

**IMPROVING COMMUNICATION CHANNELS IN OUT GROWER
SCHEMES: A CHALLENGE FOR SMALL HOLDER FARMERS GROWING
TOBACCO IN CHIPATA, ZAMBIA**

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By

MARTIN MUSONDA KUNDA

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requirements for the degree of Master of Communication for Development offered by the
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**University of Zambia
Lusaka**

2008



Declaration

I declare that this Report has not been submitted for a degree in this or any other University.

Full Name: Martin Musonda Kunda

Signature: Mw

Date: 4th NOVEMBER, 2008

Certificate of Approval

This report has been approved as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the Master of Communication for Development (MCD) degree of the University of Zambia.

0273682

Supervisor: **Kenny Makungu**

Signature: ----- 

Date: ----- 11 - 12 - 08

Abstract

This is a report of the study that was done in Chipata District in Zambia to determine why the majority of small holder tobacco farmers do not benefit from out grower schemes. The research and writing of the report was the final phase of the partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Master of Communication for Development degree of the University of Zambia.

The study employed both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection. In the former a Questionnaire and Farmers Matrix were used. In the later Focus Group Discussions, in- depth interviews, personal interviews, and participant observation were used. Data analysis was multifaceted. Quantitative data was analyzed using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS). A total of 194 people participated in the study of which 124 were males and 70 were females.

This study established that while tobacco production has the potential to improve rural livelihoods, resources for communication activities continue to be difficult to mobilize, and development organizations find it difficult to put people at the centre of the communication process which has made it difficult for the majority of small holder farmers to benefit from out grower schemes. The study revealed that tobacco farmers and their families had continued to work for low prices every season, when tobacco companies and tobacco manufacturers continue to record huge profits. The study concludes that tobacco out grower schemes do not benefit the majority of small holder farmers.

The study observed that tobacco out grower schemes have many stakeholders and each of them has a role to play to make sure small holder farmers benefit from the out grower schemes. The study recommends that the government puts in place the communication infrastructure necessary to benefit rural farmers. This includes increasing the fiber optic cables in the country. The government must also create a conducive business environment to allow entrepreneurs to engage in communication related businesses in rural areas. This is in addition to coming up with a well defined policy on contract farming which currently is not there. The government must also commission comprehensive studies to investigate the role of communication in out grower schemes and the contributions of out grower schemes to poverty reduction among rural households.

The study recommends that tobacco companies must support learning and environmental management initiatives in the communities and work with the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives at the local level. The rural farmers, the study recommends, must come up with the village learning Groups and Community Agriculture Worker concepts to facilitate information flow to improve tobacco production and marketing. Lastly, the study recommends that media must put people at the centre of communication process by providing them with information relevant to effectively participate in the economy thereby improving their livelihoods.

Dedication

To my beloved family, my wife Theresa Nsokolo, and my daughters Miselo and Yande

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List of Abbreviations

ACE	Agricultural Commodity Exchange
ADSP	Agriculture Development Support Programme
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AMIC	Agricultural Marketing Information Centre
ASP	Agriculture Support Programme
CAW	Community Agriculture Worker
CCJDP	Catholic Centre for Justice, Development and Peace
CSO	Central Statistics Office
DACO	District Agriculture Coordinator
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FNDP	Fifth National Development Plan
HIV	Human Immune Virus
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IDI	In- depth interview
LCMS	Living Conditions Monitoring Survey
MACO	Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives
MBC	Malawi Broadcasting Cooperation
MCD	Master of Communication for Development
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MoFNP	Ministry of Finance and National Planning
MOH	Ministry of Health
NAP	National Agriculture Policy
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
PI	Personal Interview
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
SHEMP	Small holder Enterprise and Marketing Programme

SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UN	United Nations
UNZA	University of Zambia
USAID	United States International Development Agency
VLG	Village learning Group
ZAMSIF	Zambia Social Investment Fund
ZNBC	Zambia National Broadcasting Cooperation
ZNFU	Zambia National Famers Union

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.0 Introduction

The following is a report of a study that was carried out among tobacco out growers in Chipata in the Eastern Province of Zambia. Its overall objective was to establish the factors that make a proportion of out growers experience significant improvements in livelihoods, while the majority experience not only no change, but in fact experience deterioration from the same out grower schemes.

The report has seven chapters. Chapter one provides the introduction and background of the report. It discusses the profiles of Zambia in general and that of Eastern Province and Chipata District in particular. It shows how the introduction of out grower schemes is linked to the agricultural potential and socio- economic conditions prevailing in the country. It is here that the problem, rationale and objectives of the study have been stated.

Chapter two discusses the methodology that was used to come up with the report. It includes Research Questions and the Quantitative and Qualitative Methods that were used. It also includes sampling procedures and the limitations in data collection.

Chapter three contains the conceptual and theoretical framework used in this report. This includes the definition and operationilisation of key concepts. The four main theories that are relevant to the study are discussed here.

Chapter four deals with literature review. This is on four levels namely World, Africa, Sub- Region and Zambia.

Chapter five contains the data analysis and findings of the research. Chapter six is a discussion on the findings while, Chapter seven is a combination of the conclusion and recommendations. The last section contains references and appendixes to the report

1.1 Profile of Zambia

Zambia is a landlocked Sub-Saharan country sharing boundaries with Malawi, Mozambique, Botswana, Namibia, Angola, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and Tanzania with a total area of about 752, 614 square kilometres. The 2002 Census Report indicates that the country's population as of 2000 was 9 885 529. The 2008 population projection for Zambia by The Central Statistics office puts the population of Zambia at 12, 600, 000. Out of this 65.3 percent live in rural areas. The country has a young population with 45.2 percent aged between 0 and 14. The population is characterized by rapid growth rate of 3 percent per annum. The prevalence rate of the Humane Immune Virus (HIV) is very high standing at 14 percent of the total population aged 15 and 59. The country is divided into nine provinces namely, Northern, Eastern, Southern and Western Provinces. Others are Luapula, Copperbelt, Central, Lusaka and North- Western Provinces.

1.2 Profiles of Eastern Province and Chipata District

Eastern Province covers an area of 69,106 square Kilometres (6.9 million hectares) and is located in the eastern part of the country, between longitudes 30 and 33 degrees east of the Greenwich Meridian, and latitudes 10 and 15 degrees south of the Equator. Malawi in the east and Mozambique in the south are its immediate international neighbours. Internally, the Luangwa Valley makes the boundary in the northwest, sharing the border with Lusaka Province to the west and Northern Province to the north.

According to the 2007 Annual Report of the office of the Provincial Agriculture Coordinator (PACO) in Chipata, the major part of the province is located on the Central African Plateau, which rises to an altitude of 900 to 1200 metres while a smaller part of it lies in the Luangwa Valley at 300 to 600 metres above sea level. Out of the 6.9 million hectares of land, 2 million is suitable for cultivation and 1.1 million for grazing. The Province, therefore, has 45 percent agricultural land potential.

Generally, the climatic conditions in the province are favourable to most crops under rain fed conditions, with a rainfall of 800-1200 mm per year, and a growing period of 125 to 140 days. In the last two farming seasons (2006/7 and 2007/8) the weather conditions were quite favourable for farming activities. The rainfall was just adequate for most crops.

The Province has an estimated population of 1,300,973 inhabitants with a growth rate of 2.6 percent per annum, slightly below the national average, which is estimated at 3 percent. The average population density is estimated at 18.8 inhabitants per square kilometre. The province has approximately 259,068 households and 90 percent of these households are rural, and the majority of them are engaged in farming.

As per the 2000 Population Census, the female population was the majority with 50.62 percent (658,500), while the male population accounts for the remaining 49.38 percent (642,473) of the total population. The next Census will be held in 2010.

The Province comprises eight Agricultural Districts, namely Chadiza, Chama, Chipata Katete, Lundazi, Mambwe, Nyimba and Petauke.

The districts are divided into 36 Agricultural Blocks that are further sub-divided into 252 camps. There is an average of seven camps per Block of the total number of 252 camps.

Chipata in which the field work was done is composed of eight Agricultural Blocks with a total of 57 camps of which 40 are manned and 20 are unmanned. The total number of farm families in the district is 75,555.

The district falls in region II. It is on the plateau zone and shares an international boundary with Malawi in the East. It also shares district boundaries with Lundazi in the North, Mambwe in the west and Katete in the south. There is also Chadiza District in the South- eastern direction.

1.3 Agricultural Potential- Zambia

Zambia has considerable agricultural potential for economic growth and poverty reduction. The country is endowed with a large resource base for agricultural production and land resources remain largely unexploited. Out of a total area of 75 million hectares about 40 million hectares are suitable for agricultural production of which only 6.3 million (14 percent) is cultivated. The country has also abundant water resources which could be used for irrigation. However, only 100,000 hectares (less than 2 percent) of its cultivated land is irrigated. This is about 24 percent of an estimated 420,000 hectares of potential irrigable land in Zambia. FAO estimates that the current irrigated land is approximately 156,000 hectares of low land seepage zones and wetlands with water control (MACO, 2004b).

Agricultural productivity, especially among female headed households is being affected by inadequate access to productive resources such as oxen and mechanized farm implements, limited access to agricultural inputs, high transport costs, lack of mechanisms to mitigate climate risks, credit and low markets and the disease and pest attacks on both crops and livestock. This is in addition to Human Immune Deficiency Virus (HIV) and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) which have had negative impact on labour supply and generally undermine capacity of the agricultural households (GRZ, 2000).

1.4 Socio- economic indicators

Zambia remains one of the poorest countries in sub Sahara Africa. A Living Condition Monitoring Survey (LCMS) study design conducted in 2004 similar to the one conducted in 1998, showed that a head count of poverty had declined from 73 percent in the 1998, to 68 percent at the end of 2004. The incidence of poverty fell both in the rural areas (from 83 to 78 percent) and in urban areas (from 56 to 35 percent). All provinces showed marked reductions in the poverty levels. The largest reductions were observed on the Copperbelt and Eastern Provinces (CSO, 2004). However, this decline was far less than the target in the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) on Poverty and

Hunger, which aims to reduce the poverty of Zambians whose income is less than one dollar a day by 50 percent between 1990 and 2015.

Two thirds of the total population of Zambia and 72 percent of the poor live in rural areas, with the highest concentration being in Northern and Eastern Provinces. In these areas, *agriculture* is the overwhelmingly dominant activity. It has the potential to contribute to economic growth and reduce poverty. However, the majority of people in rural areas are small holder farmers whose produce are mainly for home consumption and therefore remain amongst the poorest. This is because small holder farmers have faced severe limitations in terms of transportation, draught, high costs of inputs, low capacity in acreage, and lack technical skills especially that extension services are either non existent or are inadequate (Milimo, 2005).

The overall picture in Zambia though is that agriculture and agro processing account for more than 40 percent of Zambia's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The sector provides employment to some 67 percent of the labour force and supplies raw materials to agro-related industries, which account for 84 percent of manufacturing value-added in the country. An Agricultural sector that is doing well translates into significant improvements in the country's GDP, contributes to employment and broadens the country's tax base. To a large extent therefore, the livelihood of the majority of Zambian people stand to *benefit from a vibrant and booming agricultural sector*. It is in this regard that Zambia's Fifth National Development Plan (FNDP) positions agriculture as one of the "*driving engines*" for economic growth that is required to reduce poverty (MoFNP, 2006). Thus, the sector's multiplier effects on the economy are particularly note worthy and the restoration of its growth should guarantee a significant reduction in poverty levels currently experienced in Zambia.

1.5 The Zambia National Agricultural Policy (NAP)

Zambia has come up with a National Agricultural Policy whose vision is "*to promote development of an efficient, competitive and sustainable agriculture, which assures food security and income.*" It recognizes the need to strengthen and expand the emerging

opportunities and to also deal with the challenges facing the agricultural sector. The vision also strives to contribute to the overall goal of the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PSRP) which is to achieve “poverty reduction and economic growth (MACO, 2004b)

The objectives of the National Agricultural Policy are to ensure national food security and that the existing agricultural resource base is maintained and improved upon in order to generate income and employment to maximum feasible levels. The agriculture sector is supposed to contribute to sustainable industrial development. The other objective of the policy is to make the agriculture sector expand significantly and contribute to the National Balance of Payments.

The National Agriculture Policy goes on to list 17 strategies needed for achieving these objectives. One strategy which needs to be noted is the “*strengthening and monitoring the liberalization of markets and facilitating the private sector development.*” (ib id: 36)

1.6 Introduction of out grower Schemes

Government has since the early 1990s liberalized agricultural markets and emphasized the need *for the private sector to take the lead in agricultural sector development.* However, it has recognized that it will take time for the markets to be fully liberalized and to function efficiently. Government will therefore continue to play the role of providing market information, rehabilitation of infrastructure and facilitating private sector- led input and out put marketing.

According to the National Agricultural Policy, the vast majority of small holder farmers are *resource poor* and credit is essential for their development. The policy of the government is to *encourage credit* to resource poor farmers. However, due to the high transaction costs and risks involved, the private sector’s response is expected to be slow particularly to small holder farmers.

Government therefore remains engaged on transitional basis in providing credit to resource small holder farmers. This means that for the moment the government will continue providing credit to the small scale farmers though the ultimate aim is to let the private sector take over completely. This will be done through government institutions or in collaboration with the private sector partners and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). Where possible the credit will be monetized. Government will progressively disengage as private sector's capacity in credit provision grows. It is under this policy that out grower schemes, which this study is focusing on operate.

1.7 Statement of the Problem

The Zambian government through the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (MoFNP, 2002) introduced out grower schemes as a viable economic activity in rural areas to generate resources that would contribute to the social and economic benefit of rural people who constitute 72 percent of the population. It is believed that the agriculture sector has a multiplier effect because when it is doing well, this will translate into significant improvements in the country's GDP, contribute to employment and broaden the country's tax base. Recent studies have indicated that out grower schemes have the potential to improve livelihood of rural people. Thus, out grower schemes especially those involving small holder farmers are regarded by the government and indeed many development organizations like United States Agency for International Development (USAID) as a way of reducing poverty among the rural people in Zambia

However, in the studies done by CARITAS Zambia (2005) and Imboela (2005) to determine the contribution of out grower schemes to poverty reduction, it was found that the majority of the small holder farmers have not benefited from out grower schemes and have continued to live in poverty. This study intends to investigate why the out grower schemes which were intended to improve the livelihood of rural farmers have not achieved the intended objective. The number of small-scale farmers growing tobacco has decreased rapidly. Studies on small holder farmers indicate that many were leaving for urban areas to look for formal employment, abandoning agriculture which had become unprofitable. According to the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives

(MACO) 2007 Annual Report, Barley Tobacco production (which is grown mostly by small holder farmers) decreased by 30.10 percent to 10, 000Mt in the 2006/ 2007 agricultural season from 14, 306Mt in the previous season (MACO, 2008).

1.8 Rationale

This study may be understood in two ways. Firstly, in the light of the United Nations Declaration on the Right to Development (United Nations, 1986). According to White (1999: 15), the declaration states in part that People are “entitled to participate in, contribute to and enjoy economic, social, cultural and political development.” In this context White made an assertion that “communication is the foundation of participation” (ib id). The reasoning behind this research is that there is potential in out grower schemes and in individual tobacco farmers to maximize the resources that are available to improve their lives. Access to information is essential in communication without which it would be difficult to communicate.

It is a known fact that the world is becoming “smaller” everyday largely due to technological advancement in communication. This is being done in different fora such as the media. If other sectors of life are improving as a result of employing good and efficient methods of communication, is it not possible for the small scale tobacco growers to partake in this and have their lives improved? The answer is “yes” it is possible. This research therefore would like to contribute to this positive response.

The other reason for doing this research is in the light of the Millennium Development Goal on Hunger and Poverty that was agreed upon by the international leaders in 1990 and reconfirmed in 1995. The Millennium Development Goal (MDG) on Poverty and Hunger has two targets; the first is “halve between 1990 and 2015 the proportion of people whose income is less than \$1.00 a day.” The second is “halve between 1990 and 2015 the proportion of people who suffer from hanger.”

Studies done by Jayne et al (2004) in Zambia indicate that the income realized from out grower schemes by each small holder farmer is mainly for family consumption (used for purchasing of food, debt repayment and school fees among other household necessities). Thus, the question of food security at household level depended on how much has been produced, the availability of income to purchase other food requirements, as well as formal and informal sources of food transfers. This research report hopes to contribute to the development of out grower schemes and how they can lead to the accumulation of income and achieving household food security among the small holder farmers. In so doing the country Zambia will be going towards the attainment of the Millennium Development Goal on Poverty and Hunger.

1.9 Objectives of the Study

In this research, the researcher hoped to achieve the following objectives:

1. To evaluate government policy on tobacco out grower schemes.
2. To evaluate the process of contract farming in tobacco out grower schemes.
3. To determine knowledge gaps in production and marketing skills among small holder tobacco farmers.
4. To determine the role of the media in plugging the knowledge gaps in the production and marketing of tobacco among the small holder farmers.
5. To recommend policies and actions by different stakeholders in order to enhance the effectiveness of tobacco out grower schemes.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

2.0 Introduction

This chapter is a presentation of the methodology employed to collect data for the study. It includes Research Questions, detailed description of methods of collecting quantitative and qualitative data, the sampling procedure and the limitations of the study.

2.1 Research Questions

The study is guided by four principal questions which in turn have subsidiary questions. The principal questions and their subsidiaries were outlined as below:

What is the government policy on out grower schemes? In order to answer this question the following sub questions are necessary: What is the role of our grower schemes in poverty reduction programmes? How does Government monitor out grower schemes at the national and local levels?

What is the procedure of contract farming? The sub questions are: How does the farmer enter into the contract farming? How are the products sold? Do the farmers understand the contracts they sign?

What knowledge gaps do farmers have in the production and marketing of tobacco? Sub questions are: Do they have information on the production of tobacco? Do they have information on the marketing of tobacco? Are there any efforts being made to improve their production and marketing skills?

What is the role of development communication in the production and marketing of tobacco? The sub question is: Do media play a role in providing information on production and marketing of tobacco among small holder farmers?

2.2 Research Methods

The study employed a Descriptive Survey type of Research. To increase its validity the researcher used both quantitative and qualitative survey techniques.

2.2.1 Quantitative Survey

2.2.1.1 Questionnaire

This meant the use of systematic approach and statistics in order to study the topic. The survey used a Questionnaire to collect data from 150 small holder farmers growing tobacco. This approach was employed because of its advantages in terms of precision and use of statistics thereby reducing the degree of risk of subjectivity interfering in the study. The survey covered 101 male and 49 female participants. A sample of the Questionnaire is in Annex A of this report.

2.2.1.2 Famers' Matrix

After conducting/ administering the Questionnaires to 150 tobacco famers and conducting three Focus Group Discussions (FGDs), the researcher held a debriefing meeting with Subject Matter Specialists (SMS) in the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (MACO) at the District in Chipata. The aim of the debriefing meeting was to identify gaps in the data collected so far. The meeting recommended among other things that there was need to collect detailed information on some individual famers. This was done because the questionnaire survey could not bring out disparities in the benefits from out grower schemes by the small holder farmers. Consequently, ten famers were selected and each was asked to give information on the size of his or her tobacco field (s) (acres cultivated), quantity of fertilizer used, how much he or she invested, quantity of tobacco harvested and what was his or her net payment. Once again, this was done to determine the degree of differences in benefits among tobacco growers.

2.2.2 Qualitative Survey

2.2.2.1 Focus Group Discussions (GFDs)

Three Focus Group Discussions were conducted. One FGD was conducted in the north of Chiparamba Agricultural Camp 35 kilometres north of Chipata District. The second

FGD was conducted in the south of Chiparamba Agricultural Camp, while the third one was conducted in Chanje Camp 40 kilometers on the Chipata- Lundadzi Road. The rationale of having three FGDs was to be able to distinguish specific local challenges of out growers from the general challenges of out growers. Each group comprised of four women and four men. The age distribution was taken into consideration so that both the young and the old participated in the discussions. All participants were tobacco growers and the agents working for the companies were not included as a last resort because there was a fear that they could dominate the discussions. The Headmen were not allowed for the same reason. The researcher acted as principal facilitator to ensure that the discussions were on course and intended issues were brought out. The Camp Agricultural Extension Officers co- facilitated the sessions to create a sense of trust and to make sure that key concepts were explained in the language that the participants understood better. The researcher was able to communicate in the local language. Guidelines for the FGDs are in Annex B of this report.

2.2.2.2 in- Depth Interviews

The debriefing meeting also indentified some people/ offices in Chipata District with whom the researcher had to have in- depth interviews with. The Subject Matter Specialists (SMSs) recommended that in- depth interviews be held with the following; (a) Mr. Anthony Kunda, the Business Field Coordinator with the Agricultural Support Programme (ASP) (b) Mr. Phales Hamvumba, the Crops Husbandry Officer at the district in the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (MACO) (c) Mr. George Wanja a Producer with Breeze FM in Chipata (c) Mr. David Mumba who is Field Coordinator with Alliance One Zambia. Mr. Mumba was one time in- charge of Field Services in The Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives in Eastern Province. He joined Alliance One Zambia after retiring from MACO (d) Mr. Webster Chikundudzi the Agricultural Coordinator with World vision Zambia and (e) Ms Mary Tembo the Programme Facilitator with Harvest Help.

The advantages with this method were that firstly, the targets were not pre determined by the researcher; instead the debriefing meeting selected the people to be interviewed.

Secondly, the method allowed the researcher to view the situation without artificiality that accompanies experiments. Lastly, this method also provided the possibility of a deeper understanding of phenomena by getting more information than expected. Guidelines for In- Depth Interviews are in Annex C of this report.

2.2.2.3 Interviews with Famers who had stopped growing tobacco.

The debriefing meeting observed that the study would be incomplete if the researcher did not talk to the famers who were one time growers of tobacco and were no longer doing so. The meeting recommended that the researcher should talk to five farmers. The aim was to establish reason (s) for discontinuity in tobacco growing. Surprisingly, they were very easy to find in the same research areas. The farmers were asked why they had stopped growing tobacco which in Malawi next door is referred to as “*green gold*”. The researcher made sure that MACO staff and or any other people were not around during interviews as they would influence the responses of the farmers. It was the researcher and the farmer alone. Not even members of their households were allowed to be near. Three women and two men were interviewed.

2.2.2.4 Participant Observation

The researcher spent several weeks in the villages participating in every day activities. The aim was to create rapport and capture relevant data that could not be captured through both quantitative and qualitative methods mentioned above but was relevant to the study.

2.3 Sampling Procedures

Firstly, on the areas; Eastern Province was chosen because it had recorded some reduction in the poverty levels in the last two decades. This is according to the studies done by Central Statistics Office (CSO) Living Condition Monitoring Surveys (CSO, 2004). Further, Chipata District has large numbers of tobacco out growers and the settlement pattern made it easy to reach many farmers with limited resources. The two areas Chiparamba and Chanje Camps where the research was done were picked because they had large populations of tobacco out growers and were accessible through out the

year. The two areas had also recorded an increasing number of defaulters in tobacco out grower schemes recently.

Secondly, on participants; the participants in the questionnaire survey were picked using Purposive Sampling Method. The same was used for the Famers Matrix. On In- Depth Interviews, the participants, as indicated, were selected after a debriefing meeting with Subject Matter Specialists in which information gaps were found in the study. These were the people who were believed to have information required for the study. Selection of farmers who had stopped growing the tobacco was also done using the Purposive Sampling Method.

Table 2.1 Showing participants in the study and type of sampling procedure used

Code	Research Method	Research Type	Number of females	Number of males	Total	Sampling Procedure
1	Quantitative	Questionnaire	49	101	150	Purposive
2	Quantitative	Matrix	5	5	10	Purposive
3	Qualitative	FGD	12	12	24	Purposive
4	qualitative	IDI	1	4	5	Meeting
5	Qualitative	PI	3	2	5	purposive
	Total		70	124	194	

Source; Field Data

Note; FGD= Focus Group Discussion. IDI= In- Depth Interview. PI= Personal Interview

2.4 Limitations to the study

2.4.1 *Resources*: There are thousands of small holder tobacco farmers scattered all over the country in Zambia. It was difficult to justify how the sample in the study could be said to represent the whole population of tobacco out growers in the country, let alone out grower schemes. There was no time and other logistics to visit other towns in Zambia like Kaoma and Choma where thousands of small holder farmers grow tobacco. Even in Chipata only two agricultural camps were

visited. The researcher is, however, confident that the 194 people who participated in the study gave enough representation for conclusion to be reached because after all it is the same companies that buy tobacco every where in Zambia.

- 2.4.2 *Competition:* There was stiff competition between tobacco companies first, and between tobacco companies and vendors second who bought tobacco from the farmers (what is referred to as “side selling”). As a result neither the companies nor vendors were willing to provide information which they believed could be used against them or in setting up parallel institutions. Thus, it was not easy to collect information from tobacco companies and tobacco vendors. Unfortunately, the Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in the agriculture sector had the same reservations. They were targeting same farmers and they were scared to let go the information concerning their operations. The researcher made an effort to explain to the sources of information that the information was part of the research that he was doing as part of his Masters degree.
- 2.4.3 *Gender:* The effort by the researcher to balance or get near to balance of the gender of sources of information was frustrated by two factors. The researcher was male and all the Research Assistants were male. This meant every time the research team entered a village, the women folk took the exercise as “male” and took a back role in the exercise. The other factor is that the community where the research team went was essentially a patriarchal society- it was male dominated. When you ask “are there people at this house?” to the majority that would mean is the head of the household, who is usually a man, there? Because of these two factors, there were more males who participated in the study than females.
- 2.4.4 *Seasonal:* The other limitation to the study was the time (April/May) when the research was done. Farmers were just being paid their money from tobacco sales. This had an implication on the data collected. On ownership of radio, nearly all of them said that they had radios because this is a time that they buy radios. Similarly, on the frequency of listening to the radio, nearly all of them said they

listened to the radio everyday, because at this time they could all afford batteries. On the ability to pay the loans, majority said they were able to pay back, thinking that may be the researcher was trying to get hold of those who had failed to pay or that he was trying to establish a data base of the people who could come and benefit from a loan system in the next farming season. But the researcher made a deliberate effort to explain to the farmers the purpose of the study. But they had a choice and their answers could not be guaranteed.

2.5 Data Analysis

In keeping with the multi-pronged approach to data collection, data analysis was also multifaceted;

- 2.5.1 *Questionnaire*: Data from the 150 questionnaires was scientifically analyzed through the use of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). This programme was used as it helped to obtain frequencies and percentages in an accurate, precise and faster way to ease interpretation
- 2.5.2 *Farmers Matrix*: Farmers responded according to the questions that were put to them by the researcher and provided direct information which could be verified by other sources. These responses were on acreage, investments, inputs, harvest and net payment.
- 2.5.3 *Focus Group Discussions*: These provided information which was largely spontaneous except for a few responses, which might have been biased by the presence of the researcher. Analysis was sometimes direct and other times deductive.
- 2.5.4 *In- Depth Interviews*: In- Depth interviews were analyzed according to the responses of those identified during the debriefing meeting.
- 2.5.5 *Personal interviews*: These were personal experiences of the farmers that at one time were growing tobacco and had since stopped doing so. These people provided direct information and where not, indirect inferences could be made. For example farmers could not say that HIV and AIDS have impacted negatively on their farming activities. This could only be inferred.
- 2.5.6 *Participant Observation*: The researcher recorded a number of phenomena that were relevant to the study.

CHAPTER THREE

CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.0 Introduction

This chapter has two parts. The first part looks at the definitions and operationilisation of concepts. These concepts are communication, out grower, poverty, development, development communication, agricultural extension, Change Agent, media and Opinion Leader. These terms have been selected because in addition to appearing in the main theories used in the study, they also appear frequently through out the report.

The second part of the chapter discusses four theories that the researcher used in the study. These are the Multi Step Theory, the Diffusion of Innovation Theory, Social Learning Theory, and the Knowledge Gap Theory. The relevance of each of them to the study has been discussed.

3.1 Definitions and conceptualisation of concepts

3.1.1 Communication defined

The theory of communication on which the study was based was drawn from the work of Rogers (1983) who suggests that communication is a process in which participants arrive at mutual understanding, and that the effects arise from a joint activity and affects all participants. There is no single approach to communication. Winner and Dominick (1997:13) define communication as “a symbolic social process which occurs when one has an idea in response to something seen or heard.”

Rancer and Womack (1987:22) state that “communication is a transactional and not a linear process.” They say that communication involves people sending each other messages. In turn they expect to respond to the messages from others. As early as 1964 Berelson (1964) had noted that communication is the transmission of information, ideas, and emotions, skills, etc by use of symbols like words, pictures, figures, graphs, etc. This made McQuil (1994: 492) to write “The term Communication has many meanings and definitions, but the central idea is of a process of increased commonality of sharing

between participants on the basis of sending and receiving messages.” The importance of communication can not be underscored. Infante, et al (1997: 23) writes that “communication is important because it helps us to create cooperation and interaction with one another, acquire information and entertain ourselves.” They argue that communication is important for development.

In this study communication was taken to mean creation and sharing of information, ideas and messages to reach mutual understanding with purpose. There must be a purpose for communication and all the parties must benefit from the occurrence of the same.

3.1.2 Out Grower defined

An out grower scheme encompasses several farming arrangements. The common feature of an out grower scheme is that farmers do not directly market and process their produce. A farmer produces for or on behalf of the principal agent, who buys, undertakes the marketing and/ or processes the product into the final product (Peter and Watts. 1994).

In this study an out grower is a small holder farmer who gets inputs from a company or principal agent to grow tobacco. He or she pays back the credit through the sale of crop during marketing. According to a Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (MACO) document on out grower schemes, contract farming means the principal agent supplies farmers with necessary farming inputs and requisites on credit often to be repaid through income deductions from the process of crop sales (MACO, 2004 a).

3.1.3 Poverty defined

Poverty is the state of having no money, and few or no material possessions (wordnet.princeton.edu/per/webwn). Poverty can also be seen as a condition in which a person or a community is deprived, or lacks the essentials for a minimum standard of living (en.wikipedia.org/wiki/poverty).

In this study, participants especially those at the village level were asked what counts to be out of poverty. They named a number of things which one must have to be considered rich. These include but not limited to the following; a good house probably with a roof made of iron sheets, bicycle (s), number of children, property in the house including furniture, TV, radio. Others are types of meals, mobile phone, dressing, livestock and influence in the community.

Inadequate access to basic essential needs or difficulties in accessing the basic needs of life is what is referred to as poverty in this study.

3.1.4 Development defined

The term “development” is as contentious as the term “communication” that has been discussed above. There are as many definitions of development as there are authors. Kasoma (1994) defines development as “improvement in human life conditions at individual and societal levels, which is achieved through desirable but fluctuating changes or adjustments in the environment.” The environment being the sum total of all that goes into making human life stable. Todaro (2006) suggests that improving living standards must ensure wider economic and social choices. He argues that development should “expand the range of economic and social choices to individuals and nations by freeing them from servitude and dependence, not only in relation to other people and nations, but also to the forces of ignorance and human misery.” (ib id: 67).

Schramm and Winfield (1967: 425) also define development in the same way. According to Schramm and Winfield, “development is the economic and social changes taking place in the nation as it moves from a traditional to modernized pattern of society. These changes are associated with division of labour, growth of industry, urbanization, incomes and the preparation of citizen- by literacy, education of citizens and *information-* to participate broadly in the national affairs.” But Mwosa (1987) has a slightly different understanding for the term development. He says that the definition depends upon which community one belongs to. To an urban dweller, development means more job opportunities, more buildings and better facilities. On the other hand, to

the village resident, it might mean more access to water, irrigation schemes, and or primary health care.

But even with all these differences, development must be seen as a long process of both quantitative and qualitative changes in society, which the Communication for Development Manual for the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations (UN) says is political, economic, social and cultural, which lead to individual or collective well being (Communication for Development Manual, 2002).

In this study development is the general improvement of human conditions. According to this study people are developed when they have access to basic needs.

3.1.5 Development Communication defined

Metalopulos and Moetsabi (1999:49) describe development communication as the use of communication techniques and strategies in promoting development ideals. They defined it as “a process of using communication research, approaches, methods, traditional and modern media and materials to facilitate the exchange of information, ideas and knowledge among people involved in the development effort.” They added that the aim of development communication is to facilitate mutual understanding and consensus for action among all stakeholders during every process to ensure success and sustainability of the development effort. It seeks to integrate people’s culture, attitudes, knowledge, practices, perceptions, needs and problems in the planning and implementation of development projects and programmes to guarantee that they are effective and relevant.

In this study development communication was taken to mean the use of communication strategies and approaches to facilitate development.

3.1.6 Change Agent defined

A Change Agent is one who influences the clients' innovation- decision in a direction that is deemed desirable by the change agency (Rogers, 1983). Change Agents are generally professionally trained and are different in life style from their typical clients. Change Agents must advocate for, and empathize with the adopters (Dalton, 1989). Their main role is to facilitate the flow of innovations from the change agency to an audience of clients. For this to be effective, innovations must be selected to match the needs of the clients. Rogers (1983) identifies seven roles of change agents. These are (a) develop a need for change, (b) establish an information- exchange relationship with the clients, (c) diagnose clients' problems, (d) create intent to change in the client, (e) stabilize adoption, (f) prevent discontinuous, and (g) achieve eternal relationship by developing clients' ability to be their own Change Agents.

In this study Change Agents are those who provide extension services to the tobacco famers from both the private and public sectors in order to build the capacity of the famers to produce and market the crop effectively. In this study these are extension workers working for the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives and/ or Tobacco companies.

3.1.7 Agricultural extension defined

Agricultural extension is the provision of information to farmers on agricultural production, designed to increase production and protect natural resources (450.aers.psumarketing.edu/glossarysearch.cfm). The Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives had at one time an Extension Branch, which later turned into Field Services. Later, it turned into Agriculture Department. It is still called by the same name at the time of writing this report. Agriculture extension was once known as the application of scientific research and new knowledge to agricultural practices through education.

In this study, any effort made to provide development information to the famer is agricultural extension. Further, in this study, instead of only focusing on crop

production, agricultural extension also includes providing information on crop marketing.

3.1.8 Media

3.1.8.1 Traditional media

Traditional channels of communication, according to Moreno Chiovoloni who works With FAO Communication Programme in Mali, are local and traditional communication systems. Tradition media refer to all organized processes of production and exchange of information managed by the rural communities. These include tools like traditional theatre, masks and puppets performances, tales, riddles and songs. In this study tradition media refer to any media that are used by the local communities that do not embrace modern media such as radio, TV and print media.

3.1.8.2 Modern media communication:

What counts as modern media is often debated, and is dependent on the definitions used. However, there are a few that have been widely accepted such as Internet, Video games, and virtual worlds as they impact marketing and public relations. Others are Multimedia CD-ROMs, Software, Web sites including brochure ware, blogs and wikis, e mail and attachments, Electronic kiosks, Interactive television, Mobile devices, Podcasting, Hypertext fiction and Graphical User Interfaces. Thus, to define what modern media are would take several pages and would include all the above. Unfortunately, this is not what this study is focusing on. Modern media in this study is referring to newspapers, posters, billboards, brochures (Print), radio, TV and VCD / DVDs which are common to the people of Chipata. It also includes phones and internet as modern media communication channels.

3.1.9 Opinion Leader defined

According to Rogers (1983:37-38) an Opinion leader is an “individual who is able to influence informally other individuals’ altitudes or overt behavior in a desired way with relative frequency.” The role of an Opinion leader is to help reduce uncertainty about an innovation for his or her followers. In this study opinion leaders are those village residents who influence others to grow tobacco.

3.2 Main theories and how they apply to the Study

3.2.0 General back ground on communication theories

Literature indicates that theories of communication have evolved over the years from being one way processes to convergence within communication networks. According to McQuil (1983) communication models seem to have followed a particular history shaped by circumstances of time and space as well as several other environmental factors. He argues that the history of communication can be traced to early 1960s when research studies established what was called “hypodermic needle or magic bullet theory” According to this theory media is like a needle which inserts ideas, attitudes and beliefs into the audience who as a powerless mass has little choice but to be influenced consequently.

The people who began the Frankfurt School were mainly German academics (many of whom were Jewish) who had fled Nazi Germany prior to World War Two. They had seen how an entire nation had been influenced to become anti-Jewish. The Frankfurt School saw mass media as great influence and believed in the powerlessness of the mass media’s audience. They believed that modern culture had been taken by mass media which shaped even aspects of their lives. Studies by scholars notably, Kaiz and Lazarsfeld (1955) and Klapper (1960) argued that the flow of mass communication was less direct and less powerful than previously thought. They argued that mass media influences work amid other influences in a total situation. For example Klapper (1960) states that “mass communication ordinarily does not serve as a necessary and sufficient cause of audience effects, but rather functions among a nexus of mediating factors and influences.” According to Klapper, other factors such socializing influence play a greater role in shaping people’s beliefs and attitudes such as the influence of the family and peer groups, religion, social class, educational, occupation etc. These mediating factors are such that they typically render mass communications a contributory agent, but not the sole cause in a process of reinforcing the existing conditions. The generalization by Klapper set the stage for future direction of communication theory. Below we look at some of the communication theories that are relevant to the study.

3.2.1 Multi Step Theory

The Multi Step theory was a critique of the earlier theory- the Two Step Theory. The Two Step Theory was propounded by Lazarsfeld and Katz (1973). According to Lazarsfeld and Katz, mass media is channeled to the “masses” through opinion leadership. The people with most access to the media, and having a more literate understanding of media contents, explain and diffuse the contents to others. They argued that the flow of personal influence was activated by certain individuals who were found in every level of society and presumably were like the people they influenced. The relationship between mass media and opinion leaders was determined to be a two step flow of communication. Thus, the messages flow from mass media to opinion leaders who are more exposed to mass media and from them to the less active members of the audience. They stated that opinion leaders receive messages from mass media bodies and resend them to audience members through interpersonal communication (ib id).

However, a later critique of the Two Step Theory led to the revelation of the multi step flow of information which suggested that messages were transmitted directly through a number of relays of opinion leaders who communicate to one another and to followers. According to Reinsburg (1996), the process of influence is said to be more complex in that people who influence others are themselves influenced by others in the same topic area, resulting in exchange. Opinion leaders are therefore disseminators and recipients of influence. Thus, according to the Multi Step Theory, there is a flow of influence from both opinion leaders to less attentive actors, but also between opinion leaders to other leaders.

3.2.1.1 Relevance of the theory to the study

The Multi Step Theory is relevant to the research because it provides the reality of how the life of tobacco out growers is affected. Growing of tobacco is not only new, but is complex from the time the farmer prepares the nursery up to the time that the farmer sells the crop. He or She needs a lot of innovative and complex skills. Alliance One Zambia has a Radio Programme “*Ulimi Wa Fodia*” which is aired on Radio Breeze FM.

The programme Produced by Akakendelwa Mate had been teaching farmers about tobacco production and marketing. The programme is aired by Breeze FM during the rain season and tobacco marketing period. Other radio programmes like “*Uchikumbe*” produced by National Agricultural Information Service (NAIS) are also aired by Breeze FM. Further more, other radio programmes on tobacco production and marketing are produced by Eastern Fodia Association. All these radio programmes are transmitted to the public in Chipata and beyond. The opinion leaders, normally who are relatively more literate get the messages and are able to give the messages to the members of the audience. But according to this theory, this is not the only flow of information; opinion leaders also share the information from the radio with other opinion leaders. For example this happens when the Area Development Committee meets. The same happens when the Chief’s Council meets at the Palace.

Further, the Famers Organization Support Programme (FOSUP) and the Land Alliance Zambia quarterly produce newsletters in English. The Opinion leaders because of their mobility and literacy are able to read and share what they read with the rest of the members in the society most of them who are illiterate. It is not uncommon to find a young person who has only reached up to grade three growing tobacco in Chipata. Where did he get the information? Opinion leaders provided. Opinion leaders also share the information among themselves. Tobacco is grown by thousands of small scale farmers in Malawi. It is very interesting to note that only areas that are adjacent to Malawi in Zambia grow tobacco in Eastern Province. It demonstrates the flow of information not only among the opinion leaders themselves but also between Opinion leaders and those below them. This study is partly based on the Multi Step Theory described above.

3.2.2 The Diffusion of Innovation Theory

Diffusion of Innovation Theory has two basic concepts namely diffusion and innovation. Diffusion is the “process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over a period of time among the members of a social system” (Rogers, 1995 p.79). An innovation is “an idea, practice or object that is perceived to be new by an

individual or other units of adoption” (ib id). This theory explains how new ideas, practices or objects (innovations) are spread among groups of people. It also deals with conditions which increase or decrease the likelihood that a new product, idea or practice will be adopted by a society.

The most important aspect of a diffusion theory is the adoption process in an individual or individuals confronted with an innovation and how he or she is going to react to it. According to Rogers (1995; 5), decisions are not authoritative or collective. Each member of the social system faces his or her own innovation- decision that follows a 5-step process. These steps are;

1. *Knowledge*- person becomes aware of an innovation and has some idea of how it functions,
2. *Persuasion*- person forms a favourable or unfavourable attitudes toward the innovation,
3. *Decision*- person engages in activities that lead to a choice to adopt or reject the innovation,
4. *Implementation*- person puts an innovation to use,
5. *Confirmation*- person evaluates the results of an innovation- decision already made (ib id: 162).

The most striking feature of the Diffusion Theory is that, for most members of a social system, the innovation- decision heavily depends on the innovation- decisions of other members of the system. The innovation- decision process is made through a cost benefit analysis where the major obstacle is uncertainty. People, according to this theory, will adopt an innovation if they believe that it will, all things considered, enhance their utility. So they must believe that the innovation may yield some *relative advantage* to the ideas it supersedes. How can they know for sure that there benefits? Also in considering costs, people determine to what degree the innovation would disrupt other functioning facts of daily life. Is it compatible with existing habits and values? Is it hard to use? The newness and unfamiliarity with an innovation infuse into the cost- benefit

analysis with a large dose of uncertainty. It sounds good, but does it work? Will it break? If I adopt it will people think I am weird?

3.2.2.1 Relevance of the theory to the study

The Diffusion of Innovation Theory is of importance to the study because it describes the process by which an innovation is disseminated through a community. Growing tobacco is an innovation. One has to pass through the innovation- decision process to start growing tobacco. Even after starting growing tobacco, one can decide to discontinue. This can happen at the confirmation stage. The farmer can be growing tobacco, but decide to stop. Such cases were there. The role of Change Agents is captured by this theory. The change Agents provide information to the farmers to persuade them to grow tobacco and/ or continue growing tobacco. In Chipata tobacco companies provide not only inputs, but also extension messages through various channels. Extension workers from tobacco companies go round influencing innovation- decision process of the farmers to grow and continue growing tobacco. These channels include inter personal communication, demonstrations, radio, popular theatre and group discussions to mention but a few. The interaction between Change Agents and tobacco farmers is important.

3.2.3 Social Learning Theory

Social Learning Theory is derived from the work of Gabriel Tarde (1843- 1904) who proposed that social learning occurred through four main stages of imitation: (a) close contact, (b) imitation of superiors, (c) understanding of concepts and (d) role model behaviour. Julian Rotter moved away from theories based on psychoanalysis and behaviorism, and developed a Social Learning Theory. In *Social Learning and Clinical Psychology* (1954), Rotter suggested that the effect of behavior has an impact on the motivation of people to engage in that behaviour. People wish to avoid negative consequences, while desiring positive results or effects. If one expects a positive outcome from a behavior, or thinks there is a high probability of a positive outcome, then they will more likely engage in that behaviour. The behaviour is reinforced, with positive outcomes, leading a person to repeat the behaviour. This social

learning theory suggests that behaviour is influenced by these environmental factors or stimuli, and not psychological factors alone.

Bandura (1977) expanded on the Rotter's idea, as well as earlier work by Miller & Dollard (1941), and is related to social learning theories of Vygotsky and Lave. This theory incorporates aspects of behavioral and cognitive learning. Behavioral learning assumes that people's environment (surroundings) cause people to behave in certain ways. Cognitive learning presumes that psychological factors are important for influencing how one behaves. Social learning suggests that a combination of environmental (social) and psychological factors influence behavior. Social Learning Theory outlines four requirements for people to learn and model behavior include attention, retention (remembering what one observed), reproduction (ability to reproduce the behavior), and motivation (good reason) to want to adopt the behavior.

3.2.3.1 Relevance of the theory to the study

The Social Learning Theory describes how tobacco growing is done in the villages. *Close contacts* between those who are growing tobacco is important, so that they share ideas. New farmers learn from old farmers. *Imitation*, very cardinal; if one farmer (normally the opinion leader) has been successful, the upcoming farmers would like to imitate him or her- when does he or she plant? How does he or she do the watering? If one farmer lost the maize to the tobacco company for failing to pay back the loans, other farmers will try to avoid that *negative* thing while desiring positive results like buying a bicycle after selling tobacco. What this implies is that if potential farmers are seeing the benefits of growing tobacco, they will be encouraged to start growing tobacco. The environment has an impact on people's behavior. Equally, if farmers are seeing negative things happening to tobacco farmers, according to this theory, some farmers who are growing tobacco will stop growing the crop, and others won't start growing the crop. This theory will be used in the study.

3.2.4 The Knowledge Gap Theory

The knowledge-gap hypothesis theory suggests that each new medium increases the information rich and information poor, because of differences in access to the medium, and control over its use, among other factors. It was first proposed by Phillip J. Tichenor and his colleagues.

In the article, "Mass media flow and differential growth in knowledge" that Tichenor and his colleagues proposed in 1970, it is clear to describe "knowledge gap hypothesis." As the infusion of mass media information into a social system increases, segments of the population with higher socio- economic status tend to acquire this information at a faster rate than the lower status segments, so that the gap in knowledge between these segments tends to increase rather than decrease (Tichenor, et al 1970).

3.2.4.1 Relevance of the theory to the study.

The knowledge Gap theory is important to the study because tobacco production and marketing requires knowledge which according to this theory is a resource. This knowledge gives certain people the capability to do things and take advantage of certain arrangements. In the out grower schemes the "better off" farmers through various media acquire more knowledge which they use to benefit from the out grower schemes. They are able to know which companies are giving a fair deal in the district and are able to negotiate their way through. They know where the better markets are through the information that they receive through the media. But the "worse off" farmers rely on their friends and rumor mongering in the villages. Thus, according to this theory mass media widens the gap of knowledge between the "worse off" farmers on one hand and the "better off" of farmers on the other. The "better off" famers have more access to mass media than "worse off" famers thereby widening the knowledge gap. Things like telecentres, internet, television, newspapers and magazine just to mention but a few will tend to favour those who are relatively more educated and have a higher social status. Once they benefit from these media, the gap of knowledge between the rich and the poor will widen. This theory was used in the study

CHAPTER FOUR

LITERATURE REVIEW

4.0 Introduction

This chapter looks at some of the literature available which is connected to this study at four levels namely the World, Africa, Sub Region and Zambia. The literature under review generally shows the importance of development communication and the impact of agriculture development on small holder famers in general and tobacco out growers in particular.

4.1 World Level

The importance of agriculture in improving the livelihood of people can not be over emphasized. It is generally believed that a dynamic agriculture for development agenda can benefit the estimated 900 million rural people in the developing world who live on less than \$1 a day, most of whom are engaged in agriculture. We need to give agriculture more prominence across the board. At the global level, countries must deliver on vital reforms such as cutting distorting subsidies and opening markets, while civil society groups, especially farmer organizations, need *more say in setting the agricultural agenda* (World Development Report, 2007; 3). The World Development Report 2007 calls for greater investment in agriculture in developing countries. The Report warns that the sector must be placed at the centre of development agenda if the goals of halving extreme poverty and hunger by 2015 have to be realized. According to the Report, in the 21st century, agriculture continues to be a fundamental instrument for sustainable development and poverty reduction. The Report examines what agriculture can do for development, how agriculture-for-development agenda can best be implemented, and the most effective ways to use agriculture for development and poverty reduction.

Irz et al (2001) in their paper *Agriculture Productivity, Growth and Poverty Reduction* cite a wide range of empirical studies showing how agricultural growth has promoted poverty reduction. They show a strong negative correlation between agricultural yields and poverty across samples both of the developing countries in general and African

countries in particular. Farrington (2004) in his book Agriculture and Poverty Reduction based on the studies done by the International Development Institute of the United Kingdom shows how a range of different types of investments in the 1970s and 1980s had major poverty reduction impacts as a result of the stimulus they provided for agricultural growth. Gallup et al (1987) estimates high returns of poverty reduction from agricultural investment compared to other forms of investment. Worldwide there have been dramatic increases in agricultural production over the last 40 to 50 years with annual increases in agricultural production averaging 2.5 percent from 1965 to 1998, and in Asia much of this growth has been in small holder agriculture.

Among the crops that are grown by small holder farmers is tobacco. According to Jalfee (2003), eleven countries (including Zimbabwe and Malawi) account for almost 80 percent of global production of tobacco. In Malawi 375, 000 small holder farmers are engaged in tobacco production while in Zimbabwe 18, 000 small holder farmers are engaged in tobacco production. China alone accounts for almost 40 percent followed by India, Brazil and the United States, which collectively account for a further 25 percent (ib id). Governments intervene to support tobacco production in a number of the main producing countries. Firstly, governments in these tobacco growing countries give price incentives to support small holder tobacco schemes. This is done in India, Turkey and the European Union (FAO, 2003). The World Trade Organization (WTO) is still discussing agricultural subsidies that are given to the farmers in the developed world which give them due advantage over farmers from developing countries.

Small holder agriculture in developing countries faces many challenges. While 75 percent of the world population lives in rural areas in developing countries, a mere 4 percent of official development assistance goes to agriculture (Aidan and Miller, 1998). For example in Sub Sahara Africa a region heavily reliant on agriculture for its growth, public spending on agriculture is only a mere 4 percent of total government spending and the sector is still taxed at relatively high levels. Thus, small holder farmers growing tobacco in developing countries are constrained by a number of factors and require

technology and programmes targeted at them for agriculture production to translate into poverty reduction.

Literature indicates that development communication is one of the tools that are used to enhance the livelihood of small holder farmers worldwide. In his book Communication in Development, Casmir (1991) documents development communication experiences in Japan, Korea, Nigeria, Poland, China, Brazil, Canada and Germany. Countries like Canada and India had as early as 1940s began employing development communication in the agricultural sector. In Canada one of the first examples of development communication was Farm Radio Forums. From 1945 to 1955 farmers met in groups each week to listen to radio programmes. There were also printed materials and prepared questions to encourage group discussions.

The history of organized development communication in India can be traced to rural radio broadcasts in the 1940s. As is logical, the broadcasts used indigenous languages such as Hindi, Marathi, Gujarati and Kannada. While field publicity was given importance through person- to- person communication- also because the level of literacy was very low in rural areas- radio played an important role in reaching the messages to the masses. In the studies done in India in the early 1990s on the impact of development communication, indications were that Poverty was reducing as a percentage of population Chin (1993). But still over 200 million are very poor as of 2008. They all, and urban slum dwellers, need government support in different forms. Chin gives an overview of development communication from a broad regional perspective. He highlights some salient aspects of state- of- the- art of development communication with the focus on broadcast media. The need for development communication in India continues since a large population, over 600 million, lives in rural areas and depends directly on agriculture.

In Latin America development communication traces its history back to the 1940s with the efforts of Colombia Radio and Bolivia's Radios Mineras. These stations were the first to use participatory and educational radio approaches to empowering the

marginalized, in effect, they have since served as the earliest participatory broadcasting efforts around the world. The targeting of poor members of the community make these two stations as learning points as more and more radio broadcasts in the world especially the developing countries start to target the poor segments of the population. The systematic study and practice of development communication in the Philippines began in the 1970s with the pioneering work of Nora c, Quebral, who in 1972 became the first to come up with the term "Development Communication," in at least some circles within the field. It is Quebral who is recognized as the "Mother of Development Communication" (Quebral, 1988).

Literature also revealed that while radio as a medium of communication has been pioneering development communication in many countries, Person- to- Person Communication has also proved to be a wonder "tool kit" among the rural people of Bangladesh. Chandler (1987) did a case study of the famous Grameen Bank in Bangladesh. According to Chandler, the Grameen Bank grew out of an Action Research Project in jobra village near the University of Chittagong. The objective of the project was to extend credit to the landless poor women and men, to eliminate the exploitation of money lenders and to create opportunities for self employment. In 1983 the project was transformed into an independent Bank. It is called Grameen Bank which in Bengla means Village Bank. The case study describes and analyses the communication aspects of the Grameen Bank. According to the authors, the *"driving force in Grameen Bank's process for the benefit of the poorest is undoubtedly person- to- person communication."* Peron- to- Person Communication has an number of advantages over mass communication because it provides an opportunity for both the sender and the receiver of the message to articulate their positions and the feed back is there and then. The eye contact enhances trust between the sender and the recipient of the message. It is very effective among the poorest of the poor who are suspicious of any thing new.

4.2 African level

Twenty-percent of the world's population or 1.2 billion live on less than \$1 per day; 70 percent of these are rural and 90 percent are in Asia and sub-Saharan Africa. It is argued that research-led technological change in agriculture generates sufficient productivity growth to give high rates of return in Africa and Asia and has a substantial impact on poverty, currently reducing this number by 27 million per annum, whereas productivity growth in industry and services has no impact (All Africa.com). Many African countries including Zambia have made agriculture as the "engine" of development. Unfortunately, while there have been dramatic increases in agricultural production worldwide in the last 40 to 50 years as indicated above, in Sub Sahara Africa, Zambia inclusive, agricultural output grew slower than overall population growth between 1965 and 2004. In anything; Sub Sahara Africa is still achieving its growth more through expansion of cultivated areas than through yield increases.

Bagdall (1993) Reviews a number of studies that have been done to assess the performance of the African Agricultural sector. He observes that Africa is facing a number of challenges. According to Bagdall, the major problems include cultural, social, economical, legal, educational, and in the context of this study, lack of information to improve farming activities. The lack of reliable and comprehensive information is considered one of the major hindrances to agricultural development. Unfortunately, access to information has not received adequate attention in most countries and especially in rural areas where 70- 80 percent of the African population lives. Women in rural areas have very little information on agriculture, are poor and can not read and write. Communication infrastructure in rural areas is not a priority for many African countries.

In 1993 International Fund for Agriculture Development (IFAD) conducted a survey to find out how communications are incorporated into its projects in Africa, whether they are planned and budgeted in a formal manner, and if so, how they are implemented, and to what extent are they brought into the process. The findings show that approximately 22 percent of IFAD's projects have communication activities. It was decided that a more

systematic approach to the design and planning of communications for rural development must be adopted. The overall objective is for all new projects to have communications which are planned and resourced at the identification and design, with inputs from local organizations with communication for rural development experience at the local level (IFAD, 1993). The challenge, however, is to find local organizations that have experience in communication for development because most of them have no capacity to deliver and more importantly communication for development is a relatively new field in the development arena and many organizations in Africa are still struggling to get hold of the approach.

The African school of development communication sprang from the continent's post-colonial and communist movements in the late 1960s and 1970s. Development communication in Anglophone Africa saw the use of the radio and theatre for community education, health and rural agricultural education. Meanwhile radio was being developed as a means of promoting rural development in Francophone Africa with sponsorship from Bretton Woods School institutions (Metalopulos and Moetsabi, 1999). In a study to evaluate the contribution of the media to development, Professors More and Gills observe that until very recently, the media in Africa were in the hands of the governments who erroneously believed that they (governments) could take control of the media and that they would use their authority to tell the media what was important for the people. This top-down approach disenfranchised the people and the media. As a result, growth or change was temporary or non-existent (More and Gills, 2007).

When mass media is democratized, it serves the people and the people use the media to obtain information they are interested in so that they can improve their daily lives and their community. The use of the media for the benefit of the people could be seen in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) where a social communication campaign was launched in 1988 using mass media to reach 13 million urban DRC residents to promote a condom "PRUDENCE" as a way of reducing the prevalence of HIV and AIDS. Television and Radio Spots, songs about HIV and AIDS, drama on radio and television, and note books for school children were used to disseminate a single message about safe

sex practices. By the end of 1990, DRC's 13 million urban residents were receiving 10 minutes every day of televised HIV and AIDS messages in the form of music videos, interview programmes, dramas or spots. Post- tests of specific media interventions showed high listener/ viewer rates and excellent recall of key messages. Results from an August 1990 programme impact study in Kinshasa showed among other things that there was increased awareness regarding asymptomatic carriers. The number of people who agreed with the statement "you can avoid getting infected with the virus simply by avoiding sexual contact with people who look sick" decreased by 14 percent (56 to 42 percent), the condom use increased from 3.6 to 18.8 percent (this was very long time ago. The situation may be different today) (Cabehero-Verzosa, 2003). This is a good example showing how mass media can be used for the benefit of the community.

The need for development communication can not be over emphasized in Africa. An organization called *Le Centre Songhai* is a centre for training, production, processing, research and development in agrobiolgy (<http://ifd.ext.jussieu.ir/drought.htm>). The centre's goal is to enhance the capacity of African producers in crop production, fish farming and livestock production. In 2008 The Centre carried out a study on the performance of African small holder agriculture which was posted on its website. The study revealed that there were serious information gaps in the African Agriculture especially among small holder farmers. The centre recommended that there was an argent need to integrate new information and communication technologies in the process of developing African Agriculture. The centre observed that despite the vast potential, the unstable living conditions of the majority of Africa's population continue to deteriorate with the spread of unemployment, inequality and poverty. The centre concluded that new information and communication technologies need to be part of the African agricultural development process if poverty has to be reduced. Small holder farmers lack adequate agricultural information to effectively engage in sustainable agriculture. Ashley and Maxwell (2001:395) note that "poverty is not only wide spread in rural areas, but most poverty is rural.... Yet these rural problems have been neglected." In his book The Cultural Dimension of Communication for Development based on literature research and personal experiences gained in communication projects

in Africa, Boeren (1994) argues that media has educational potential that could be used to provide information that most rural farmers in Africa need to improve their lives.

4.3 Southern Africa Sub Region

Malawi is the second largest tobacco producer in the region after Zimbabwe. Between them these two countries accounted for just fewer than 70 percent of tobacco production in the region between 1995 and 2004 and 75 percent during the 1990s. The rising tobacco production in Malawi (and Zimbabwe), since the 1960s has translated into an increasing share of the world exports of tobacco. Using FAOSTAT figures, Malawi share of world leaf exports (by value) rose from 1.8 percent during 1965- 1974 to 3 percent during 1975- 1984, 4.4 percent during 1985- 1994 and 5.1 percent during 1995- 2004. Volume figures give very similar shares. With the gradual reduction in support for tobacco production in the US, Malawi has recently overtaken the US as the world leading exporter of Barley Tobacco (Jalfee, 2003)

Tobacco in Malawi plays a significant role in national economic development, both for rural and city households. The World Bank in 2003 reported that tobacco made up to 60 percent of Malawi's exports, 13 percent of its GDP and 23 percent of the total tax base (ib id). Over time export markets have become more diverse for the crop; A report by the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) notes that Malawi's tobacco export destinations increased from 45 in 1968 to 78 in 1998 (FAO, 2003). Among these the top 10 markets for tobacco are Germany (19 per cent), the US (11.4 per cent), Zimbabwe (6.5 per cent), Russia (5.9 per cent), Belgium (5.6 per cent), South Africa (5 percent), Egypt (4.6 per cent), the Netherlands (4.3 per cent), Poland (3.5 per cent) and Turkey (3.2 per cent) (ib id). With a long history of cultivation, the wealth generated by Malawi's tobacco has not only laid the foundation for it's cities, but has also been responsible for the few signs of "prosperity" which one sees in rural Malawi- from roofs to bicycles and radios (Jalfee, 2003).

A number of research studies have been done in Malawi to determine the extent small holder farmers have benefited from growing tobacco. Literature indicates that tobacco

growing, unfortunately, has brought misery to the small holder famers in Malawi. Tobacco companies' cartel and collusion over prices at auctions depresses tobacco prices in Malawi (van Donge, 2002). A study by Malawi's Anti- Corruption Bureau concluded that Limbe Leaf and Alliance One operate a tobacco cartel and collude with each other, reducing competition and decreasing prices at the auction (Anti- Corruption Bureau, 2005). Limbe and Alliance One privately agree on percentages of tobacco that each company is supposed to buy each day at auction, cautioning each other when either of them purchases more than the percentage allocated to them.

In 2005 Clive Stanrook, a Belgium based International lawyer, in his report Preliminary note on tobacco sales in Malawi to the Tobacco Association of Malawi, said in Malawi "there is sustained, blatant and comprehensive collusion between the buyers. This deep-rooted collusion appears to go back over at least a decade between the three principle buyers (now two)" (van Donge, 2002). The decrease in prices and increased tobacco production between the late 1990s and 2006 forced farm workers and their family members to work harder and for lower tobacco prices each season. This situation prompted the Government to widely criticize Limbe Leaf and Alliance One for the first time in March 2006 (Chikoko, 2006). Then President Mbingu Wamutalika said "poor small holder farmers in Malawi have remained poor because they are cheated by international cartel that connives to buy our tobacco at exploitative prices and yet they sell the same tobacco at huge prices in their own countries." (Government of Malawi and World Bank 2006). World Bank agrees that the depression of prices could make it uneconomical to grow tobacco in Malawi and that the Malawi's producer marketing arrangement needs to be revised.

The challenges faced by the small holder farmers in Malawi are many. But in one case study done by Poulton et al (2007) on Malawi tobacco, indicates that small holder farmers growing tobacco are faced with three challenges namely, quality, yields and the cost of transaction. The yields are poor and the quality of tobacco is poor. In addition to these the cost of transaction is very high. Consequently, the small holder farmers growing tobacco are not able to benefit from the sales of the crop. It is important to note

that, according to the recommendation of this study, the challenge lies in improving service delivery “notably extension advice” to small holder famers (ib id: 6). The findings of the study are similar to that of Bagdall and the Centre mentioned above. Many small holder farmers in Malawi produce the crop with little expertise. Tobacco production and marketing needs special skills. It has been found that while efficient arrangements are in place for a minority of small holder producers, the rest of the producers need information on say buyers’ quality requirements. According to Jalfee (2003; 13) there are “strong apriori reasons to expect that those who are receiving little technical advice or feed back will achieve lower average quality than established farmers.” For example, Senior Managers of Tobacco Estates in Malawi have regular contacts with buyers, meaning they have developed a good understanding of what the buyers want. The small holder farmers do not have this privilege. Small holder farmers need information to allow them to participate in the sector profitably.

The research by Poulton et al (2007) made an assessment of the information needs of small holder famers in Malawi. The study showed that small holder farmers in Malawi require all aspects of information ranging from tobacco production, processing, marketing, decision – making process, the resource base, and trade laws (contract farming). They also need to exchange information on indigenous knowledge and require appropriate information Communication technologies to be able to access vital information efficiently and cost effectively. The study recommends that both traditional and modern media should be used to plug the information gaps that the small holder farmers have on tobacco production and marketing.

4.4 Local level - Zambia

Very few studies have been done to determine the impact of out grower schemes in reducing poverty among small holder famers and even fewer on the need for implementing development communication in out grower schemes in Zambia. This is partly because the government and its collaborating partners have come to believe that out grower schemes are exits to poverty among rural farmers. For example the researcher talked to Mr. Mathias Kanyemba who was the Chief Field Crops Officer in

the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives and was in- charge of monitoring the performance of all out grower schemes in the country. Mr. Kanyemba said that studies had been done to determine the impact of out grower's schemes on poverty reduction. The findings, according to him, were that poverty was greatly reduced through tobacco production among the small holder farmers. He said that tobacco out grower schemes were doing "very well." He said that during the last monitoring visit, when he accompanied the Minister of Agriculture and Cooperatives to small holder farmers growing tobacco, he noticed that some had purchased animals, tractors, mills (*chigayo*), vehicles and the like. To him tobaccos out grower schemes are a success story in Zambia (Kanyemba, 2008). When asked to produce the study and monitoring reports, Mr. Kanyemba said he was still preparing the reports. At the time of writing this report the reports were not yet ready.

One of the first formidable study on the impact of out grower schemes on small holder famers was commissioned In 2005 by the Catholic Centre for Justice, Development and Peace (CCJDP) now CARITAS Zambia. The study "Growing Poverty: The Impact of Out grower Schemes on Poverty in Zambia" had four objectives. The first objective was to determine whether cotton and tobacco out grower schemes reduce poverty among the out growers. The second objective was to determine the impact of cotton and tobacco out grower schemes on household food security among out growers. The other objectives were to determine the impact of cotton and tobacco out growers on gender roles and recommend policies and actions by different stakeholders in order to ensure the effectiveness of out grower schemes

The study was conducted in four districts namely Mumbwa, Chipata, Choma and Kaoma. Cotton growers were covered in Mumbwa and Chipata Districts while tobacco farmers were covered in Kaoma and Choma Districts. The study employed Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) techniques which included semi- structured interviews, personal histories, stratified Focus Group Discussions, mapping and scoring and personal observations

The report concluded that the study had demonstrated that out grower schemes have variable impacts on rural livelihoods. While a study proportion of the out grower population have experienced significant improvements in livelihoods, the majority have experienced not only no changes but in fact experienced deterioration in livelihoods due to out grower schemes. (CCJDP, 2005:84).

According to this study the reasons for the varied impacts of out grower schemes on livelihoods were numerous. However, the study showed that “the initial conditions of the farmers are an important factor of success in out grower farming. Farmers who are already ‘better off’ tend to improve their livelihoods while those who are already ‘worse off’ experience even more deterioration due to out grower schemes” (ib id p.85). It therefore follows that out grower – agriculture is not an escape route from poverty for the poorest segment of rural population. Rather out grower schemes assist in consolidating the progress of already well off farmers.

The study identified a number of factors that make small out growers fail to benefit from the out grower schemes. However, no particular interest was taken to investigate why ‘better off’ farmers are able to benefit from the out grower schemes while ‘worse off’ farmers experience either no change or experience deterioration in the livelihoods from the same out grower schemes. Out growers were regarded as homogeneous group with basically no differences in their knowledge and skills in crop production and marketing. The roles of Change Agents and Gate Keepers in the diffusion of agricultural messages were totally ignored. This consequently sidelined the role information and Communication play in out grower schemes.

Recent studies indicate that the number of small holder farmers in the country is decreasing. A study by Milimo (2005) entitled “The Poor of Zambia Speak” revealed that 10 years ago small scale famers accounted for well over 65 percent of the population. Now there is a decrease in their numbers as they continually migrate to the cities in search of other forms of livelihoods considering the decrease in farming profitability. According to this study small holder farmers now make only 55 percent of

the population This was also the findings in the research done by PELUM on “Small holder Agriculture- Ignored Gold Mine - a PELUM Zambia Policy Brief” (PELUM, 2007). According to PELUM Zambia, the government has neglected small holder famers by not putting on a policy and improve rural infrastructure to support rural famers many of them who had been left with no alternative but abandon farming. In 2007 the Agriculture Minister Mr. Ben Kapita noted that the number of farmers growing tobacco in Eastern Province had reduced. In 2008 The Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (MACO) Annual Report indicated that the estimated production of Virginia Tobacco increased by 6 percent to 15, 562Mt in the 2006/2007 agricultural season from 14, 685Mt in the previous season. Barley Tobacco production decreased by 30.10 percent to 10, 000MT in 2006/ 2007 agricultural season from 14, 375 Mt in the previous season. Virginia tobacco is mostly grown by commercial farmers while Barley Tobacco is grown by small scale farmers (MACO, 2008).

Out growers in Zambia face many challenges. In a study done by CLUSA Zambia on “*Developing self managed out Grower Schemes in Zambia and Mozambique.*” The study found that in doing business with small holder farmers the main issues were firstly, high transaction costs resulting to having to distribute inputs to, collect crops from, and keep records on thousands of scattered, individual farmers. Secondly, unacceptable levels of risk resulting from side selling- a situation exacerbated by inadequate contact enforcement mechanisms and lastly, *expensive extension services* as companies had to step in to complement or replace a demoralized, inadequately, trained/ equipped government extension services (Phillips and Serrano, 1999; 2).

Extension delivery which was observed as a challenge among small holder tobacco growers in Malawi also applies in Zambia. The small holder farmers need information to effectively and efficiently engage in agricultural development. The famers need information not only on production and marketing but also on trade laws, decision making and the alike.

Further, after liberalization and market reforms of 1991 by the government, the private sector's response has been diversity in contractual arrangements. According to Mwanaumo (1991) the private sector has developed more diverse and sophisticated contractual arrangements. In the study "*smallholder farmers' response to liberalization*," it was revealed that the small holder farmers need more information to allow them to participate effectively in the new agricultural environment. Thus, just like their counterparts in Malawi, the out growers in Zambia need a vibrant extension service to provide them with information. This implies that information packages on the implication of liberalization should be developed for small holder farmers.

The need to provide information to the small holder farmer has been acknowledged by both the public and private sectors. The government since 1993 through the Agricultural Marketing Information Centre (AMIC) has been providing marketing information to key stakeholders. However, due to changing environment, it came imperative to conduct User Needs Assessment so as to review the current perception about the service MACO has been providing, and to know to what extent the stakeholders were being provided with relevant information. The study found that the small scale farmers mentioned that in order to make decisions on the types of commodities to produce, it was necessary to have information of a number of things including but not limited to the following; the costs of producing the various types of crops noted for the particular area, the availability of inputs especially fertilizer and the prices of these inputs, the available markets for the selected commodities and their prices and the market costs that traders incur (MACO, 2002).

Most small scale farmers, however, indicated that they had no idea on the existence of AMIC let alone the Bulletin produced by AMIC. They indicated that they relied on *chatting with friends* to get agricultural information (ib id; 19). The Study, however, recognizes the role of the *radio in information provision*. The study notes that the radio is "a very effective way of disseminating information to the farmers" (ib id, p.24). The study established that the farmers listen to the radio almost on the *daily* basis. It is for

this reason that radio as a medium of agricultural information provision will be investigated in this study.

The initiatives taken by the private sector include the provision of Famers internet Café, SMS Trade/ Marketing Information System and Community Radio Stations. In an effort to increase farmers' access to the information, the Zambia National Farmers Union (ZNFU) set up two famer's internet café in Monze and Kabwe (NAIS, 2005). Zambia National Farmers Union (ZNFU) Deputy Director then Mr. Ndambo Ndambo indicated that the aim was to link the mother body with affiliates at the district level while at the same time providing information to individual members. According to Mr. Ndambo the farmers have benefited. For example Mr. Ndambo indicated that "Famers were able to compare tobacco prices in Malawi, Zimbabwe and Zambia on the internet and through this network they were able to negotiate for a better price" (ib id). This was in line with the National Information and Communication Technology Policy adopted in 2006. One of the objectives of the National Information and Communication Technology Policy on agriculture is "to increase the competitiveness of famers in production, processing and marketing of agricultural products and services through the utilization of Information and communication technologies (ICTs)." (GRZ, 2006:42). However, in a research done by Harmeet Gill of the Sweden International Development Agency (SIDA) on "*Policy for and Increase in the internet Usage in Zambia,*" it was found that one aspect of ICT that needs more focus is an internet. According to Gill there needs to be an increase in fiber optic cables accessible in Zambia, an increase in private investors and an increase in computer and internet literacy (Gill, 2006).

Further, The Zambia National Farmers Union (ZNFU) with the assistance from Smallholder Enterprise and Marketing Programme (SHEMP) (funded By IFAD) has developed a website through which the farmers in any part of the world including Zambia can use to find out about the buyer/ seller of agricultural commodities using the a mobile phone. This means that any famer in Zambia who has a mobile phone can use this facility to check the prices and potential buyers of an agricultural commodity from any part of the country. No studies have been done to determine the effectiveness of this

facility in enhancing the livelihood of rural people. This study will establish the contribution of mobile phones to the livelihood of tobacco out growers.

The literature also revealed that Chipata District is serviced by two local radio stations namely Radio Maria which is owned by the Catholic Church and Breeze FM which is a commercial radio station with interests in community development. In a survey conducted in July 2003, it was reported that the audience of the Eastern Province reached by Breeze FM was significantly larger than that of the channels of Zambia National Broadcasting Cooperation (ZNBC), larger than the channels of Malawi Broadcasting Cooperation (MBC), and larger than any other radio source received (Breeze FM, 2003). The researcher talked to the Producer at Radio Breeze FM, Mr. Webster Wanja who informed him that the station had even a larger audience. According to Mr. Wanja Breeze FM was able to capture listeners not only in Eastern Province and Malawi, but also listeners in some parts of Northern and Central Provinces of Zambia and some areas in Mozambique and Tanzania.

Most of the literature reviewed indicates that agriculture in general and out grower schemes in particular have high potential of contributing towards poverty reduction among small holder farmers. However, In Africa, the agriculture potential has not translated in the well being of its citizens who continue to live in poverty. There are so many factors that could be cited to be responsible for failure by the agriculture sector to contribute towards poverty reduction. Among these, the literature indicates, is the failure to implement effective development communication in agricultural development projects which has left the small holder farmers with no information to participate economically in the sector. The literature indicates that the use of media- friendly channels which put small holder farmers at the centre of communication process can greatly improve the livelihood of the majority of small holder farmers in Africa in general and Zambia in particular.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and findings that were collected through the quantitative and qualitative surveys. The chapter is divided into two parts; the first part deals with the findings of the quantitative study while the second part deals with the findings of the qualitative study. Tables have been used as well as cross tabulations in the interpretation of data.

5.1 Quantitative Survey

5.1.1 Questionnaire Survey

5.1.1.1 Sex

150 tobacco out growers were interviewed using a Questionnaire. The survey found that 67.3 percent of the respondents were male while 32.7 percent were females.

5.1.1.2 Age

The findings showed that the youngest respondent was 20 years old, and the oldest respondent was 78 years old. The mean age was 38 years old.

5.1.1.3 Marital status

According to the findings, 83.3 percent of the respondents were married. 8.0 percent were divorced or separated while 8.7 percent were single or never married as the table below shows.

Table 5.1 showing the marital status of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Married	125	83.3	83.3	83.3
Divorced/ Separated	12	8.0	8.0	91.3
Single/ Never married	13	8.7	8.7	100.0
Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data

5.1.1.4 Educational level attained

The findings showed that 23.3 percent of the respondents had never been to School. 51.3 percent had primary education while 25.4 percent had reached secondary school as the table below shows. Most of those who said they had reached up to primary school were not able to read and write as they had done only up to grade four or lower than that of primary school education.

Table 5.2 showing the educational level attained by the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
None	35	23.3	23.3	23.3
Primary	77	51.3	51.3	74.7
Secondary	38	25.4	25.4	100.0
Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data

5.1.1.5 Area cultivated

According to the research, 80 percent of the respondents had cultivated below one hectare of the tobacco field. 19.3 percent had cultivated between 2 and 4.99 hectares while only 0.7 percent had cultivated over 5 hectares of tobacco as the table below shows. The survey revealed that tobacco fields are mostly cultivated in acres.

Table 5.3 showing the total area cultivated by respondents in hectares

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Below 1.99	120	80.0	80.0	80.0
Between 2.0 and 4.99	29	19.3	19.3	99.3
Over 5.0	1	.7	.7	100.0
Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data

5.1.1.6 Policy awareness

According to the findings, 20 percent of the respondents interviewed were aware about the government policy on out grower schemes while 80 percent were not were about the policy. Below is a table showing the level of awareness of the policy of the respondents.

Table 5.4 showing the awareness of the government policy on out growers by the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	30	20.0	20.0	20.0
No	120	80.0	80.0	100.0
Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data

5.1.1.7 Effectiveness of the out grower policy

The research showed that 2.7 percent of the respondents said they strongly disagree with the policy. 4.7 percent said they disagree. 0.7 percent said they did not know. 12.7 percent said they agreed while 80 percent did not know about the policy. The table below shows the responses of the respondents.

Table 5.5 showing the respondents' evaluation of the out grower policy

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly disagree	4	2.7	2.7	2.7
Disagree	7	4.7	4.7	7.3
Don't know	1	.7	.7	8.0
Agree	19	12.7	12.7	20.7
Not applicable	119	79.3	79.3	100.0
Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data

5.1.1.8 Years in tobacco business

The research findings indicated that 24.2 percent of the respondents had been growing tobacco for less than 2 years. 32.2 percent had been growing tobacco between 2 years and 5 years while 43.6 percent had been growing tobacco for more than 5 years. Below is a table showing the years of growing tobacco by the respondents.

Table 5.6 showing the years in tobacco business of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Below 2 years	36	24.0	24.2	24.2
Between 2 and 5 years	48	32.0	32.2	56.4
Over 5 years	66	44.0	44.6	100.0
Total	150	100	100.0	

Source: Field Data

.1.1.9 Source of agricultural inputs

The research showed that 71.3 percent of the respondents got their inputs from the out grower companies. 25.3 percent just bought on their own while 3.3 percent got from family members. The table below shows the source of inputs of the famers.

Table 5.7 showing the sources of inputs of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Out Grower companies	107	71.3	71.3	71.3
Buy	38	25.3	25.3	96.7
Friends and family members	5	3.3	3.3	100.0
Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data

5.1.1.10 Ability to pay back

The research found that 88.7 percent of the respondents were able to pay back. 6 percent were not able to pay back while 25.3 percent did not need to pay back because they bought their own inputs. The table below shows the ability of the famers to pay back loans.

Table 5.8 showing the ability of the respondents to pay back

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	103	68.7	68.7	68.7
No	9	6.0	6.0	74.7
Not applicable	38	25.3	25.3	100.0
Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data

5.1.1.11 Methods of paying back

The findings showed that 72.7 percent of the respondents paid back loans through crop sales. 3.3 percent paid through cash while 24.0 percent did not to pay back because they bought their own inputs. Below is a table showing the methods of paying back by out growers

Table 5.9 showing the methods of paying back by the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Crop sales	109	72.7	72.7	72.7
Cash	5	3.3	3.3	76.0
Not applicable	36	24.0	24.0	100.0
Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data

5.1.1.12 Source of contract information

The research showed that 3.3 percent of the respondents learned about contract farming from their traditional leaders. 17.3 percent learned from family members. 20.0 percent learned from extension workers. 55.3 percent learned from tobacco companies while 4.0 percent learned from the radio. The table below shows the source of information on contract farming.

Table 5.10 showing the sources of information on contract farming

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Traditional leaders	5	3.3	3.3	3.3
Family members	26	17.3	17.3	20.7
Extension workers	30	20.0	20.0	40.7
Tobacco company	83	55.3	55.3	96.0
Radio	6	4.0	4.0	100.0
Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data**5.1.1.13 Liberty to produce and sell tobacco**

The research showed that 99.3 percent of the respondents were at liberty to produce tobacco while only 0.7 percent said they had no alternative but to produce tobacco.

5.1.1.14 Information to engage in tobacco production

All the respondents interviewed in the questionnaire survey indicated that they needed information to engage in tobacco production.

5.1.1.15 Radio ownership

The research showed that 83.3 percent of the respondents owned radios. 10.0 percent did not own radios while 6.7 percent were able to share with other people in the village. The table below shows ownership of the radio by tobacco out growers.

Table 5.11 showing the frequency of radio ownership among the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	125	83.3	83.3	83.3
No	15	10.0	10.0	93.3
Share	10	6.7	6.7	100.0
Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data

5.1.1.1.16 Favourable radio programmes

The research showed that 32.0 percent of the respondents preferred to listen to the news. 33.3 percent preferred to listen to agricultural programmes. 6.0 percent to health programmes while 20.7 percent preferred to listen to entertainment. The remaining 5.3 percent had no radios. The table below shows the favourable radio programmes of the tobacco farmers.

Table 5.12 showing preferred radio programmes of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
News	48	32.0	32.0	32.0
Agriculture	50	33.3	33.3	65.3
Health	9	6.0	6.0	71.3
Entertainment	31	20.7	20.7	92.0
Not applicable	4	2.7	2.7	94.7
Religious	8	5.3	5.3	100.0
Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data

5.1.1.17 Frequency of listening to the radio

The research showed that 80 percent of the respondents listened to the radio every day. 8.7 percent listened to the radio twice a week. 0.7 percent listened to the radio once a month. 9.3 percent rarely listened to the radio while 1.3 percent never listened to the radio.

Table 5.13 showing the frequency of listening to the radio by the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Every day	120	80.0	80.0	80.0
Twice a week	13	8.7	8.7	88.7
Once a month	1	.7	.7	89.3
Rarely	14	9.3	9.3	98.7
Never	2	1.3	1.3	100.0
Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data

5.1.1.1.18 Radio tobacco production

The research showed that 89.3 percent of the respondents had heard about tobacco production on the radio and only 10.7 percent had not heard about tobacco production on the radio. When asked which specific radio programme was it, 79.3 percent named “*Ulimi wa Fodia*” which was produced by Alliance One Zambia. 2.7 percent named “*Uchikumbe*” produced by the National Agricultural Information Service, a wing in the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives. 0.7 percent named “Farmers Forum” which was an English version of “*Uchikumbe*”. And 3 percent could not remember the name of the radio programme while 10.0 percent do not have radios.

5.1.1.1.19 Access to television

The survey showed that 30.7 percent of the respondents had access to television and 60.3 percent had no access to television. It was interesting to note that areas which were not connected to the national grid could have such a big number of people owning television sets. When the respondents were asked the reasons for poor or no access to television, 54.7 percent said they had no money to buy television sets. 10.7 percent indicated that it was because there was no electricity in the area. 8.0 percent said that they had not yet just planned for the set. 8.7 percent said there was poor signal in the area while 18.0 percent did not give any reason because they did not have the television sets.

5.1.1.1.20 Access to newspapers

The research showed that only 4.0 percent of the respondents had access to the newspapers while 96.0 percent had no access to newspapers. Asked the reasons for poor or no access to newspapers, 64.7 percent indicated that they were illiterate. 24.7 percent indicated that newspapers were not available in the area. 9.3 percent said that though they could read they could not afford the cost of newspapers while 1.3 percent indicated that they had no problems.



5.1.1.1.21 Access to newsletters, brochures and pamphlets.

The findings of the study here were similar to the findings above on newspapers. Only 4.0 percent of the respondents had access to these print materials. 96.0 percent did not have access. The reasons given for poor or non accessibility were also the same as above. Land Alliance Zambia and FOSUP produced newsletters, brochures and pamphlets for the famers. The researcher found some in the District Farmers Association office in Chipata.

5.1.1.1.22 Access to mobile phones

The research showed that 40.7 percent of the respondents had access to mobile phones. There were either theirs or their spouses'. 58.3 percent did no have access to mobile phones. When the respondents were asked reasons for poor or no access to mobile phones, 58.7 percent indicated that they had no money. 6.0 percent indicated that they had not just planned for the mobile phones while one woman (o.7 percent) indicated that it was against tradition for a woman to own a phone because other men would have access to her in addition to the husband. Meanwhile 34.7 percent indicated that they had no problem with access to mobile phones.

5.1.1.1.23 Access to Internet

All the respondents in the survey indicated that they had no access to the internet. However, the reasons for non accessibility varied. The research showed that 74.7 percent had no idea of what the internet is. 24.3 indicated that the internet was not available in the area. The most interesting thing was that even some people who were not literate indicated the non availability as the reason why they did not have access to the internet.

5.1.2 Farmers Matrix

Ten farmers were randomly selected to determine their benefits from the tobacco out growers. The research found that of the ten farmers who were interviewed only 10 percent indicated that that they had benefited from selling the tobacco. 80 percent said

they wish they had not participated in tobacco growing. They said they had not benefited from the tobacco out grower schemes.

Table 5.14 showing the benefits of the out growers from the out grower schemes

Code	Name	Amount harvested (kgs)	Area planted (acres)	Inputs (50kg fertilizer)	Amount invested (ZMK)	Net Payment (ZMK)
1	Vulina Njolvu (f)	274	1	1 Urea 2 D Comp	620, 000	264, 000
2	Elizabeth Mbewe (F)	234	1	1 Urea 2 D Comp	766, 000	346, 000
3	Simeli Nyirenda (F)	520	1	2 Urea 3 D Comp	600, 00	420, 000
4	Justine Banda (F)	2, 600	3	8 Urea 14 D Comp	4, 800, 000	12, 000, 000
5	Mary banda (F)	234	1	1 Urea 2 D Comp	786, 000	356, 000
6	Limon Banda (M)	2, 600	3	8 Urea 14 D Comp	4, 600, 000	12, 000, 000
7	Mofat Musonda (M)	512	1	2 Urea 3 D Comp	600, 000	4, 200, 000
8	Joseph Banda (M)	300	1	1 Urea 2 D Comp	782, 000	367, 000
9	Festo Zulu (M)	630	1	1 Urea 2 D Comp	2, 300, 000	1, 780, 000
10	Ronal Zulu (M)	300	1	1 Urea 2 D Comp	787, 000	362, 000

Source. Field Data

Note, F= Female M= male D comp= D Compound fertilizer

Average price of tobacco was \$2.40/ kg (the grade of the tobacco mattered)

5.2 Qualitative Survey

5.2.1 Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)

Under this survey three FGDs were held. Two FGDs were held in Chiparamba Camp. Chiparamba is 30 kilometre north of Chipata on Chipata- Mambwe road. The other FGD

was held in Chanje Camp. Chanje is 40 kilometre on Chipata- Lundadzi road. In each FGD there were four men and four women. Change Agents and traditional leaders were not allowed to be members of the groups for fear that they could dominate the discussions. The researcher was the principal facilitator and spoke the local dialect. He was assisted by the Camp Extension Officers. Guidelines for FGDs are in Annex B of this report.

The following were the findings and analysis of the discussions;

5.2.1.1 *Government policy on out growers*: The participants acknowledged that there were a number of development projects that were taking place in the area in a number of fields including health, education, water and agriculture, though they complained about the poor state of roads in the area. When asked about the government policy on out grower schemes, they did not seem to know that the government has a policy on out grower schemes. They thought it was the initiative of companies like Cargill for cotton and Alliance One Zambia for tobacco. They did not see the role of the government in out grower schemes, let alone in tobacco out grower schemes. To the participants, the government had left the companies to operate in the manner they (companies) deemed to be right much of it to the detriment of small scale farmers.

5.2.1.2 *Contract Farming*: the participants were asked about what they understood by “contract farming” and if at all they did sign any contract with tobacco companies. The participants agreed that they did sign some papers with companies. But these to them were not contracts. They did not understand what the term “contract” means. When asked whether they had signed any papers, all of them said they had, but the companies had collected them before paying them for crop sold. One man said he had the contract and he went and collected the “contract form” and showed it to the other participants and the facilitators.

The participants were asked how they came to collect the inputs from companies. To farmers inputs were like loans. The meetings are called at a central place by the companies where they are told to form groups and pay registration fee as members. Once they became members, then they became liable to getting loans. Membership fee was as low as k10, 000 per person. The companies then deliver the inputs at a central place and farmers start the process of growing tobacco. When the farmers were asked to suggest what could be done to improve the contractual arrangements, they said companies need to explain to them very clearly what is involved and especially the selling price of tobacco. They indicated that sometimes companies bought at the prices that they did not agree and they had no option but to sell. The participants were asked what happens if a farmer fails to honor the contract; they said it could be very sad. Sometimes companies had taken the farmer's maize or livestock leaving the farmer in a desperate situation leading to sufferings. The participants, knowing that government representatives were there, suggested that the government should come in and give loans to the farmers and not companies whom they accused of stealing from them. At this moment the facilitator requested the participants to move to the next topic.

5.2.1.3 *Knowledge gaps in tobacco production and marketing*: The farmers were asked what "good tobacco production" meant. They explained what "good production" meant. But cardinal on these were the following; (a) preferably one must use a virgin land, (b) inputs must be received in time, (c) there must be enough labour to meet the deadlines, for example transplant the same day, continue watering, harvest same day, build the shade, know how to sort, etc. According to the farmers, the job requirements are enormous that it is difficult to grow tobacco alongside other crops because the work is done through out the year (at times children have to be stopped going to school). The participants were asked if they had these skills to engage in tobacco production. They said schooling *does not end*; they said they learn from companies, extension workers, family members, radio and by merely looking at what the others were doing. They indicated that one could not neglect learning or he or she was not going to get anything from his or her effort.

When the participants were asked what good tobacco marketing was, they said in tobacco, production and marketing were one. This is because as early as December the tobacco farmer picks the first two leaves from each plant. He or she picks two leaves on the same day every week. This continues until the end of February. Where he or she stores these leaves and how the tobacco is stored is going to affect the grade and eventually the price of the crop. What was critical was to put tobacco of the same grade together. For example if one had 100 leaves of tobacco, if out of these leaves one was grade C, then the companies would buy the whole bunch as grade C. The participants indicated that many farmers had lost out on this same issue of grading. The participants also indicated that if the farmer was found cheating by adding something to the crop to increase the weight which in tobacco industry is called “nesting”, then that farmer forfeited his or her crop. The participants said marketing information was cardinal and that farmers constantly needed information to benefit from their crop sales. Asked what should be done to improve tobacco production and marketing, the participants said that information was cardinal. From whatever source, farmers need to know the good production practices and how to benefit from the harvest by selling high quality tobacco.

5.2.1.4 The Role of development communication in tobacco out grower Schemes: The researcher explained what development communication is. He explained what the media are and made a distinction between traditional media and modern media. The participants were then asked as to which media had been instrumental in providing information on tobacco production and marketing. The participants mentioned a number of media, but the researcher asked them to rank them starting with the most important. The participants indicated that their major source of information were first interpersonal communication between them and extension workers working with the companies, and then between them and agricultural extension workers working with the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives and then between themselves. They also indicated that they learned from some people in the village who had succeeded in growing tobacco in the past. They also said people from Malawi also provided information because tobacco had been cultivated for many years in Malawi. The other source of information was

Radio Breeze FM. The participants indicated that Alliance One Zambia produced some programmes teaching people how to grow tobacco and market tobacco. When the participants were asked whether newspapers, newsletters, brochures and pamphlets also provided them with information, the participants indicated that they did not get information from these sources. They added that even if these were to be made available most members of the community were not able to read and write. For those who could read, these were not only unavailable but also expensive.

When they were asked about the role of television in out grower schemes, they said that there were people who had television sets in the area. But most of the time these television sets were not working effectively because of lack of power. They said even when the sets were working, the signal was very poor. Sometimes they were able to listen to entertainment and news programmes, *but not on how to grow tobacco*. On the internet, majority said that they did not know it. When asked on their frequency to use mobile phones to check the prices for crops like tobacco; they said that that was news to them. They did not know that Zambia National Farmers Union had put up a facility which allowed farmers to check for the agricultural information using their mobile phones. When asked about the retention of what they hear on radio, they said they remember very little because either the radio was off. If it was on, the volume could be low. If the volume was ok, one could be away or doing something, as a result the retention of the messages was very low.

5.2.1.5 *Wealth ranking*; preliminary results after using the Questionnaire and conducting FGDs showed that the tobacco out growers were “homogenous” and that their benefits from the tobacco scheme did not differ much. Most of them, when asked whether they were able to pay back the loans, they said they were able to pay back. They said they had no quarrel with tobacco companies because they did not owe tobacco companies anything. The researcher went back to the FGD group in Chanje Camp, called the same four women and four men. Through the assistance of the camp staff, 20 households growing tobacco in the camp were identified. The group was told to make four categories of what they understood as being (1) rich (*bo lemela*), (2) a little bit poor (*bo*

sauka pangono), (3) poor (*bo sauka*) and those who (4) suffer through and through (*bo saukilatu*). The group was then given a card for each identified household. The group was then asked to place each card in one of the four categories. The findings of this exercise were that of the 20 households identified only one household was categorized as being rich (5 percent). Two (10 percent) households were categorized as being a little bit poor, 12 (60 percent) households were categorized as being poor while 5 (25 percent) were categorized as suffering through and through.

5.2.2 In- Depth Interviews

Five in- depth interviews were conducted with the Crops Husbandry officer at the MACO District office, the Business Field Coordinator at the ASP office, the Agricultural Coordinator with World Vision Zambia, the Field Coordinator with Alliance One Zambia, the Programme Facilitator with Harvest Help office and the Radio Producer at Breeze FM in Chipata. All the five interviews centered on the focus of the research namely (1) Government policy on out grower schemes (2) contract farming (3) knowledge gaps in tobacco production and marketing and (4) the importance of development communication in out grower schemes. It must be restated that the interviewees were chosen on the basis that they were able to provide in- depth information on the afore mentioned research issues. Guidelines for In- Depth Interviews are in Annex C of this report.

The findings of the five interviews have been put together and the following is what was gathered;

5.2.2.1 Government policy on out grower schemes: All the five agreed that there was a government policy on out grower scheme which is used as a strategy of reducing poverty in rural areas. The officers from World Vision, ASP and Harvest Help refused to be drawn into discussion on tobacco because of damages of the crop to the environment and human health. They said their organizations were not in support of growing tobacco, but small scale farmers were their targets. The officer from MACO indicated that the companies running tobacco out grower schemes had sidelined the Ministry. They

(companies) did not involve the Ministry, but opted to deal with farmers directly. This made monitoring very difficult. He said that although there was budget allocation for out grower schemes in the Ministry's budget, this was only for the Ministry Headquarters and that at the local level there was no monitoring of out grower schemes.

5.2.2.2 Contract Farming: All the five interviewees agreed that the term “contract” was never used by the tobacco companies. Neither did farmers know that they were entering into a contract. The officer from ASP indicated that there was a component in their programmes that dealt with *Entrepreneurship and Business Development*. This was meant to make farmers understand that farming is like any other business. Unfortunately ASP was only operating in two Agricultural Camps in Chipata District. The officer from MACO said that there had a component called *Farm Management* at the district which was supposed to capacitate the famers in looking at farming as a business; in particular it helped them to make profits from their farming activities. Unfortunately, the office had no logistics in terms of personnel, motorized transport and budget allocation to support tobacco out growers. The out grower companies as a result had taken advantage of the gap to go direct to farmers, make them sign contracts and get contract papers and keep to themselves. All the five interviewees agreed that contracts must be explained to the farmers and that farmers must be allowed to keep a copy, unlike what was prevailing then where companies kept the contracts. All the five interviewees indicated that a lot of sensitization using both electronic and print media must be used if the farmers had to understand “contract” farming. This was in addition to traditional media.

5.2.2.3 Knowledge gaps on tobacco production and marketing: All the five interviewees agreed that growing of tobacco needed skills in both production and marketing. The research showed that tobacco was a labour intensive crop and that out growers needed information starting from nursery to the time it is marketed. When asked where the farmers got the information on tobacco production and marketing, all the five interviewees agreed that there were many sources and there was confusion as to who should provide agricultural extension to tobacco out growers. Companies were providing agricultural extension. The Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives was

providing information. The Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) were providing information. Media both print and electronic were providing information. This was not all, the farmers were also teaching themselves or old farmers were teaching new farmers how to grow tobacco. The researcher asked each interviewees as to what could be done to harmonize the communication flow of information in the out grower schemes. All the five agreed that a community based development communication owned and managed by the farmers must take hold and provide leadership in the provision of extension messages.

5.2.2.4 The role of media in out growers: The research established that the media both traditional and modern media played a very important role in the out growers. Mr. Mumba from Alliance One indicated that his company had a radio programme on breeze FM called “*Ulimi Wa Fodia*” aimed at empowering the famers with information on tobacco growing and marketing. The Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives sometimes had a radio programme called “*Uchikumba*” to empower the farmers with knowledge in agricultural production in general and tobacco production in particular. The Eastern Fodia Association also produced a programme on tobacco production. ASP had a component called Management of information and Learning System which also tried to pass on the information to the farmers. Newsletters, brochures and pamphlets were distributed to the farmers through the Chipata Farmers’ Association, all meant to empower the famers. When the interviewees were asked if they had done any audience analysis and impact assessment of the mass media interventions, none had done so. The Study also established that farmers in the district were not using their mobile phones to check the prices of the crops let alone the tobacco prices. The interviewees were asked if ZNFU had established Famers’ Internet Cafés in the district to which they said it had not. The interviewees were asked as to how many telecentres were there in the district and if farmers were accessing the facility. All the five said that there were only two telecentres working in the district. Both of them were using old technology which was slow. The cost of using the facility, which was at k500 per minute, was too expensive even for an ordinary citizen let alone small holder farmers. They observed that majority small holder farmers were not computer literate.

5.2.3 Personal interviews with famers

Five farmers who included two men and three women were interviewed to explain why they had stopped growing tobacco. The findings of the five interviews have been put together and the following is what was gathered;

5.2.3.1 *Punitive actions*: Punitive action like taking maize from the farmer who had felled to pay back the loans was cited as one of the reasons they had stopped growing tobacco. The study established that sometimes tobacco companies had no human face and opted to hire barriefs to get what farmers owed them souring the relationship between the companies on one hand and the farmers on the other.

5.2.3.2 *Labour shortages*. The study established that tobacco growing requires much labour. This labour is required for land clearing, watering, transplanting, harvesting, shade building, etc. The participants in the survey argued that what went in terms of resources like labour, money and time did not march with what they were given after marketing the crop. One farmer lamented “you work the whole year only to come and receive k100, 000. It is painful.” Another said “when my children were there I could manage to grow tobacco. But there are now going to school. I can not afford to grow the crop.” The other farmer said that she was depending on the casual workers from Malawi. Now these casual workers had become very expensive.

5.2.3.3 *HIV and AIDS*: The study established that because of long time of absence from home to look after the sick both in the village and urban areas, many famers could not afford to continue growing tobacco. Farmers indicated that they could not risk growing tobacco which was done though out the year. One woman indicated that four of her children in Lusaka had died and every time she had to go to Lusaka to look after them, which some times took several years. Another woman indicated that the husband who was doing much of the work was no

more. The children were young and could not take on the bulk of work required for tobacco growing

5.2.3.4 Information gaps; the study established that the farmers had information gaps on tobacco production and marketing. One woman said that she wanted to produce tobacco, but where to get the information on production and marketing was not easy. She said she had no radio and she could not read and write. When the researcher asked her why she could not ask information from relatives and other people in the village, she said it was no easy because as a single woman, people would start suspecting that she was after people's husbands.

5.2.3.5 Land shortages: the study established that there were land shortages in the villages though this was denied by traditional leaders. One man argued that for the tobacco crop to do well, one must use a virgin land. To him there was no more virgin land left because tobacco was competing with other crops. He said why grow tobacco when he was food insecure.

5.2.4 Participant Observation

The researcher spent several weeks in the villages and made a number of observations in relation to the study. Below are some of the observations;

5.2.4.1 Localization: the study revealed that the growing of tobacco was localized. It was not every area in Chipata that had farmers who grew the crop. The farmers growing tobacco were those that were living on the boarder with Malawi. Even in the villages, it was not every farmer who grew tobacco. Farmers growing tobacco seemed to be related in one way or another. For example you would find that a young person in the early 20s would be growing tobacco. If one investigated further, one would find that either his father or uncle grew or was growing tobacco at one time. Further, many farmers who grow tobacco used hired labour from Malawi.

5.2.4.2 *Media Habits*: The observation revealed that anything that had to do with reading would not catch the attention of the farmers. Most of the small holder farmers were illiterate. Even when they said they ended in the primary school, most of them it was in grade one or four. They were not able to read by then. The radio was very popular in the villages. But once the farmers tuned them on, they did not pay much attention any more. But when it was time for announcing ‘deaths and sicknesses’ (*Mautenga ya Chisoni*), every one in the village came to a stand still to listen. After that it was business as usual. On television; there were many television sets in the villages than one would expect. However, in ten homes which claimed they had Television sets, the researcher failed to meaningfully watch any television programme. Either the set was not working or the battery was flat. Sometimes there was a picture signal but no sound at all.

5.2.4.3 *Interactions*: There were very strong social interactions among the village residents. But close observation revealed that these interactions followed a certain pattern. ‘Better off’ residents tended to interact amongst themselves. For example ‘better off’ farmers, agricultural extension workers, teachers, health workers and those from the Ministry of Community Development were always seen together. Retired people who had spent years out side the villages and were able to speak many languages and had experiences to share also spent time together. Women also seemed to find time to be together at least in the groups of threes or more. Youths seemed to come together and especially male youths sharing jokes, but, sometimes, sadly, smoking dagger. The migrant workers from Malawi also usually met in the evening to share information mostly about what was happening back home. The researcher observed that what brought these groups together were just very few institutions in the community. These were (1) the *Church*; every one in the village went to the Church of one kind or another and sometimes Churches met together for funerals and singing competitions. (2) “*Chisungu*,” when girls came out of the age, there were cerebrations in the villages. All people came together to cerebrate, (3) *Headmen*; these had traditional powers to call a meeting and every one would be in attendance, (4) “*Apungu*” and Traditional Birth Attendants; *Apungu* are

Traditional Counselors who drill young women on the ideal life styles and the Birth Attendants were respected by all the people in the village. (5) “*Insaka*” where people come together seemed to be dying at a rapid rate. It had only remained at the Chief’s Palace. Lastly, *funerals* and beer *drinking places* seemed to draw nearly every one in the village.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSIONS OF THE RESULTS

6.0 Introduction

This chapter contains the discussions of the results of the study in relation to the conceptual and theoretical framework of chapter three of the report. It has three parts. The first part deals with the contribution of out grower schemes to poverty reduction among small holder tobacco farmers. The second part deals with the role of communication in tobacco out grower schemes while the third part deals with the role Change Agents play in providing information on tobacco production and marketing to small holder farmers.

6.1 Development and Tobacco Out Grower Schemes

6.1.1 Development: Development in chapter three was defined as a “long process of both quantitative and qualitative changes in society in political, economic, social and cultural terms, which leads to individual and collective well being.” (Manual for Communication for Development, 2002). Further, Kasoma (1994) defined development as “improvement in human life conditions at individual and societal levels, which is achieved through desirable but fluctuating changes or adjustments in the environment.” The environment being the sum total of all that goes into making human life stable. The study established that while the government of Zambia has put out grower schemes as a strategy for poverty reduction among out growers, majority of tobacco out growers continue to live in poverty. Of the 150 respondents in the questionnaire survey, only 20 percent were aware that the government had put up out grower schemes as a way of reducing poverty among the small holder famers. Further, although the questionnaire survey showed that 87.7 percent of the respondents were able to pay back the loans, the Farmers Matrix showed that only 20 percent of the famers were able to benefit from the out grower schemes. Farmers Matrix showed that 80 percent got an average of seven hundred thousand kwacha (k700, 000) as net payment for growing one acre of tobacco in a year, which is nothing, considering the amount of labour, time and other resources that they put in. Further, during a Wealth Ranking exercise, only five percent of the twenty households growing tobacco were classified as being rich while the rest of

households (95 percent) were classified as still living in poverty with 25 percent of them living in extreme poverty.

During personal interviews with farmers who had stopped growing tobacco, it was pointed out that tobacco growing was not remunerating the farmers according to the resources they invested in tobacco production such as time, labour and money which had made them to stop growing tobacco. Some farmers indicated that even their household food security was negatively affected because they were only concentrating on growing tobacco which had drained all their resources. One famer in Chief Chanje's area said

“This is my second year in growing tobacco, and it has exhausted all my savings from the Bank. Little by little I withdraw all my savings to invest in the tobacco. However, I get very little after selling the tobacco. I even felled to pay 50 percent required to get fertilizer and seed from the cooperative to grow maize. This year I did not grow maize.”

The five farmers, during personal interviews pointed out that tobacco growing was a labour intensive venture and required virgin land every year which they could not afford. Analyses of the findings of both quantitative and qualitative data suggest that tobacco out grower schemes do not reduce poverty among the majority of small holder famers. The findings contradict claims by the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives that out grower schemes reduce poverty among rural households. Instead the findings were in agreement with those made by CARITAS Zambia (2005) and Imboela (2005) who argued that out grower schemes do not benefit majority of small holder farmers whose livelihoods do not change or deteriorate as a result of participating in the out grower schemes.

6.2 Communication and Tobacco Out Grower Schemes

Communication in chapter three was defined as the process of sharing ideas, information and messages with others in a particular time and space. It involves verbal, non verbal, written and electronic channels ((Lievrouw, 1993). According to the results of the study,

tobacco out growers are involved in communication of various kinds and at different levels. The study in both quantitative and qualitative surveys showed that out growers need information to produce and market tobacco efficiently and effectively;

6.2.1 *Contract farming*: The study showed that out growers need information on contract farming. To get this information they need to communicate with other people. The questionnaire survey showed that four percent of the respondents got information on contract farming from traditional leaders. The survey showed that 18 percent got from family members. Further more, the study showed that 20 percent got from extension workers while a large portion of 60 percent got the information on contract farming from the tobacco companies. Equally, during the Focus Group Discussions (FGDs), the participants indicated that tobacco companies need to explain clearly what the contracts entail. A number of channels of communication used in out grower schemes included person- to-person, public meetings and the use of radio.

6.2.2 *Rural Radio*: Rural Radio is a common notion of radio broadcasting from a central station to a certain area (Metalopulous and Kamlongera, 1999: 50). In the development context this can broadly be divided into three categories namely educational radio, documentary and cultural radio and participatory radio. For example in *Educational Radio*, the radio is used in providing knowledge and instructions on specific issues. The research showed that Alliance One had been producing a Radio Programme called “*Ulimii Wa Fodia*” which in the local language (Ngoni) means “tobacco farming.” The programme was aired by Breeze FM to educate farmers on the production and marketing of tobacco.

Documentary and Cultural Radio reports and provides testimonials on aspects of community life. This is done to draw attention of the community to specific issues, problems and their solutions. Journalistic investigation also falls in this approach. The two radio stations in Chipata namely Radio Maria and Breeze FM were using this approach in disseminating information to rural households.

Participatory Radio is the use of the radio for the people by the people. Even if in the previous two instances some degree of people involvement is required, it is only with this kind of radio also known as *community radio*, that participation is experienced. The issues to be discussed and presented in the programmes are decided by the community with the assistance of the Radio Producer. Unfortunately, Breeze FM, the study showed, was a commercial radio station though it had community development as one of its primary objectives. Radio Maria is owned by the Catholic Church and the community has little say on what should be broadcast.

The quantitative survey showed that 83.3 percent of the respondents owned radios and seven percent were able to share with some other people. Many had heard about tobacco production and marketing on the radio. According to the questionnaire survey, 80 percent of the respondents had heard about tobacco production on the radio and the same percentage named “*Ulimi Wa Fodia*” as the programme where they heard about tobacco production on the radio.

During FGDs the participants agreed that tobacco is a very complicated crop, and that as farmers they needed information on production and marketing of the crop. The participants identified a number of sources of their information. Among these sources they identified was the radio. “*Ulimi Wa Fodia*” produced by Alliance One Zambia and broadcast on Breeze FM was identified as one of the sources of information on tobacco production and marketing. The analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data suggests that radio is a popular channel of communication among rural famers as the table below shows

Table 6.1 Showing radio programmes on tobacco production and choices for the Respondents

			Radio Programme on Tobacco Production		Total
			Yes	No	
Name of the programme	<i>Ulimi wa Fodia</i>	Count	119		119
		% of Total	79.3%		79.3%
	<i>Uchikumba</i>	Count	4		4
		% of Total	2.7%		2.7%
	Farmers Forum	Count	1		1
		% of Total	.7%		.7%
	Cant Remember	Count	10	1	11
		% of Total	6.7%	.7%	7.3%
	Not Applicable	Count		15	15
		% of Total		10.0%	10.0%
		Count	134	16	150
		% of Total	89.3%	10.7%	100.0%

Source: Field Data

The questionnaire survey findings agreed with the Information Needs Assessment done by the Agricultural Marketing Information Centre (MACO, 2002) that farmers listen to the radio almost every day. According to the questionnaire survey, 80 percent listened to the radio every day. This study supports the view that radio is a very popular source of information among rural households. However, the study revealed that there were differences in the preferences regardless of educational attained of radio programmes. The survey showed that 33 percent preferred to listen to the news. The same percentage preferred to listen to agricultural programmes. The survey showed that 27 percent preferred to listen to health programmes while 20 percent preferred to listen to entertainment. This means that if agriculture messages were communicated through the radio *only*, a small percentage would be able to get

the message. This is because not very one preferred agricultural programmes as the table below shows

Table 6.2 showing the radio programmes preferred in relation to the education status of the respondents

Education Status of the Respondents						
	None		Primary		Secondary	
	Programme		Programme		Programme	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
News	9	26.5%	24	31.2%	15	39.5%
Agriculture	13	38.2%	24	31.2%	12	31.6%
Health	1	2.9%	6	7.8%	2	5.3%
Entertainment	6	17.6%	18	23.4%	7	18.4%
Not applicable	1	2.9%	2	2.6%	1	2.6%
Religious	4	11.8%	3	3.9%	1	2.6%

Source: Field Data

But even to those who had the radio, participant observation revealed that many people had a tendency of just tuning on the radio and not paying particular attention to the details of the programmes. Some farmers interviewed could not even name the radio programme from where they had heard about tobacco production. Unlike in Malawi where there were Listening Clubs, where farmers came together and listened and later discussed the radio messages, there were no such clubs in the areas covered in the research. At one time in Zambia there were many such clubs, but with the affordability of radio sets, many farmers now prefer to listen on their own. Consequently, the retention of messages has drastically gone down. This research suggests that if people are listening to an agricultural programme individually, their retention of messages is low.

6.2.3 *Print media as means of Mass communication:* Mass communication is defined as the sending of messages from one source or originator to an audience which is large, heterogeneous and unorganized through a media which could either be electronic or print (Makungu, 2007). The tobacco out growers widely participate in mass communication as they receive and send messages through various channels. The findings of the research showed that more respondents had access to electronic media than to print media. For example if one compares the accessibility to radio to accessibility to newspapers, the questionnaire survey showed that while 80 percent of the respondents listened to the radio every day, only four percent of the respondents had access to newspapers, newsletters, brochures and pamphlets. This study demonstrates that any message that is passed to the farmers through the print media would unlikely reach them and achieve the intended goal. Land Alliance and FOSUP at the time of this research produced newsletters quarterly. But very little of these reached the rural farmers if any. The study affirmed the findings of AMIC which showed that most of the farmers interviewed were not aware about the news bulletin produced by AMIC.

This study suggests that despite all the advantages that come with print media, rural farmers are unlikely going to benefit from these media. For example comparing radio to newspapers again; the research showed small holder farmers had more access to the radio than to the newspapers. According to the Questionnaire survey, of the 124 respondents who had access to the radio, only five had access to newspapers. Of the seven respondents who did not have access to radio no one had access to newspapers, while the 10 respondents who shared the radio, only one had access to the newspaper as the table below show. Once again this research is demonstrating that radio as a medium of communication is more accessible to small holder farmers than print media, in this case the newspaper. The findings were in line with the suggestion by Boeren (2003) who after analyzing communication projects in Africa concluded that the broadcast media had the potential to provide the information needed by rural farmers.

Table 6.3 showing the accessibility of the respondents to the radio and newspapers

			Access to Newspaper		Total
			yes	no	
Radio Ownership	Yes	Count	5	119	124
		% within access to newspaper	83.3%	83.2%	83.2%
		% of Total	3.4%	79.9%	83.2%
	No	Count		15	15
		% within access to newspaper		10.5%	10.1%
		% of Total		10.1%	10.1%
	Share	Count	1	9	10
		% within access to newspaper	16.7%	6.3%	6.7%
		% of Total	.7%	6.0%	6.7%
Total		Count	6	143	149
		% within access to newspaper	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	4.0%	96.0%	100.0%

Source: Field Data

6.2.3 *Television Use:* Television is another channel of mass communication. It is a very powerful tool which combines pictures, motions and sound in one. In this study ownership of television was, however, encouraging. The questionnaire survey showed that 30.7 percent of the respondents had access to the television though further investigations showed that many of these televisions sets were not in the working order. During his stay in the villages, the researcher tried ten households who claimed that they had television sets to see if he could watch even one television programme. The researcher completely failed to watch even one. The reasons for poor or non accessibility to the television included poor signal, lack of power and defective television sets. This study demonstrates that

television may not be an appropriate channel of communication among rural households.

Further, the television programmes that are aired by ZNBC television do not have a focus on development issues for Chipata farmers. During the FGDs participants indicated that although there were television sets in the villages, they never gave them information on tobacco production and marketing. This study suggests that because television in Zambia is highly centralized, it makes it difficult to capture problems in a concise manner that is relevant to small holder famers. The television programmes are rather very general which could hardly make any impact on tobacco growing. The famers themselves said they did not learn anything from television as far as tobacco production and marketing were concerned.

Further more, participant observation revealed that the tradition in the villages was that people stayed outside houses during the day time. They only entered houses when it was time to sleep. This was because there was more to do outside than inside. For example they could be sorting tobacco, repairing a roof, making a nest for chickens, etc. As a matter of fact, in villages, anyone who liked staying in the house would be said to be “selfish”. The researcher observed that village residents could hardly benefit from television programmes even if they had television sets that were working. This is because the village residents were always out side when the television sets were inside the houses. This study suggests that televisions even if they had right programmes and are in working order are not right channels for communicating messages to rural farmers because television sets are inside houses when the culture demands that farmers be out side.

6.2.4 *Internet Use:* As part of the development Policy, the Government of Zambia in 2006 adopted the National Informational and Communication Technology Policy. One of the objectives of the policy is “developing and promoting ICTs

skills among agricultural extension workers and famers.” (GRZ, 2006; 43). Among the ICTs that the government is promoting is the internet. Both qualitative and quantitative surveys showed that virtually all the respondents had no access to the internet. In the questionnaire survey, 75 percent had no idea of what the internet was. Although the government was committed to promoting the internet as a communication channel, internet still remained alien among the small holder tobacco out growers most of them who were unable to read and write. Mobile companies like Zain Zambia had introduced new products whereby one could put a gadget to his or her computer the size of a memory stick and be able to access the internet services any where in Zambia. But once again the low literacy levels of the majority farmers made it difficult for small holder famers to access the internet. Even for the few who were literate, the cost of computers in the country further distanced the small holder farmer from this technology.

This study showed that rural famers were not benefiting from the internet technology. The implication of these findings is that the k800 million that had been put in the Zambia’s National Budget of 2008 to improve rural information technology would not benefit most rural famers because of their low literacy levels. The government through the Information and Communication Technology Policy would like to introduce the ICTs in every Faming Block. The findings of this study indicated that there were no such facilities in the Farming Blocks in Chipata. In Chipata Town two telecentres were said to be operational. But these telecentres were out of reach of famers because in addition to being computer illiterate, most of the farmers could not afford the cost of using the internet which at the time of the study was k500 per minute with a slow internet. This study suggests that the government need to improve the communication infrastructure in rural areas by increasing the fiber optic lines, facilitating communication business entrepreneurship and computer and internet literacy in rural areas.

6.2.5 Mobile phone Use: The study showed that mobile phones were popular among out growers. The questionnaire survey showed that 40.7 percent of the respondents had access to mobile phones and only 59.3 percent did not have access to the mobile phones. The research also found that the ownership of mobile phones had nothing to do with the level of education. Surprisingly, the number the people who were unable to read and write who owned mobile phones was larger than those who were able to read and write. According to the questionnaire survey, of the 40.7 percent respondents who had access to mobile phones, 25. 4 percent (38) were not able to read while 15.3 percent (23) were able to read and write. This study demonstrates that communication knows no boundary. Even those who are not able to read would like to communicate. The table below shows this interesting observation.

Table6.4 showing educational status of the respondents in relation to access to mobile phones

			Access to Telephone		Total
			yes	no	
Educational Status	None	Count	10	25	35
		% of Total	6.7%	16.7%	23.3%
	Primary	Count	28	49	77
		% of Total	18.7%	32.7%	51.3%
	Secondary	Count	23	15	38
		% of Total	15.3%	10.0%	25.3%
Total		Count	61	89	150
		% of Total	40.7%	59.3%	100.0%

Source: Field Data

This study also revealed that tobaccos out growers were not using the mobile phone facility to access the internet. The table above shows that 23 (15.3 percent) of respondents had access to mobile phones and had attained secondary school education. This study showed that even these people were not accessing the internet using their mobile phones. This finding demonstrates that inability to access internet is not only as a result of lack of the facility or illiteracy, but lack

of information on how to access the internet by those people who are literate and have mobile phones. This study demonstrates that *information* on how to access the internet using a mobile phone is required for the rural farmers to be able to access the internet.

During the FGDs the farmers were surprised that while they were in the village they could check for the prices of their crops including looking for the potential buyer (s). This study showed that despite the fact that Zambian National Farmers Union (ZNFU) had put a facility called SMS Trade/ Marketing information System which could allow a farmer to check on prices of agricultural commodities, none of the farmers surveyed were using this facility. Could this be attributed to illiteracy, the answer is a big “NO” because even the 23 respondents who had secondary education were not using the facility. What was even more saddening was that the extension workers both from the private and public sectors had not considered communicating to farmers on how they (farmers) could access the SMS Trade/ Marketing Information System. Information is needed.

6.3 Change Agents and Out growers

A Change Agent in chapter three was defined as one who influences the clients' innovation decision in a direction that is deemed desirable by the change agency (Rogers, 1983). The Change Agent's role is to facilitate the flow of innovations from the change agency to an audience of clients. For this to be effective, innovations must be selected to match the needs of the clients. The questionnaire survey revealed that 55.3 percent of the respondents learned about contract farming for the first time from extension workers working with tobacco companies, while 20.3 percent learned from MACO extension workers. Thus, together the two types of Change Agents who influenced tobacco out growers made 75.6 percent of the source of information on contract farming. The rest (24.4 percent) learned from the traditional leaders and family friends.

The survey also showed that Change Agents are also critical in the provision of information on tobacco production and marketing to the out growers. The questionnaire survey showed that 55.3 percent of the respondents got their information on tobacco production and marketing from tobacco companies' extension workers, while 20.0 percent got their information from MACO extension workers. Together the two categories made 75.3 percent of the sources of information.

During FGDs participants gave the same information on the sources of information on contract farming and tobacco production. However, what was more interesting during the FGDs was that the people from Malawi were also cited as sources of information because in that country people had been growing tobacco for decades.

Tale 6.4 showing the source of information on contract farming and production and Marketing

			Source of Information on Production and Marketing					
			Family members	Extension workers	Tobacco companies	Radio	Public Meetings	Total
source of information on contract farming	traditional leaders	Count		3	2			5
		% of Total		2.0%	1.3%			3.3%
	Family members	Count	22	2	2			26
		% of Total	14.7%	1.3%	1.3%			17.3%
	Extension workers	Count	1	19	5	5		30
		% of Total	.7%	12.7%	3.3%	3.3%		20.0%
	Tobacco company	Count	1	15	63	3	1	83
		% of Total	.7%	10.0%	42.0%	2.0%	.7%	55.3%
	Radio	Count		2	2	2		6
		% of Total		1.3%	1.3%	1.3%		4.0%
	Total	Count	24	41	74	10	1	150
		% of Total	16.0%	27.3%	49.3%	6.7%	.7%	100.0%
		% of Total		1.3%	1.3%	1.3%		4.0%
	Total	Count	24	41	74	10	1	150
		% of Total	16.0%	27.3%	49.3%	6.7%	.7%	100.0%

Source: Field Data

This study suggests that Change Agents had a very big responsibility of providing information in out grower schemes. They (Change Agents) need to identify proper channels of communicating to provide developmental messages to small holder famers. This study demonstrates that the Change Agents need to provide agricultural extension to the out growers that uplift the standard of living of the farmers who should benefit from growing tobacco. This is because all respondents (100 percent) indicated that they needed information on tobacco production and marketing. The same was echoed during FGDs; the participants indicated that they needed to learn and learn continuously about tobacco production and marketing if they were to benefit from out growers schemes. Some of those who had stopped growing tobacco had cited knowledge gaps on how to produce tobacco as one of the reasons why they had stopped growing tobacco.

This study revealed other related issues in tobacco out grower schemes. These were (not in the order of importance) (a) *food security*; the research revealed that tobacco growing negatively affect the household food security because tobacco growing is labour intensive and the farmer is busy through out the year. Ways must be sort to ensure households growing tobacco are food secure (b) *Punitive credit recovery*; the study revealed that sometimes companies used inhumane punitive credit recovery like hiring of barriefs to collect what they were owed. Companies must effect the international Convergence on Governance Network (ICGN) of 1995 which stipulates that cooperations must strive to develop good relationships with their stakeholders who include suppliers and in this case small holder farmers (c) *HIV and AIDS*; the pandemic, the study revealed, had a direct bearing on the out grower schemes because it erodes social assets like labour on which out growers depend. HIV and AIDS must be mainstreamed in out grower schemes (d) *Land degradation*; growing of tobacco causes a lot of damage to the vegetation. Unless something is done, the desert shall appear faster than expected in areas where tobacco is grown and (e) *Culture*; Cultural beliefs and practices that hinder women from accessing information must be done away with. Traditional rulers must come out in the open to categorically condemn in an unequivocal and no uncertain terms such beliefs and practices.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the conclusion and recommendations based on this study and discussions aimed at improving the livelihood of the tobacco out growers. It is divided into two parts. The first part deals with the conclusion, while the second part deals with recommendations.

7.1 Conclusion

The Zambian government through the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP, 2002) introduced out grower schemes as a viable economic activity in rural areas to generate resources that would contribute to the social and economic benefit of rural people who constitute 72 percent of the population. The overall objective of this study was to establish the factors that make a proportion of out growers experience significant improvements in livelihoods, while the majority experience not only no change, but in fact experience deterioration from the same out grower schemes. The study revealed that majority of small holder farmers in Zambia like their counterparts in the region lack information to actively participate in the agricultural sector. This is because resources for communication activities continue to be difficult to mobilize, and development organizations find it difficult to put people at the centre of the communication process which has made it difficult for the majority of small holder farmers to benefit from out grower schemes.

Majority of small holder farmers grow tobacco without expertise knowledge on production and marketing of the crop. They enter into sophisticated contractual arrangements which they are not even able to comprehend. The study revealed that most of the small holder farmers were not able to read and write. The low literacy levels hindered their chances of benefiting from many sources of information like the internet and print media. The study revealed that small holder farmers had no access to the internet and many of them had not even heard about the technology before. The SMS/Trade marketing information System created by the Zambia National Farmers Union to

enable farmers use their mobile phones to check on the prices and potential buyers of agricultural crops, the study revealed, is unknown to small holder farmers despite many of them having mobile phones. The government policy of introducing information and communication technologies like telecentres in rural areas is undoubtedly very promising as rural farmers need agricultural information as members of the global village. But with high illiteracy levels among small holder farmers and high costs of computer hard and soft wares, the study observed, would make it difficult for the majority of the small holder to access information using these channels.

The study showed that while television broadcast had the potential to be used as a channel of communication to small holder famers, technical and cultural factors render it ineffective. Firstly, the television broadcast is highly centralized and lacks focus on issues pertaining to small holder famers in rural areas. Secondly, television sets are difficult to maintain in the working order and the signal, most of the time, is poor in rural areas. Lastly, the culture of staying watching television in the houses is asocial to village residents who are required by tradition to be out side during day time attending to various chores including receiving people.

The sources of information for the majority of small holder farmers, according to the study, are limited. The study observed that Change Agents and radio have the greatest potential to provide information to the small holder farmers. But even with Change Agents, the study revealed that Change Agents from the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (MACO) are sidelined by tobacco companies who go direct to the farmers. Non governmental Organizations (NGOs) are also not willing to support tobacco growing because it (growing of tobacco) contradicts their policies on health and environmental protection. This scenario seriously compromises the sources of information on tobacco production and marketing for small holder farmers even further. The radio remains the major potential source of information for the small holder farmers. However, the study revealed that while most of the small holder famers owned radios and listened to the radio everyday, their retention of agricultural messages was low. The research noted that this was because small holder farmers listened to

agricultural programmes individually and there were no discussions in the villages on the messages received.

In conclusion the study observes that if the above observations on information gaps were seriously considered by all stakeholders, out growers would have the information they need to allow them effectively and efficiently benefit from out grower schemes thereby enhancing their livelihoods.

7.2 Recommendations

The study established that the tobacco industry is complex because there are many stakeholders involved and as such no single, blanket, mechanical, juicy and cosmetic recommendation can improve the livelihood of the majority of small holder farmers in a day. The study recommends that there is a need for a paradigm shift in the approach by all stakeholders in out grower schemes. This study makes the following recommendations to various stakeholders:

7.2.1 The Government of Zambia: the Government of Zambia has a responsibility to make sure that out grower schemes become viable vehicles of reducing poverty among rural households to achieve the First millennium Development Goal on Hunger and Poverty by taking a number of steps including but not limited to the following; develop a comprehensive National Agricultural Policy that clearly defines the legal and regulatory framework of contract farming, facilitate and commission large and comprehensive studies to determine the role of communication in out grower schemes, facilitate and commission large and comprehensive studies of out grower schemes to determine the impact of out grower schemes in reducing poverty among the majority of small holder farmers and improve rural communication infrastructure by among other things Increasing the fiber optic cables in the country, encouraging business entrepreneurs to set up communication businesses like telecentres in the villages, facilitate adult education and learning of the use of computers and internet among rural farmers. The government should also develop and implement a Monitoring and

Evaluation Framework for out grower schemes at all levels including the community level.

7.2.2 Tobacco Companies: Tobacco companies through the International Corporate Governance Network (ICGN) of 1995 are expected to manage successfully their relationships with stakeholders and show elements of social responsibility. This study recommends that tobacco companies under take the following; support learning initiatives among the small holder farmers including adult education, computer and internet literacy, Support community environmental management initiatives and Involve the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (MACO) in their administration of out grower schemes especially at the local level.

7.2.3 Small holder farmers: there is a definite and quick need for change of attitudes among the small holder farmers who continue to believe that that development is going to be brought by an outsider. This study suggests that sustainable development for people can be brought by the people themselves, like Julius Nyerere (1973), the former President of Tanzania who at one time stated that “People can not be developed, but they can develop themselves.” The study, therefore, recommends that rural farmers should come up with the concept of *Village Learning Groups* (VLGs) as distinct from Cooperatives that are formed when farmers want to access agriculture inputs. The primary objective of VLGs would be to learn and share innovations. These innovations could be any thing. For example how to use a mobile phone to check for prices of farm products. For example the VLGs could engage an outsider as a resource person and together the members could learn how to use a mobile phone to check for prices and potential buyers of their produce. These VLGs could also act as an entry point to any one with an innovation that the village residents would like to learn. The VLGs members could also take time to listen to radio programmes together and digest the radio message contents. Further, farmers should come up with the concept of *Community Agricultural Workers* (CAWs). These CAWs could be boys, girls, men and women from the village who should be nominated by the village residents themselves to receive basic training in tobacco production and marketing and when they come back they would be

able to share with their peers in the villages. Lastly, rural farmers should set up *Community Radio Stations*. Many times the Constituency Development Fund (CDF) in many areas is not utilized according to the developmental requirements of the people. Rural farmers should lobby the government to use part of the CDF funds to set up and run community radio stations on the premise that knowledge is power. Rural farmers should also lobby donor and development agencies like World Food Programme (WFP), World Vision, Red Cross, Oxfam, Care International and the alike, that instead of these organizations waiting for hunger or any other calamity to happen in the communities, they should help in the provision of timely information to the rural farmers and their families through the creation and supporting of community radio stations as a foundation of disaster preparedness. Lastly, rural farmers should develop a Community based Monitoring system for out grower schemes.

7.2.4 Media: This study is recommending that there should be partnership between community journalism and community media to provide necessary integration to promote community identity and development and increase human potential. From social interaction and citizen empowerment, people should find the necessary resources to take control of their lives, give shape to the future, and transform their communities. Journalist from private, public and commercial media must go in the community and bring up developmental issues and communicate them to their audiences including Policy makers. The study is recommending that journalists must employ investigative journalism on the impact of out grower schemes in the country in reducing poverty among rural farmers. The study is recommending interactive media where people are put at the centre of the communication process unlike now when the people are just at the receiving end of communication messages. This would enable people to fully participate in the media and acquire the information that they need to improve their livelihoods.

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Confidential

**The University of Zambia
School of Humanities and Social Sciences
Department of Mass Communication**

**Improving Communication Channels in out grower
Schemes: A Challenge for Smallholder Farmers
Growing Tobacco in Chipata, Zambia**

Dear Respondent,

You have been selected to participate in the information collection exercise for the research on improving communication channels for Out Grower famers growing tobacco. The information collected will be used to improve the income for out Growers in Zambia in general and Chipata in particular by improving their access to information they need for tobacco production and marketing. The names of all respondents shall b kept anonymous to ensure confidentiality. I have a number of questions that I will ask you. In some cases you have to choose between the alternatives provided. In other cases you just have to answer according to what you feel is and or are the answers. I would like to thank you in anticipation for your participation and desire to improve the welfare of the Out Grower farmers. Once again thank you for your time and contributions.

April/ May 2008.

GENERAL INFORMATION

- 1 *Sex*
 - 1 male
 - 2 female
- 2 Age of the respondent.....
- 3 Marital status
 - 1 married
 - 2 Divorced/ Separated
 - 3 single/ Never married
- 4 Educational status
 - 1 None
 - 2 Primary
 - 3 Secondary
 - 4 Textually
- 5 Hectares of tobacco field
 - 1 below 1.99 hectares
 - 2 between 2 and 4.99 hectares
 - 3 Above 5 hectares

POLICY ON OUT GROWERS

- 6 Are you aware of any Government policy on out grower schemes?
 - 1 yes
 - 2 No
- 7 If the answer in 6 above is yes, in your own opinion do you think the government policy is working?
 - 1 Strong disagree
 - 2 Disagree
 - 3 Don't know
 - 1 agree
 - 2 Strongly agree
 - 3 Not applicable

- 8 Years in tobacco business
 - 1 below 2 years
 - 2 between 2 years and 5 years
 - 3 above 5 years

CONTRACT FARMING

- 9 Where do you get most of your inputs?
 - 1 out grower companies
 - 2 buy
 - 3 friends and family members
 - 4 barter
- 10 Are you able to pay back in full?
 - 1 yes
 - 2 No
- 11 How do you pay back in a good year?
 - 1 through crop sales
 - 2 cash
 - 3 other (name them)
 - 4 not applicable
- 12 Who provides you with **most** information about contract farming?
 - 1 traditional leaders
 - 2 family members
 - 3 extension workers
 - 4 Tobacco Companies
 - 5 Religious leaders
 - 6 Radio
 - 7 Public meetings (including shows, church, etc
 - 8 other (specify)

PRODUCTION AND MARKETING INFORMATION

- 13 Do you have an opportunity to decide to produce tobacco?
1 yes
2 no
- 14 Do you require any information to produce tobacco?
1 yes
2 no
3 both
4 do not know
- 15 Do you have an opportunity to decide where to sell?
1 yes
2 no
- 16 Do you require any information to market tobacco?
1 yes
2 no
3 both
4 do not know
- 17 Where do you get much of your information on production and marketing of tobacco?
1 traditional leader
2 family members
3 extension workers
4 Tobacco Companies
5 Religious leader
6 Radio
7 Public meetings (including shows, church, etc
8 other (specify)

MEDIA

- 18 Do you own a radio?
- 1 yes
 - 2 no
 - 3 share
- 19 How often do you listen to your radio?
- 1 everyday
 - 2 twice a week
 - 3 once a month
 - 4 rarely
 - 5 never
- 20 If you do listen to the radio, what is your three most favorable programme in order of importance?
- 1.....
 - 2.....
 - 3.....
- 21 Have you ever heard about tobacco production on radio?
- 1 yes
 - 2 no (if no proceed to question 23)
- 22 If yes which ones?
- 1.....
 - 2.....
 - 3.....
- 23 Have you ever heard about tobacco marketing on radio?
- 1 yes
 - 2 no
- 24 If yes which one?
- 1.....
 - 2.....
 - 3.....
- 25 Do you have access to the Television?
- 1 yes
 - 2 no

- 26 What are the reasons for poor or no access television?
 1.....
 2.....
 3.....
- 27 Do you have access to the newspaper?
 1 yes
 2 no
- 28 What are the reasons for poor or no access newspaper?
 1.....
 2.....
 3.....
- 29 Do you have access to newsletters?
 1 yes
 2 no
- 30 What are the reasons for poor or no access newsletters?
 1.....
 2.....
 3.....
- 33 Do you have access to pamphlets/ brochures?
 1 yes
 2 no
- 32 what are the reasons for poor or no access to pamphlets/ brochures?
 1.....
 2.....
 3.....
- 33 Do you have access to the telephone?
 1 yes
 2 no
- 34 What are the reasons for poor or no access to the telephone?
 1.....
 2.....
 3.....
- 35 Do you have access to the internet?
 1 yes
 2 no
- 36 What are the problems for poor or no access to the internet?
 1.....
 2.....
 3.....
- Name of numerator.....Date.....**
Checked by.....Date.....

ANNEX B: GUIDELINES FOR FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

1. Focus Group Discussion (FGD) Composition

- Four men and four women
- Two FGDs in Chiparamba Camp and one in Chanje Camp

2. Topics

2.1 Government Policy on Out Grower Schemes

- General issues on development
- Government development programmes in the area
- What is the role of Government in our out-grower schemes?
- How does the government make sure that the out growers are functioning as planned?

2.2 Contract farming

- Do farmers know the law of contract?
- How are the inputs accessed?
- How the contract is finally made?
- What can be done to improve contracting?

2.3 Knowledge gaps in production and marketing

- What is good tobacco production?
- Where do the farmers most information on good production
- What is good tobacco marketing?
- Where do farmers get most information on good tobacco marketing?
- Is it this true for all farmers?
- What can it that can be done to improve information on production and marketing?

2.4 The role of Media in communication in the Out grower schemes

- Explain what media are
- Explain the difference between traditional media and modern media
- In their opinion which media have been instrumental in providing information on tobacco production and Marketing? List in the order of importance
- What have been the messages?
- Have they been easy to understand and implement?
- If we have to take every one on board which media should we use?
- How should the messages be packaged?

2.5. Conclusion

- From the discussion what would be the take home story on efficient and effective tobacco production and marketing?
- Summarize the key important issues discussed and thank the participants for their contributions. Assure them that the issues discussed are part of the on-going initiative by every one to improve out grower schemes and that what they have given will be treated with strict confidence

ANNEX C: GUIDELINES FOR IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS

These would be held with the following:

1. Participants

- Identified by a meeting of subject matter specialists

2. Topics

2.1 Government Policy on Out Grower Schemes

- General issues on development
- Government development programmes in the area
- What is the role of Government in our out-grower scheme
- How does the government make sure that the out growers are functioning as planned

2.2 Contract farming

- Do farmers know the law of contract?
- How are the inputs accessed?
- How the contract is finally made?
- What can be done to improve contract farming?

2.3 Knowledge gaps in production and marketing

- What is good tobacco production?
- Where do the farmers get their most information on good production
- What is good tobacco marketing?
- Where do farmers get most of their information on good tobacco marketing?
- Is it true for all farmers?
- What can it that can be done to improve production and marketing?

2.4 The role of Media in communication in the Out grower schemes

- Explain what media are
- Explain the difference between traditional media and modern media
- In their opinion which media has been instrumental in providing information on tobacco production and Marketing? List in the order of importance
- What have been the messages?
- Have they been easy to understand and implement?
- If we have to take every one on board which media should we use?
- How should the messages be packaged?

.2.3 Conclusion

- From the discussion what would be the take home story on profitable tobacco production and marketing?
- Summarize the key important issues discussed and thank the participants for their contributions. Assure them that the issues discussed are part of the on-going initiative by every one to improve out grower schemes and that what they have given will be treated with strict confidence