creates the starting point for data analysis and data interpretation by the researcher. The qualitative research approach was used for study. It was relevant because it assisted the researcher in investigating the topic flexibly with the intention of attaining specific information from the respondents; and this was made possible through the use of a case study design.



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CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the research findings on the role of agricultural cooperatives in employment-creation and poverty-reduction. The cooperative movement is one of the largest movements in Africa, as asserted by Schwettmann (2000). Schwettmann (2000) indicates that more than 40% of all households in Africa are members of a cooperative society. Globally, nearly 800 million individuals are members of cooperatives and provide an estimated 100 million jobs. They are economically significant in a large number of countries, providing foodstuff, financial services as well as the provision of services to consumers (COPAC, 1999). Cooperatives' action has become even more important in the context of global recessions, economic hardships and turmoil, which has exacerbated unemployment rates and poverty levels across the globe. Hence, cooperatives play a significant role in many national economies and can create a great number of salaried jobs and self-employment opportunities in Zimbabwe.

In the context of Zimbabwe, the cooperative movement, especially after independence in 1980, was a viable option particularly for the rural people who were affected by the ills of colonialism. It was simply an empowerment tool to fight against poverty. However, the current situation depicts a different picture as cooperatives have been side-lined for years due to a number of reasons. The economic meltdown of the Zimbabwean economy is one of the biggest challenges contributing to high unemployment and poverty levels. As such, there has been little concern over the viability of agricultural cooperatives in the rural areas, and this chapter provides an

analysis of field data. The data was gathered from respondents in two wards in Mangwe district namely, Marula ward and Empandeni ward and in the two wards in Bulilima district (Izimnyama and Masendu). The responses obtained from both the survey and documents are discussed and presented in the chapter.

4.1 Samples response rate

The table below shows the response rate of the questionnaires that were distributed in Mangwe and Bulilima Districts from June 2015-August 2015. The Public Sector and Government Departments had a 100% response rate; out of the 16 distributed questionnaires, 16 were received. Cooperative members also had a high response rate of 95% whilst the community members had a response rate of 66%, which was below the response rates of other sectors. This is due to factors such as non-compliance as other members had no knowledge of cooperatives, ignorance on the part of some youths, and some community members simply had no interest at all in responding to the questionnaires.

Table 4-0-1: Samples Response rate

Questionnaires	Distributed	Received	Response Rate
Public Sector and Government Departments	16	16	100%
Cooperative Members	100	95	95%
Community Members	60	40	66%

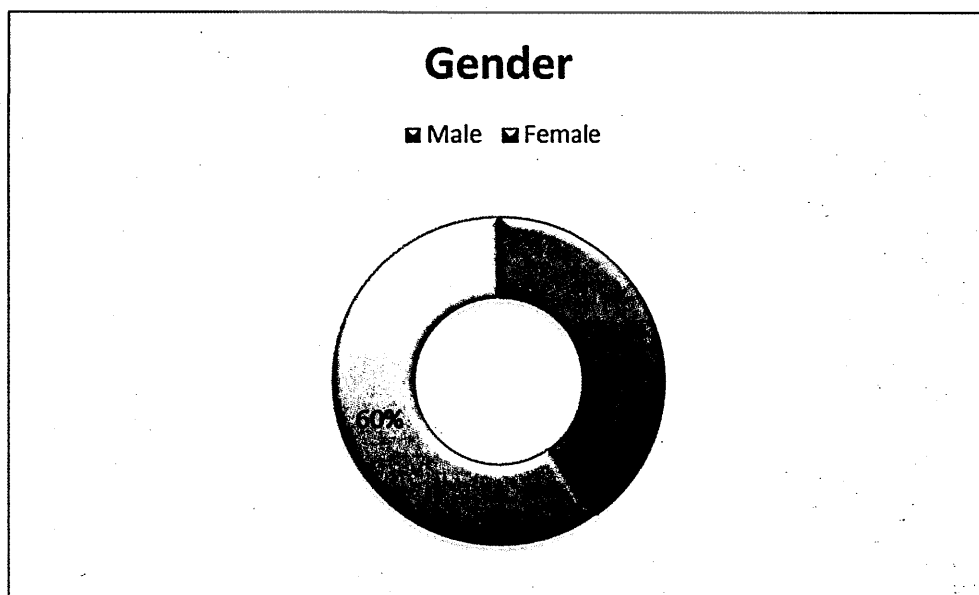
Source: Own calculations from survey (June 2015-August 2015)

4.2 Gender distribution of Respondents

The selected cooperatives and community members were asked to indicate their gender. Figure 1 shows the gender distribution of respondents from the cooperative members and community members. Of the respondents from both the community and cooperative members, 40% were male whilst 60% were female. The study observed that there were more females than males in the cooperative sector and community members. This might be due to the rural urban migration and cross-border migration done mostly by men in search for greener pastures and leaving behind females to lead their homes. Another reason that explains the dominance of females is that when they are left to lead these homes, they are at the receiving end of the effects of poverty and unemployment as they are left to look after the family; hence in that process of trying to support their families, they join the cooperatives.

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Figure 1: Gender distribution of respondents



According to Maphosa (2004: 2), such a disparity may be caused by high levels of unemployment like in the districts of Mangwe and Bulilima. He asserts that wage employment within the districts is low, with most of the people in wage employment

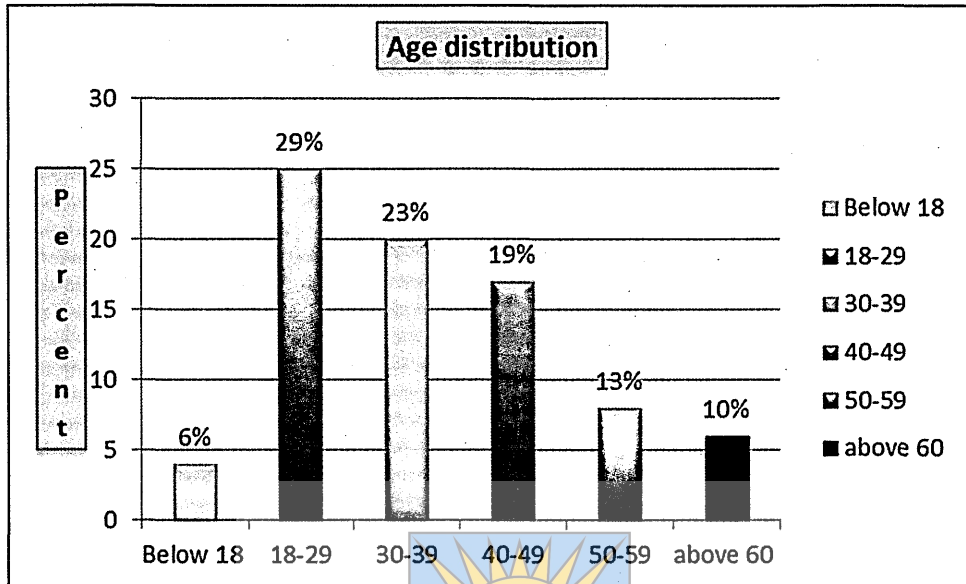
employed as migrant workers outside the districts within or outside the country. The most popular destinations for migrant labourers are South Africa and Botswana. Most of the labourers are men, leaving most of the households as female-managed households. On the other hand, men consider agriculture as low paying and drudgery, hence their migration to towns in search of greener pastures. This correlates with the findings of Lewis (1954) which indicate that earnings in urban areas are high, and this attracts surplus labour from rural areas. However, cooperatives provide an environment to improve women's social status and economic conditions.



4.3. Age distribution of respondents

The cooperatives' members were requested to indicate their ages. The age distribution varied between below 18 years to above 60, and the majority of the respondents were between the ages of 18 to 49. Figure 2 shows the age distribution of respondents. There were a small proportion of respondents below the age of 18 as most of them were at a school-going age. As shown in the diagram below, ages 18 and below were only 6%, ages 19-29 were 29%; ages 30-39 were 23%; ages 40-49 were 19%; ages 50-59 were 13%; lastly, ages above 60 had a 10% representation.

Figure 2: Age distribution of respondents

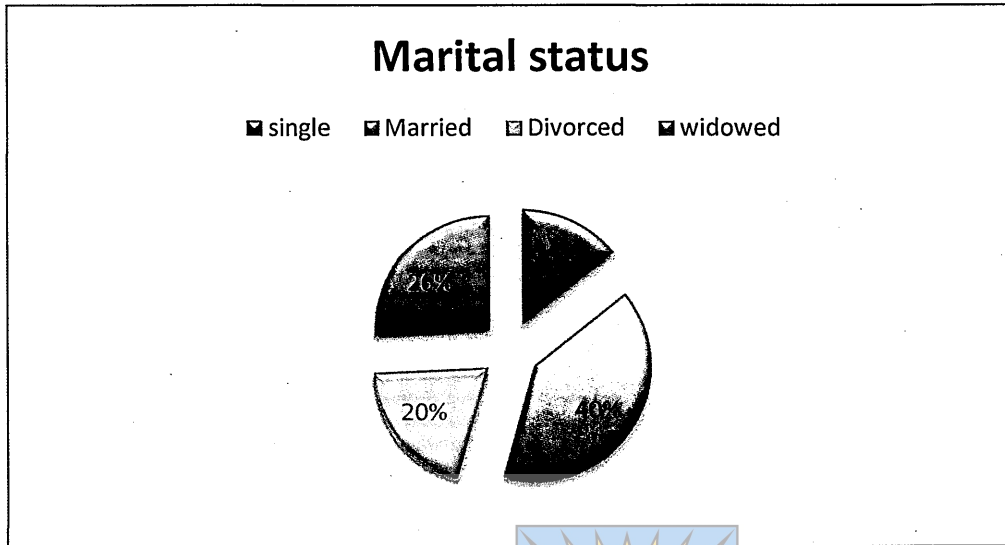


The significant proportions of respondents were between the ages of 18-29; this group represents the economically active group, and this group is used as a source of labour in most agricultural cooperatives. Although cooperatives have no stated policy on age of cooperative members, most of them have younger members. This is due to the belief that older people are expected to have greater inefficiencies because they are less adaptable to new technological developments.

4.4. Marital Status of respondents

There were four categories of marital status namely: single, married, divorced and widowed. The marital status of cooperative members in the selected areas has the majority of the families in married structures. From the respondents, 40% were married, 26% widowed, 14% single, and 20% divorced, as presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Marital Status of respondents



A significant proportion of the respondents (40%) were married. Marital status is a very important variable in the decision to form and develop cooperatives in the wake of high unemployment and poverty levels. Married respondents are likely to engage in these cooperatives so as to fend for their families. Married women often carry the burden of looking after the children while the men who, based on traditional culture, are breadwinners who leave home to fend for the family (Tshuma et al, 2012).

4.5 Education Status of respondents

The cooperative members were requested to indicate their highest level of education. This variable was requested because it has the possibility of influencing the success or operation of agricultural cooperatives. In other words, education has an influence on the sustainability of cooperatives and helps people to improve their farm operation. In this study, education levels of respondents were categorised into six sections: no education, primary education, secondary education, certificate, diploma and degree. The findings revealed that 16% of the respondents had no education at all, and these constitute the elderly who mostly grew up in the times of

colonialism, segregation and discrimination and could not read and write. Lack of education is double-edged; on one hand, it leads to lack of financial independence while on the other hand, it decreases one's chances of getting a job.

The ability of the farmers to perceive the advantages and to efficiently utilise new technology is often measured by education, farming experience and exposure to extension services. The role of education in improving farmers' efficiency is now widely accepted in that it enables farmers to acquire and process relevant information more effectively.

Figure 4: Education Status of respondents

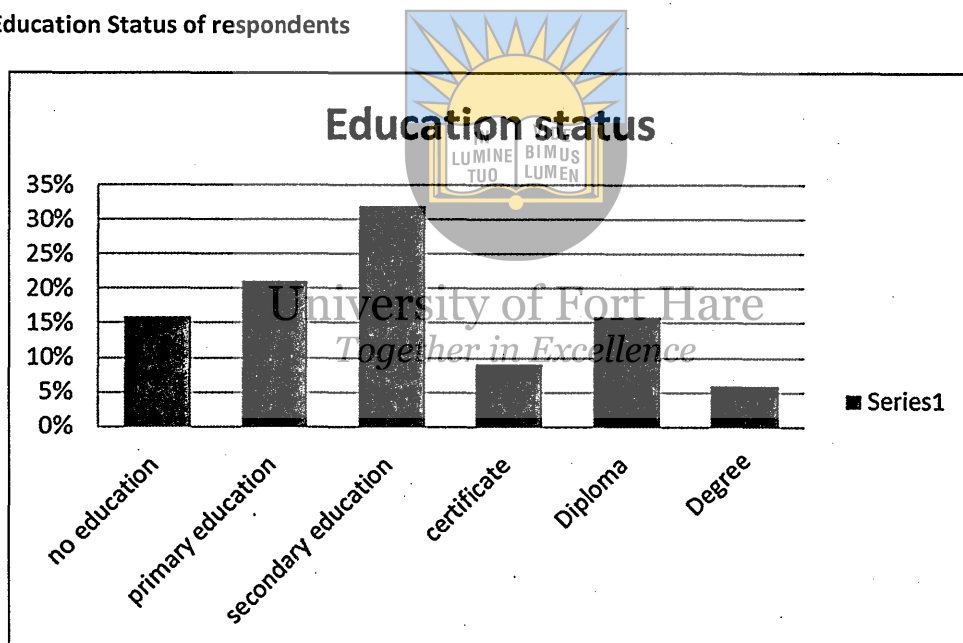


Figure 4 shows that 16% of cooperative members have no formal education because of the cost of education which is beyond the reach of many (Maphosa, 2006). Lack of motivation to enrol into formal education was reiterated by some respondents amongst the 16%; they explained having no education as due to dropping out of school. Since most of the respondents are female, they had a low educational background even though most of them finished primary school. Reasons highlighted were the patriarchal rule which is still influential in the rural communities whereby the girl child is still viewed as a person who must get married and be taken care of by the

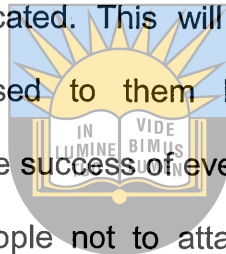
husband and in laws instead of being educated. Meanwhile education amongst males tended to be higher because most families educated the boy child over the girl child.

The educational need also requires consideration in view of the nature of society and its patriarchal attitudes towards women. Many women, in rural areas, only go to school to acquire basic literacy and numeracy skills and then leave school to get married (Maphosa, 2006). Given greater illiteracy and the skewed gender preference for education in our society, investment in education will yield high social returns and investments in girls even more so. For cultural reasons, families tend to place greater value on the education and employment of male children as future breadwinners while women are expected to marry early and depend on the household head, the husband. In most cases, marriage tends to end a woman's academic career. Little education among women impacts negatively on a dynamic society and keeps women uninformed about new agricultural technologies and new seed varieties (Maphosa, 2006).

Other respondents had gone as far as primary education (21%) but were confronted with some difficulties in continuing their studies. As shown in Figure 4, a significant number of the respondents (32%) had secondary education and 9% had certificates, 16% diplomas and 6% degrees. It must be noted that female respondents largely gave lack of funds as a reason for not going to school than their male counterparts. Amongst the 32% of the respondents who only had secondary education, female respondents in that category also reiterated that those who finished their secondary education could not proceed to tertiary education due to financial reasons or

favouritism for the boy child. Moreover, 22% of the respondents went as far as tertiary education and college levels. Educational background had a rather great impact on the answers given in the questionnaires, especially in understanding agricultural cooperatives and their contribution to employment-creation and poverty-reduction (Maphosa, 2006).

Education services as an important instrument or tool in the establishment of human capital. Productive agricultural decisions can only be made if the cooperative members are educated. Most of the farm operations and activities may be enhanced if cooperative members are educated. This will also give them opportunity to understand the information passed to them by extension workers. Hence, educational level may determine the success of every project. Various reasons have made a large portion of rural people not to attain tertiary or high school level. However, there is need to enrol in adult education provided by most government schools.

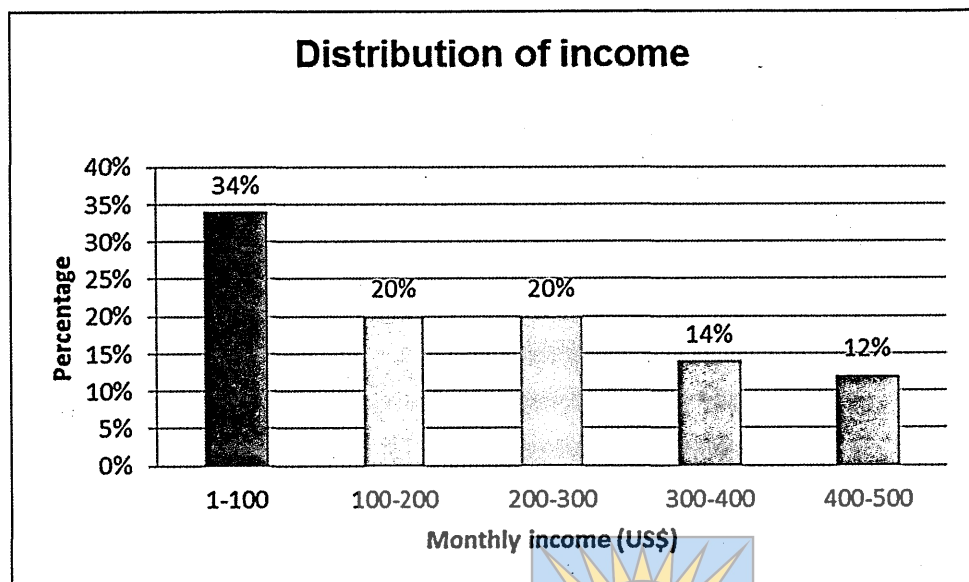


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4.6. Monthly income of respondents

Respondents were asked about their monthly income. The study revealed that 34% earned between US\$1-100; 20% earned between US\$100- 200; 20% earned between US\$200-300; 14% earned between US\$300- 400 and 12% earned between US\$400-500. The vast majority of cooperative members reported an income of less than US\$100. This indicates that poverty levels are highest among cooperative members. However, some respondents indicated that the income they received through selling crops in these agricultural cooperatives has helped them to manage to buy kitchen utensils, pay school fees for their children, and buy livestock, among other things. Apart from the sale of agricultural crops, the respondents indicated that they also engage in the sale of small livestock, which mainly includes goats.

Figure 5: Monthly income of respondents

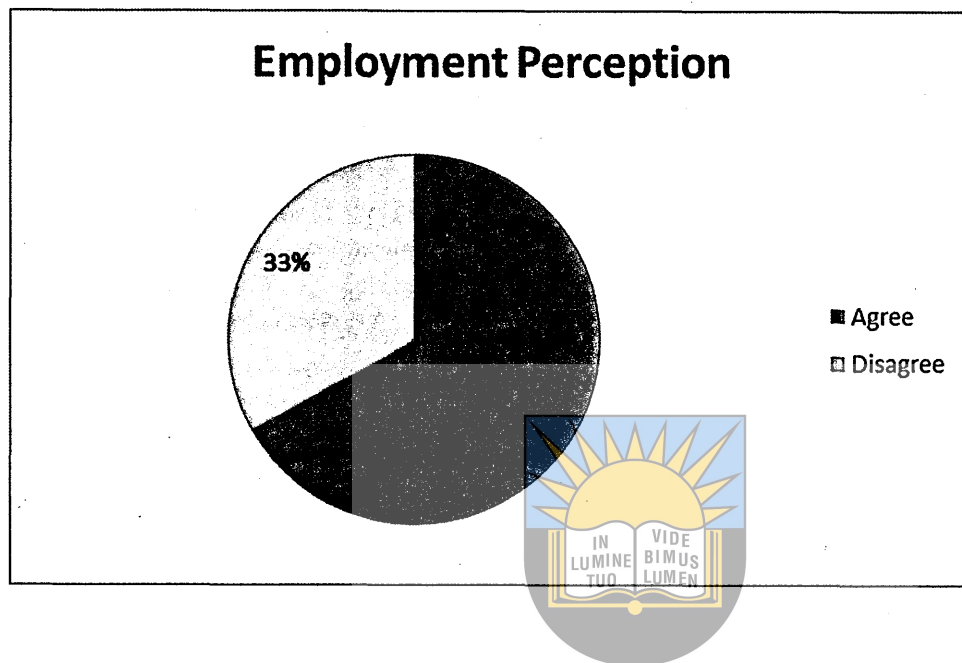


During off seasons, cooperative members tend to have insufficient money to cater for the well-being of the family. Most respondents who earn below \$100 confirmed that they work in neighbouring commercial farms to supplement their income during off seasons. With the high cost of living, it is eminent that the income cannot meet the demands of the households. Household income measures relative material well-being and illustrates the degree of dependence on farm and non-farm resources. For the most part, their earnings are well below the poverty datum line and thus need to be supplemented by non-farm income.

Since most of the rural people receive low incomes, it means that they will struggle to save their money. This is one of the economic challenges of most rural areas in Zimbabwe. Most households receive income that allows them to survive only. It is hand to mouth income. Hence this limits rural economic growth and development. Rural income poverty has widened the gap between the rich and the poor. Capital accumulation by the rich in the countryside has exacerbated the problem.

4.7 Respondents' perception of employment-creation by cooperatives

Figure 6: Employment-creation by cooperatives (respondents' perception).

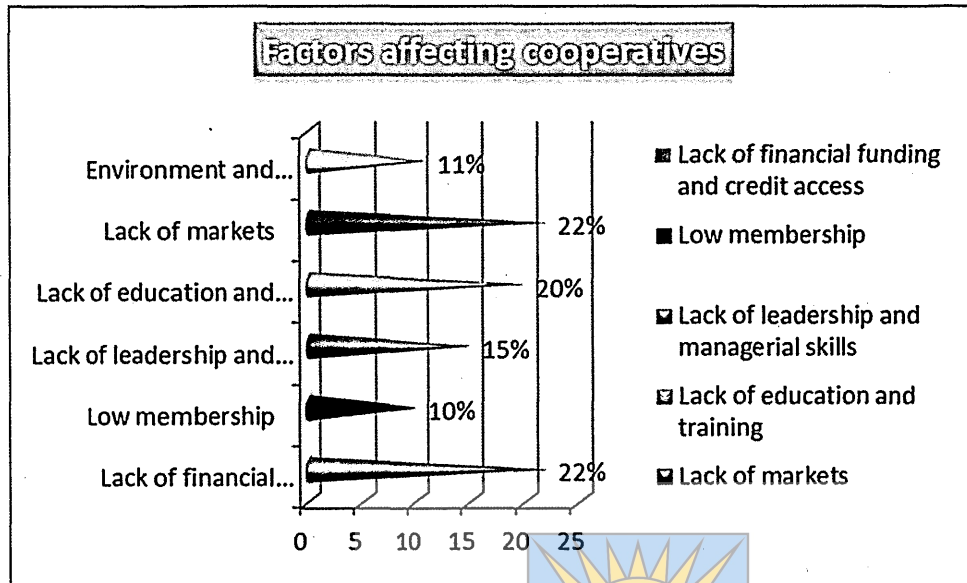


The Cooperative movement is Africa's biggest non-governmental organisation; it plays a significant role in many national economies and has created a great number of salaried jobs and self-employment opportunities in Africa (COPAC, 1999; 1). In the study, 67% of the respondents perceived cooperatives as creators of employment amongst their rural communities, especially in the era of high unemployment levels and poverty. This shows the potential of cooperatives in employment creation. Other respondents (33%) perceived cooperatives as non-creators of employment due to their small scale operations and lack of financial and institutional support.

4.8. Factors affecting cooperatives

Selected cooperative members were asked to indicate factors' affecting their farm operations. Figure 7 shows responses from the respondents from different selected agricultural cooperatives.

Figure 7: Problems and challenges faced by cooperatives as indicated by respondents



The analysis shows that 22% of the respondents indicated that lack of financial funding and access to credit is the biggest problem affecting the operation and growth of agricultural cooperatives in their rural areas. Credit enables cooperatives to initiate, sustain, or expand agricultural production and increase productivity. However, cooperatives with limited resources, especially rural women, receive only a minor share of formal agricultural credit even in countries where they are major producers. Lack of information and knowledge concerning how to apply for credit and mutual distrust between banking institutions and agricultural cooperatives constitute additional obstacles.

A further 22% of respondents indicated that lack of markets is one of the challenges they face in their cooperatives. The dilapidating economic situation in the country has adversely affected the purchase of their produce by markets as companies are closing down and ceasing operations. Furthermore, 20% of respondents also indicated that cooperatives are failing to grow due to lack of education and training

on the part of cooperative members. Therefore, cooperatives need more continuous training to improve their skills, to gain more insight and improve their knowledge.

Lack of leadership and managerial skills also affects cooperatives negatively, as indicated by 15% of the respondents. There seems to be no change in the leadership of cooperatives and as noted by Pinto (2009), most cooperatives in Africa still maintain their traditional setup than expanding into business entities. Most of the cooperatives do exist with lots of potential, and the members are well developed but lack financial competence in handling their accounts. There is, therefore, need for the government and other relevant stakeholders to provide the cooperatives with technical, financial management, farming, project management and business skills training.



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Environment and climate change are also factors that affects cooperatives as indicated by 11% of the respondents. Erratic weather changes have affected the availability of water, thereby resulting into poor growth of crops. Climate change threatens to produce variable weather and consequently, more variable harvests. Figure 7 shows that 11% of the respondents highlighted low membership as another problem in cooperatives. Communities are not joining cooperatives due lack of interest and lack of knowledge about the cooperative sector. Dissemination of information, on the part of cooperatives, has adversely affected the growth and rise of membership.

4.9. Respondents' Perception on government input support

Cooperative members were asked to indicate the extent to which government has provided them with support to initiate their programmes. The table 2 below indicates

that 72% of the respondents reported that the government provided them with seeds and garden tools; 13% were assisted with seeds only while 15% were assisted with both seeds and fertilizers. Moreover, 13% indicated that there was a shortage of garden tools, as some of them did not benefit from the state-of-art mechanisation programme. Overall, a few respondents (13%) indicated that there was little support from the government to adequately equip the cooperative farmers with necessary inputs. As much as all the beneficiaries were provided with implements, they also needed training in order to acquire skills necessary to sustain the programme. This indicates inefficiency from the side of government.

Table 4-2: Government input support

Response	Percentage of respondents
Assisted with seeds and garden tools	72%
Assisted with seeds only	13%
Assisted with seeds and fertilizers	15%
Total	100%

Amongst the 13% of respondents whom were assisted by seeds, only some indicated that the high incidence of corruption was the main factor that hindered effective distribution of government support and their access to inputs. They further raised issues like politics as obstacles; one cooperative member echoed the sentiment that, “influential people are accessing all conduits of government support for various implements and inputs”. Findings from the study indicated that cooperatives have limited access to agricultural inputs, and this proved to be a constraint as they could not make proper use of the inputs. Moreover, government input suppliers in rural areas have largely been politicized. It’s a matter of political

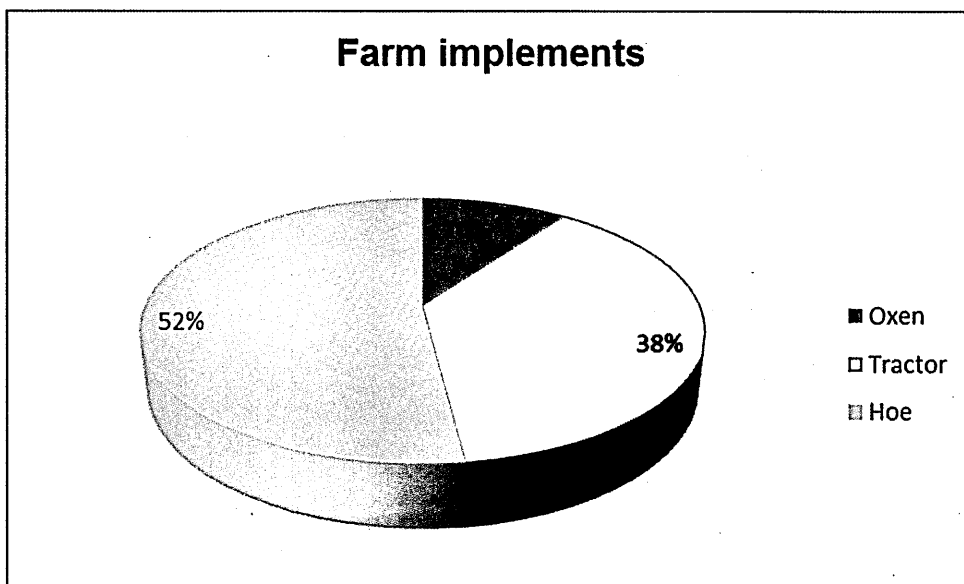
rather than national interest in the way agricultural inputs are distributed. This have also affected the way cooperatives function and their role in alleviating poverty in most rural areas of Zimbabwe.

Lack of inputs is a threat to the livelihood of the cooperative members. Agricultural inputs play an important role in rising the productivity and production of agricultural cooperative. The supply or subsidization of inputs by the government was also one of the crucial factors in the success of the Green Revolution. The agricultural actors should receive these key inputs at an affordable price. The shortage of inputs reduces the probability of having a bumper harvest and reduces household income. This will negatively affect their survival strategies in the communities they live.

4.10. Type of farm implements used by respondents

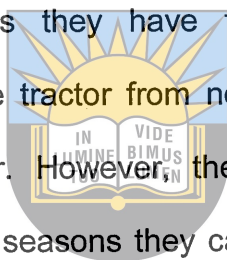
The farm implements used for ploughing included hoes, ox-drawn, plough and tractors. Of all sampled cooperative members, 52 % use hoes, 10 % use ox-drawn ploughs and 38 % use tractors.

Figure 8: Show the farm implements being used



The type of farm implements used also contributes to the level of agricultural productivity. The study noticed that a hoe was a common tool in most cooperatives and more than half of the respondents used it. Figure 8 indicates that 52% of the cooperatives did not have enough money to hire ox-drawn ploughs or tractors; that is why they resort to using hoes. Use of hoes makes cultivation difficult and time-consuming, especially to plough for large pieces of land. This has resulted in cooperatives utilising a small portion meant only for subsistence.

In most rural areas people rely most on social networking to borrow or hire agricultural equipment. Sometimes they have to borrow from other nearby agricultural cooperatives. They hire tractor from nearby commercial farmers. This makes cultivation fast and easier. However, the cost of hiring the tractor is sometimes expensive and in other seasons they cannot afford to get the services. This negatively affects their land preparations and delays the farming season.

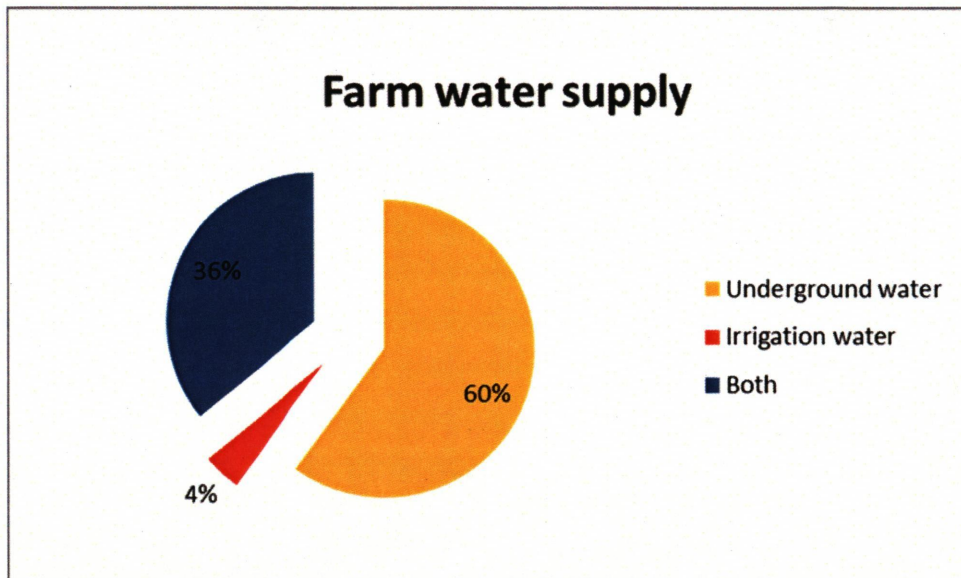


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4.11. Respondents sources of water supply

The respondents were asked to state their source of water supply which they use in their cooperatives. The data revealed that (60%) respondents depend on underground water (boreholes), whilst (10%) practise irrigation farming. The remaining (30%) indicated using both underground water and irrigation for watering their fields.

Figure 9: Farm water supply



The main challenge faced by agricultural cooperatives is erratic rainfall patterns at different periods of the crop production. Magwe and Bulilima are located in a region that has low rainfall, thus, cooperative members have to adjust to different sources so as to ensure that their crops can grow well. According to respondents, rainfall patterns have affected yields with crops failing due to shortage of rain in the region. The rain effects are also mediated by other factors pointed out by respondents. The soil in the study area is heavy such that when the rains fall for consecutive days without respite for farmers to weed, the crop becomes affected.

Cooperative farmers have, therefore, resorted to using underground water and irrigation facilities out of realising that nature alone is not enough for sustainable agriculture. Nevertheless, the study established that irrigation has contributed to enabling farmers to increase crop intensity through double-cropping, through supplementary watering during drought, as well as enabling crop growth in dry areas' crop expansion. However, Figure 9 shows that few cooperatives use irrigation 4%; this may be because they neither afford the water sprinklers nor repair them when damaged. The respondents who indicated to be using both underground water and

irrigation were 36%. Using both irrigation and underground has a multi-faceted role in contributing to food security, self-sufficiency, food production and exports. Lastly 60% uses underground water as their source.

Water is also a crucial element which boost natural capital base of many rural people. However, in this modern era it is not wise to rely solely on rain fed agriculture. The rainfall has become erratic as a result of climatic change. It is high time to use underground water and make use of large reserves of water. A lot of water is lost through runoff when it falls. There is need to have some water reservoir mechanism to collect the running water. Water shortages have in most cases halted the operation of some agricultural cooperatives in the area. This has affected their way of life in the rural areas.



4.12. Respondents' reception of agricultural skills and training

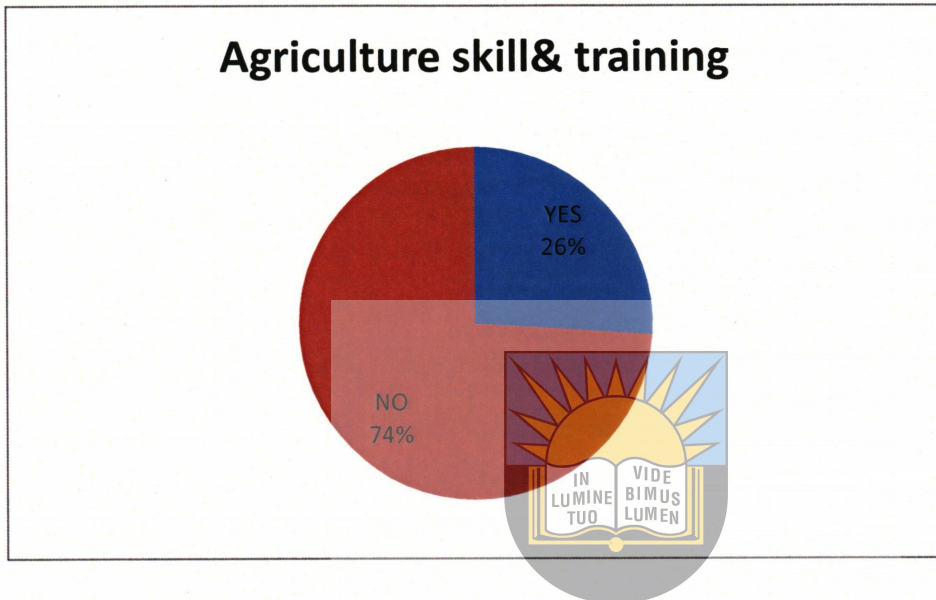
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The selected cooperative members were asked to indicate whether they had received any agriculture-related training, and only 26% of the sample indicated having access to agricultural training while a significant 74% had not received any agricultural training. Many factors affect cooperative members' participation in skills and agriculture training programmes in Zimbabwe. According to Maphosa (2006), they embrace economic hardships, socialization, and negative community perception about cooperatives.

Lack of training was attributed to low levels of literacy and lack of finance. However, lack of interest was also observed among the elderly cooperative members who thought their experience was adequate. The majority of the respondents (74%) did not possess agricultural skills and training and indicated that they were unaware of

availability of such opportunities; some said they did not get a chance to attend due to other social commitments which limited available time for training.

Figure 10: Agricultural skills and training



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Figure 8 illustrates that 74% of the respondents were not receiving training and cited this as one of the discouraging factors; seemingly training by extension officers is often a long distance away from the local community. They also raised the fact that lack of awareness of agricultural training workshop schedules portrays a picture of poor information networks.

Agricultural education and training helps cooperatives with necessary technical skills and knowledge to enable them to utilize their land, capital and labour to the best advantage. It also develops the ability of the farmers, given the input resources available to them to choose the enterprise that would yield the most profit through application of proper farm budgeting and record keeping skills.

One can argue that government alone may not be able to bring about the required agricultural training to cooperative farmers. Private stakeholders can go a long way to complementing the government's efforts. Cooperative members should be equipped with skills and knowledge in order to contribute effectively to the development of their programmes. Government extension officers should provide on-going training for the cooperative members. Continuous training and education are crucial for the programme to grow and develop (Maphosa, 2006).

In this particular case, Agricultural Research Extension (AREX) plays a crucial role when it comes to agricultural development, especially agricultural cooperatives within rural communities. It is one of the Departments in the Ministry of Agriculture that is responsible for providing public agricultural extension services in sub-sector crops. However, even though these government departments are drivers of development within Bulilima and Mangwe districts, there are still discrepancies. Lack of funding causes them to partner with NGOs, and this brings about a lot of problems. One AREX project officer noted:

"Some of the projects we come up with as a government department tend to lack funding and we end up partnering with those with the financial muscle, and these include NGOs who mostly implement a top-down approach as most of the people are not involved in their own development" (In-depth interview No. 1, August 20 2015).

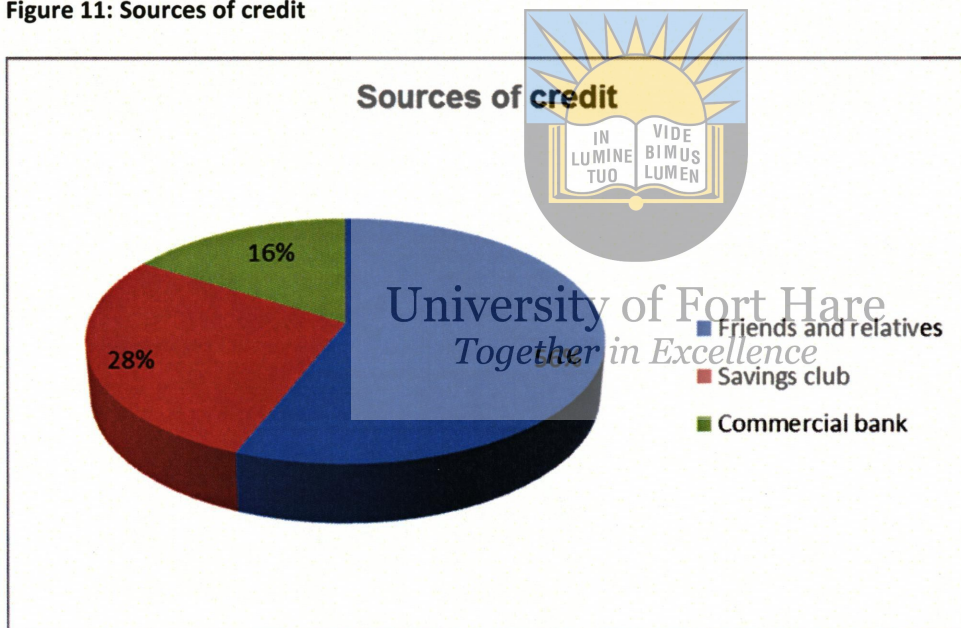
The government departments working within Mangwe and Bulilima districts face a lot of difficulties because of the issue of lack of finance on the part of the government to

implement their projects in addressing development. This, in turn, opens up avenues for minimal community participation because of the implementation of top-down approaches in terms of development with their donor and NGO partners.

4.13. Respondents' sources of credit

The respondents were asked about their sources of credit. The study revealed that 16% source their credit through commercial banks, 28% from savings clubs and 56% from friends and relatives.

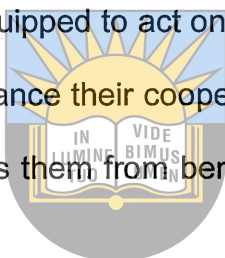
Figure 11: Sources of credit



In figure 11 above, 56% of cooperative members indicated that there are sources of funding other than the formal lending institutions. These include friends, neighbours, relatives and local shops. Figure 11 illustrates that 28% indicated that they were receiving their loans from savings clubs, and only 16% had access to commercial banks. Moreover, 56% of cooperative farmers indicated that they were too timid to request formal loans. They stated that they are afraid to incur debt which will make them lose their assets as the banks try to recover their loaned funds. This indicates

that most farmers need credit, but the prohibitive interest rates are a disincentive. As a result, most farmers do not realize their potential productivity.

Another factor is that most cooperative farmers do not qualify for bank loans as they do not have necessary collateral like title deeds. Furthermore, commercial banks and similar institutions are located in urban areas and are, therefore, not easily accessible to the majority of these rural cooperative farmers. This shows that loans and information about loans is very difficult to access. Even when they have access to information on financial services and market opportunities available to them, cooperative farmers may be less equipped to act on it. Most of the 28% of those that reported to be saving in order to finance their cooperative highlighted lower levels of literacy as an obstacle that prevents them from benefitting directly from loans since information is provided in writing.



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Some of the 56% who borrowed from friends and relatives indicated that they do not qualify for loans as per requirements of the financial institutions. The distinct advantages of the informal credit schemes include: no restrictions being imposed on the purposes of credit use; credit is provided in very small amounts and is typically available with a minimum time delay.


Access to finance is one of the vital ingredients for the sustainability of any agricultural project. Is also one of the pillars of the sustainable livelihood framework. The financial standing of the cooperatives determines also their accessibility to key inputs such as fertilizers, hybrid seeds, pesticides and herbicides. Nevertheless, financial institutions avoid rural areas arguing that there is low financial market. Most of the cooperatives do not have the collateral security to access loans. This will affect their farm operations and revenue.

4.14. Respondents' access to bank loans

The respondents were asked whether they have access to bank loans in the province. Out of the sampled households, only 40% have access to bank loans whilst 60% do not. This limited and often complete lack of access to rural financial services hampers cooperatives' efforts to improve or expand their farm activities so as to earn cash income to achieve and maintain household food security.

These are the sentiments that were echoed by a cooperative member:

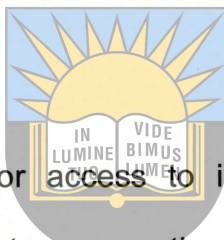
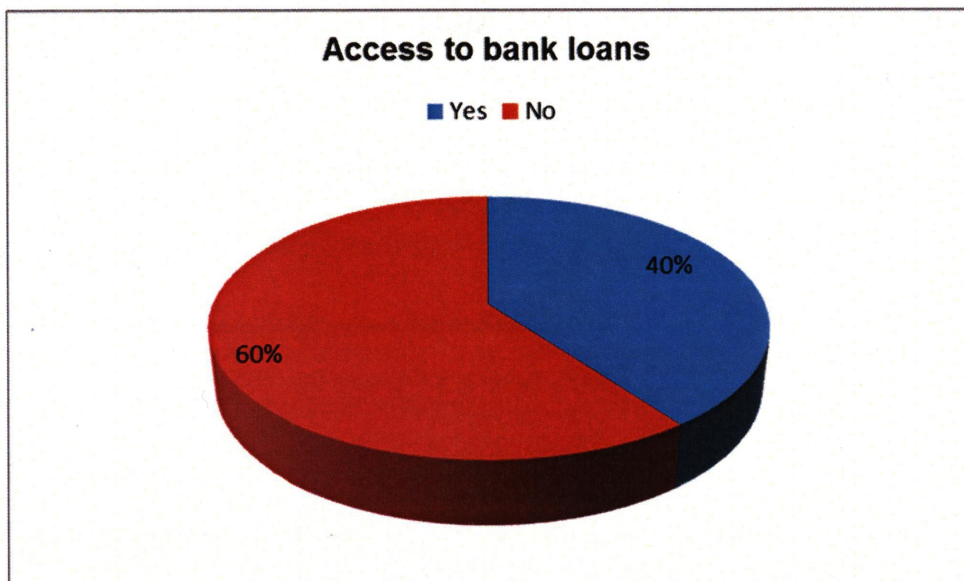
"Agricultural cooperatives in our districts are not able to run due to lack of funds since the government, NGOs and private sectors are failing to assist us so we can continue running. In fact, our membership has dropped because of such factors and above all, the current economic situation in our country has made the burden worse".



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The Food and Agricultural Organisation (2002) observes that generally, cooperatives' members are afraid to borrow because of the tedious paperwork which requires some proficiency in reading and writing. While there are 60% of the respondents that indicated that they don't have access to loans, half of them indicated that they were afraid of the adverse consequences of borrowing such as the banks impounding and auctioning their assets when they default.

Figure 12: Access to bank loans



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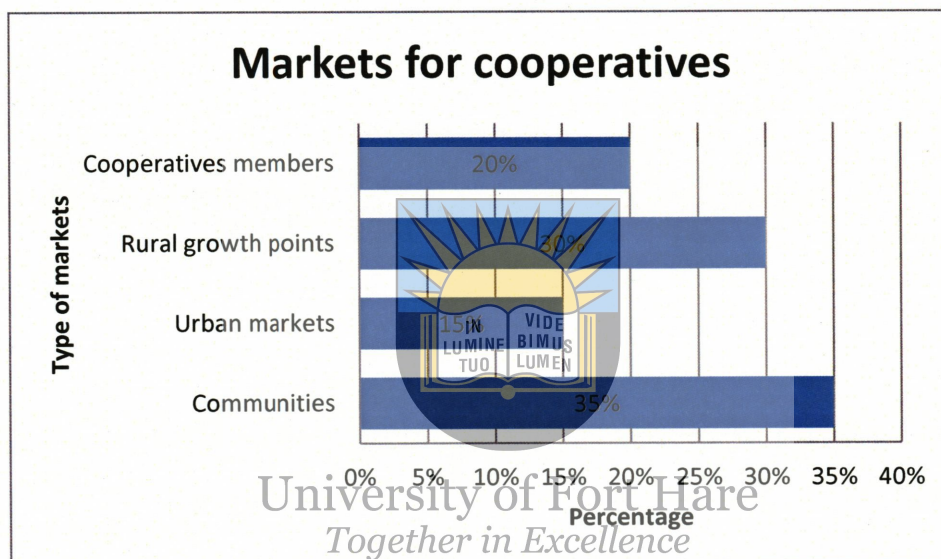
Farmers need access to credit for access to inputs like fertilizer, seeds and pesticides. When short of these inputs, cooperative farmers gain fewer benefits from their farmlands, and this makes them vulnerable to poverty. Figure 12 above shows that 40% of cooperatives' members receive loans from the commercial banks while 60% did not receive any loans due to not meeting the criteria. Arguably, access to credit will increase agricultural productivity and profitable entrepreneurial activity among cooperative farmers. Increased access to financial resources may also enhance cooperative members' status within households.

The educational status of the members is also a hindrance to cooperatives access to commercial loans. The majority of the members do not attain high school level they dropped in the primary level. Hence, face a challenge in reading terms and conditions of accessing the loan. The language used is English, most of them do not know how to read and write. Even when exposed to financial shocks they do not other means to upgrade their farm operation

4.15. Respondents' access to markets

The respondents were asked to indicate types of markets they use in selling their agricultural harvest. Figure 13 below shows the response of the sampled cooperative members.

Figure 13: Markets for cooperatives



Communities, according to figure 13 above are the largest market of cooperatives with 35%. Local community members purchase the produce of cooperatives while rural growth points (30%) are the second biggest market for cooperatives. Respondents indicated that 20% of the markets constitute cooperative members who are buying their own produce for personal consumption. However, cooperative members buy at a discounted price. This is done to ensure that members are able to enjoy the fruits of their labour.

On the other hand, the urban sector is contributing little (15%) to providing markets for the cooperatives due to competition and closure of some markets for rural cooperatives. Although their agricultural produce catches a high price in urban areas,

transport poses as a major obstacle as it is often unavailable and expensive. Moreover, the current economic climate in Zimbabwe has led to the closure of some industries and other markets that in the past were able to purchase from these agricultural cooperatives. Respondents indicated that some of the produce ends up being used for personal consumption rather than income generation.

As a result, high transport costs prevent agricultural cooperatives from transporting their products to markets at a reasonable price and on time, hence their reliance on the local communities. Although farmer cooperatives are organized to serve their members, they also operate in the public interest. As a result, cooperatives also provide important indirect benefits through their effect on local prices for farm products, supplies, and services. Cooperatives sell their harvests to local communities at a lower price. Consequently, community members are able to ensure household food security through reduced prices.

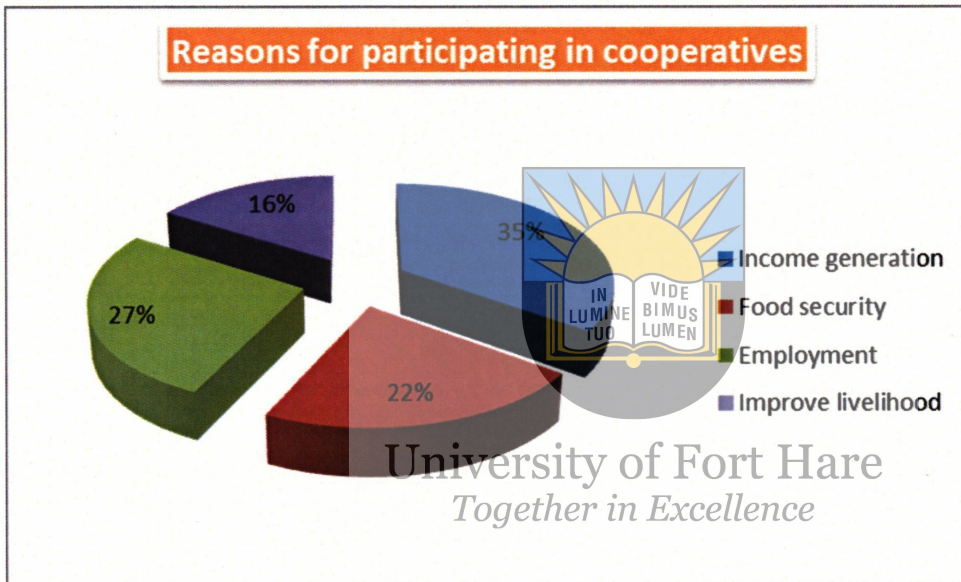
The survival of the agricultural cooperatives depends on their accessibility to markets. Hence, market information is the prime motivator of most agricultural decisions. In the agricultural sector the prices of commodities are always fluctuating and this negatively affect cooperatives. As a result, cooperatives need to be guaranteed a fair price before the start of the seasons. This will enable them to estimates their loss and profits.

4.16. Respondents' reasons for participating in cooperatives

Agricultural cooperatives are important rural organisations supporting livelihood development, poverty-reduction and support small agricultural groups such as young people and women. They empower their members economically and socially and create sustainable rural employment through business models that are resilient to

economic and environmental shocks. Respondents indicated various reasons for joining cooperatives as shown in figure 14 below. A large proportion (35%) of the respondents participated in cooperatives for income generation while 22% participated for food security. Mangwe and Bulilima Districts are drought-prone areas and not conducive for farming except for drought resistant crops.

Figure 14: Respondents reasons for participating in cooperatives



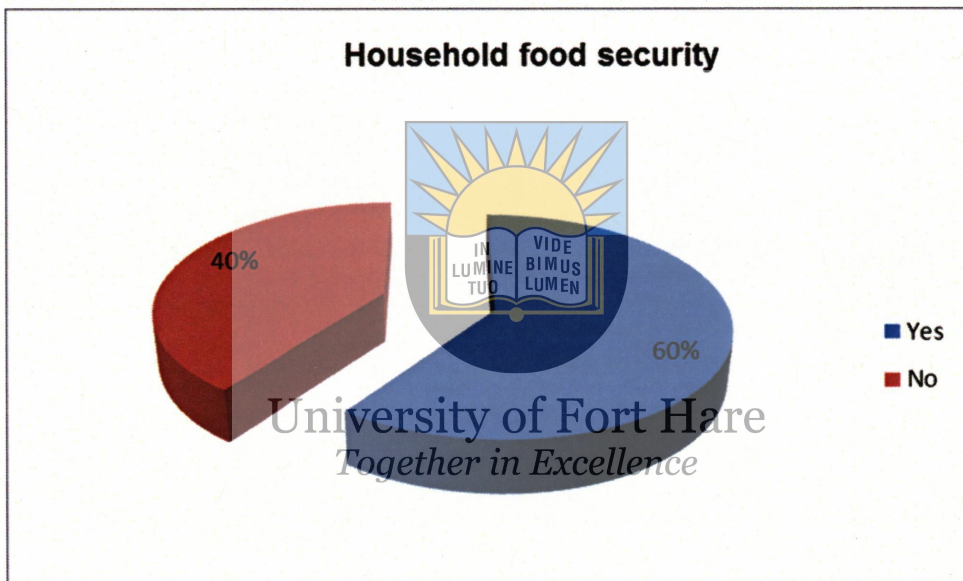
Respondents, therefore, highlighted that they joined cooperatives so they could secure food for their families. Due to high unemployment levels, other respondents participated in cooperatives for employment purposes, and 16% wanted to improve their livelihoods while 27% joined cooperatives for employment reasons. In essence, respondents joined cooperatives for various reasons such as financial gain, food security, improved livelihood and even employment purposes.

Agricultural cooperatives play a vital role in upliftment of its members and the community as a whole. It is a safety net for cooperative members particularly in financial shocks. The agricultural cooperatives become their saviour in time of economic crisis being experienced currently in Zimbabwe. Joining or creating an agricultural cooperative became an essential thing in most rural communities.

4.17. Distribution of respondents according to standard of living

Respondents were asked to indicate the impact of the cooperatives in improving their household food security. Figure 15 below indicates that 60% of the beneficiaries claimed that they now feed their entire families directly from the produce from their farms.

Figure 15: Respondents standard of living



The majority (60%) of the sampled cooperative members testified that their standard of living greatly improved after joining the cooperatives. This showed that more households had more food after joining the cooperatives. However, some cooperative members supplement with food relief programmes in order to strengthen their household food security, a situation that reflects household food insecurity. Some cooperative members had excess to sell or to give other friends and relatives during times of need. On the other hand, 40% reported that they were still experiencing food shortages despite having joined a cooperative. This suggests that the respondents produce little or no surplus and barely enough for domestic needs.

The respondents attributed poor production to adverse weather patterns, lack of inputs, lack of credit facilities and lack of adequate productive land.

On the other hand, some cooperative members have to engage into other non-farming activities in order to supplement their farming revenue. Although agriculture is the mainstay of many rural areas in Zimbabwe non-farm activities are gradually taking the slack. The existence of non-farm activities in the transport, communication, retail, SMMEs sector have improved both household and rural income growth. Most of the unemployed youths have been absorbed by the non-farm sector. Many scholars maintain that the agricultural sector does not give people sustainable revenue; hence a lot of rural people join the no-farm sector.



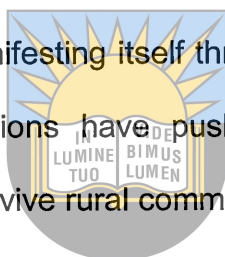
4.18. Conclusion

The sample was characterised by youth and middle ages and mainly constituted females than males. Most of the households were female-led due to labour migration of most males to neighbouring countries (Botswana and South Africa). The majority of respondents indicated that cooperatives provided a source of income and employment in their impoverished communities and therefore cooperatives, for the majority of respondents, are now their main source of livelihood.

Cooperatives are engaged in producing crops, vegetables and rearing small livestock that participants sell to earn income, as indicated by the responses, albeit at a small-scale business level. However, respondents indicated that the performance of cooperatives over the past few years has declined due to the economic terrain existing in the country which is an impediment to their operations. Their perceptions and experiences of government policies towards cooperatives are

weak and negative and need to be improved. Cooperatives, according to respondents, have the potential to create employment and reduce poverty.

Cooperatives are considered as appropriate business enterprises and institutions for advancing members' socio-economic objectives. Cooperatives impact poverty-reduction effects through livelihood development. The livelihood development and poverty-reduction role of cooperatives is predicated on the assumption that they are pro-poor institutions that potentially embrace the poor as members and provide better services to them. However, the social and economic decline in many African countries such as Zimbabwe is manifesting itself through high unemployment rates, hunger and poverty; these conditions have pushed people to seek economic initiatives such as cooperatives to revive rural communities.



The findings indicated that there is minimal financial support of these agricultural cooperatives in Mangwe and Bulilima District and as such, some of them are slowly dying a natural death. Such a scenario has been exacerbated by the economic climate in Zimbabwe which has left no room for these cooperatives to even access credit facilities. Most members of these cooperatives are leaving these agricultural cooperatives due to various factors such as high unemployment and poverty. Women constitute most of the membership as they are the breadwinners of households in Bulilima and Mangwe District, and such a situation is as a result of migration of the men to find jobs in neighbouring countries such as Botswana and South Africa.

The chapter also indicates that despite the problems and challenges faced by these agricultural cooperatives in Bulilima and Mangwe District, they could actually be a panacea to unemployment and poverty. If properly supported, agricultural

cooperatives can be an alternative to addressing rural under-development. Government, NGOs and the private sector need to do more so as to provide the necessary resources to develop these cooperatives into business enterprises than traditional cooperatives either through financial resources, credit facilities and/or education and training. The study noted that the potential of cooperatives can be a solution to the high alarming levels of unemployment and poverty in Bulilima and Mangwe District. They are a development option that must not be neglected.



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CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

The purpose of this research was to evaluate the contribution of agricultural cooperatives in employment-creation and poverty-reduction in Mangwe and Bulilima Districts in Zimbabwe. Rural under-development has affected many rural communities in these two districts, and this has exacerbated poverty and unemployment. Thus, agricultural cooperatives can provide a leeway in addressing these problems. Overcoming poverty and unemployment through agricultural cooperatives enables communities to have the skills to participate in their own development, analyse their problems and create more solutions. According to Getnet and Anullo (2012), cooperatives growth is an important tool for livelihood development and poverty reduction. The chapter provides the conclusion and recommendations aimed at assisting cooperative members, community members, NGOs and Government Departments to have a thorough understanding of the potential of agricultural cooperatives to contribute to employment-creation and poverty-reduction in rural communities.

5.1 Conclusion

Based on the findings reflected in the previous chapter, this study drew up the following conclusions:

There has been little intervention by the government with regards to financial support and development of agricultural cooperatives in Mangwe and Bulilima District. Departments dealing with agriculture are short of manpower to provide the needed

service in terms of information dissemination and management of agricultural projects.

NGOs in Bulilima and Mangwe have, in some instances, tried to fill in the loopholes left by the government. Communities are encouraged through workshops by NGOs to grow drought resistant crops such as millet, sorghum and rapoko. This has a positive impact on the agricultural cooperatives and rural communities in these respective districts. However, in as much as there are such projects initiated by NGOs, some of them have tended not to be sustainable due to financial constraints on the part of these cooperatives.



With regards to unemployment, there has been some significant contribution by agricultural cooperatives albeit at a small scale. Unemployment in Mangwe and Bulilima has forced people to seek employment in neighbouring countries such as South Africa and Botswana. This is especially dominant in most rural households as males are migrant labourers. Females or women are then left as breadwinners of these households. Through agricultural cooperatives, they have been able to tap into a source of income and livelihood. Most female-headed households in these districts are surviving on produce from these agricultural cooperatives. The study revealed that women have been able to buy food and pay fees for their kids as a result of their active involvement and participation in these cooperatives. Even though not everyone in the community is a member of a cooperative, the contribution of cooperatives to the livelihoods of households has been realised. The study noted that the growth and expansion of agricultural cooperatives in Bulilima and Mangwe Districts can go a long way in creating employment.

The study noted that poverty has had a significant impact on rural communities in the districts. However, through cooperatives, rural communities have been able realise some benefits which have contributed to their livelihoods. Food security and improved livelihoods have gone a long way in reducing poverty. This has, in turn, resulted in increased household income and strengthened social capital networks.

Social capital is one of the identified factors mentioned in the sustainable livelihood framework. This arises due to day to day interaction of individuals in the community. It creates avenues of accessing the much needed financial capital in most rural areas.



Although agricultural cooperatives show a potential for growth, they are faced with a lot of challenges, and this has hindered their development and expansion. Lack of funding and credit access, low membership, lack of leadership and managerial skills, lack of education and training, lack of markets for their produce and environment and climate changes are some of the cited challenges.

The study came to the conclusion that agricultural cooperatives have the potential to create employment and reduce poverty in Mangwe and Bulilima District if properly supported with credit facilities and the necessary resources. Cooperative members cited the need to develop and expand these cooperatives so as to cater for the needs of most rural households, chiefly female-led ones. A change in leadership is also another crucial point that was indicated by the respondents. Most members of cooperatives are old, and there is need for new leadership in the form of the youth.

The study also noted that the potential of cooperatives can be a solution to the high alarming levels of unemployment and poverty in Bulilima and Mangwe District. Hence they are a development option that must not be neglected.

5.2 Recommendations

The research makes a number of recommendations targeted at cooperative members, government institutions, community members and NGOs as well as development practitioners and donor agencies to recognise and support the potential of agricultural cooperatives to employment-creation and poverty-reduction in Mangwe and Bulilima District.

The recommendations will also assist in capitalising on the opportunities and benefits of agricultural cooperatives to rural development so as to obtain successful community and sustainable development.



The establishment of agricultural cooperatives in the districts of Bulilima and Mangwe is a good initiative by the people. They, however, lack financial capital and a support framework from the government. Therefore, the government has to play its part in terms of support so these cooperatives can become success stories. On their own, they have already proven that they have the potential to making a meaningful contribution to employment-creation and poverty reduction. In addition, government and other stakeholders must provide co-operatives with training and education. This training must focus on basic business management, accounting and record-keeping. The members should make a concerted effort to obtain information on non-financial forms of support for cooperatives from the government and other organizations. Members should be pro-active and approach local government departments for information on what they can offer the cooperatives.

NGOs in the area must desist from creating a dependency syndrome amongst the rural communities in Mangwe and Bulilima District; they must foster towards providing sustainable development which can be realised through agricultural cooperatives.

Both private and public stakeholders should provide markets that can enable cooperatives to sell their produce. This can go a long in terms of income accumulation and financial support for activities and running of these cooperatives.

Cooperatives should be inclusive and include all members of rural communities despite their gender, status and education.



In addition, information dissemination by Government and Non-Governmental Organisations is important in the development of agricultural cooperatives in Mangwe and Bulilima Districts. Workshops and training must also be facilitated for community based projects. Apart from this, cooperatives need access to information on other existing cooperatives so they correlate and share experiences, experience and ideas. These organisations must be visible on the ground so that they can be easily accessed by the cooperatives.

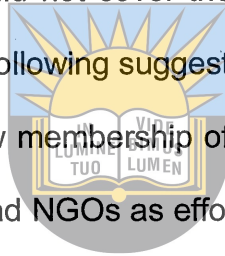
The low education levels and high rates of illiteracy among most rural cooperative members necessitates the need to introduce adult basic education and training for the members. Cooperative meetings can then function not only as a centre of work and socialisation, but of education as well. Government needs to revisit procurement practices for cooperatives to encourage capacity-building and diversification. Without such thrust, the cooperatives easily get locked into

dependency relationships. Moreover, cooperatives themselves must create a web of knowledge and support for cooperatives. Cooperatives themselves must know where to source certain information, as dependency on others does not build the capacity of the members and over time, deepens dependency.

5.3 Areas for further research

The study only concentrated in four wards in the two districts of Bulilima and Mangwe Districts in Zimbabwe. It did not cover the whole of Bulilima and Mangwe Districts and, therefore, makes the following suggestions for further research:

There is need to investigate the low membership of agricultural cooperatives on the part of stakeholders, government and NGOs as efforts made towards an all-inclusive agricultural movement in Mangwe and Bulilima Districts.



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Investigate the impact of training and education as a tool to enhance cooperatives growth.

Most agricultural cooperatives are run on village-basis and not as business enterprises or entities. Therefore an investigation must be done on what step must be taken towards making cooperatives market driven.

Investigate the impact of climate change and how it negatively affects agricultural cooperatives.

Investigate how agricultural cooperatives can be made attractive to young people as they are believed to be the future of any country and such an investment will be vital for any country.

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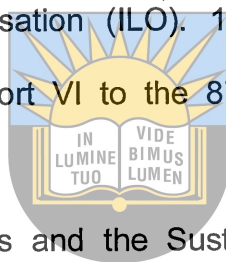
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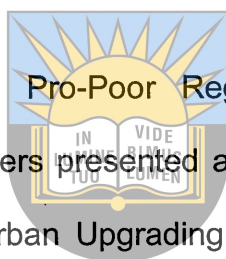
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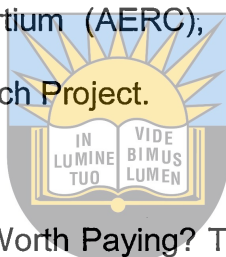
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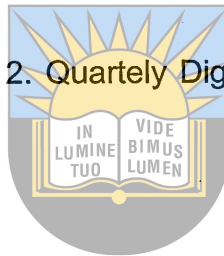
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Consent Form

Appendix A



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FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT AND COMMERCE

DEPARTMENT OF DEVELOPMENTAL STUDIES



Consent form

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this study. Before we start, I would like to emphasize that:

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- Your participation is entirely voluntary;
- Some questions may be emotionally trying;
- You are free not to answer any question;
- You are free to withdraw if need arises and

Consistent with the requirements of research, the information given will be kept confidential since no personal details, contact and physical addresses will be required.

As a requirement from the University Research Committee and to show that I have read the contents to you and you have understood, may you sign this consent form.

_____ (Signature)

_____ (Date)



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Questionnaire

Appendix B



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My name is Andile Gama, pursuing a Masters Degree in Development Studies at The University of Fort Hare. I am conducting a research on ***the role of agricultural cooperatives in employment-creation and poverty-reduction in Bulilima and Mangwe Districts in Matabeleland South***. You are guaranteed that the information you supply for this study will be utilized for academic purposes. Your responses will be treated as confidentially as possible. Your co-operation determines the success of this study. Thank you.

A. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Sex

Male	Female
------	--------

2. Age

Below 18	18-35 years	36-48 years	49-59years	60 and above
----------	-------------	-------------	------------	--------------

3. Marital status

Married	Single	Divorced	Widowed
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4. Level of education:

No formal education	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary	Other
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5. Size of the household

1	2	3	4	+5
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B. COOPERATIVE OPERATION

1. What are the aims and objectives of your project group, can you kindly explain?

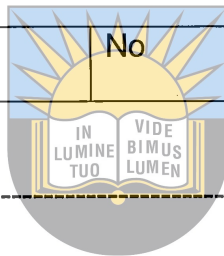
2. Are these aims and objectives being achieved?

3. How many project members constitute the programme?

4. Were there any changes after cooperative was formed?

Yes	No
-----	----

5. If yes explain



6. Who is perceived as the main driver of the programme?

Chief	Ward Committee	NGO	Ministry of Agriculture	Other
-------	----------------	-----	-------------------------	-------

7. What were members' expectations when initially involved in the cooperative; were the expectations met and to what extent?

8. What is the perception of your other members towards this programme?

9. How has the project beneficiaries identified?

10. How do you reward labour, can you explain ?

11. How do you reward members for participating actively in the group project?

12. Highlight some of the challenges your project group is currently facing and what do you think could be done to mitigate these challenges?

13. How do you benefit from the establishment of cooperative?

Cheap product	job opportunities	skills	all of the above	do not benefit
---------------	-------------------	--------	------------------	----------------

14. Does cooperative contribute in household food security?

Yes	No
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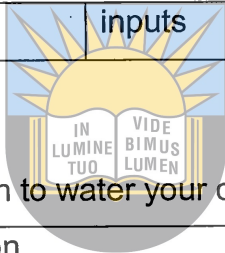
15. If so, how would you describe the conditions before the implementation of this programme?

16. What are the challenges associated with production input acquisition for your project group?

17. Can you explain how you think these challenges could be addressed?

18. What has sustained the programme since its inception?

Funding	Commitment	inputs	Others
---------	------------	--------	--------



C. FARM WATER USAGE

1. Which water source do you rely on to water your crops?

Rain fed	Irrigation	Both
----------	------------	------

2. What are the challenges or constraints associated with the irrigation system of farming with particular reference to your project site?

3. Other than the collective water usage, do project members use water meant for the group for individual purposes? Explain and state the purpose

4. In terms of the maintenance of your irrigation facilities, who bears the financial burden? and explain your members' opinions in that regards.

D. MARKETING OF FARM PRODUCE

1. Do you have access to markets?

Yes	No
-----	----

2. Which type of markets do you usually use for selling?

Formal	Informal	Both
--------	----------	------

3. Do you have a contract with any reliable market?

Yes	No
-----	----

4. Do you market your produce, individually or collectively?

5. How do you normally share the proceeds from the marketing activities among members?

6. What is the grade and standard of the products of the cooperative?

Excellent	Good	fair	Poor
-----------	------	------	------

7. What product do they sell in your market?

8. Do you have access to market information?

Yes	No
-----	----

9. Do you receive market information prior to sales?

Yes	No
-----	----

10. Which gender secures job easily in a cooperative?

Male	Female
------	--------

11. Are there any challenges that you are facing as a cooperative?

Land	Water	inputs	credit	Others
------	-------	--------	--------	--------

12. In terms of transporting your produce to the market, who bears the financial burden and on average, how much do you normally spend in transporting?

13. How do you ensure that you have access to market information and feedback from consumers?

14. How would you describe your project's production capacity with respect to market demand?

E. CREDIT FACILITIES

1. Do you have access to subsidies or credit facilities for the procurement of these production inputs?

2. Is your project group being supervised/ supported by any organisation or Government agencies?

3. Where do you get money (capital) to invest in your farm?

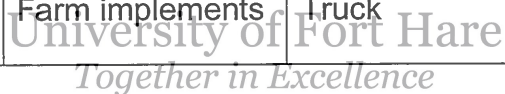
Bank	Friends and relatives	Saving	State aid	Other
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F. FARM EQUIPMENT

1. What assets you have?

Irrigation tools	Tractor	Farm implements	Truck	Others
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2. How did you acquire your tractor and other production equipment on your project site?

3. What are those challenges associated with maintenance of your tractor and other production equipment?

4. Highlight the assistance you have received from the Department of Agriculture in the past and in recently with respect to production input and equipments acquisition?

5. What type of assistance or support have you received from the municipality in terms of procurement of these equipments and production inputs?

G. FARM LAND USE

1. What are some of the challenges associated with collective usage of land in your project group?

2. How do you think these problems could be mitigated?

3. Would you prefer individual land usage as opposed to collective usage?

4. How do you handle dispute within your project group over which purpose the land is to be utilised?

5. What do you think could be done to address these challenges and constraints?



H. FARM INPUTS

University of Fort Hare

1. Do think there is need for partnership with private or public organisation for the procurement of these inputs and equipments?

2. Do members sometimes procure production inputs individually?

3. What aspect of your project group's functions would you like to see major improvements on?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR SUPPORT

Appendix C: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE REC-270710-028-RA Level 01

Certificate Reference Number: KAC08SGAM01

Project title: **The role of Agricultural Cooperatives in employment creation and poverty reduction in Bulilima and Magwe District**

Nature of Project: Masters

Principal Researcher: Andile Gama

Supervisor: Dr W Kachere

Co-supervisor:

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research