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NEWS

An Annual Conference of Postgraduate Studies and Scientific Research-Humanities and Educational Studies at the University of Khartoum

The Graduate College and the Directorate for Scientific Research and Cultural Relations in the University of Khartoum organized this conference on humanities and educational studies in February 2013 under the slogan “Towards a Confident Renaissance”. The conference welcomed contributions from both national and international participants. The contributions included papers, posters, keynote addresses, etc. In addition, scientific, social and cultural activities were encouraged. Most papers were presented in Arabic but during the plenary sessions simultaneous translation was provided.

OSSREA was represented by Dr Abiye Daniel the Director of Publications and Dissemination who presented a paper entitled “The Role of Think Tanks and Capacity Development: The Case of OSSREA”. The OSSREA Sudanese Chapter helped to facilitate the presentation and also attended the session.

The opening session of the conference was held in the evening of the 25th of February 2013 and was opened by H.E Deputy Vice President of Sudan and an address was given by H.E. Professor Khamis K Kunda-Minister of Higher Education and Scientific Research as well as other dignitaries including Professor El Siddig Ahmed El Mustafa El Sheikh Hayati the Vice Chancellor of the University of Sudan. The closing session on the 28th of February 2013 was also attended by a Deputy from the President’s Office and the session concluded with an awards ceremony where long serving staff and researchers with outstanding achievements were celebrated.

In addition to the various presentations a dinner event was organised by the University of Khartoum where the Vice Chancellor Professor El Siddig Ahmed El Mustafa El Sheikh Hayati gave awards to the foreign guests and thanked them for their participation and in this case OSSREA was awarded a plaque with the University of Khartoum logo.
OSSREA Introduced to Noah Samara

Professor Paschal Mihyo, the Executive Director of OSSREA and Dr Abiye Daniel, the Director of Publications and Dissemination at OSSREA had the unique opportunity to meet Dr Noah Samara the founder and Former Chief Executive Officer of World Space Cooperation.

Dr Noah Samara was in Addis on official business to discuss ways in which primary students could be availed with information technology. OSSREA took this opportunity to discuss ways in which institutions of higher learning could be roped in with information technology especially to support the rapid development in this sector. OSSREA’s contribution to higher education was discussed in great length especially in terms of research methodology and gender mainstreaming and budgeting training.

Various ways of collaborating and supporting higher education in the region, in particular and the continent in general, was discussed and it was agreed there could be ways in which information technology could address the many shortcomings that exist. A future date was set where by Dr Noah Samara and his organisation could visit OSSREA and have firsthand experience at what OSSREA is doing and how it could be supported to further help the universities that come under its mandate.
OSSREA Invited to a Project Planning Meeting of the Nile Basin Research Project Phase Two

OSSREA was invited to The Nile Basin Research Project which involves the universities of Addis Ababa, Bergen, Khartoum, Makerere and Nairobi to hold a project planning phase meeting in Kampala, Uganda from February 14th to 17th 2013. The first phase ended in the year 2010 it was reported and a new application had been submitted for a new project to run through the period 2013-2016. OSSREA was invited to the above meeting not as a member of the network but as a possible partner for capacity development in the African partner universities and was requested to show how it could be involved in the project. The following are some of the suggested areas in which OSSREA could be involved:

1. ADVANCED RESEARCH METHODOLOGY COURSES FOR PH.D. STUDENTS

Since the year 2011 OSSREA has established what is known as the Research School for Social Sciences in Eastern and Southern Africa (RESSEA). This programme involves ten universities in the two sub-regions and aims at fast tracking their Ph.D. programmes. It has five major components: advanced research methodology courses; small grants for students for field research; regional workshops for presentation of findings by students; publication of best theses and professional development courses for staff involved in graduate teaching and research. The advanced methodology courses have been appreciated as being more empowering for students than those currently offered by universities in the region. They are intensive and run for one month in situ; they are jointly offered by staff of partner universities with some Diaspora involvement on basis of staff mobility and exchange; they are offered at each of the ten universities without student mobility which makes them cheaper and they build on courses that are already being offered by host universities giving them a more advanced content. In terms of content, they are based on a multi method approach that breaks students and staff out of the conventional quantitative versus qualitative divide; they seek to reduce the fear of mathematics and statistics among many social scientists outside economics; they delves deeply into theoretical and technical issues of conceptualizing research; developing research questions; objectives, methods and use of literature review; identifying, engaging and using sources; argumentation and evidence based claims; discourse analysis and thesis writing. It was reported that these courses could be reviewed for further
enrichment by the network and designed to be offered jointly with OSSREA to Ph.D. students registered in all partner universities.

2. PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT COURSES/ ACTIVITIES FOR STAFF

Within the RESSESA project OSSREA is in the process of developing professional development courses for staff at all levels involved in graduate teaching and research generally. These activities /courses will include:

- **Experience sharing workshops on improving teaching, learning and supervision of graduate students.** In 2011 a regional course was organized for two senior scholars involved in supervising Ph.D. students from the ten universities. It was decided that regional courses cannot meet the need for teaching and learning improvement within the network and workshops of one week should be held at country level for all universities. In the year 2012 national workshops were run in each country and attended by supervisors from interested universities beyond those in the network. OSSREA considers these courses very vital and their ultimate commercialization is welcome as it may make them more sustainable. OSSREA, it was said would like to contribute to the network its experience and materials on these courses which can be run at a regional level and later run at national level for the benefit of all Universities in the partner countries.

- **Pedagogical skills on case methods:** Most of the Ph.D. courses based on course work or both coursework and theses involve intensive teaching through lectures and other methods. It has emerged from the teaching and learning improvement workshops so far that there is very little use of case studies in both the theoretical and practical courses offered. In some instances where case studies are used, very few are based on African experiences. OSSREA is in the process of developing a programme on the development and use of case studies. It was suggested that it would be a big contribution if OSSREA and the Nile basin Research project develop African case studies for use in teaching and policy analysis in all African Universities.

- **Popularizing alternative approaches to e-learning:** Currently there is much discussion and commitment to e-learning but in spite of the swift development in IT there has not been alternative searches and/or popularization of alternative methods of
e-teaching and learning. The feeling is still that it can only be done through interactive IT laboratories equipped with satellite facilities. But there are more alternatives including mobile laboratories and skype which have not been tried on a large scale or popularized. In collaboration with universities specializing on advanced courses in teaching and learning improvement in universities, It was said that OSSREA could be involved to organize training workshops for staff in the network on alternative ways of improving teaching and learning at graduate and other levels through available, affordable and accessible IT.

- **Exposure to research databases on social sciences:** In the natural sciences scholars are more familiar with global databases they need in their various disciplines especially in medicine. In the social sciences and humanities, this knowledge is not shared by the majority. It was stated that OSSREA could organize annual workshops on databases in social sciences for staff in the network.

- **Managing research within universities:** Currently there are many research projects managed by various departments within universities but very few of those managing them have been given professional training on how to manage them efficiently and using them to secure more support for research. As a result the outcomes differ from department to department and some projects are terminated without notice or not continued after expiry of initial periods. In addition, links between universities and industry are very weak due to numerous problems and constraints which has been researched and documented. It was said that OSSREA would like to develop professional development activities on research management and strengthening the institutionalization of research
and links between universities and industry (i.e. the non-academic production and service sectors).

- **Research leadership and leadership succession in research:** Many senior scholars have learnt to manage and lead research by doing. Very few of them have undergone training in research leadership. As a result research leadership is highly personalized than institutionalized, dominated by older male scholars and there are no systems of research leadership succession in many departments. With the demographic crisis in many universities, leadership succession strategies need to be popularized more urgently. OSSREA suggested that it would like to take lead in the development of short modules on research leadership and leadership succession for research which can be offered to members of the network and later offered by network members to other departments and other universities.

### 3. RESEARCH GRANTS FOR SABBATICALS AND POST-DOC RESEARCHERS

The project may want to establish a facility for grants for staff on sabbatical leave and post-doctoral studies. Experience in the region is that such facilities are better administered outside the university system to avoid over burdening universities with such grants or subjecting staff to excessive procedural constraints. Such constraints include access to foreign exchange, internal bureaucratic processes etc. OSSREA has thirty years’ experience in managing grants. It has simple procedures for processing requests and enjoys exemption from foreign exchange restrictions and taxes from its host government. In case such grants are built into the project, OSSREA it was felt could manage them efficiently.

### 4. THE REACTION OF THE GROUP TO OSSREA'S PROPOSALS

OSSREA’s proposals were all found to be very novel and useful in capacity development and it was agreed they would be built into the proposal. It was said that OSSREA would link up with the University of Makerere to see how these can be integrated in the project activity. It was also reported that OSSREA would be contracted on request and provide services for which it will be paid. Lastly, it was then agreed that OSSREA should also look for ways of
supporting the University of Juba as it had bigger capacity problems than the rest of the members in the network.

**OSSREA Participated in an International Conference on the Political Economy of Agricultural Policy in Africa**

OSSREA was invited to an international conference on “The Political Economy of Agricultural Policy in Africa” in Pretoria, South Africa from 18-20 March, 2013. The objectives of the conference were to explore the political pressures leading African governments to increase investment in agricultural development, the incentives that democratization create for agricultural investment; the role that external actors can play in shaping agricultural policy and incentives; and how effective civil society organisations can encourage African governments to deliver more pro-poor agricultural policies.

This conference brought together academic researchers, representatives of governments, civil society organisations and international donors to showcase recent work on the political economy of agricultural policy in Africa; draw practical lessons from this work for civil society organisations, donors and governments that are seeking to improve agricultural policy for the benefit of poor producers and consumers in Africa; and to identify key questions for further work in this area.

This three days conference had four plenary and eight parallel sessions. A total of 60 research papers on various issues of the political economy of agricultural policy in Africa were presented. The conference was attended by over 120 participants from different parts of the world.

In this conference OSSREA organized one parallel session and was represented by the Director of Research and three OSSREA research grantees. The Director of Research led the organization of the panel, the parallel session and chaired it. He had also introduced OSSREA for the participants. The three papers from OSSREA’s long-term research program - Transforming International Land Deals into a Vehicle for Rural Development and International Cooperation – were presented. These were:
• National and International Actors in the Orchestration of Large Scale Land Deals in Zimbabwe: What’s in it for small holder farmers? (Manase Kudzai Chiweshe and Patience Mutopo) presented by Mutopa.

• Land Deal in Uganda: An Invisible Hand in Land Grabbing and Rural Development (Roberts K. Muriisa, Pamela K. Mbababzi and Medad Twinamasiko) presented by Muriisa

• Nature and Magnitude of Land Acquisitions in Tanzania: Analyzing Role of Different Actors, Key Trends and Drivers in Land Acquisitions (Mngasini A. Katundu, Ssakila H. Mtet & Innocent M.A. Makungu) presented by Katundu

The papers presented were appreciated by the audience as they were based on information collected from field work and followed the required academic rigour. Authors were also given constructive comments for further improvement.
The Fourth Academic Advisory Board Meeting of the ACP Observatory on Migration in Suva, Fiji

The Fourth Academic Advisory Meeting – ACP Observatory on Migration was held at The University of South Pacific, Suva, Fiji from February 26-28 2013 as OSSREA is member of the Academic Advisor Board it was represented by Dr. Paulos Chanie, the Director of Research.

The three-day workshop was organized by the ACP Observatory on Migration in Suva, Fiji and the conference was attended by more than 20 participants from various countries. The discussions during the conference were dedicated to the following two major issues:

1. Reviewing the major status of the activities undertaken by the ACP Observatory in 2012, especially the capacity building and visibility activities as well as the research activities;
2. Discussion on the research reports submitted by researchers focusing on identifying the most innovative ideas presented in the studies and suggestions on way forward to increase visibility of the studies. Accordingly, around 20 research reports were presented on the following areas of studies commissioned by the observatory:

- Diaspora and remittances studies
- The impact of migration on development
- Internal migration and displacement studies
- Labor migration studies
- Irregular and return migration studies
- Migration and Environment and Human Rights

Dr Paulos participated in all sessions of the meetings and served as a chairperson and discussant in many of the research reports presentation sessions. OSSREA was also requested to use its website to post the research reports and other documents of the Observatory as the research reports are relevant for research, teaching and policy making.
The Meeting between EAC - EALA (East African Community - East African Legislative Assembly) and OSSREA

The objective of the one-day meeting between OSSREA and the East African Legislative Assembly (EALA) held in Arusha, Tanzania on February 8th 2013 was to discuss possible areas of collaboration between the two organizations, especially on developing and implementing research and capacity building projects to strengthen the role of African Parliaments in the regional integration process and the research capacity of EALA.

In this meeting OSSREA was represented by the Executive Director and the Director of Research. EALA was represented by the Deputy Clerk of the Assembly, the Head of the Research unit and two researchers. The meeting discussed issues on ‘Strengthening the role of East African Parliaments in the regional integration process, the Sirte Declaration, the history of regional integration process, factors affecting the pace and rhythm of regional integration in EAC, and capacity constraints affecting Parliaments in the region.

OSSREA’s potential contributions to EAC-EALA was also raised which included - serving as a research think tank, providing technical advisory services on regional integration and Parliamentary oversight; developing briefs and digests on AU and other protocols, doing capacity enhancement activities, organizing workshops on regional integration and parliamentary oversight, and related activities.

At the end of the meeting, OSSREA handed over about 25 books published by OSSREA on the EAC countries. EALA also gave various publications, especially treaties and annual reports, to OSSREA.
UNICEF Ethiopia Visits OSSREA

The Representative of UNICEF Ethiopia, Dr Peter Salama and Mr. Roger Pearson, the Senior Social Policy Specialist paid a visit to OSSREA on the 29\textsuperscript{th} of January 2013 to discuss ways in which the two organisations can collaborate in capacity building and research. OSSREA was represented by Professor Paschal Mihyo, the Executive Director, Dr Paulos Chanie, Director of Research, Dr Abiye Daniel, Director of Publications and Dissemination and Dr Melese Getu, the Research Associate.

Both organisations talked about their areas of interest where UNICEF stressed about women and children rights as well as supporting the Ethiopian Government while OSSREA emphasized its research and capacity building capability and its role in the region. During the discussions it was agreed that the way forward should be the interface between research and policy where national institutions and researchers are capacitated to enter into constructive policy dialogue and at the same time to strengthen accountability through monitoring and evaluation.

Finally, the understanding was that there would be further negotiations to identify ways in which OSSREA and UNICEF could collaborate to enhance the capacity of researchers to support policy and help government to monitor and evaluate policy more effectively.
FEATURE ARTICLES

A Revisit to the Agro-Ecological Regions of Zimbabwe – Evidence of Climate Variability and Change?

Mugandani. R1, Wuta, M2 *Makarau, A3, Chipindu, B4

Abstract

This study re-classifies the agro-ecological regions of Zimbabwe. Suitability classes for each parameter were assessed with reference to maize. The simple limitation approach was used to produce suitability maps. Results indicate that the number of regions remained the same but the sizes had changed. The findings point to an increase in the sizes of Natural Regions I, IV and V by while natural regions II and III had decreased. Changes in size points to evidence of climate variability and change. Use of all meteorological stations data and the New Local Climate database can improve on precision of agro-ecological zoning.

Keywords: Length of growing season, mean-annual rainfall, natural regions, soil groups, Zimbabwe

INTRODUCTION

The current trends in population growth, declining food production and the threat of climate variability and change calls for a concerted effort to ensure food security and farm-level response (Weiner et al. 1985; Phillips et al. 2002). One strategy of ensuring food security is through proper utilization of land, which can only be achieved through land use planning in setting out the production patterns. Continuous agro-ecological zoning in this era where regions are experiencing climate variability and change has widespread applications in land use planning; design of appropriate agricultural adaptations and reducing vulnerability (Downing et al. 1997; Salinger et al. 2005). Agro-ecological zones are also used to determine crop water requirements and long - term frost protection measures (Espie et al. 2006).

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Agro-ecological classification also known as natural region classification of Zimbabwe divided the country into five regions based on mean annual rainfall and was done in the 1960s (Vincent and Thomas 1960). Some weaknesses of the current agro-ecological system of land classification include little emphasis on the smallholder farming and communal areas and possibilities of boundary changes between natural regions due to climate change and variability. Vincent and Thomas (1960) did not consider effective rainfall but the mean annual rainfall. Nyakanda (2005) proposed the use of rain pentads to cater for mid-season dry spells. Data from very few stations were considered and processed with no advanced processing facilities (Carter and Corbett 1997). There is wide variation in the length of growing periods for stations in the same Natural Region. A 30-year rainfall data-set for one of the stations in Region V shows that only two normal growing seasons have been recorded, yet one characteristic of that Natural Region is 1-2 normal growing seasons in 5 years, suggesting the existence of a possible sixth Natural Region that could be more arid than Natural Region V (Hussein 1987). The length of growing periods for several stations on the current scheme is not available. The data on length of growing period could provide more information pertaining to choice of crop varieties.

The agro-ecological regions by Vincent and Thomas (1960) have been used for almost fifty years and their continued use can give a misleading impression that climate is stable while research points to the contrary. For example, Makarau (1999) noted that there has been increased variability of rainfall, rain days and temperature in Zimbabwe, possible pointers of climate change and variability. Some parts of Zimbabwe are becoming warmer and drier (Low 2005). Unpublished data has also indicated that 100-years of rainfall record at Chipinge Meteorological Station in Natural Region 1 showed increased mean annual rainfall and rainy days since the establishment of tea plantations in contrast to over 100 years of rainfall data from Vermont farm on the Mozambique border. Most stations in Zimbabwe showed a decline in rainfall over the same period.

Given all these scenarios, Carter and Corbett (1997) noted that continued use of the system developed by Vincent and Thomas (1960) seems ironic as it appears to be at odds with the political, social and agrarian reform that has taken place and changes in climate being observed.
The widespread use of the Natural Region map has been attributed to the fact that it is very easy to interpret. However it is so general in nature and does not take into consideration some variations that occur within regions and hence has low precision (Carter and Murwira 1995). Therefore, the use of modern approaches including interpolation of climatic data, and the combination of this with other land factors by using Geographical Information systems (GIS) would then allow a more detailed approach to the agro-ecological zoning process also taking into account climate change and variability. GIS has the ability to capture data and to manipulate data layers thereby providing a more systematic and dynamic approach to agro-ecological zoning than the traditional and somewhat limited approaches, for example, the use of cartography (Carter and Murwira 1995).

Several agro-ecological zoning (AEZ) methods have been previously used to delimit land for agricultural purposes (FAO 1977; Sys et al. 1991). The FAO method involves matching of soil and climatic requirements of the world’s eleven major crops with the existing climatic and edaphic factors of the land. The crops are chosen based on the total area planted (FAO 1978). According to FAO, the major parameter derived from climate data is the length of growing period (LGP), defined as the number of days when precipitation (P) is greater than or equal to half of the potential evapo-transpiration (PET) (Doorenbos and Kassam 1979). The LGP is very critical since it is a function of both moisture availability and temperature. The LGP is corrected for temperature by subtracting the period (in days) when the daily mean temperature is less than 6.5 ºC since research has shown that most plants cannot complete their phenological development during the period when 24-hour mean temperature is less than 6.5 ºC (Doorenbos and Kassam 1979).

The AEZ methodology developed by the FAO encompasses principles of specificity of sustained suitability for a defined land use (Sys et al. 1991; FAO 1977). The evaluation also involves comparison of land use alternatives on an economic basis. This method was first used by the FAO in 1978 in land evaluation in Africa. The 1978 FAO report was only confined to rain-fed cropping and eleven major crops at three different input levels. The major crops considered were wheat, rice, maize, pearl millet, sorghum, potatoes, sweet potatoes, cassava, soybean and phaseolus bean (FAO 1978). A crop inventory was prepared based on climatic requirements for phenology and photosynthesis of the major crops. The crop requirements were matched with the existing climatic conditions. The number of days to maturity was then used to calculate potential yield under constraint free environments. The
yields of different crops were then calculated for all crops and for each of the length of growing period.

The next stage was to look at the soils and the following factors were therefore considered: depth, texture, salinity and structure. When a property was deemed to be outside what is required by the crop, the soil was considered to be unsuitable in its present state. The resultant soil suitability map was then superimposed on the climate suitability map to produce agro-ecological regions. In areas where soils were suitable for a particular crop, no change was made to the agro-climatic suitability assessment but when soils were adjudged as moderately suitable, the agro-climatic suitability was downgraded by one suitability class. As for areas in which soils had severe limitations in terms of cropping, the land was regarded as not suitable irrespective of climatic attributes. Therefore this method is mostly referred to as the simple limitation approach (Sys et al. 1991; FAO 1978).

The aim of this research was to reclassify the agro-ecological zones of Zimbabwe using mean-annual rainfall, soil suitability and length of growing period. Research has shown that these factors are the most limiting to cropping in Zimbabwe (Hussein 1987).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study area
Zimbabwe is located between 15°37’ S to 22°24’ S and from longitudes 25°14’ E to 33°04’E and covers an area of 390 580 km². It lies entirely within the tropics but of the Highveld and Eastern Highlands, have a subtropical to temperate climate. The mean annual rainfall varies from as low as 300 mm in the Limpopo Valley to a high of 3000 mm in the eastern mountainous areas. The average for the whole country is 675 mm (Department of Meteorological Services 1981; Anderson et al. 1993). The rainy season starts in November and tails off in March. There is wide a spatial and temporal variation in rainfall. Its reliability increases with altitude and from south to north. High coefficients of rainfall variability (>40%) have been recorded in areas south of Bulawayo while those in the Highveld and Eastern Highlands have recorded <20% (Climate Handbook of Zimbabwe 1980).

The mean annual temperature range from 18 - 19 °C at about 1400 m above sea level and 23 °C at 450 m altitude in the Limpopo Valley. Mean maximum temperatures are low in the winter months (June - July) and highest in the month of October (Vincent and Thomas 1960;
Climate Handbook of Zimbabwe 1980; Anderson et al. 1993). According to the Zimbabwe soil classification system (Nyamapfene 1991), the soils are classified into eight groups, the regosols, lithosols, vertisols, siallitic, fersiallitic, paraferralitic, orthoferralitic and the sodic (see table 1 below).

Table 1. Major soil group and brief description. S/C value is Total exchangeable bases/100g clay, E/C value is Cation exchange capacity/100 g clay

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Soil group</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-regosols</td>
<td>Soils with less than 10 percent combined silt and clay within the upper 2 metres of the profile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2- lithosols</td>
<td>All soils with depth less than or equal to 25cm whether overlying a hard or partially weathered rock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3- vertisols</td>
<td>Presence of mulch, presence of slickensides in subsoil, S/C and E/C values less than 60 in each case, high clay content, seasonal cracking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4- siallitic</td>
<td>Unleached soils with high base status S/C Values not less than 31, E/C values not less than 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5- fersiallitic</td>
<td>Moderately leached soils, S/C values should be in the arrange 6 – 30 while E/C values vary from 12 - 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6- paraferralitic</td>
<td>Relatively highly leached, S/C values not greater than6, E/C not greater than 12, at least 5 percent weathering material present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7- orthoferralitic</td>
<td>S/C values not more than 5, E/C values not more than 11, less than 5 percent weathering material in the sand fraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8- sodic</td>
<td>Soils with an exchangeable sodium percent greater than 9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: Nyamapfene (1991)

Meteorological data
A total of 39 meteorological stations were selected for this study (see Fig. 1 below). The stations were selected based on availability of meteorological data, but at the same time ensuring that the density of stations enabled precise data interpolation.
Rainfall

Daily rainfall data was obtained for the period 1972-2006 from the Department of Meteorological Services, in Harare, Zimbabwe. Monthly averages and the yearly averages for each station were then computed. From the yearly averages, the long-term mean-annual rainfall was calculated. The same rainfall ranges used in the previous classification produced by Vincent and Thomas were used to describe the new regions assuming that the definition of agro-ecological regions had not changed (Table 2 below).
Table 2. Rainfall zones used in this research as adopted from Vincent and Thomas (1960). It is important to point out that rainfall will only be used to describe the regions and not to classify them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rainfall (mm)</th>
<th>Natural Region</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 1000</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000 - 700</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>700 – 550</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600 – 450</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 500</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Temperature**

Daily temperature records were obtained for the period 1972 – 2006 from the Department of Meteorological Services, Harare, Zimbabwe. The long-term mean averages were then computed and used to describe the temperature ranges for the new regions. Temperature was incorporated to calculate the length of growing period and, therefore will be used to describe the new regions, just like rainfall.

**Length of growing period**

Length of growing period data was obtained from the FAO New Clim model (FAO 2005). To obtain the length of growing period ranges, (Table 3 below) the days to maturity and corresponding harvest index of various maize varieties in Zimbabwe were analysed as adapted and modified from FAO 1978 publication. Numerical values were allocated to the length of growing period for each meteorological station and these were used to obtain a length of growing period suitability map.

Table 3. Suitability rating for maize varieties using length of growing period. Suitability increases from 1 to 6 where 1 is not suitable while 6 is highly suitable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of growing period (days)</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 105</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>105 – 120</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>120 – 135</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>135 – 150</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>150 - 165</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 165</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SOILS

The chemical and physical properties of the soil that are relevant in crop production were used in rating of the productivity of the soils. These parameters included the basic soil requirements of major crops grown in Zimbabwe, which are water holding capacity, soil structure, the nutrient status of the soil and its depth. Soils were rated with the assumption that the productivity of certain soils can be improved if certain economically feasible improvements are made. The ratings depicted in Table 4 below were then produced. From these ratings, a soil suitability map was produced. To produce the overall suitability map, the limiting concept approach was used (FAO 1978; Sys et al. 1991). In this case, in any combination, the parameter with the worst value would take precedence over the other factors. Table 5 shows the rainfall, length of growing period and soil groups used to assign land into agro-ecological zones or Natural Regions.

Table 4. Soil productivity rating used in the study. U is unsuitable (1) HS is highly suitable (5). Soil group 1 is the regosols group, 2 is the lithosol group, 3 is the vertisols group, 4 is the siallitic group, 5 is the fersialitic group, 6 is the paraferralitic group, 7 is the orthoferralitic and 8 is the sodic group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Soil group</th>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Suitability class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>HS</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>HS</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>HS</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>HS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

RESULTS

The new Natural Region I

Natural Region 1 was found in the eastern border part of Zimbabwe. The model predicts that this is highly suitable for diversified cropping and covers 14 439 km² and this translates to almost 3.7 % of the whole country. However, farmers in this Natural Region grow crops like coffee, tea, and potatoes since these are high valued crops and would therefore translate to more income. In the previous agro-ecological classification (Vincent and Thomas 1960), the
area contributed to only about 1.8 % of the whole country (7024 km\textsuperscript{2}) but according to this work, the Natural Region has moved westwards (Figure 2 and 3).

![Figure 2. Map of Zimbabwe Showing the New Natural Regions.](image)

![Figure 3. Map of Zimbabwe Showing the Natural Regions by Vincent and Thomas](image)
The Natural Region has increased by 106%, mean temperature ranges of 15-18 °C, mean minimum temperatures of 10-12 °C and mean maximum temperature range of 19-23 °C also characterize the Natural Region. This and other factors make the Natural Region highly suitable to cropping high value crops.

**The new Natural Region II**

The area covers 29 658.62 km² translating to about 7.6% of the whole country (Fig. 2). In the previous classification, the area covered 15% of the whole of Zimbabwe (58 536 km²) (Fig. 3). The results indicate that the Natural Region has actually decreased by 49%. In the new classification, Mhondoro has moved from Natural Region two to three. There is also a new narrow belt extending from Nyanga southwards, which is now part of Natural Region II and appears to demarcate Natural Region I from other regions. The shape of this region has also changed as part of it has been encroached by Natural Region III. Farmers in this Natural Region grow maize, tobacco, cotton and wheat in addition to intensive livestock production. The new Natural Region II is also characterized by the following parameters: Mean maximum temperature range of 19-23 °C; mean minimum temperature range of 10-13 °C and the mean temperature range is 16-19 °C.

**The new Natural Region III**

The area covers 62829 km² and this comes to 16.1% of the whole country (Fig. 2). In the previous classification by Vincent and Thomas (1960), the area covered 72 975 km² and this equates to 18.7% of the whole country (Fig. 3). In this new classification, Natural Region III has been encroached by Natural Region IV. The area now occupied by the Natural Region has decreased by 13.9%. Farmers in this Natural Region mainly concentrate on maize, tobacco, cotton, wheat and cattle ranching. Other characteristics of the new Natural Region include mean maximum temperature range of 23-26 °C; mean minimum temperature range of 11-15 °C and mean temperature range of 18-22 °C.

**The new Natural Region IV**

The area covers 155 707 km² and this translate to 39.9% of the whole country (Fig. 2). In the previous classification, the area occupied about 37.8% of the whole country (Fig. 3). Other characteristics of this Natural Region are: mean minimum temperature range of 11-20 °C; mean maximum temperature range of 19-26 °C and a mean temperature range of 18-24 °C. The Natural Region has increased by 5.6%, which is a result of the greater part of Gweru
being downgraded from Natural Region III to IV. However this did not result in a significant increase since the Hwange area has been downgraded to Natural Region V, mainly because of the new classification criteria since the greater part of that area has regosols. This is an extensive livestock production area with some drought tolerant crops such as sorghum, millet rapoko. Farmers also grow some short season maize varieties. It has proven very difficult for extension staff to convince farmers in this Natural Region not to concentrate on maize since in some years, they can obtain better yields.

The new Natural Region V
The new Natural Region V covers about 126 829 km² and this translates to about 32.5% of the whole country (Fig. 2). In the previous classification by Vincent and Thomas, the area constituted 26.7 % of Zimbabwe (Fig. 3). The Natural Region has not changed much in the southern part (Figure 1 and 2). Other parameters that would describe this Natural Region are mean temperature range of 21-25 ºC; mean maximum temperature range of 26-32 ºC and mean minimum temperature range of 14-18 ºC.

DISCUSSION
The shifting of the Natural regions boundaries observed in this study strongly points to evidence of climate variability and change. Others could argue that the shift is due to the fact that Vincent and Thomas (1960) used less meteorological data points but many researchers have observed that rainfall patterns in different areas in Zimbabwe have been changing in many areas; changes that have been attributed to climate change and variability (Unganai 1996; Phillips et al. 1998). There are many factors that have been cited to be responsible for rainfall variability over Southern Africa and hence Zimbabwe.

El Nino events involve an anomalous warming of the tropical Pacific Ocean such that seas surface temperatures over 28 C are experienced across the entire Ocean (Phillips et al. 1998). Under normal circumstances, the eastern tropical Pacific is usually colder than the west but during an El Nino event, sea surface temperatures in the eastern Pacific can rise by as much as 4 ºC or more and this results in strong convection occurring over areas of warmest seas surface temperatures. During the El Nino event, the warmer sea surface temperatures shift from the western to the central Pacific resulting in an eastward shift in the location of the strong convection by more than thousands kilometres. With this shift in the area of convection to the central Pacific during an El Nino event, similar shift in the area of
convection over Southern Africa becomes apparent through teleconnections (Mason and Jury 1997). The warming of the western and central tropical Indian Ocean in most cases occurs during the peak summer rainfall months of December-March when the ENSO events have reached maturity. This is also the same time when the Inter Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) is further south. El Nino events are frequently associated with drought over much of Southern Africa (Mason and Jury 1997).

Sea surface in other areas around Southern Africa have also been associated with rainfall variability over the subcontinent (Mason and Jury 1997). If the sea surface temperatures in the central and western tropical Indian Ocean are warmer than averages, this will in most cases bring in dry conditions over Southern Africa. During the pacific El Nino conditions, the northern Indian Ocean will be warmer than normal and this in a way is responsible for transmitting ENSO signals to the Southern Africa region. A strengthening of convection therefore takes place in the Oceanic areas at the expense of the inter-tropical convergence over the subcontinent (Jury 1996; Mason 1995). While dry conditions are frequently associated with warmer sea surface temperature in the tropical Indian Ocean, this is also an important source of atmospheric moisture throughout the summer rainfall season and therefore it becomes a dominant source in summer (D’Abreton and Tyson 1995). Therefore an increase in seas surface temperatures could actually enhance rainfall over Southern Africa by increasing evaporation if and only if the warming does not result in a shift in convection (Hulme et al. 1996)

A statistical analysis of the mean rainfall was carried out to assess if mean annual rainfall has changed (Figure 3). It was observed that the difference in mean seasonal rainfall of the old and new Natural regions was not statistically significant (p<0.05). However the characteristics of the rainfall like dry spells, onset and cessation dates and rainy pentads were not analysed in the research. These could also be used as indicators of climate change.

CONCLUSION

Using the average climatic conditions from 1972 –2006, the new FAO Loc Clim model and soils of Zimbabwe, the same number of agroecological zones were produced as on the current system. The mean annual rainfall were for the new zones were also not significantly different (p<0.05) from the current zones. However, the size and positions of the Natural Regions have shifted and this could be attributed to the impact of climate variability and change.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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The Debate Over the Nature and Impact of the United States and European Union ‘Sanctions’ On Zimbabwe, 2001 To 2012

Musiwaro Ndakaripa*

Abstract.
This article examines different perspectives on the nature and economic impact of the United States (US) and European Union (EU) ‘sanctions’ on Zimbabwe. The paper is based on primary data collected from newspapers, Zimbabwe parliamentary debates, and grey literature from governments and independent organisations. The study is also based on my personal observations as a Zimbabwean academic who has been in the country since the imposition of the sanctions. President Robert Mugabe and his party, the Zimbabwe African National Union – Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF) views the sanctions as comprehensive measures designed to impoverish Zimbabweans in retaliation to the government’s redistribution of land to the majority black people. On the other side of the debate, the Movement for Democratic Change led by Prime Minister Tsvangirai (MDC-T), US and EU argue that ‘restrictive measures’ were imposed on few individuals in ZANU-PF, government and state security who violated human rights, rule of law and democratic principles in the country. This study argues that targeted sanctions have many limitations in that they often produce perverted outcomes by causing or worsening the socio-economic suffering of the ordinary people thereby raising ethical issues.

Key words: Sanctions, Land, Democracy, Rights, Economy.

INTRODUCTION
In the early 2000s, the US, EU, Switzerland, Canada, Australia and New Zealand imposed sanctions on President Robert Mugabe and several individuals on ZANU-PF, government and state security accused of human rights abuses, undermining democracy and good governance. The targeted individuals are under travel bans, financial and asset freeze from the above named countries. The governments of these countries also banned their citizens from conducting business with the targeted persons and their business entities. The sanctions also include arms embargoes and withdrawal of direct financial support to the Mugabe led government. This study will confine itself to US and EU sanctions on Zimbabwe because

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there is limited space to discuss the nature and impact of sanctions imposed by other countries. Moreover, US and EU sanctions deserve special attention since these powers are major economic and political players in the world.

**BACKGROUND TO US AND EU SANCTIONS ON ZIMBABWE**

US and EU sanctions on Zimbabwe can be understood better if they are contextualised in the country’s land question, universal human rights and democracy standards. Between 1890 and 1980 Zimbabwe was a colony of European settlers, mainly from Britain. During this period land was divided on racial lines (Alexander 2006, 1). European settlers were allocated the most productive land in regions with high rainfall. The majority black people were forced into reserves with infertile soil and low rainfall regions. During the transitional negotiations in 1979 the donor community, particularly the British government, assured the post-independent government financial support for land resettlement. Sam Moyo (1999, 1) argues that the adoption of reconciliation policy by the ZANU-PF government in 1980 prevented wholesale land expropriations from white farmers. The insignificant land redistribution to ordinary black Zimbabweans between 1980 and 1999 can be attributed to three major factors. First, the Commercial Farmers Union which represented white farmers with large pieces of land was reluctant to encourage its members to cede or sell land to the government for distribution to the indigenous black majority (Wolmer 2007, 188). Second, both the white farmers and some black elite tended to view the existing land tenures as more productive and most suitable for global markets (Moyo 2000, 15-16). Third, the British government and other donors were reluctant to fund land reform in Zimbabwe citing misuse of the funds and patronage in farm allocation by top ZANU-PF and government officials (Moyo 1999, 21). Due to a combination of these factors little land was allocated to black Zimbabweans. By 1999 the colonial land legacy still lingered in Zimbabwe as a narrow racial and class of about 4, 500 white farmers occupied 11 million hectares of land, which is 40% of the country’s productive land, while over six million indigenous black people lived in marginal rural areas (Moyo 2002, 6). As a result, there was a genuine militant demand for land by peasants and war veterans of the 1960s and 1970s liberation war in the late 1990s.

The economic situation and political landscape in Zimbabwe changed drastically between 1997 and 1999 to ZANU-PF’s disadvantage. There was rapid economic decline which was characterised by high inflation and increase in the prices of commodities, assets and social services. This was attributed to three factors. First, the ZANU-PF government was accused of
incompetence, economic mismanagement and corruption (Muzondidya 2009, 182). Second, in 1997 the country entered in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) civil war to defend the government of Laurent Kabila which was under siege from rebels supported by Rwanda and Uganda. In this war the government of Zimbabwe was accused by the United Nations, Western countries, International Monetary Fund and some civil society organisation in Zimbabwe of over spending the country’s limited funds (Bond and Manyanya 2003, 17). Third, in 1998 the government appeased war veterans of the 1960s and 1970s liberation war whom it had neglected for over eighteen years by giving them unbudgeted gratuities of Z$ 50 000 (then about USS 4, 500) (Muzondidya 2009, 198). All these factors caused rapid economic decline which led to gradual unpopularity of the ZANU-PF government as evidenced by food riots, demonstrations and labour strikes organised by the Zimbabwe Congress of Trade Union (ZCTU). In addition to economic problems, the government of Zimbabwe was challenged by civil society organisation and Western countries on issues to do with governance and constitutional reform. All these conditions led to the formation of the Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) in 1999. The new party, which was led by Morgan Tsvangirai, became the strongest and most popular opposition group in the country.

In June 2000, Zimbabwe held parliamentary elections. During the run up to these elections, ZANU-PF used the emotive land question to gain support from the electorate. The party campaigned with the manifesto “Land is the Economy and the Economy is Land’. War veterans and peasants invaded and occupied white farms. It is unclear whether the war veterans and peasants took initiative in invading the farms or the ZANU-PF government used them as a front to give legitimacy to land reform (Moyo 2002, 11). Despite courts rulings which called the police to remove farm invaders the ZANU-PF government supported them as people with genuine land grievances for political mileage (Eriksson 2007, 14). This marked the beginning of the Fast Track Land Reform Programme which was characterized by disregard of the property (land) rights of white farmers. War veterans and ZANU-PF militia intimidated, assaulted and in some cases killed white farm owners (Zimbabwe Human Rights NGO Forum 2010, 9). Farm workers who were often viewed as sympathetic to white farmers were displaced, assaulted, raped and sometimes killed (Zimbabwe Human Rights NGO Forum 2010, 9). This lawlessness led to condemnation of the ZANU-PF government by human rights groups in Zimbabwe and Western countries.
During this period, ZANU-PF developed the nationalist and patriotic discourse in which MDC supporters were viewed as sell outs who were used by Western countries to reverse the land reform programme (Alexander 2006, 181). In addition to violence during farm invasions, war veterans, ZANU-PF militias and some members of state security institutions intimidated, assaulted, raped and murdered some MDC supporters (Zimudzi 2006, 203). The EU observer team led by Pierre Schori blamed the Zimbabwean government of human rights abuses. In response to lawlessness in Zimbabwe’s land reform and human rights abuses during the 2000 parliamentary elections the United States passed its sanctions law, the Zimbabwe Democracy and Economic Recovery Act (ZIDERA) of 2001. The 2002 Presidential elections were also marred by violence. In this election the Zimbabwean government barred some members of the EU observer mission from countries such as Britain, Ireland, Sweden, Netherlands, Germany and Denmark in retaliation for its damning report of the 2000 election report (Zimbabwe Europe Network 2012, 3). This led to the imposition of targeted sanctions by the EU on 17 February 2002. US and EU sanctions on Zimbabwe have been renewed every year as these powers cite continued violation of human rights, White farm invasions and election fraud (Chogugudza 2009, 8). This is the political context in which the US and EU imposed sanctions on Zimbabwe.

COMPREHENSIVE SANCTIONS OR TARGETED RESTRICTIVE MEASURES: THE NATURE AND IMPACT OF US AND EU SANCTIONS ON ZIMBABWE

After giving the background of US and EU sanctions on Zimbabwe it is now necessary to discuss their nature and economic impact on the country. As noted above, the US legalised its sanctions on Zimbabwe through the ZIDERA of 2001. This Act purports to support Zimbabwean citizens to achieve democratic rule and economic growth. The Act shows US dissatisfaction with the activities of the Zimbabwean government like disrespect for ownership and title to property rights, suppression of freedom of speech and association, lawlessness, violence, and intimidation sponsored, condoned, or tolerated by ZANU-PF (US Government 2001). The Act also shows US concern over Zimbabwe’s participation in the DRC civil but also commended the country for showing good faith in pulling out troops from the DRC (US Government 2001). The Act also states the need for Zimbabwe’s national army, police and other state security institutions to be loyal to the elected civilian government. This seems to have been a response to Zimbabwean army and police service chiefs who had on several occasions swore that they will not allow Morgan Tsvangirai and his MDC party to
rule because they were ‘western stooges’. ZIDERA requires US executive director to international financial institutions to oppose extension of loans and cancellation of indebtedness owed by the Government of Zimbabwe (US Government 2001). The Act allows the US government to offer financial and technical support to groups which support democracy in Zimbabwe. The Act also requires the US President to consult governments of European Union member states, Canada and other foreign governments on ways to identify and share information on individuals undermining the rule of law and their assets outside Zimbabwe (US Government 2001). As a result of such consultations, on 6 March 2003, US President George Bush signed Executive Order 13288, imposing travel bans, financial and asset freezes on seventy-seven government officials including President Mugabe and other persons outside government (US Government 2003, 11458). The US prohibits its citizens from engaging in any transactions with any person, entity and organisation found to have materially assisted, sponsored, or provided financial, material, or technological support to ZANU-PF’s repressive activities (Sims, Masamvu and Mirell 2010, 67). The US also prohibited arms sales to the government of Zimbabwe. US arms embargoes were meant to stem the flow of arms, military equipment and expertise to Zimbabwean government after its participation in the DRC war and repression of MDC supporters (Sims, Masamvu and Mirell 2010, 5).

EU sanctions on Zimbabwe targets individuals accused of undermining democracy, human rights and the rule of law in the country. These include travel bans to EU countries for top officials in ZANU-PF, government and state security. However, both US and EU travel bans do not apply to attendance of meetings of international organisations. The bloc also imposed restrictions on financial transactions and freezing of assets of the specified individuals. The EU also targeted companies, including their senior management officials, linked to ZANU-PF or individuals accused of human rights abuses (Sims, Masamvu and Mirell 2010, 5). Governments of EU countries have also stopped giving direct financial assistance to the Zimbabwe government. The EU has redirected funding to United Nations organisations and non state actors (European Union Delegation to Zimbabwe 2012). Like the US, EU prohibits arms sales to the government of Zimbabwe and its subsidiaries.

To ZANU-PF, US and EU sanctions include tarnishing Zimbabwe through the gross misrepresentation of facts on the ground by Western media houses (Guvamatanga 2009, 4). ZANU-PF argues that ever since the inception of the Fast Track Land Reform Programme,
the British government, through its powerful media, went on an international campaign to influence Western governments and companies to stop investing in Zimbabwe (Government of Zimbabwe 2006, col. 61). This is regarded as part of the US and EU’s campaign of economic terror and suffocations aimed at achieving regime change (Government of Zimbabwe 2006, col. 61). Zimbabwe was portrayed by media houses such as the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), Cable News Network (CNN) and Sky News as a volatile country and travel warnings hit the tourism industry. ZANU-PF argues that as a result of negative publicity on Zimbabwe potential investors shunned the country (Guvamatanga 2009, 4). This allegedly suffocated the economy of Zimbabwe by denying it potential sources of foreign currency and from the ZANU-PF perspective this is a real sanction. Again, this is another aspect of the US and EU sanctions which defeats the whole idea of smart sanctions. Although negative publicity was aimed at the ZANU-PF regime the poor performance of the tourism sector, shortage of foreign currency and reduction in investment caused economic hardships which affected ordinary people in Zimbabwe.

The MDC-T, US and the EU maintain that the ‘restrictive measures’ are not aimed at the general economy and do not impose an economic blockade on Zimbabwe (Chogugudza 2009, 8). The US insists the sanctions it imposed are not meant to hurt ordinary Zimbabweans (Kwenda 2008, 9). It also emphasizes that American and Zimbabwean firms are free to do business and invest in both countries as long as they avoid business deals with top ZANU-PF officials and their business entities (Chogugudza 2009, 8). Moreover, the US claims that despite the imposition of sanctions, it still leads in the provision of humanitarian aid to Zimbabwe. For example from 2002 to 2009, the US is understood to have provided more than US$300 million of humanitarian assistance to the country (Kwenda 2008, 9). Between January 2009 and September 2010, the EU provided (euro 365 million) assistance to Zimbabwe in areas such as health, education, orphans and vulnerable children, food security and agriculture, water and sanitation, governance, infrastructure and energy (European Union Delegation to Zimbabwe 2012). On such basis the US and EU claims that the sanctions it imposed on Zimbabwe are targeted on a ZANU-PF minority.

The extent to which the Zimbabwe’s economic crisis can be attributed to sanctions is a topic that sparks debate in the country’s political and media circles. President Mugabe and ZANU-PF deny any responsibility for the economic crisis the country struggled under. ZANU-PF blames all the difficulties on sanctions imposed on Zimbabwe by the EU and the US despite
the fact that before the imposition of sanctions Zimbabwe was already facing economic problems inflation like fuel and foreign currency shortages, price increases of goods and services (Government of Zimbabwe 2001, cols 6122 - 23). ZANU-PF argues that the Zimbabwean economy, if supported by international co-operation can sustain a reasonable standard of living for all people (Government of Zimbabwe 2001, col 6110). It blames most of Zimbabwe’s economic problems on the sanctions imposed by the US and the EU. For example, in 2008 the ZANU-PF government reported that ‘illegal’ sanctions have hit the National Railways of Zimbabwe (NRZ) hard as companies in the West refused to supply spare parts for its broken down equipment (Bulawayo Bureau Herald 2008, 3). The extent to which current sanctions have a negative impact on Zimbabwean economy can be questioned by comparing them with those on the country (then Rhodesia) between 1965 and 1979. The Rhodesian regime which was under comprehensive sanctions and fighting a guerrilla insurgency managed to maintain one of the best economies in Africa. This shows that although sanctions caused some economic problems ZANU-PF exaggerates their negative effect in order to exonerate itself from any responsibility for Zimbabwe’s economic crisis.

The MDC-T and other critics argue that much of the suffering of Zimbabweans were a result of then ZANU-PF government’s economic mismanagement. For example, they cite the use of national funds by the ZANU-PF government in the DRC civil war and in paying gratuities to war veterans. This allegedly initiated inflation before imposition of sanctions. The MDC also accuse the ZANU-PF government for implementing populist but destructive economic policies. Critics cite the Fast Track Land Reform (FTLR), which saw inexperienced and poorly funded Black farmers replacing about 4 500 experienced and productive White commercial farmers who were behind the regional ‘bread basket’ reputation earned by Zimbabwe southern Africa prior 2000 (Zimbabwe Human Rights NGO Forum 2010, 1). The lawlessness of the FTLR contributed to economic decline. Nelson Marongwe (2004, 25) argues that the non-observance of property rights severely eroded business and investor confidence in the country. Prior to FTLR agriculture was the cornerstone of the economy and provided employment for over 300,000 farm workers and a livelihood for nearly two million people (Zimbabwe Human Rights NGO Forum 2010, 1). However, since the FTLR, agriculture plummeted and this resulted in severe reduction of foreign currency inflows. Agricultural production, which anchors the country’s economy, has been reduced drastically. Craig Richardson (2005, cited in Zimbabwe Human Rights NGO Forum 2010, 1) argues that Zimbabwe provides a case study of the dangers of ignoring the rule of law and property rights
in land reform. From this perspective targeted sanctions are not responsible for Zimbabwe’s economic problems but ZANU-PF government’s mismanagement and poor policy implementation.

A number of studies have shown that in most circumstances sanctions are a protracted and costly low-intensity campaign which negatively impact on the economies of both the imposer and the targeted state (Kurebwa 2000, 3). Studies indicate that throughout the world, between 1945 and 1989, sanctions were only 30-percent successful and in most cases they harm interests other than those of the intended target (Government of Zimbabwe 2006, col. 51). Like in other studies, the Zimbabwean case has proved that sanctions, whether comprehensive or targeted, cause socio-economic suffering on the ordinary people. Paradoxically, they are less effective on the ruling elite for whom they are intended. This argument concurs with Daniel W. Drezner’s assertion that even smart sanctions still impose significant costs on a target’s populace (Drezner 2003, 108). The former United Nations Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali has questioned the use of sanctions by raising ethical issues concerning the suffering they inflict on innocent victims and questions whether inflicting such suffering is a legitimate means of bringing pressure to bear on political leaders (Chogugudza 2009, 8). In addition, sanctions have a severe effect on neighbours or major economic partners of targeted states. ZANU-PF argues that the entire Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) region is now feeling the pinch from sanctions imposed on Zimbabwe because of its centrality to regional trade and integration (Government of Zimbabwe 2006, col. 51). Though subject to further scrutiny, ZANU-PF asserts that the presence of about three million of Zimbabweans in South Africa has resulted in a strain in the public services of that country. As shown in this section, sanctions imposed on Zimbabwe are not really targeted because they also harm the ordinary people and other bystanders.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

US and EU targeted sanctions on Zimbabwe, like other sanctions imposed elsewhere lack precision and have an unintended consequence on innocent people and other bystanders. Financial restrictions by the US’s ZIDERA prevent the Zimbabwe Government’s access to funds from international multilateral institutions. This affects both the targeted persons and all Zimbabweans. Negative publicity of Zimbabwe by Western media reduced investment as investors lost confidence in the country. Moreover, as a result of negative publicity, tourists shunned the country and this reduced the inflow of foreign currency. Moreover, travel
restrictions on key government officials who run the nation’s affairs have a negative effect on the country’s economic performance. All this contributed to economic decline which affected everyone in the country. However, sanctions, whether targeted or comprehensive, were and are not the major cause of Zimbabwe’s economic problems but mismanagement of the ZANU-PF government.

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University Administration in the 21st Century: The Politics of Resource Mobilisation at Midlands State University 2000-2010

Percyslage Chigora

Abstract
The 21st century in Zimbabwe saw the establishment of more state universities and this came at a time when Zimbabwe was undergoing an economic meltdown. This situation caught the Midlands State University, having been instituted in 1999 as a new university. Throughout the ten years of its existence with the crisis situation the administration has managed to keep the university in operation. The research examines the strategies adopted by the university administration to ensure that it continues to survive. The research will be largely dependent on secondary data, primary sources and the participatory observation approach. The strategies adopted, on one hand focused on re-inventing the university so as to increase revenue, and on the other hand seeking local and international partners to keep university projects in operation. The research explored some avenues for funding which calls for realistic re-invention of the university and overall shift in orientation towards sustainable funding.

1. INTRODUCTION
Higher education was recognized to be critical in building the knowledge economy which is central to the development process. For developing countries the situation has been problematic given the continued strain put on governments in terms of raising revenue. The situation in Zimbabwe in the 21st century was made worse as it was characterized by economic meltdown which made funding for almost all state institutions highly critical. This problem was also compounded by some sections of the international community withdrawing their donor support to the higher education institutions. This increased challenges for university authorities in raising resources for proper and full functioning of the universities. Being a new university in such environment presented a challenge to the university which was still to grapple with bringing new infrastructure and expand its operational framework. Given this background, the authorities have managed to retain essential staff, continued with

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the construction of buildings at the new university's site, and attracting an increased number of enrollments over years in the face of the deepening economic crisis. The strategies adopted by the administration are the main concern of this research, which will inform some policies which can be adopted in government funded universities that may find itself in such predicament. The research will proffer further recommendations which state universities not only in Zimbabwe but also other developing countries that find themselves embroiled in similar challenges need to adopt.

1.2 Methodology

The research is largely qualitative in nature. Methodologically, the research will be largely dependent on primary sources and the participatory observation approach. Secondary data will be used inform of news reports, minutes of proceedings of meetings, speeches and other relevant data on the general situations of funding in universities. Primary sources will enable empiricism in that it relies on expert information as professed by people who observe the occurrences or information sought by the research as part of their day to day work experience. Also through participatory observation, empirical data will be gathered through field observation as the researcher has experience on the environment as student, academia and administration.

2. BACKGROUND AND CONCEPTUAL ISSUES

2.1 Concepts

Whilst the issue of concepts is highly contentious one in the social science, this research attempts to illuminate on concepts that are relevant to comprehending issues under study. Pertaining to this research, concepts like State University and resource mobilization require some elucidation for the purposes of understanding the variables which are central to the research.

A university according to ChachaNyaigotti-Chacha is a highest-level of institution dedicated to the professional and intellectual development of mankind and society in general (Chacha 2002). The activities of a university center on research, teaching, and public service through consultancy (ibid.). For the purpose of this research delineation between has to be made between private and public university/states university/national University and the core concerns of this research is the latter.
By definition state university is a university created or run by a national state but at the same
time represents a state autonomic institution which functions as a completely independent
body inside of the same state. For Zimbabwe state universities are established by an act of
parliament, which define the structure and the powers of the university.

Resource mobilization, according to Diana Kendall, means the ability to acquire resources
and mobilize people towards accomplishing the movement's goals (2005). For the purposes
of this research this two pronged definition is applied. State universities in Zimbabwe have
historically been depended on the state resources to ensure their functioning. But the
changing nature of the role of the state in development and the subsequent economic
meltdown has made resource mobilization strategies for state universities change.

2.2 Literature Review

Literature on funding of university can be grouped into three, general literature globally, that
focusing on developing countries and Africa in general and then that that focuses on
Zimbabwe. Globally, literature on state funding illuminates on challenges that are faced by
state funded institutions and there exist a direct link between economic recession and
decreased government funding. Governments are commonly cited as having the primary
responsibility for the provision of education for their citizens (Kuehn 1997). As a result of
the processes of globalization access to education has been affected particularly with the
reduced role of state intervention in the economy.

Commitments by governments to funding education have been hindered by several factors
among them include poor fiscal and monetary policy, budgetary obligations such as debt
repayment, poor resource mobilization and inappropriate spending priorities such as defence
(Oxfam 2002). For libraries, the economic problems attributed to massive foreign debts and
repayment schedules, has begun to threaten the very existence of libraries in some countries
(Nwafor 1990).

For developing countries funding higher education has remained a challenge for those
countries that find themselves in crisis situation and where there is continued demand for
institutions of higher learning. According to Mompati Mino Polelo the crisis in developing
nations higher education owes its origins to its expansion which has created a strain on
resources and this is as a result of growing number of people demanding the service (Polelo 2008). Other factors are linked to macro-economic crisis that has led to declining expenditure on higher education; shrinking resources; inadequate facilities and decaying infrastructure (ibid.). For Mompati Mino Polelo compounding the resource limitation is the internal and external efficiency of the system, that is to say where resources are not utilized to the maximum and the existence of small, fragmented institutions, duplicating programmes and pushing higher education unit costs up (ibid.). Moreover, the costs are scaled up by low output, student dropouts, repetition and low student-staff ratios and added the problem of subsidies for non-core educational expenditures that go to high income students (ibid.).

The greatest affected, according Nwafor, are global universities which have come under stress noting that university libraries have all had severe budget cuts, in some cases to the point of cancelling all periodical subscriptions (1990).

Literature on Africa has focused on failure to raise resources on the part of government largely attributing the issues to continuing demographic growth and increasing the role of market that reduced the role of state in various sectors of public activities (Abdourahmane 2000).

Another issue that has dominated issues of funding has been efforts to seek international financial organization. The reaction by the World Bank was aptly captured Mamdani noting that at a meeting with African vice-chancellors in Harare in 1986, the World Bank argued that higher education in Africa was a luxury: that most African countries were better off closing universities at home and training graduates over-seas. Recognizing that its call for a closure of universities was politically unsustainable, the Bank subsequently modified its agenda, calling for universities in Africa to be trimmed and restructured to produce only those skills which the market demands. (Mamdani 1991) Such was its agenda for university restructuring for instance in Nigeria in the late 1980s.

Exposure of problems facing the African universities relates to challenges emanating from inadequate state subsidies and the monetary interpretation of the private/social rates of return from higher education (Global University Network 2010). With few resources and a history of neglect, higher education systems in Africa are struggling to respond to the increased demand for their services, as result the efforts of African countries towards
tackling environment and development problems have yielded minimum results due to, among others, a dearth of expertise and institutional infrastructure (*ibid*).

The impact of the lack of funding has been noticeable. According to Chacha Nyaigotti-Chacha, the impact of under-funding in universities is currently reflected in inadequate infrastructure, insufficient educational facilities, high student-lecturer ratios, inadequately trained academic and managerial staff, use of outmoded technology in teaching and learning, and the delivery of a generally low quality education in comparison to high-income countries (2002). Educational facilities that were meant to serve a few hundred students are now used by thousands.

Literature on condition of the state of Universities Zimbabwe is not far removed from the situation obtaining in developing countries and other African public universities. The situation particularly in the 21st Century, the era of the ballooning of state universities, the higher education in Zimbabwe was going through a series of crisis in terms of funding. According to Kariwo the situation in higher education is characterized by under-funding, rapidly growing student enrolments, and fiscal pressure (2007, 45-59) (as measured in low and declining per student expenditures and as seen in overcrowding, low-paid faculty, lack of academic equipment or libraries and in dilapidated physical plant).

The problem of universities in Zimbabwe has been widespread in the crisis period. According to Burke, higher education in Zimbabwe faces significant challenges that depict the presence of crisis existence; ‘Exodus of senior academics –the people who have a large responsibility towards reproducing the system -with extensive teaching and research skills. At the same time institutions are unable to attract equally experienced lecturers and researchers as replacement staff. Physical facilities are in short supply and in some cases are yet to be built –where it does exist, in many cases it is run down, antiquated and outdated. Loss / lack of senior leadership also having an effect on institutional administration of institutions…while student numbers continue to grow…and an expected shift away from increasing access to improving quality of education and training’ (Burke 2010).
3. DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

3.1 State Funding

Despite the economic meltdown the state's hand has remained visible in funding the university. In fact the government has shown commitment to continued funding of higher education; at most Zimbabwe has shown a strong regional presence. In terms of support the government of Zimbabwe has committed 31% of the national budget to higher education, thereby placing Zimbabwe in the lead in public allocation of funds to higher education in SADC, and subsidy up to 82.4% from the exchequer (Burke 2010). However it is important to highlight that though the government is committed to funding universities the sheer number of the institutions has led to lessening share of funds individual institutions receive to support its basic activities. In the period under study the overall rise in inflation exceeding a staggering 89 sextillion percent; in mid-November 2008 (Fournier and Whittall 2009). This has had a negative impact on the resources coming from government.

Even when the government was facing economic collapse there was commitment to funding institutions of higher learning. When the management of the treasury was transferred to the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe (RBZ) as way of managing the ever growing inflation the bank continued with efforts to support state universities enabling their continued function. For Midlands State University in particular the intervention of the RBZ saw the coming of electric generators that were critical in the running of the institution in the times when outage of power had increased not only at the institution but country wide. In essence this ensured that critical work which was supposed to be carried out timeously like processing of examinations, results and carrying out of research possible in crisis environment.

Further RBZ efforts ensured that the university was able to areas that were critical to access forex to ensure continued functioning of the institution. The critical areas related to accessing fuel which is one critical resource needed for the proper functioning of the institution. This enabled the running of generators to ensure the availability of electricity and also enable the university vehicles do their business. Of importance has been the running of a bus that would transport workers to and from work at time when it was difficult for the bulk of the staff to get enough salary to pay for their everyday trip to and from work.
In addition to this the RBZ was to provide vehicles for use by higher authorities at the university. For example in 2008 almost all state universities were to receive modest vehicles during the graduation ceremonies held that year. Midlands State University received more than 7 state of the art vehicles and promised buses for staff to ensure the continued functioning of the university.

Even in the post crisis period the government has continued committed to institutions of higher learning. This has been evidenced by continued government efforts to improving the working conditions of staff ensuring retention of essential staff and attracting those that had fled in the crisis period. The University has highly attractive salaries in comparison to other workers that are paid through the treasury. For instance currently whilst the rest of the state employees earn less than US$500, those at the state university earn two times more.

However, despite the commitment by government challenges exist in most state funded institutions. Though government is committed to sponsoring students who are not able to pay their fees there has been continued challenges of raising the much needed resources. According to the Herald reporter (2011) government owed tertiary colleges US$35 million in outstanding fees for students learning under the cadetship programme, with the Treasury releasing only US$25 million of the US$60 million required over the past two years.

Thus the state has not been able to meet the needs of the university which has to remain functional in a large way. Noticeable for the university has been insufficient funding for research and development infrastructure. Midlands State University which came into being in 1999 has had difficulties in as far as infrastructure is concerned. No new building has been completed as yet at the new site of the university 11 year after its inception. The government has not been able in the crisis years to ensure that the required infrastructure at the university takes shape.

It appears that the Zimbabwe universities have been slow in generating their own income and to reduce dependence on government. According to Kariwo the main reasons for their failure include lack of capacity, human and financial, a legal framework governing university operations that inhibits entrepreneurial activities and a generally poor economic environment (2007). At the backdrop of this criticism it has to be highlighted that Midlands State University was quick to identify the problem and design ways of circumventing this problem
that was affecting state universities. In essence it called for the re-invention of the university so that issue of funding could be improved in a better way.

3.2 Re-inventing the University

The first way in which the university was reinvented was the change in policy by the government in 2001 as the burden of financing higher education and education in general increased. The government adopted a new policy of charging tuition fees. This meant that there was going to be an increase in the revenue of the universities. The move by government enabled universities to charge fees to students and the income would be used to run the university. Owing to this the university was to be run close to business entity where enrolments were done considering the raising of revenue. For instance at Midlands State University where an intake per programme was averaging 15 in 2004 moves were made to increase the number of students to an average of 30 per programme. This policy was meant to increase the revenue to be realised from the student. However the policy has had negative effect on the society as it has kept out of mainstream education some students who have not been able to raise fees.

Secondly, there was a rethink by university authorities on ways of financial diversification in terms of contribution by stake holders. In an effort to move away from state control the university designed ways of increasing the students attending the institution thereby expanding the resource base. New student intakes were introduced in form of parallel programmes which were to learn in the evening. This was to serve two functions; to be able to cater for those who are going to work to be able to earn degrees without jeopardizing their work and also that they will be able to raise fees without any problems since they will be working. This increased the number of students two fold; the conventional programmes those that learn during the day and the parallel that would learn during the evening. For the parallel programme the university was free to charge fees without much control from the government and limitations in terms of numbers. The net result has been increased revenue on the part of the university. For the Midland State University this contributed quite a lot in terms of resources as the numbers for the parallel class averaging 30 in 2005 and to about 45 to 60 in 2010.

The policy was limited in that it would only be attractive to those who work in Gweru and the surrounding areas. Efforts were made to include those that work beyond the areas of
proximity to Midlands State University. This saw the launching of the block release and visiting school programmes who would access the institution during vacations, weekends and holidays to fulfill their programme requirements. This also increased the revenue base for the institution. Thus introduction of self-financing courses went a long way an increasing proportion of university income, to supplement the government’s financial assistance.

However the increase in the size of the student body has the potential to pose new challenges to the university. According to ChachaNyaigotti-Chacha, in particular the greatly increased student demands and expectations will require complete staff devotion and an unwavering commitment to teaching and research and running parallel to this imperative is the call for greatly improved administration and public relations in the faculties and/or departments offering the programmes (Chacha 2002).

Another dimension to increase income has been the embarking on an aggressive but efficient programme of expansion. Midlands has since massive expansion of degree programmes not only at undergraduate but post graduate level. This would increase the number of students thereby expanding the resource base.

Given the continued shortage of forex at the institution the authorities had to design ways of improving the situation and the only people who could bring such resources were foreigners. Efforts were made to lure foreigners into the institutions. Though they did not come in large numbers students came from Mozambique, Angola, Namibia and Tanzania. This improved though in minor ways to forex coming to the institution. The establishment of the directorate responsible for foreign students is a testimony to the achievement of this policy.

The increase in revenue output saw the improvement of the situation at the university. Noticeable has been renovation of the infrastructure and construction of a multi-purpose hall which is central to the university functions and central to teaching during the semester. Given the increased income the institution the authorities did not focus building infrastructure but to look for the already built infrastructure. Hence the acquisition of a complex that now houses Business school, Law Faculty and some staff office, purchase of flats and some properties in town and surrounding suburbs.
3.3 Measures for Staff Retention

In the environment characterised by an inflationary environment motivating workforce is a key challenge. The university authorities have attempted to cushion their employees in the environment of uncertainty and ensuring the continued functioning of the university.

In the face of the shortage of basic commodities like food and fuel the university authorities had to devise a way of ensuring in some times of need the access to basic commodities. Thus goods like mealie meal and meat would be made available for purchase on credit and be deducted from staff’s pay. This was highly beneficial to staff given the shortages and the highly inflationary environment. Whenever fuel was available members of staff with cars were able to access fuel.

The introduction of new programmes, the parallel, block and visiting school programmes had greater benefit to staff, especially those in the teaching category. They would be able to get extra income above the normal pay which they got and being paid in term as of hours they had taught. Thus the lecturers would get as many modules they could afford and that way raise much and ensuring their survival. For non-academic staff as well as teaching staff above from what they get from the government in terms of pay an incentive allowance was introduced in relation to grades as way of improving incomes to competitive level.

Teaching staff have also benefited from incomes from those institutions that are affiliated to the university requesting their services through various consultancies. This has a net effect of increasing their income and creating synergies with the institutions. Among these institutions is a Swaziland based Africa Management Development Institute (AMADI) which is affiliated to the university and staff in the Faculty of Education benefit through marking examinations and sometimes teaching.

Another measure that has been raised before related to facilitating the movement of staff to and from work. The obtaining harsh economic environment it meant that staff were unable raise enough fare to ensure their coming to work or given the shortage of fuel unable to access public transport on time to get to work. As such the university had to make buses available to staff to enable them to adhere to their duties timeously without some hassles.
3.4 The Return of Economics in State Institutions

Another contribution was to come from an entrepreneurial approach by the university been the establishment of business ventures. As noted earlier the purchase of property like flats has an income motive on them through rentals.

Through its Fundraising committee the university committed itself to business ventures that are meant improve the university’s fund. Various funding raising activities have been lined up to ensure the success of the project. Dinner dances and public lecture-cum fundraising that aimed at attracting prominent individuals and business community to donate funds to the university cause. Other activities related to donate something campaign, musical and film shows, offering advertising space on website and selling of promotional material.

The university has also moved further in Fund raising activities to the extent of stashing an office responsible for fund raising activities. Key projects to date has been the operation university service station were mostly staff will access fuel on credit at a competitive prize. Besides this the university runs two of the main tuck shops on main campus which largely supply day to day food items and are easily accessible on compass.

Efforts has been to ensure that the university farm be run on commercial basis thereby ensuring viability. The farm was in October 2010 boasting itself of 200 herds of cattle with plans to acquire more goats and start piggery and poultry projects.

In the interest of the business approach the university had also to take loans for long term investment projects such as the purchase of properties. This explains the innovative nature of the university in finding solutions to the problems of funding.

3.5 External Cooperation

In expanding the university’s infrastructure the university authorities have realized the daunting task of realizing the expansion of infrastructure in this case they have sought ways of bringing private partners into the improvement of the infrastructure. This was done within the framework of Build, Operate and Transfer which means private companies would
lead in the construction of an infrastructure and operates it whilst in the process the university will be buying the infrastructure from the company as time progressed. This was conceived as the only way of ensuring the construction of new student hostels.

Within the framework of Southern African Regional Universities Association (SARUA) commitment was made to ensuring training of staff to mitigating effects of brain drain and facilitation of staff and student visits. In this light the African Development Bank would be committed to funding this exercise, thus this would go a long way in expanding the resource base of the university.

In the framework of civic cooperation companies in and around Gweru have been supportive to the cause of improving the university situation. Donations have come in various forms. One such company to note has been the Mimosa mining Company which has been quite active in providing water tanks and equipping of two boreholes to improve the water situation which had been critical for the functioning of the university. In addition, the same company donated a generator to the institution thereby increasing the capacity of the university to generate electricity in times of need.

The most affected area when it comes to funding has been the libraries. In this field partnerships have been critical in improving the conditions on the library. The key has the formation of Zimbabwe University Librarians Consortium (ZULC) in 2001 by (7) seven University Libraries in Zimbabwe in order to provide resource sharing among members and the community in general. The Consortium is fundamentally driven by the belief that access, as opposed to traditional unqualified ownership, is the most viable strategy to maintain the ideals of the universities in Zimbabwe. A number of donors have been quite active in assisting the library through donating books that were relevant to several fields.

4. CONCLUSION AND THE FUTURE OF UNIVERSITY FUNDING
4.1 Lessons Learnt and Policy Recommendations

At institutional level there are issues that need to be considered in as far as raising revenue is concerned. The first is to consider issues of research and how it can be harnessed to contribute towards raising funds. This can be done in three ways, i.e., through the
development of a publication house for books and journals which could be marketed globally; liaising with international research organization in raising funds to carry out research; and hosting of international workshops in which the university will be responsible for providing the needed services and participation fees hence raising more revenue. In this framework efforts should be made in selling consultancy services to various stakeholders interested in new knowledge and innovations for their use and development. As Ziderman and Albretch noted studies on income generation have shown that other than charging economic fees, sources such as conference trade, short courses and consultancies can at best yield 10% of the income of a university (2007).

Secondly another dimension which needs to be put emphasis on is the development of Alumni. Given the number of graduates that have passed through Midlands University and now that most of them are employed not only in Zimbabwe but countries beyond the border it becomes a source of funding if their need to plough back is harnessed. Their donations may play a more prominent role in funding the higher education system.

The university should continuously seek ways of improving the financial situation. Since the market has taken its role in determining the provision of services it becomes clear that raising of student fees is an issue that have to be constantly thought of, especially as the economic environment in Zimbabwe continues to improve. Offering of short courses especially during the weekends and vacations will go a long way in increasing university revenue. Within this framework also the development of more valuable degree programmes have to be the continued vision of the university. Efforts should continue is seeking partners in form of business ventures and donors in development on university projects.

Consolidating the existing resources is critical for the continued functioning of the university. Maximum utilization of the resources has to be adhered to avoid spillages and misuse of the resources. Universities just like any other institutions are not spared of corrupt activities or mismanagement at almost all levels of work. The university must have its monitoring mechanism to deal with this issue.

Whilst there has been increase in the number of programmes offered by the university and ultimately leading to the increase in the number of students, there is need for efforts directed towards ensuring the viability of the degree attained vis-a-vis the job market. Zimbabwe is
not a fast growing economy to absorb all the graduates, thus the programmes and modules
offered have to be constantly reviewed to ensure that the graduates remain competitive not
only in Zimbabwe but the region and beyond. At most as Lejeune puts it, if universities
want to survive in the future, some new approaches must be considered, including being
relevant to the needs of the populations they serve, have a community orientation and be
involved in community work, have clear objectives and orient their curricula accordingly,
have to be practical in their outlook so as to foster a spirit of entrepreneurship among their
students, who should be job creators rather than jobseekers, create links with one another
with a view to alleviating the burden of both staff and students and establishing a sharing of
knowledge and expertise and have to foster the creation of international links so as to fully
enter into the international university community (Lejeuene in Chacha 2002).

At state level efforts must be made to lobby government in lessening or removal of controls
which makes some goods and services expensive for the university. This might relate to the
removal of government taxes on educational equipment and texts.

The state needs not entirely be removed from its central role in providing resources for state
universities. It should be the central role to ensure that enough resources are made available
to the university. As the Zimbabwe economy improves it should be the responsibility of the
government to ensure that it broadens sources of financing of higher education through
continued efforts of revenue generation that includes cooperation with international actors.
This will have a net effect of increasing annual budgetary allocation to the education sector.
Efforts should be made to ensure that government funding to students only goes to
qualifying needy students only. The government agents responsible for loan granting should
be well instituted to ensure disbursement of loans, scholarships and bursaries to needy as
well as the recovery of loans from students. For Zimbabwe this area has been lacking where
those that have received loans no follow-ups have been done to ensure repayment of these
loans. This has a net effect of decreasing the money available for cycling for those in need
of the resources.

The involvement of the private sector is one of the areas which has to be explored in terms
of raising revenue for the university. Ways have to be found of bringing in corporations,
individuals, companies, consortia of companies, publicly-listed companies and government
corporations into supporting education. This may be done through availing loans to the
university to carry out their development projects and/or assisting students with grants for their education thereby guaranteeing the University of their Income and assisting the state which often find it difficult to assist the students.

At global level, given the general attitudes of international financial institutions towards higher education in Africa the African universities need to a common united front in defending interests. This come in the wake of the call by World Bank in 1986, that higher education in Africa was a luxury and most African countries were better off closing universities at home and training graduates overseas (Utte 1995). Such attitude is detrimental to the funding of state universities given that most states in Africa are depended on international financial institutions in their development projects. As such universities in Africa, given their academic prowess, must lobby the governments of loan-seeking countries and lending institutions to try to ensure that education and education-related services are not undermined by any loan conditions set by lending institution. This lobbying can be done within the framework Education for All as part of the achievement Millennium Development Goals.

Globally, International Non-Government institutions have to be sensitized about the situation of most African universities and lobbying can be done at individual university level. Efforts on this front can be of assistance in the provision of books for the library and provision of infrastructure such as boreholes and related equipment. When it comes to the library resources efforts also should centre on approaching national and foundations that have the interest of bringing books and journals to libraries of developing countries (Nwafor 1990).

4.2 Conclusion

Given the obtaining situation at the time of the establishment of Midlands State University, characterized by economic meltdown, the university authorities adopted a number of policies that were meant to increase revenue for the continued functioning of the university. This was done through are think of their strategy in terms of looking for extra sources of financing including establishing income-generating activities. These have gone a long way in improving the state of the university to the extent that the institution boasts of 6% and 5% of its resources being allocated to the library and research respectively. In addition, the
university programmes and projects are continuing smoothly owing to the efforts of the university authority in addressing the challenges of diminishing government funding. For continued development and enhancement of the university programmes and projects the research has made some observations and made recommendations for the improvement of this situation. The recommendations took cognizance of the role that the institutions themselves have to take care, the role of the state and reforms that need to be undertaken and finally the role of other actors to include international organization and other private companies.

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ANTIRETROVIRAL TREATMENT IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA: CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS

Edited by: Getnet Tizazu and Rahel Mesfin

This volume on challenges and prospects of ARV treatment in sub-Saharan Africa contains eight chapters contributed by academics and researchers from three African countries: four from Ethiopia, two from Uganda and two from Zimbabwe. The chapters are organized into four sections and convey some similarities and differences over the challenges and prospects of ARV treatment in the sub-region. The chapters are put into the four sections dealing with: 1) ART and quality of life, 2) Adherence to ART, 3) Traditional medicine and ART, and 4) Sexual behaviour of ART attendants. The chapters are the result of studies that employed quite a variety of methods, and is apparently balanced in terms of methodology.

In sum, the following key themes have been explored: Choice of treatment, exposure to HIV and AIDS, the role of traditional medicine in HIV and AIDS treatment services, exposure to HIV and AIDS, and future courses for the sustainability of ART programmes. Almost all authors, however, convey the need to conduct more empirical studies on the various aspects of the epidemic.
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