

**FACTORS INFLUENCING ADOPTION OF CLIMATE-SMART AGRICULTURE AS A
CLIMATE CHANGE ADAPTATION IN TIGANIA WEST-MERU COUNTY KENYA**

NICKSON WAFULA OKOTH

**A Research Project Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of
the Degree Master of Arts in Project Planning and Management**

University of Nairobi

2019

DECLARATION

This research project is my original work and has not been submitted for any degree award in any other university.

Signature

Date.....

Nickson Wafula Okoth

L50/9318/2017

This project is submitted for examination with my approval as research supervisor.

Signature

Date.....

Dr. John Mbugua,

Lecturer,

Department of Open learning programmes.

University of Nairobi

DEDICATION

This research project is dedicated to my beloved family for their support, encouragement and sacrifices during this engaging period with special mention going to Nicole, Jasmin, Janet, Eric, Eunice, Maureen, Jacinta & Irene, . I also dedicate this work to the farmers who untiringly toil every day in spite of a myriad of challenges to make sure our society has access to food.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Special appreciation and gratitude go to my supervisor Dr. John Mbugua for his invaluable academic contribution and positive criticism and direction; it is through his diligent guidance that this work has been shaped to its present form without forgetting Dr John M. Wanjohi whose insights and reference materials I relied on a lot.

I thank the University of Nairobi for giving me an opportunity to pursue this programme. I owe the completion of this project to the entire teaching and non-teaching staff at the University of Nairobi School of Open and Distance Learning especially at Meru Learning Centre for their assistance and guidance.

To my fellow students, Masters of Arts in project planning class of 2017/2018 – with mention of Christine Kanana, Silas Kaberia and Denis Ombaso - for the experiences and consultations shared which immensely shaped my perspective and understanding of project management.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	xii
ABSTRACT.....	xiii
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTON.....	1
1.1 Background of the study	1
1.2 Statement of the problem	3
1.3 Purpose of the Study	5
1.4 Research Objectives.....	5
1.5 Research Questions	6
1.6 Significant of the Study	6
1.7 Delimitation of the study	7
1.8 Limitations of the study	7
1.9 Basic assumptions of the study.....	7
1.10 Definition of significant terms	8
1.11 Organization of the Study.....	9
CHAPTER TWO	10
LITERATURE REVIEW	10
2.1 Introduction.....	10

2.2. Climate-Smart Agriculture adoption.....	10
2.3 Land tenure regime and adoption of Climate-Smart agriculture	11
2.4 Information access and adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture	13
2.5 Financial Services Market Access and Adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture.....	14
2.6 Agricultural inputs market access and Climate-Smart agriculture	14
2.7 Theoretical framework.....	15
2.8 Conceptual framework.....	17
2.9 Research gap	19
2.10 Summary of Literature Review.....	20
CHAPTER THREE	21
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	21
3.1 Introduction.....	21
3.2 Research Design.....	21
3.3 Target Population.....	21
3.4 Sample size and sampling procedures	22
3.5 Data collection Instrument.....	24
3.5.1 Pilot testing of Instrument.....	24
3.5.2 Validity of instrument.....	24
3.5.3 Reliability of instrument	25
3.6 Data collection procedures.....	25
3.7 Data analysis Techniques.....	26
3.8 Ethical consideration.....	26
3.9 Operation definition of variables	26
CHAPTER FOUR.....	28
DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS	28

4.1 Introduction.....	28
4.1.1 Response Rate.....	28
4.1.2 Reliability Analysis.....	28
4.2 General Information.....	29
4.2.1 Respondents’ Gender.....	29
4.2.2 Respondents’ Age Bracket.....	29
4.2.3 Respondents’ Highest Level of Education Attained.....	30
4.3 CSA Adoption.....	30
4.4 Information access (CSA).....	32
4.5 Land Tenure System.....	33
4.6 Agricultural Finance.....	36
4.7 Agricultural Inputs Market.....	38
4.8 Regression Analysis.....	40
CHAPTER FIVE.....	43
SUMMARY, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	43
5.1 Introduction.....	43
5.2 Summary of Findings.....	43
5.3 Discussion of the Findings.....	44
5.3.1 Information Access.....	44
5.3.2 Land Ownership System.....	45
5.3.3 Financial Services Access.....	46
5.3.4 Agricultural Inputs Market Access.....	46
5.4 Conclusions.....	47
5.5 Recommendations.....	48
5.6 Suggestion for Future Studies.....	49

REFERENCES.....	50
APPENDICIS	55
Appendix 1: Letter for transmittal to the respondents	55
Appendix II: Research questionnaire for farmers.....	56
Appendix III: Questionnaire for focus group discussion (FGD)	62
Appendix IV: Checklist for key informants.....	64
Appendix VII: Maize production and consumption trends in Kenya	65

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Sample size distribution.....	23
Table 3.2: Operationalization of variables.....	27
Table 4. 1: Response Rate.....	28
Table 4. 2: Reliability of Measurement Scales.....	28
Table 4. 3: Respondents' Gender.....	29
Table 4. 4: Respondents' Age Bracket.....	29
Table 4. 5: Respondents' Highest Level of Education Attained.....	30
Table 4. 6: Whether the Farmers Practiced CSA on their Farms.....	30
Table 4. 7: CSA Practices.....	31
Table 4. 8: Sources of CSA information.....	32
Table 4. 9: Frequency of Access to CSA Information.....	33
Table 4. 10: CSA Messages Received.....	33
Table 4. 11: Land Tenure of Farming Land.....	33
Table 4. 12: Size of Farm Land.....	34
Table 4. 13 Acquiring of Farming Land.....	34
Table 4. 14: Individual with Full Rights to Use the Main Land of Farming.....	34
Table 4. 15: Duration of Agreement Farmers had If Farming Was Done on Land Owned by Someone Else.....	35
Table 4. 16: Likelihood of the Farmers Practicing CSA on Their Own Land.....	35
Table 4. 17: Likelihood of the Farmers Practicing CSA on Land Owned By Someone Else.....	36
Table 4. 18: Major Source of Capital for Investing In Farming.....	36
Table 4. 19: Places of Credit Access.....	36
Table 4. 20: Purpose of the Credit Acquired.....	37
Table 4. 21: Whether Farmer had Taken Agricultural Insurance.....	37
Table 4. 22: Type of Farming Insurance.....	37
Table 4. 23: Places of Acquiring Information of the Inputs to Buy.....	38
Table 4. 24: Source of Farm Inputs.....	38
Table 4. 25: Distance from Homes to the Nearest Agro-Dealer Shop.....	39
Table 4. 26: How Often Farmers Got The Recommended Farm Inputs.....	39
Table 4. 27: Quality of the Input Accessed.....	40

Table 4. 28: Farmers' Satisfaction with the Prices of Inputs Used.....	40
Table 4. 29: Model Summary	40
Table 4. 30: ANOVA Test	41
Table 4. 31: Coefficients of Determination	41

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Conceptual framework 17

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ACT CA	African Conservation Tillage – Conservation Agriculture
AU	African Union
CA	Conservation Agriculture
CAADP	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Program
CSA	Climate-Smart Agriculture
CSOs	Civil Society Organisations
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation of United Nations
FAW	Fall Armyworm
FFS	Farmer Field Schools
FGDs	Focused Group Discussions
GACSA	Global Alliance on Climate Smart Agriculture
GAP	Good Agricultural Practices
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HH	Household
IPCC	International Panel on Climate Change
IPM	Integrated Pest Management
KIIs	Key Informant Interviews
KNBS	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
MAM	March – April – May rainfall
MT	Minimum Tillage
NACOSTI	National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation
NDMA	National Drought Management Authority
NGO	Non - Governmental Organizations
OND	October - November – December rainfall
PAFID	Participatory Approaches For Integrated Development
SD	Sustainable Development
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
TBL	Triple Bottom Line
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UON	University of Nairobi

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to investigate factors influencing adoption of climate-smart agriculture as a climate change adaptation in Tigania West-Meru County Kenya. The study was guided by four specific objectives, which were: To assess how land ownership system influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania west Sub County; To determine how information access influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania west Sub County; To determine how agricultural financial services access influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania west Sub County and lastly, to determine how agricultural inputs market access influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania West Sub County. The study was guided by the Sustainable development theory. The research design used a descriptive cross-sectional survey design with a sample size of 382 farmers that was sampled from a target population of 60,040 farmers using the Fisher's model sample size determination. Stratified random sampling technique was used to select respondents from the five wards. The data collection tool was a structured questionnaire, focus group discussion and key informant interviews. Descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentages) and inferential statistical analysis (correlation and multiple regression) were done, using Statistical Package for Social Sciences. Qualitative data that was obtained from the focus group discussions and the key informants was used to complement the quantitative data and be presented in narrative format. The research was relevant to Agricultural extension officers and other like-minded agencies in environmental conservation that got relevant insights that informed them to review their strategies and approaches in their quest to combat climate change. The study found that the farmer's main sources of CSA information were through other farmers. The study found that most of the farmers did not own their land and had between 1 - 5 acres of farming land. The study also found that all the farmers had access to credit to finance their farming business and accessed the credit through table banking/group savings & loaning. The study found that the farmers mostly got information of the inputs to buy from other farmers. The study concluded that land ownership system had the greatest influence on adoption of climate-smart agriculture in Tigania West in Kenya followed by agricultural inputs market access, then information access while agricultural financial services access had the least influence on the adoption of climate-smart agriculture in Tigania West in Kenya. The study recommended that that National and County governments to revamp extension initiatives bearing in mind the current technologies, make CSA implements accessible and provide a conducive environment for inputs and outputs market to operate efficiently. Further, there is a need for farmers to embrace collective action to mobilize resources through table banking, cost-sharing, collective input purchasing and collective output marketing.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTON

1.1 Background of the study

Climate Smart Agriculture involves various approaches that farmers and other players in the agricultural sector can use not necessarily as a whole but to maximize the synergies among them. This include; diversification of improved crop varieties that can survive diverse climatic conditions; soil and water conservation which involves the use of conservation agriculture; soil fertility improvement via agroforestry, application of optimum quantities of recommended fertilizer and use of well-decomposed organic manure; irrigation and rain water harvesting involving storage and supplying water to the form; mitigation of the negative impacts of climate variability. FAO (2016) Various climate change adaptation strategies available for farmers include but not limited to the following: - Changes in crop husbandry practices (site selection, timely planting, plant densities/population among others); Changes in livestock husbandry practices (feeding, animal health and movement among others); Soil and land use management, SLM (afforestation, soil erosion control, irrigation, water harvesting, tillage, soil fertility management, ground water recharging mechanisms among others); Livelihood management (Mixed farming opportunities, non-farming activities, migration among others) (Bryan et al 2011) Growing alternative crops, intercropping of alternative crop varieties, planting of drought-tolerant crop varieties, installing irrigation and water-harvesting techniques, insuring crops, instituting early warning and monitoring system, changing cropping patterns, diversifying on-farm and off-farm investment among other approaches are some of the measures that can be employed to reduce the adverse effects of climate change. (Ochieng et al 2016)

Sub-Saharan Africa's limited capacity to adapt, has made her particularly vulnerable to climate change impacts. (FAOSTAT 2010) places poverty rate in Kenya at 52% while 75% of the labour force depends on agricultural production for their livelihoods, poor farmers are most likely to experience a myriad of challenges as a result of climate change. IFPRI-KARI 2010 lists the following climatic change shocks that are most likely to be experienced by farmers; drought, floods, erratic rainfall patterns, hail-storms among others. The report goes further to list the

likely effects of the above climate change shocks to the farmer; loss of assets, loss of income, decline in crop yields, death of livestock, food insecurity, increased food prices among others.

According to Kenya Bureau of Statistics, KNBS, Agriculture has continued to be the back bone of Kenya's economy contributing up to 25.9% of the Gross Domestic Product. Various researchers have associated climate change to increase in temperature between 3° C and 4° C in Africa by the end of 21st Century. Due to this increase in Temperature, East Africa's rainfall means are likely to increase, but this won't result to increased agricultural productivity simply because of factors like poor rainfall distribution, timing among others. Kenya is likely to experience countrywide losses in production of staples such as maize. (Herrero et al, 2010)

Tigania West Sub County covers an area of 567.3 KM² with a population of 135,980 people which is projected to increase to 178,009 by the year 2022 covering her five wards namely; Mbeu, Nkomo, Kianjai, Akithi and Athwana. (KNBS 2009). The Sub County has been listed as having the highest level of firewood use in Meru County which stands at 94% as compared to the Meru County average of 81.9%. (Kenya Population & Housing Census Volume 1A 2009) Geographically, Tigania west is considered largely semi-arid especially in the western side bordering Isiolo County. It has a high dependency rate and an absolute poverty of 52% (NCAPD, 2005). This is way higher than national poverty index estimated to be 45.2% (KNBS 2009). These statistics exposes Tigania West dwellers to unbearable consequences of climate change and variation since according to (FAO 2016), poor nations are the ones likely to be heat hard by climate change effects since they have low coping mechanisms.

Climate adaptation can greatly reduce vulnerability to climate change effects by moderating potential damages, helping the rural communities cope with adverse consequences of climate change (IPCC, 2001). Adaptation to climate change would require concerted efforts involving various stakeholders who may include; policymakers, extension agents, Non-Governmental Organizations, researchers, communities and farmers. Climate smart Agriculture is an approach for transforming and re-orienting agricultural systems to support food security under the new realities of climate change (Lipper, 2014).

1.2 Statement of the problem

Global Challenges Foundation's 2018 report listed climate change as one of the biggest threats to humanity. Climate change may have devastating and irreversible consequences if appropriate measures are not taken currently. Climate change is estimated to have already reduced global yields of maize and wheat by 3.8% and 5.5% respectively, and several researchers warn of drastic declines in crop productivity if temperatures exceed critical physiological thresholds. Continued climate variability aggravates production quagmires and posing a challenge to farmers' coping ability (Lipper, 2014). Climate change poses a threat to food security for both rural and urban dwellers by lowering agricultural production and incomes, increasing risks and disrupting markets. The disruption of food production and markets, also pose population-wide risks to food supply. Global projections indicate that global agricultural food production will need to increase by 60 per cent by the year 2050 in order to meet increased demand – most of this will need come from increased productivity. Lipper et al (2014).

Agriculture was listed as the leading contributor to greenhouse emissions in Kenya according to World Resource Institute Climate Analysis tool (WRI CAIT). WRI CAIT estimates that in the year 2013, Agriculture was responsible for 62.8% of total greenhouse emissions followed at a distant by energy (31.2%), industrial processes (4.6%) and waste (1.4%). One of the biggest challenges facing the Kenyan government is to intensify food crop production so that farm output can keep up with the rapid population growth without necessarily increasing the size of the land devoted to food crops, especially milk and maize. Kabubo et al (2007).

There was a call to change the approach to planning and investment for agricultural growth and development in order to avert the risk of misallocating resources in generating agricultural systems that are incapable of supporting food security and instead exacerbating climate change Lipper et al (2014). It is for this case that there's need for climate-smart Agriculture – integrating climate change into the planning and implementation of sustainable agricultural strategies hence mitigating the adverse effects of climate change while ensuring food security. Lipper (2014). Climate change research identified several scenarios that are likely to affect agriculture. They include (1) rising temperatures around the world (2) rising levels of sea, (3) increased snow melt

and change in the volume and timing of water use for irrigation, and (4) increased probability of extreme events. (Stern, 2006).

Crop failure and associated risks are caused by increased temperature, more often heat waves incidences and dry-spells, decreased rainfall and change in rain on-set and/or cessation. This calls for adoption options which include changes in crop and livestock related management and collective action. However, it is believed that farmers lack access to resources and knowledge needed for adoption. Furthermore, farmers perception of climate change risks is often not consistent with measure risks hence the need to adjust CSA agricultural practices to be sensitive to issues like gender, local societal norms and cultural beliefs. (FAO, 2016)

AU Malabo Declaration (2014) on “accelerated Agricultural growth and transformation for the shared prosperity and improved livelihood” – commitment six requires that countries to commit towards enhancing resilience to climate change and variability. In her 2017 scorecard, Kenya scored poorly on the implementation of the commitment six of the Malabo Declaration at 3.40 out of a possible 10 points hence declared ‘not on track’ in terms of ensuring resilience to climate related risks and investment in resilience building. In recent years, various Climate-Smart Agricultural practices like Conservation Agriculture (CA) has been emphasized in Kenya as an alternative farming system especially for small-scale farmers to try and avert declining land productivity and climate change and variations. But even if there is a ‘perfect fit’, the farmer still has his or her own reasons to choose whether to switch to CA or not. The question that has been lingering in the minds of development agencies is “if approaches that are climate smart like CA yield immense benefits both to the farmer, ensures the farmers’ resilience against Climate change while mitigating against global warming, then why is it that its uptake still too low in spite of years of its advocacy?

According to Ministry of Agriculture, Various organizations have promoted the CSA climate Smart agriculture techniques in the country; including but not limited to the following: FAO, ACTN, PAFID, TIST, NCKK, CCK, Catholic Diocese of Kenya (Caritas), KENDAT among others. But according to FAO, less than 10% of farming can be considered as Climate Smart Agriculture. Very little research has been done to show the mentioned objectives are affecting the adoption of this whose rewards have been documented to be immense. Therefore, the

research is aimed at finding out the mentioned variables have contributed to slow uptake of this important technic.

NDMA Meru County Drought Early Warning Bullet for March 2019 lists Tignia West as having the lowest Food consumption score behind sub counties like Igembe North, Igembe Central and Tignia East. 96.7% of those interviewed by NDMA were on borderline while less than 10% of interviewees had acceptable food consumption score which was determined using the frequency of meals comprising of Cereals, Pulses and vegetables. NDMA report further notes that there has been dwindling vegetative coverage especially along the Meru-Isiolo Border which has occasionally sparked conflicts between communities who are mainly Agro-Pastoralists. The dwindling vegetation coverage is further worsened by the overreliance on firewood as a source of energy which NDMA puts at 94% being the highest in Meru County. The Sub County has been listed as having the highest level of firewood use in Meru County which stands at 94% as compared to the Meru County average of 81.9%. (Kenya Population & Housing Census Volume 1A 2009) Geographically, Tignia west is considered largely semi-arid especially in the western side bordering Isiolo County. It has a high dependency rate and an absolute poverty of 52% (NCAPD, 2005). This is way higher than national poverty index estimated to be 45.2% (KNBS 2009). These statistics exposes Tignia West dwellers to unbearable consequences of climate change and variation since according to (FAO 2016), poor nations are the ones likely to be heat hard by climate change effects since they have low coping mechanisms.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study will be to investigate factors influencing adoption of climate-smart agriculture as a climate change adaptation in Tignia West Meru County – Kenya.

1.4 Research Objectives

The study was guided by the following objectives:

- i. To assess how land ownership system influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tignia west Sub County.
- ii. To determine how information access influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tignia west Sub County.

- iii. To determine how agricultural financial services access influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania west Sub County.
- iv. To determine how agricultural inputs market access influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania West Sub County.

1.5 Research Questions

This study aimed at the following research questions:

- i. How does land ownership system influence adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania west Sub County?
- ii. How does access to information influence adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania west Sub County?
- iii. How does access to agricultural financial services influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania west Sub County?
- iv. How does access to agricultural inputs market influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania West Sub County?

1.6 Significant of the Study

The findings obtained from this study would be relevant to climate change policy makers and influencers including The Senate, The National Assembly, County assemblies, line ministries in government, among others as they endeavor to steer the sustainable development agenda. The donor agencies and non-governmental organizations (NGOs), Agricultural extension officers and other like-minded agencies in environmental conservation would get relevant insights that would inform them to review their strategies and approaches in their quest to combat climate change.

The study had relevance to a number of the 17 goals of the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). More directly the study fit in the following goals: SDG goal number one; end poverty in all its forms everywhere, SDG goal number two; zero hunger, attain food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture, SDG goal number thirteen; take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts. The study was also relevant to the President's Big four agenda – especially The Food security and Nutrition Agenda.

1.7 Delimitation of the study

The study focused on Tigania West Sub-County in Meru County sampling some of her five wards namely; Mbeu, Nkomo, Kianjai, Akithi and Athwana. This research study was conducted within a period of one month to cover the sampled Wards in Tigania West Sub-County of Meru County. Findings of this research were likely to be biased towards a scenario of arid and semi-arid since Tigania West is largely an ASAL according NDMA 2018 report. The main instrument of data collection that was employed in this survey was a structured household questionnaire which was administered with the help of research assistants. Bearing in mind Prewitt (1975) observation, "The more interviewers there are the more difficult it is for the researcher to maintain control over the research." This was more so the case where need arose for the interviewer to use his own figment in estimating, for example, actual size of land, sources of CSA messages. There was likely room for either overestimation or underestimation of the situations. Furthermore, aspects that require probing were likely to be left out or not prodded to the extent that was adequate. Further since this method involved direct interaction between the interviewers and the respondents one cannot rule out the possibility of this setting influencing the reaction of the respondent to questions posed to him/her.

1.8 Limitations of the study

In the course of the study there was experience of language barrier from some farmers especially during questionnaire administration. In order to go around this challenge, ten community members in Tigania West who could read and write and also were conversant with Kimeru, Swahili and English languages were employed as research assistants who were expected to help in interpreting the questionnaires to other farmers and for easy answering.

1.9 Basic assumptions of the study

It was assumed that most of the farmers were seasonal farmers who were exposed to vagaries of weather in their quest of earning a living through farming. Stakeholders that were interviewed were also assumed to be proponents of sustainable Agricultural practices. Finally, it was also generally assumed that research data obtained in this study was generally representative of the state of farmers.

1.10 Definition of significant terms

Climate change – refers to a shift in weather patterns observed over an extended period of time, usually over a decade as a result of direct and/or indirect human activities.

Adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture – refers to a scenario where a farmer adheres to the agricultural practices that sustainably increases agricultural productivity, enhances agricultural resilience, reduces greenhouse gases and enhances achievement of national food security and development goals. This include; diversification of improved crop varieties that can survive diverse climatic conditions; soil and water conservation (SLM) which involves the use of conservation agriculture (CA); soil fertility improvement via agroforestry, application of optimum quantities of recommended fertilizer and use of well-decomposed organic manure; irrigation and rain water harvesting involving storage and supplying water to the farm; mitigation of the negative impacts of climate variability.

Information Access – refers to the ease and means by which farmers gain access to relevant information regarding climate smart agriculture (CSA). This include sources of information, reliability and relevance of the information and if the information is up to date.

Land ownership/Tenure – refers to the legal regime either formally or informally by which individuals can own and/or use land. This includes the farm sizes, ownership structure, women rights to land use and ownership and succession.

Sustainable Agriculture – refers to farming practices and methods that maximizes agricultural productivity while safeguarding the environment for the benefit of the current generation without compromising the potential for future generation.

Input markets access - refers to the ease at which farmers in Tigania West access farm inputs with regards to; availability at a convenient distance; affordability and quality of inputs.

Agricultural finance access – refers to avenues from which farmers can get finances to cater for their farming needs. This includes credit sources, capital sources, and insurance facilities accessible to them.

1.11 Organization of the Study

This research proposal is organized into five chapters. Chapter one deals with the background of the study, purpose of the study, research objectives and research questions and relevance of the study. Chapter Two looks into the past literature in the area of climate-smart agriculture as a climate change adaptation, the explanation on the themes of the study objectives, conceptual framework, the theoretical framework and the knowledge gaps. Chapter Three looks at the research design, the target population, sample size that was used in the study, sampling techniques, data collection instruments, reliability and validity of data collection instrument, data collection procedures, methods of data analysis, operational definition of variables and lastly the ethical issues in the study. Chapter Four focuses on data analysis, presentation and interpretation. Chapter Five gives a summary of the research findings, discussions of key findings, conclusion and recommendations and lastly suggestions for farther research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter contains the review of some of the studies that have been carried out regarding factors affecting factors affecting adoption of climate-smart Agriculture as a climate-change mitigation and coping strategy. The literature review is divided into two main categories, namely; Theoretical review and empirical evidence. The empirical review is further divided into sub-categories that focuses on dependent and independent variables of the study. They are; role played by education, role played by land ownership/tenure system, information access impact, and role played by Agricultural Marketing. The chapter concludes with a conceptual framework which elaborates the hypothetical nexus between the independent and dependent variables

2.2. Climate-Smart Agriculture adoption

Human adoption of any economic activity is dependent on the cost benefit rationale. Rationale is however a product of existing knowledge. People often find it easier and beneficial to engage in activities that they understand and are skilled in. Climate-Smart Agriculture has the potential to improve the lives of small-scale farmers and enhance their resilience to climate change and variations, but since its initiation back in 2010 by FAO, less than 10% of farmers adopted the way of farmers FAO (2016). Lipper 2018 traces climate change policy change using Gupta 2010 framework which starts with the 1979 World Climate Conference and establishment of International Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) in 1988. Thereafter, the Rio Convention (1992) led to the creation of UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) in 1994; later, in 2001, the Kyoto Protocol was established.

The concept of Climate-smart Agriculture was first launched by Food and Agriculture Organization in 2010 in a paper prepared for the Hague conference on Agriculture, Food Security and climate change. The paper elaborated three main objectives; i) Sustainably increase food security by increasing Agricultural productivity and incomes in order to support equitable food security and development; ii) Build resilience and adapt to climate change; iii) Reduce and/or remove greenhouse gas emissions where possible (FAO 2010).

Climate-Smart Agriculture refers to an approach that aims to universally guide Agriculture management in light of Climate change. In light of this, various policy conferences have been held in follow to the Hague Conference on Agriculture, food security and climate change. They included; CSA policy conference in Hanoi Vietnam in 2012 and in Johannesburg South Africa, Global CSA science conference at Wageningen in 2011, followed by another at the University of California at Davis in 2013 and CIRAD Montpellier in 2015. These conferences culminated in creation of GACSA, Global Alliance on Climate-Smart Agriculture in 2014 which aimed to bridge the gap between science and policy aspects with emphasis on three key areas; 1) building relevant evidence-based criteria for assessing trade-offs and synergies amongst the three main objectives of CSA, 2) developing conducive policy environment that is required in coordinating climate change and agricultural policies, 3) investments and linkages to climate finance FAO (2018).

FAO highlights various specific strategies that plays a big role in CSA approach; Crop diversification with a bias to drought-tolerance variety and/or early maturing varieties; Conservation Agriculture (which include incorporation of Agroforestry, Minimum Tillage, Soil cover – which can either be a cover crop and/or crop residue retention, crop rotation/association), Integrated pest management (IPM) – which involves breeding for pest and disease resistant varieties, good agricultural practices (GAP) – which include integrated nutrient management and lastly, financial services ; which include risk transfer strategies like taking crop or livestock insurance, sources of capital for investment and sources of agricultural credit.

2.3 Land tenure regime and adoption of Climate-Smart agriculture

Land ownership in Kenya can be categorized into five main regimes: i) Communal ownership ii) Individual ownership iii) Lease ownership iv) Group ownership (society) and v) state-owned land. Each system gives the user of the land varied rights regarding what can or cannot be done on the land. Individual ownership (Individual Tenure system) refers to where land is owned by an individual who either operates or leaves it to another person under some sort of agreement. Harbeson, (2012).

Under Individual owner-operator, the farmer owns and operates the land. It offers a lot of freedom for the farmer to choose appropriate production plans, the owner may organize the land resource for profit maximization provides greatest incentive in farming, conservation and improvement of the land, the owner has incentive for long term investment in the land. Where the farmer has a title deed to the land, he can use it as a collateral/security to obtaining agricultural credit/loan. This system of land ownership is common in many parts of Kenya where land consolidation and registration has been done. However, lack of title deed has hampered some individuals from reaping the above-mentioned benefits. On the flipside, the system has been blamed for the increase in government cost for extension service, the system may encourage inequality in land ownership and resulting to poor land resource distribution, encourages land fragmentation which lowers land productivity and hampering agricultural mechanization Rigon (2016).

The landlordism and Tenancy land use arrangement refers to a scenario where the landlord transfers the right to use the land to a tenant at a payment. The landlord makes a formal or informal agreement where the tenant pays a certain rate as rent. By payment, the tenant gets the right to use the land. Where agreement is formal, both landlord and tenant know their obligations and the tenant has a legal backing hence some security of tenure. Landlordism/Tenancy system has can be said to have benefits like: landlords who cannot use land for any reason, get income after renting land to tenant; land is not left idle, hence contribute to agricultural production hence increasing production; the landless can rent land from landlords to earn livelihood and lastly, it ensures equitable distribution of land as natural resource. However, this arrangement has is fair share of downside which include but not limited to the following; in most cases, there is no incentive to improve the land; where the lease period is short, tenants may have no incentives to invest in expensive long term investment even if there is likelihood to increase the productivity of land; In the Kenya, land rates are not fixed by the government; this may lead to landlords overcharging the tenants and hence lose motivation in the investment in productive ventures of the land and lastly, In case of a short lease period, the tenant may just be concerned with profit while ignoring soil conservation (Rigon, 2016).

2.4 Information access and adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture

Nyasimi 2014 notes that limited knowledge regarding promising initiatives often lead to poor uptake of CSA interventions. Siting an example of Malawi farmers who have exhibited slow uptake of conservation agriculture – an approach of CSA, partly because of a poor understanding of the concept among extension workers and farmers as well. The inconsistent and conflicting advice about CSA confuses the farmers even farther. This situation is further worsened by the fact that, most capacity building programmes are project-based and donor-funded, which in most cases ceases once the project funding comes to an end. The over-reliance on donor-funded initiatives creates the hand-outs dependency syndrome hence the need for a local and reliable solution and investment as per the African Union (AU) Maputo Declaration on Agriculture and Food Security in Africa of 2003; “commitment to the allocation of at least 10 percent of national budgetary resources to agriculture and rural development policy implementation within five years”.

The history of research for development indicates that only a small fraction of the outputs of agricultural research has been adopted by next users (Extension officers, NGOs, institutions etc.) and end-users (beneficiaries, farmers, etc.) (Westermann et al 2015). Climate change escalates a significant urgency to the already wanting situation, and there is no good 'new' news on the climate change front: Hansen et al. (2015) Time is running out, and particularly for the poverty-stricken and malnourished of the developing countries. Therefore, the agricultural research for development players need to find new ways of ensuring that their research products contribute to development outcomes much faster than has fared in the past. Implementing Climate-Smart Agriculture practices requires a shift in the behavior and strategy of the several farmers. Rural Advisory Services can play an important role in transitioning to CSA and help build resilient food security systems if an enabling environment for their effective functioning is provided.

Enhancing the capacity of farmers to manage risk and adopt effective climate change adaptation and mitigation strategies requires special attention. The implementation of Climate Smart Agriculture innovations calls for the design of appropriate solutions adapted to the technical, institutional and policy related needs of the stakeholders involved. (FAO 2018). Agricultural extension can be referred as an educational service for advising, training, and informing the

farmer regarding scientific and practical matters relating to the farmers farm business, and influencing him/her to use improved techniques in his/her farming operations, for which this purpose, includes livestock and crop production, farm management, conservation and marketing. Bunyatta et al. (2006). Through his research, Bunyatta et al. 2006 found out that there's a strong link between Farmer Field Schools (FFS) and adoption of Agricultural innovation as compared to non-FFS farmers.

2.5 Financial Services Market Access and Adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture

Agricultural financial services include risk transfer strategies that a farmer can access which like insurance, contract farming and sources of agricultural capital. The AU Maputo Declaration on Agriculture and Food Security in Africa of 2003 which required each country to commit 10% of her national budgetary resources to agriculture and rural development policy implementation within five years"- is targeting 6% growth in GDP. In her financial year 2017/2018, Kenya allocated 2.3 percent of her annual budget to Agriculture, urban and rural development totaling Kes 38 billion. Bearing in mind, The Malabo Declaration 2014 which was of re-commitment to the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) implementation, the Kenyan Government committee 11.3% of her annual public expenditure to Agriculture, urban and rural development in the 2018/19 budget totaling to KSh. 190 billion. (Institute of Economic Affairs 2018). The allocation to agriculture in Meru County currently stands at 6.6% of public expenditure budget of 2018/2019.

2.6 Agricultural inputs market access and Climate-Smart agriculture

Agricultural inputs; certified seeds, fertilizers and organic manures agrochemicals and services, have an enormous potential to leverage the efforts of rural small-scale farmers. If used appropriately, they can significantly improve farm productivity, food security and increased profits. Nyasimi et al. (2014) assessed the impact of Agrodealers strengthening program which aimed at increasing farmers' access to inputs by reducing the distance travelled by farmers to reach an agrodealer from 40KM to 7KM resulting to 30% increase in fertilizer use and seeds which significantly increased productivity. The authors further recommend that responsive national regional markets should be encouraged to provide access to credit and financial schemes to enable farmers adopt new and emerging climate-smart technologies.

2.7 Theoretical framework

Theoretical framework can be referred to as a collection of interrelated concepts that guide the scope of a study. The framework introduces, describes and explains why the research problem under research exists. It aids in forecasting and understanding a phenomenon and presents a platform to contest and extrapolate existing knowledge within the realms of critical assumptions. This research alludes to the sustainable development theory which is defined as “that development that meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the potential of the future generations to cater for their own needs”. The theory was first postulated by economists Reverend Thomas Malthus in 18th century through his book; “An article on the Principles of population”, Malthus was concerned about the ever increasing and dynamic human needs that could easily outstrip the existing natural resources (Malthus, 1888). He foresaw a state of perpetual hunger, disease and struggle unless God intervened and curbed population explosion. Inspired by Malthus Charles Darwin another 18th century economist through a research concluded that the struggle between more and less fitness to survive was dependent on a natural selection process that filters and leaves the most appropriate and resilient specie to survive (Malthus, 1888).

Inherent in the definition of sustainable development are concepts of environmental stewardship and inter- and intergenerational equity. Efforts to define and address sustainability were born from the recognition that existing development patterns cannot proceed without jeopardizing the environmental systems necessary to sustain life and economies, and that significant disparity within and between generations is neither sustainable, ethical, nor in tune with development goals Hammer and Pivo (2017). Hammer & Pivo (2017) notes that practically, sustainable development calls for the “integration of economic, environmental, and social objectives across sectors, territories, and generations.” hence, sustainable development demands the elimination of fragmentation among the environmental, social, and economic concerns which must be integrated throughout decision making processes in order to move towards development that is truly sustainable. They farther correlate the concept of SD to the Triple Bottom Line (TBL) which refers to economic environment and social value of an investment. The term TBL (which

is sometimes referred to as the 3Ps; People, Planet and Profit) was first coined by John Elkington in the 1990s with the aim of more accurately value assets and leverage resources, so that capital is employed as efficiently and effectively as possible. Darwin's "survival for the fittest" theory cast doubt on the survival of subsequent generations thanks to the ever-increasing population that has fewer choices, they either put their act together or the nature takes its course (Baker, 2012). The repercussions of climate change have left the human race scampering for survival - frequent droughts, more incidences of heat waves, and increased flooding incidences - have been a real threat to humanity in the recent years. There are fatal conflicts and uprising incidences in many African nations sparked and fueled by perception of limitation - which is regrettable. A little innovation coupled with deliberate efforts can unearth and or increase resources to sustainably support human survival.

The concept of sustainable development is anchored on the balance of different and often competing needs against an awareness of the underlying environmental, social, and economic limitations. It goes beyond taking care of the available resources to ensuring a strong, healthy and just society by meeting people's diverse needs, promoting well-being, social cohesion, inclusion, and creating equal opportunity among communities (Dasgupta, 2007). Sustainable development is therefore a deliberate effort by all individuals to make good decisions, plan, and pursue viable alternatives that place resources in the best use to serve current and future human needs (Baker, 2012).

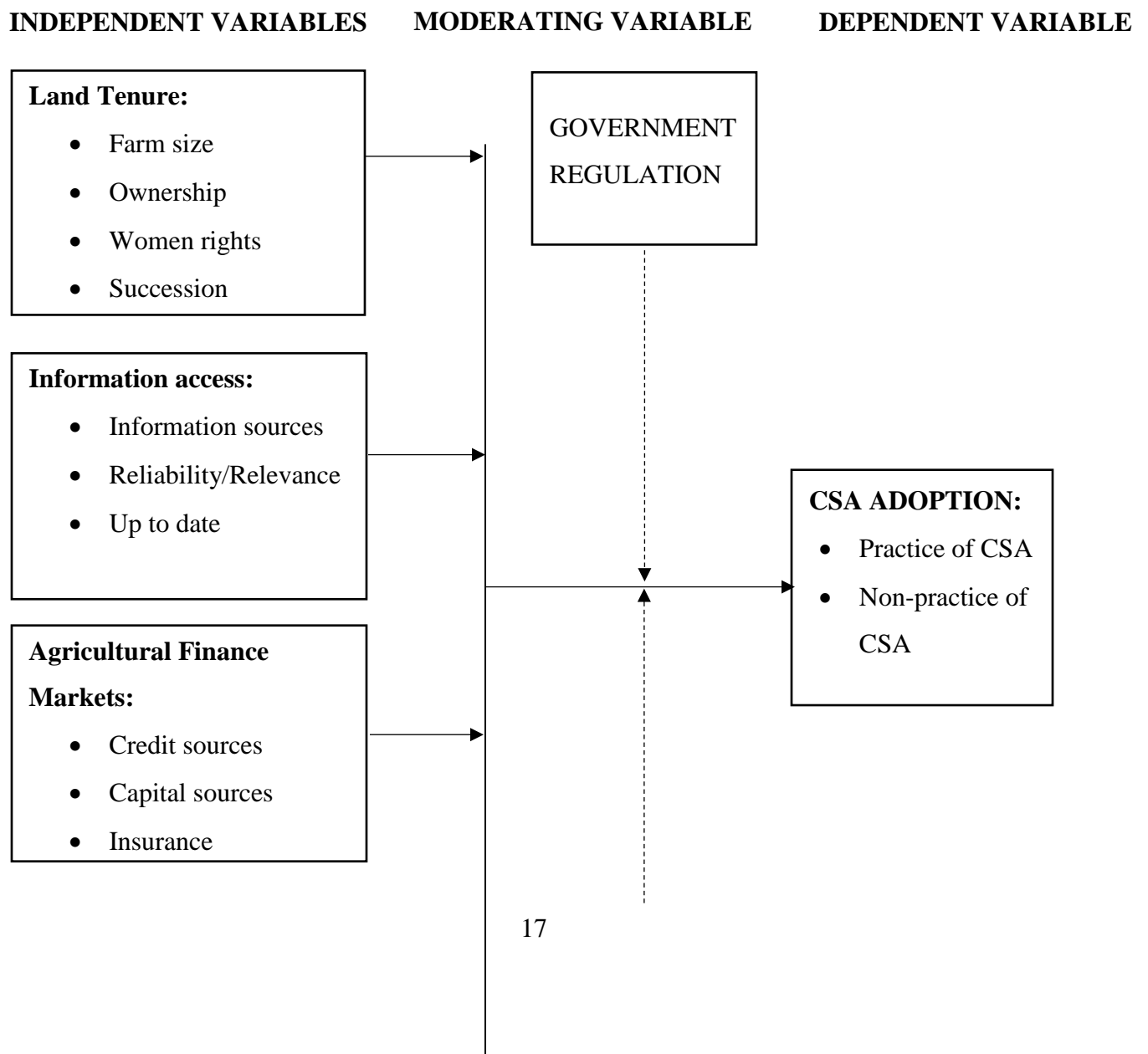
Adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture is a deliberate sustainable development effort since Agriculture is said to be the back-bone of Kenya's economy, contributing up to a quarter the country's GDP while offering above three-quarters of employment opportunities both directly and/or indirectly KNBS (2009). However, Agriculture has been listed as the biggest contributor to GHGs – stresses the point adopting CSA in order sustainably feed the human race. Maize is undoubtedly one of the staple foods of Kenya (Fleming et al. 2016). However, maize production in Kenya has been fluctuating due to the high dependence on rain-fed agricultural production. FAO-KE maize statistics shows volatile variation in maize output over the years, for instance, in 2010 the country produced 3,464,541 tons of maize translating to 7.8 bags (90kg) per acre of maize while in 2017 the country produced 3,186,000 tons of maize translating to 3.1 bags (90kg) per acre. The huge

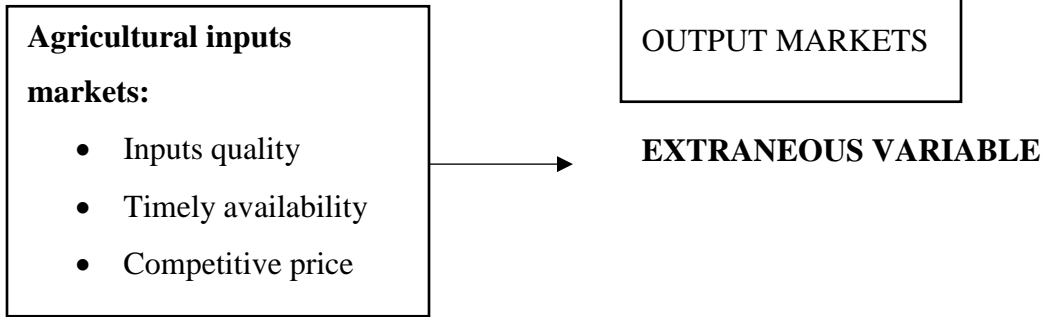
drop in maize production can be attributed to bad weather experienced in 2017 which prompted the government to order maize from abroad. Nyoro et al. (2004) estimated Kenya's per capita consumption to range

2.8 Conceptual framework

The conceptual framework on the adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania West in Meru County is illustrated by the figure below. It conceptualizes that adoption of CSA in Tigania West in Meru County is dependent on education level of the farmers, land tenure system, CSA information access and also on agricultural markets.

Figure 1: Conceptual framework





2.9 Research gap

Objective	Past Studies	Authors	Literature gap
To assess how land ownership system influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture.	These studies revolved around how land and related factors influenced the adoption of CSA but looked at Land issue in general	Harvey et al 2014 Lyster 2011	These studies did not clearly cover land tenure as an indicator for CSA adoption. This study examined how various land ownership systems influences CSA adoption
To determine how information access influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture	These studies revolved around how information access influenced the adoption of one specific aspect of CSA but not on a broad spectrum.	Juyasooriya & Aleegar 2016 Murage et al 2015 Muriithi et al 2016 Pierapaoli et al 2013	These studies just focused on access to information with little regard on the reliability of the information. This study examined the extent of conflicting messages
To determine how agricultural financial services access influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture.	These studies revolved around how financial access influenced the adoption of CSA but looked at different indicators.	Wossen et al 2017 Jerop et al 2018 Mutunga et al 2018	These studies were biased towards carbon credits and access to credit while very little focus on other sources of capital- This study sought to encompass these other financial services since they complement each other
To determine how agricultural inputs market access influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture.	These studies revolved around how markets influenced the adoption of CSA but generalized inputs markets and outputs markets	Mottaleb et al 2016 Mutunga et al 218	These studies lumped together the markets of inputs and outputs. This study aimed to focus on Input market access as a stand-alone variable

2.10 Summary of Literature Review

Literature review for this study focused at review of the literature on climate agriculture available from various sources. Very little has been done in the area of adoption of CSA as most literature looked at the economics of adoption and the benefits of adoption of CSA. However, there is little information on factors affecting adoption of CSA. Therefore, the report was informative and could be used as a reference for future work on CSA. The theoretical framework also gave one major theory under which this research was underpinned which was covered in this chapter as well. A lot of literature on adoption of CSA was reviewed as seen in the gaps in literature reviewed table. However, this study looked into the similarities and differences of the results of the research and the conclusions contained in the literature reviewed.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter covers; description of research design, target population, sample and sampling procedures, research instruments, methods of data collection procedures and methods of data analysis, operational definitions of variables and ethical issues.

3.2 Research Design

Kothari (2003) defines research design as the structure of conditions for collection and analysis of data in manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose and stipulates the road-map for collection, measurement and analysis of data. In this study, descriptive field research design was employed simply because, descriptive research design describes the situation it is at present considering in this case where the researcher has no control over the variables, one can only document what is occurring or what has occurred. A descriptive research approach tries to expressly describe attitudes towards a particular situation (Bryman, 2015). It relied on the premise that if a statistically significant nexus exists between two variables, then it is possible to construe one variable using the information gathered on another variable (Kothari, 2011). In addition, descriptive research design presents an opportunity to collect an array of data that give explanation to research questions and logically configure the inquiry into the problem of study, Marsh (1982). Qualitative information was also collected from respondents' group discussions (FGDs) and key informants (KIIs) during the study.

3.3 Target Population

Target population refers to all items in the specified field of inquiry which can also be referred to as the universe (Kothari 2011). According to Cooper & Schindler, (2014), a study population refers to individuals, households, or organizations with more or less similar attributes about which a researcher wants to draw inferences. By 2009, Tigania West had 29,810 households, 44.8% of the population in Tigania West are engaged in farming which translates to 60,919 farmers (KNBS, 2009). Therefore, the target population for this study was 60,919 farmers.

3.4 Sample size and sampling procedures

Sample refers to a subset of a population identified for observation, measurement, or question, to provide statistical information regarding the population Bryman (2015). To ensure a good representation among Tigania West farmers, stratification of the target population was done with the assistance of the Tigania West Administrative Wards using probability proportional to size. The study made use of the probability proportion sampling size, a process entails dividing the size of the final unit and giving bigger Wards a bigger chance of selection and smaller one's lower chances (Abdulla et al., 2014). This was relevant whenever the sampling units differ in size to ensure that those in bigger wards have similar likelihoods of getting into the sample like those in smaller wards. The stratified random sampling is whereby respondents are identified in a manner that the existing sub-groups in the population will be more or less reproduced in the sample (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2012). This technique was relevant where most population are segregated into several mutually exclusive sub-populations or strata (Bryman, 2015; Cooper & Schindler, 2014). In descriptive research design, 30% of the accessible population is sufficient (Mugenda and Mugenda 2008). Given a population of 60,040 farmers, 30% would require 18,012 respondents. However, (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970) suggested the formula below in the determination of sample size:

$$s = \frac{X^2 NP(1-P)}{d^2(N-1) + X^2 P(1-P)}.$$

Where:

s = required sample size.

X^2 = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841).

N = the population size.

P = the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this would provide the maximum sample size).

d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05).

Using the table generated by the above formula, target population of 60,040 farmers required a sample simple of 382 farmers. This sample was representative of the population in giving the desired characteristics because it was spread across all the area of study. The five wards namely; Mbeu, Nkomo, Kianjai, Akithi and Athwana. in the Tigania West Sub-County was used as stratum for sampling. Stratified random sampling was used as it accorded each sampling element an equal chance of selection while guarding against clustering of selected elements in one point. This was necessary since each ward had its own uniqueness in terms of ecological zones and agricultural potential. This was calculated as the population of individual category of farmers divided by the total population of all categories (target population) multiplied by the sample size of 382 farmers.

$$\frac{\text{Population of the ward}}{\text{Total Target Population}} \times 382$$

Stratified random sampling gave all the individuals in the defined sample an equal chance of being picked as a respondent for the study, (Orodho 2014). Every stratum applied simple random sampling technique to choose participants. Determination of the sample size followed proportionate to size sampling methodology as specified by Anderson et al. (2016). A representative sample was selected according to the five Wards as shown in *Table 3.1* In each stratum, a listing of farmers was made and samples selected at random.

Table 3.1: Sample size distribution

Ward	Farmer Population	%	Sample	Strata
ATHWANA	8,160	14%	382	52
AKITHI	14,741	25%	382	94
KIANJAI	15,134	25%	382	96
NKOMO	10,109	17%	382	64
MBEU	11,896	20%	382	76
Total	60,040	100%	382	382

3.5 Data collection Instrument

Mugenda and Mugenda (2012) and Cooper and Schindler (2011) defined data collection instruments as the tools and procedures used in the measurement of variables in research. A questionnaire containing closed and open-ended questions was used to collect data from farmers since this one of the most commonly used data collection tools (Creswell, 2011). A questionnaire refers to a technique of data collection by which each respondent is requested to respond to the same set of questions in a certain order (Cooper & Schindler, 2011; Burns & Burns, 2012). Questionnaires were used as they have an advantage of collecting data from several respondents within a reasonable time, minimize costs and can accord respondents some time to think through their responses and are relatively easy to administer and score (Kothari, 2011). In addition, focus group discussion using an FGD guide was used. Discussions and consultations with key informants were done using a questionnaire. The questionnaire was formulated in a way to make sure that all factors essential to the study were considered.

3.5.1 Pilot testing of Instrument

It is recommended that pilot studies should be conducted among at least 10 % of the sample Simon (2011). While Hill (1998) recommends 10 to 30 participants for pilots in survey research. The respondent for pilot study were expected to display similar characteristics as the actual study respondents. Therefore, pilot testing were conducted in Kianjai, Mbeu and Nkomo wards since they possess almost similar characteristics as adjacent wards that were left out. A total of 40 farmers were randomly selected for testing the instrument – this translates to 10.5% the sample as recommended by Simon (2011).

3.5.2 Validity of instrument

The validity of the instrument can be considered by the extent by which the test components being sampled depict the content the study it is supposed to measure Kombo and Tromp (2006). Therefore, the validity of instruments was determined in consultation with the supervisor to strike out irrelevant questions. It was important to point out that findings that were obtained in the pre-testing study were not used in the final report but were vital for purposes of testing the research instruments.

3.5.3 Reliability of instrument

Reliability is the extent to which an instrument gives results that are consistent Mugenda and Mugenda (1999). The research instruments were reviewed in consultation with the research supervisor in order to enhance their validity in order to ensure valid and reliable information was captured. Test re-test technique was used to confirm the consistency of results and thus its reliability. In this study, the reliability of the instruments was checked using the test-re-test technique simply because it's easier to administer and understand. This technique aimed to the test of consistency between separate administrations to determine the coefficient for this type of reliability; the same questionnaire was given to the identified set of farmers on at least two separate occasions of fourteen days apart. The test was done in the second week of May and Retest conducted in the third week of May. The questionnaires were expected to yield similar results. Then to find the test re-test reliability coefficient, the correlation between the test and the re-test were calculated using the formulae for correlation coefficient below:

$$r = \frac{n(\sum xy) - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{\{n(\sum x^2) - (\sum x)^2\}\{n(\sum y^2) - (\sum y)^2\}}}$$

Where:

n is the total number of pairs of test and retest scores.

x is the total number of famers who took the test

y is the total number of farmers who took the Re-test

r is the measure of liner relationship between x and y

r is expected to range between (- 1) and (+1)

3.6 Data collection procedures

Introduction letter from the University of Nairobi and a research permit from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) were sort through online application via NACOSTI website where relevant documents and payments were submitted. The researcher and research assistants thereafter systematically issued introduction letters and administered the questionnaires to the identified farmers and stakeholders. The farmers and

stakeholders were randomly selected from the Ward agricultural office data base. Farmers who were able to fill the questionnaire by themselves were allowed to do so while those who had difficulties to read and write were assisted by the research assistants

3.7 Data analysis Techniques

Kerlinger (1973) defined data analysis refers to categorizing, summarizing and manipulating information gathered in order to answer the research questions. A careful analysis of the filled questionnaires was conducted in order to ensure that collected data was consistent with other information. The questionnaires were then coded in order to eliminate unusable data and outliers, interpretation of ambiguous answers and contradictory information from closely related questions. A coding scheme was developed for the responses to each question in order to facilitate the development of an appropriate data structure to enable its entry into the computer. The study used data entry and storage by the aid of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) then data was analyzed using descriptive statistics. The data was tabulated into tables and others figures while frequencies and percentages were used in the discussion of the findings.

3.8 Ethical consideration

High degree of respondent's confidentiality was maintained by ensuring that the identity of the respondent was not revealed. Respondent's consent was sought before the actual data collection exercise and only those who were voluntarily willing to share their information were considered for the interviews. Permission from the relevant authorities was sought to allow the collection of information from respondents.

3.9 Operation definition of variables

It explains the exact way of measuring a variable. Table 3.2 shows the kind of variables and their signs, and manner of measuring in the study course.

Table 3.2: Operationalization of variables

Objective	Variable	Indicators	Measurements	Measurement Scales	Type of Analysis
To assess how land ownership system influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture approaches in Tigania west Sub County.	Land ownership system	Farm size Ownership regime Women rights succession	Acreage/HH Freehold Hired Lease period Subdivision # of Women ownership	Nominal Interval	Descriptive Correlation Regression
To determine how information access influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture	Information access	Information sources Reliability Updated	Extension Officers CSA messages Frequency of visits	Interval Nominal Interval	Descriptive Correlation Regression
To determine how agricultural financial services access influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture approaches in Tigania west Sub County.	Financial access	Credit access Capital Access Insurance	Sources of credit Sources of capital # of insurance covers	Nominal Nominal Interval	Descriptive Correlation Regression
To determine how agricultural inputs market access affects adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture approaches in Tigania West Sub County.	Inputs market	Inputs quality Inputs availability Inputs price	#of fake/adulterated inputs cases Distance to agro-dealers # of cases of lack of key inputs Perception on price of inputs	Interval Interval Interval Nominal	Descriptive Correlation Regression
	<u>Dependent Variable</u> CSA Adoption	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CSA practice • Non-practice of CSA 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Practice of Climate-Smart Agriculture by farmers 	Ordinal	Descriptive Correlation Regression

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter begins by considering the return rate of questionnaires administered by the researcher. The background information of the respondents is also discussed in detail. Data that was collected was analyzed, presented and interpreted as guided by the research questions.

4.1.1 Response Rate

The researcher targeted 382 respondents were targeted to respond to questionnaires. However, fully filled questionnaires were collected from 295 respondents giving a response rate of 77.2%. According Jankowicz (2010), a response rate of 50 percent or more is acceptable for analyses.

Table 4.1: Response Rate

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Response	295	77.2
No response	87	22.8
Total	382	100.0

4.1.2 Reliability Analysis

In this study, construct reliability was determined using The Cronbach's Alpha that test internal consistency of items on a scale and were thus considered reliable if the as the results showed that the The Cronbach's Alpha of the variables of the study were above 0.70 threshold as recommended by Bell (2010) where it is asserted that The Cronbach's Alpha should be in excess of 0.70 for the measurement intervals. The results of the reliability analysis are presented in the Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Reliability of Measurement Scales

	Cronbach's Alpha	Decision
Land ownership system	.818	Reliable
Information access	.772	Reliable
Agricultural financial services	.802	Reliable
Agricultural inputs market access	.862	Reliable
Adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture	.783	Reliable

From Table 4.2 it was found that agricultural inputs market access (Cronbach's Alpha =0.862) was the most reliable followed by land ownership system (Cronbach's Alpha = 0.818) then agricultural financial services (Cronbach's Alpha =0.802), adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture (Cronbach's Alpha =0.783) while Information access (Cronbach's Alpha =0.772) was the least. It illustrates that all the five variables were reliable as their reliability values exceeded the prescribed threshold of 0.7. This, therefore, depicts that the research instrument was reliable and therefore required no amendments.

4.2 General Information

The study sought to know general information of the respondents by examining their gender, level of education and age bracket. This was of great importance for it gave the researcher a clue of who is filling the questionnaires and be able to know if the respondents are the targeted ones and whether the information given is the correct one they're seeking.

4.2.1 Respondents' Gender

The study sought after the respondents' their gender. Their responses were presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Respondents' Gender

	Frequency	Percent
Male	131	44.4
Female	164	55.6
Total	295	100.0

From the findings, most of the respondents were female as shown by 55.6% while the rest were male as shown by 44.4%. This implies that the researcher acquired the data irrespective of the gender hence the information was reliable.

4.2.2 Respondents' Age Bracket

The researcher asked the respondents to indicate their age bracket. Table 4.4 is a summary of their replies.

Table 4.4: Respondents' Age Bracket

	Frequency	Percent
16- 30 years	61	20.7

31-45 years	69	23.4
46-60 years	86	29.1
Over 60 Years	79	26.8
Total	295	100.0

The findings also reveal that 29.1% are aged between 46-60 years, 26.8% were over 60 Years, 23.4% are aged between 31-45 years, while 20.7% of the respondents were aged 16- 30 years. This implies that the researcher got information from various age groups and hence the data was reliable.

4.2.3 Respondents' Highest Level of Education Attained

The researcher enquired on the respondents' highest level of education. Table 4.5 is a summary of their replies.

Table 4.5: Respondents' Highest Level of Education Attained

	Frequency	Percent
Primary education	96	32.5
Secondary education	69	23.4
Tertiary education	41	13.9
Never went to school	89	30.2
Total	295	100.0

From the results, 32.5% had attained primary education, 30.2% never went to school, and 23.4% had attained secondary education while 13.9% had attained tertiary education. The results implied that most of the respondents had acquired basic education and could give accurate and reliable information on subject matter.

4.3 CSA Adoption

The findings revealed that 100% of the farmers were aware of Climate-Smart Agriculture (CSA). The researcher sought to know if the farmers practiced CSA on their farms. Table 4.6 shows the replies.

Table 4.6: Whether the Farmers Practiced CSA on their Farms

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	109	36.9
No	186	63.1
Total	295	100.0

The findings reveal that only 36.9% of the farmers adopted CSA while 63.1% did not. Further, the farmers indicated the CSA practices they did on their farms on Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: CSA Practices

	Frequency	Percent
Appropriate crop selection (early maturing, drought tolerant varieties)	155	30.8
Conservation Agriculture (Minimum Tillage, Soil cover, Crop rotation)	131	26.0
SLM (Sustainable Land Use Management; Terraces, reclamation etc.)	82	16.3
Soil fertility management (Application of optimum quantities of recommended fertilizers and manures)	56	11.1
Agroforestry/Afforestation	25	5.0
Diversification of household income streams (Both on-farm and Off-farm)	16	3.2
Agricultural Insurance	11	2.2
Installed irrigation and water harvesting techniques?	04	0.8
IPM (Integrated Pest Management)	04	0.8
Permaculture	02	0.4
Good livestock husbandry practices	17	3.4
Total	503	100.0

From the responses, 30.8% practiced appropriate crop selection (early maturing, drought tolerant varieties) 26.0% of the respondents indicated that they practiced conservation Agriculture (Minimum Tillage, Soil cover, Crop rotation), 16.3% practiced SLM (Sustainable Land Use Management; Terraces, reclamation etc.), 11.1% practiced soil fertility management (Application of optimum quantities of recommended fertilizers and manures), 5.0% practiced agroforestry/afforestation, 3.4% practiced good livestock husbandry practices, 3.2% practiced diversification of household income streams (Both on-farm and Off-farm) 2.2% indicated to having taken Agricultural Insurance, 0.8% had installed irrigation and water harvesting techniques, 0.8% practiced IPM (Integrated Pest Management), while 0.4% practiced permaculture.

From the focus group, the farmers indicated that they formed the group in 2012 as a platform for Merry-Go-Round and Table banking, collective bulk purchasing of inputs, addressing challenges faced by members as they practice farming; share the both indigenous and latest knowledge; aggregation of farm outputs and collective marketing. The respondents indicated that the group’s main activities included risk management, Good agricultural practices (GAPs) and good handling practices (GHPs) and environmental regulations. The respondents also indicated that not all members practice CSA since they don’t know how to use new technology, availability of equipment and reliable information regarding climate-smart agriculture.

Findings from this focus participants show that adoption of climate-smart agriculture is low, which could both be attributed to the type of farming system and resource availability and high labour demand that were cited by farmers.

4.4 Information access (CSA)

The study aimed to determine how information access influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania west Sub County. The researcher required the respondents to specify their main source of CSA information. The results were presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Sources of CSA information

	Frequency	Percent
Barazas	17	05.8
Extension workers	79	26.8
Internet/Social media/mobile phones	14	04.7
Other farmers	98	33.2
Print media (Newspapers etc)	10	03.4
Radio/TV stations	77	26.1
Total	295	100.0

As per the results, 33.2% indicated that they received CSA information through other farmers, 26.8% indicated that they received CSA information through extension workers; 26.1% indicated through Radio/TV stations; 5.8% of the respondents indicated through barazas, 4.7% indicated through Internet/Social media/mobile phones, while 3.4% indicated through Print media (Newspapers etc). Further, the farmers were required to indicate the frequency in which they had access to CSA information. Table 4.9 shoes the findings.

Table 4.9: Frequency of Access to CSA Information

	Frequency	Percent
Frequently	164	55.6
Promptly (Whenever needed)	96	32.5
Rarely	26	08.8
Never	9	03.1
Total	295	100.0

Results reveal that 55.6% indicated frequently, 32.5% indicated promptly (Whenever needed), 8.8% indicated rarely, 3.1% indicated never. Moreover, the researcher requested the respondents to indicate how they considered the CSA messages they receive. Table 4.10 shows the findings.

Table 4.10: CSA Messages Received

	Frequency	Percent
Reliable/Actionable	109	36.9
Conflicting/Contradicting/Confusing	95	32.2
Unreliable/Less actionable	82	27.8
Not Applicable	9	03.1
Total	295	100.0

The results show that 36.9% of the respondents found the CSA messages to be reliable/actionable, 32.2% indicated that they were conflicting/contradicting/confusing, 27.8% indicated that they were not applicable while 3.1% indicated that the CSA messages were unreliable/less actionable.

4.5 Land Tenure System

The study sought to assess how land ownership system influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania west Sub County. The researcher required the respondents to indicate land tenure of the land they had been farming. Table 4.11 displays the results.

Table 4.11: Land Tenure of Farming Land

	Frequency	Percent
Entirely own land	104	35.2
Entirely Not your own on land	56	19.0

Both	135	45.8
Total	295	100.0

The findings reveal that 45.8% indicated that they are farming on both their own land and land owned by someone else, 35.2% indicated that they entirely farm on their owned land, while 19.0% of the respondents indicated that they entirely do farming on land that is not their own land. The respondents were further asked their size of farm land. The responses were as shown on Table 4.12.

Table 4.12: Size of Farm Land

	Frequency	Percent
Below 1 acre	93	31.5
1 - 5 acres	123	41.7
5 - 10 acres	45	15.3
Over 10 acres	34	11.5
Total	295	100.0

The findings reveal that 41.7% had 1 - 5 acres, 31.5% had below 1 acre, and 15.3% had 5 - 10 acres while 11.5% had over 10 acres. Further, the respondents specified how they had acquired their farming land. The results were as shown on Table 4.13.

Table 4.13 Acquiring of Farming Land

	Frequency	Percent
Freehold	239	81.0
Leased/Hired	41	13.9
Communal land	13	4.4
Squatter	02	0.7
Total	295	100.0

The results reveal that of the respondents indicated that 81.0% had freehold, 13.9% had leased/hired, and 4.4% had communal land, while 0.7% were squatters. Also, the respondents were asked to indicate the person who had full rights to use the main land of farming. Table 4.14 shows the responses.

Table 4.14: Individual with Full Rights to Use the Main Land of Farming

	Frequency	Percent
Self	55	18.6
Parent	71	24.1
Husband	89	30.2
Wife	11	3.7

Sibling	13	4.4
Other (Lessor, community)	56	19.0
Total	295	100.0

The responses showed that 30.2% indicated husband, 24.1% indicated parent, 19.0% indicated other (Lessor, Community), 18.6% indicated self and 4.4% indicated sibling while 3.7% indicated wife. Also, the study sought to determine the duration of agreement the farmers had if farming was done on land owned by someone else.

Table 4.15: Duration of Agreement Farmers had If Farming Was Done on Land Owned by Someone Else

	Frequency	Percent
Less than 1 year	96	32.5
1 – 2 years	68	23.1
2 – 3 years	21	7.1
Over 3 years	6	2.0
Not Applicable	104	35.3
Total	295	100.0

The results revealed that 32.5% indicated less than 1 year, 23.1% indicated 1 – 2 years, 7.1% indicated 2 – 3 years, and 2.0% indicated over 3 years while 35.3% indicated not applicable. Further, the respondents were asked to indicate the likelihood of the farmers practicing CSA on their own land. Table 4.16 shows their responses.

Table 4.16: Likelihood of the Farmers Practicing CSA on Their Own Land

	Frequency	Percent
Most likely	98	33.2
Likely	89	30.2
Somewhat likely	66	22.4
Unlikely	29	9.8
Unknown	13	4.4
Total	295	100.0

The results showed that 33.2% of the respondents indicated most likely, 30.2% indicated likely, 22.4% indicated somewhat likely and 9.8% indicated unlikely while 4.4% indicated unknown. The respondents were also asked the likelihood of them practicing CSA on land that they are farming but owned by someone else. Table 4.17 displays the findings.

Table 4.17: Likelihood of the Farmers Practicing CSA on Land Owned By Someone Else

	Frequency	Percent
Most likely	66	22.4
Likely	29	9.8
Somewhat likely	99	33.6
Unlikely	89	30.2
Unknown	12	4.0
Total	295	100.0

The responses revealed that the respondents indicated that it was somewhat likely (33.6%), it was unlikely (30.2%), it was most likely (22.4%), and it was likely (9.8%) while it was unknown (4.0%).

4.6 Agricultural Finance

The study further sought to determine how agricultural financial services access influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania west Sub County. The researcher required the respondents to indicate their major source of capital for investing in farming. Table 4.18 reveals the findings.

Table 4.18: Major Source of Capital for Investing In Farming

	Frequency	Percent
Credit	77	26.1
Off- farm income	114	38.6
On-farm income	104	35.3
Total	295	100.0

The results reveal that 38.6% of the respondents indicated through off- farm income, 35.3% indicated through on-farm income while 32.4% indicated through credit. Further, 100% of the respondents indicated that they had access to credit to finance their farming business. Table 4.19 shows results on the places where farmers get credit from.

Table 4.19: Source of Credit Access

	Frequency	Percent
Agro-Dealer input loan	69	23.4
Financial Institutions (Bank, MFIs)	55	18.6
Mobile Telephony	74	25.1

Table banking/Group Savings/loaning	97	32.9
Total	295	100.0

The findings show that 32.9% of the respondents indicated table banking/group savings/loaning, 25.1% indicated mobile telephony, 23.4% indicated Agro-Dealer input loan and 18.6% indicated Financial Institutions (Bank, MFIs). Further the farmers indicated the purpose of the credit acquired as shown on Table 4.20.

Table 4.20: Purpose of the Credit Acquired

	Frequency	Percent
To buy farm inputs	82	27.8
To pay farming labour	46	15.6
To buy/Hire farm machinery	91	30.8
To lease more farming land	76	25.8
Total	295	100.0

The findings revealed 30.8% of the respondents acquired the credit to buy/Hire farm machinery, 27.8% indicated to buy farm inputs, 25.8% indicated to lease more farming land while 15.6% indicated to pay farming labour. The farmers also agreed that they were aware of Agricultural Insurance and were asked if they had taken any Agricultural Insurance. The responses were as shown on Table 4.21.

Table 4.21: Whether Farmer had Taken Agricultural Insurance

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	77	26.1
No	218	73.9
Total	295	100.0

From the findings, 73.9% had indicated that they had not taken agricultural insurance while 26.1% indicated that they have had. Table 4.22 shows the type of farming insurance that the farmers had taken.

Table 4.22: Type of Farming Insurance

	Frequency	Percent
Crop micro insurance	69	23.4
Livestock micro insurance	8	2.7
Total	77	26.1

The findings revealed that 23.4% of the farmers had acquired the crop micro insurance while 2.7% had acquired the livestock micro insurance.

4.7 Agricultural Inputs Market

The study also sought to determine how agricultural inputs market access influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania West Sub County. The researcher asked the respondents to specify where they mostly got information of the inputs to buy. The results were as shown on Table 4.23.

Table 4.23: Places of Acquiring Information of the Inputs to Buy

	Frequency	Percent
Barazas	19	6.4
Extension workers	38	12.9
Agro-dealer sales reps	63	21.4
Internet/Social media/mobile phones	35	11.9
Other famers	80	27.1
Print media (Newspapers etc)	13	4.4
Radio/TV stations	47	15.9
Total	295	100.0

The findings show that 27.1% indicated through other famers, 21.4% indicated through agro-dealer sales reps, 15.9% indicated through Radio/TV stations, 12.9% indicated through extension workers, 11.9% of the respondents indicated through Internet/Social media/mobile phones, 6.4% indicated through Barazas, while 4.4% indicated through Print media (Newspapers etc.). Further, the farmers were asked to indicate how they often source their farm inputs. Table 4.24 shows the results.

Table 4.24: Source of Farm Inputs

	Frequency	Percent
Order online	59	20.0
Agro-Vet shop	124	42.0
Itinerant Agro-Inputs vendor	77	26.1
Direct from Agro-input company	35	11.9
Total	295	100.0

The findings reveal that 42.0% of the respondents sourced their farm input from agro-vet shops, 26.1% from Itinerant Agro-Inputs vendor, 20.0% order online while 11.9% direct from Agro-input Company. The respondents also indicated the distance from their homes to the nearest Agro-Dealer shop.

Table 4.25: Distance from Homes to the Nearest Agro-Dealer Shop

	Frequency	Percent
Less than 1KM	77	26.1
Between 1- 5 KMs	124	42.0
Between 5 – 10 KMs	79	26.8
Over 10 KMs	15	5.1
Total	295	100.0

From the results, 26.1% indicated less than 1KM, 42.0% indicated between 1- 5 KMs, 26.8% indicated between 5 – 10 KMs while 5.1% indicated over 10 KMs. The respondents were further required to indicate how often they got the recommended farm inputs. The results were as shown on Table 4.26.

Table 4.26: How Often Farmers Got the Recommended Farm Inputs

	Frequency	Percent
Always get all the recommended farm inputs I require whenever I want them	79	26.8
Sometimes get all the recommended farm inputs I require whenever I want them	124	42.0
Rarely do I get all the recommended farm inputs I require whenever I want them	77	26.1
Never gotten all the recommended farm inputs I require whenever I want them	15	5.1
Total	295	100.0

The findings revealed that 42.0% sometimes got all the recommended farm inputs they required whenever they wanted them, 26.8% of the respondents always got all the recommended farm inputs they required whenever they wanted them, 26.1% rarely got all the recommended farm inputs they required whenever they want them, while 5.1% never got all the recommended farm

inputs they required whenever they wanted them. Table 4.27 shows the responses on the quality of the input the farmer's access.

Table 4.27: Quality of the Input Accessed

	Frequency	Percent
Mostly of good quality (perform as expected)	72	24.4
Somewhat of good quality (give average results)	118	40.0
Rarely are of good quality (Give below average results)	78	26.4
Often of poor quality (Yield poor results)	27	9.2
Total	295	100.0

The findings reveal that 40% got somewhat good quality (give average results), 26.4% rarely are of good quality (Give below average results), 24.4% of the respondents got mostly of good quality (perform as expected) and 9.2% often of poor quality (Yield poor results). Further, the respondents were asked how satisfied they were with the prices of inputs they typically used. Results were as shown on Table 4.28.

Table 4.28: Farmers' Satisfaction with the Prices of Inputs Used

	Frequency	Percent
Very satisfied	83	28.1
Somewhat satisfied	74	25.1
Not satisfied	138	46.8
Total	295	100.0

The results show that 46.8% of the respondents were not satisfied, 25.1% were very satisfied while 28.1% were somewhat satisfied.

4.8 Regression Analysis

Regression analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between factors influencing adoption of climate-smart agriculture in Tigania West Meru County – Kenya.

Table 4. 29: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.851	0.725	0.721	0.496

From the Table 4.29, the adjusted R square for the adoption of climate-smart agriculture in Tigania West was 0.721; this meant that independent variables were statistically significant. This

implied that 72.1% variations in adoption of climate-smart agriculture in Tigania West are explained by land ownership system, information access, agricultural financial services access and agricultural inputs market access. The remaining 27.9% was explained by other institutional factors influencing adoption of climate-smart agriculture in Tigania West that were not covered in this study.

Table 4. 30: ANOVA Test

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	179.121	4	44.780	179.735	.000
Residual	68.017	273	0.249		
Total	247.138	277			

The findings from Table 4.30 show that the p-value was 0.000 and was less than 0.05. The F-calculated was 179.735 and was greater than F-critical (2.4047). This reveals that the model could predict the outcome of the relationship between the independent variables (land ownership system, information access, agricultural financial services access and agricultural inputs market access) and adoption of climate-smart agriculture in Tigania West.

Table 4. 31: Coefficients of Determination

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.267	0.182		6.962	.000
Land ownership system	0.812	0.196	0.714	4.143	.000
Information access	0.712	0.208	0.611	3.423	.001
Agricultural financial services access	0.568	0.208	0.462	2.731	.007
Agricultural inputs market access	0.771	0.312	0.672	2.471	.015

The established model for the study was:

$$Y = 1.267 + 0.812X_1 + 0.712X_2 + 0.568X_3 + 0.771X_4$$

Where: -

Y= Adoption of climate-smart agriculture in Tigania West

X₁= Land ownership system

X₂= Information access

X₃= Agricultural financial services access

X₄= Agricultural inputs market access

The study found that if all independent variables(land ownership system, information access, agricultural financial services access and agricultural inputs market access) were held constant at zero, then the adoption of climate-smart agriculture in Tigania West will be 1.267 which is significant since $p = 0.000 < 0.05$. The findings obtained also show that Land ownership system is 0.812 which is significant since $p=0.000$ is less than 0.05, meaning that when a unit change in land ownership system leads to 0.812 units change in adoption of climate-smart agriculture in Tigania West.

The study further found that a unit change in information access changes would lead to a 0.712 units change in adoption of climate-smart agriculture in Tigania West. The variable was significant since $p=0.01 < 0.05$. Further, the findings show that a unit change in agricultural financial services access changes would lead to 0.568 units change in adoption of climate-smart agriculture in Tigania West in Kenya. The variable was significant since $p\text{-value}=0.007$ is less than 0.05. The study also found that a unit change in agricultural inputs market access changes would lead to 0.771 units change in adoption of climate-smart agriculture as a climate change adaptation in Tigania West in Kenya. The variable was significant since $p\text{-value}= 0.015$ is less than 0.05.

Overall, land ownership system had the greatest influence on adoption of climate-smart agriculture in Tigania West in Kenya followed by agricultural inputs market access, then information access while agricultural financial services access had the least influence on the adoption of climate-smart agriculture in Tigania West in Kenya. All the variables were significant since their $p\text{-values}$ were less than 0.05.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the summary of the findings from chapter four, and also it gives the discussions, conclusions and recommendations of the study based on the objectives of the study. The objective of this study was to investigate factors influencing adoption of climate-smart agriculture as a climate change adaptation in Tigania West Meru County – Kenya.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The study aimed to determine how information access influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania west Sub County. The study found that the farmers' main sources of CSA information were through barazas, other farmers, internet/social media/mobile phones, print media (Newspapers etc), Radio/TV stations and extension workers . Further, the study found that most of the farmers had frequent access to CSA information and that CSA messages were reliable/actionable.

The study sought to assess how land ownership system influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania west Sub County. The study found that most of the farmers did not own their land and had between 1 - 5 acres of farming land. The study also found that the farmers acquired land by leasing/hiring, communal land, squatting and through freehold. The study found that most of the people with full rights to use the main land of farming were parents. The study found that most of agreement if farming was done on land owned by someone else was for 1 – 2 years and also the farmers would most likely practice CSA on their own land and were likely to practice it on land owned by someone else.

On agricultural financial services access, the study found that the major source of capital for investing in farming was off- farm income, credit and on-farm income. The study also found that all the farmers had access to credit to finance their farming business and accessed the credit through table banking/group savings/loaning, Agro-Dealer input loan, mobile telephony and Financial Institutions (Bank, MFIs). Further the study found that farmers acquired credit to buy/hire farm machinery, to lease more farming land, to buy farm inputs and to pay farming

labour. The study also found that all the farmers were aware of Agricultural Insurance and most of them had taken crop micro insurance and livestock micro insurance.

The study also sought to determine how agricultural inputs market access influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania West Sub County. The study found that the farmers mostly got information of the inputs to buy from Internet/Social media/mobile phones, other famers, Barazas, agro-dealer sales reps, Radio/TV stations, 8 Print media (Newspapers etc) and extension workers. Further, the study found that farmers sourced their farm input from agro-vet shops, Itinerant Agro-Inputs vendor, ordered online and directly from Agro-input Company. The study found that majority of the farmers were less than 1KM away from the nearest Agro-Dealer shop. Also, a majority of the farmers always got all the recommended farm inputs they required whenever they wanted them. The study also found that the farmers got inputs mostly of good quality (perform as expected). The study also found that most of the respondents were not satisfied with the prices of inputs they typically used.

The study found that all the farmers were aware of Climate-Smart Agriculture (CSA) and majority of them practiced CSA on their farms. The study found that the farmers practiced conservation Agriculture (Minimum Tillage, Soil cover, Crop rotation), appropriate crop selection (early maturing, drought tolerant varieties), soil fertility management (Application of optimum quantities of recommended fertilizers and manures), 7 diversification of household income streams (Both on-farm and Off-farm), SLM (Sustainable Land Use Management; Terraces, reclamation etc), installed irrigation and water harvesting techniques, IPM (Integrated Pest Management), permaculture, agroforestry/afforestation, Agricultural Insurance and good livestock husbandry practices.

5.3 Discussion of the Findings

5.3.1 Information Access

The study found that the farmers' main sources of CSA information were through other farmers, extension workers internet/social media/mobile phones, print media (Newspapers etc), Radio/TV stations and barazas. Nyasimi 2014 notes that limited knowledge regarding promising initiatives often lead to poor uptake of CSA interventions. The inconsistent and conflicting advice about CSA confuses the farmers even farther. This situation is farther worsened by the fact that, most

capacity building programmes are project-based and donor-funded, which in most cases ceases once the project funding comes to an end. Farmer to farmer knowledge transfer was found out to be the most common in Tigania West which is consistent with Farmer Field Schools Approach (FFS).

Further, the study found that most of the farmers had frequent access to CSA information and that CSA messages were reliable/actionable. The farmers are accessing CSA information from various sources frequently – the information they term as reliable and actionable but still more is yearned in terms of adoption of CSA approaches. According to Hansen et al. (2015), the agricultural research for development players need to find new ways of ensuring that their research products contribute to development outcomes much faster than has fared in the past. Implementing Climate-Smart Agriculture practices requires a shift in the behavior and strategy of the several farmers. Rural Advisory Services can play an important role in transitioning to CSA and help build resilient food security systems if an enabling environment for their effective functioning is provided. Enhancing the capacity of farmers to manage risk and adopt effective climate change adaptation and mitigation strategies requires special attention.

5.3.2 Land Ownership System

The study found that most of the farmers did farming on both their own land and the land owned by someone else and majority of whom are farming on land size that is between 1 - 5 acres. The study also found that the farmers acquired land by freehold, leasing/hiring, communal land, and through squatting. Harbeson (2012) noted that Land ownership in Kenya can be categorized into five main regimes: i) Communal ownership ii) Individual ownership iii) Lease ownership iv) Group ownership (society) and v) state-owned land. Each system gives the user of the land varied rights regarding what can or cannot be done on the land. Being able to not only do farming on their own land also on land owned by someone else is a good is commendable in terms of increased land under agriculture but the situation brings about other issues that the researcher was also focused on.

The study found that in most cases, husbands have full rights to the use of the land. Which means that majority of women who do farming on a particular land, have no full rights with regards to decision-making on the use of land. The research found out parents still have full rights to land in

spite of the fact that their children are using the land farming. This brings to the fore the issue of land ownership succession. The parents are seemingly reluctant to give their descendants full rights to the use of the land. This leads to the land users being reluctant to implement CSA initiatives. The study found that the length of agreement if farming was done on land owned by someone else was less than one year and also the farmers would most likely practice CSA on their own land while were somewhat likely to practice it on land owned by someone else. Rigon (2016) argues that the landlordism and Tenancy land use arrangement refers to a scenario where the landlord transfers the right to use the land to a tenant at a payment. The landlord makes a formal or informal agreement where the tenant pays a certain rate as rent.

5.3.3 Financial Services Access

On agricultural financial services access, the study found that the major source of capital for investing in farming was off- farm income, on-farm income and credit. The study also found that all the farmers had access to credit to finance their farming business and accessed the credit through table banking/group savings/loaning, Agro-Dealer input loan, mobile telephony and Financial Institutions (Bank, MFIs). Further the study found that farmers acquired credit to buy/hire farm machinery, to lease more farming land, to buy farm inputs and to pay farming labour. The study also found that all the farmers were aware of Agricultural Insurance but just few of them had taken crop micro insurance and livestock micro insurance. Institute of Economic Affairs (2018) mentions that Agricultural financial services include risk transfer strategies that a farmer can access which like insurance, contract farming and sources of agricultural capital.

5.3.4 Agricultural Inputs Market Access

The study found that the farmers mostly got information of the inputs to buy from other famers, agro-dealer sales reps, Radio/TV stations, extension workers, Internet/Social media/mobile phones, Barazas, and Print media (Newspapers etc). Further, the study found that farmers sourced their farm input from agro-vet shops, Itinerant Agro-Inputs vendor, ordered online and directly from Agro-input Company. Nyasimi et al. (2014) mentions that responsive national

regional markets should be encouraged to provide access to credit and financial schemes to enable farmers adopt new and emerging climate-smart technologies.

The study found that majority of the farmers travel between one kilometer to five kilometers in order to reach to the nearest Agro-Dealer shop. Also, a majority of the farmers sometimes got all the recommended farm inputs they required whenever they wanted them. The study also found that the farmers got inputs somewhat of good quality (perform as expected). The study also found that most of the respondents were not satisfied with the prices of inputs they typically paid. Nyasimi et al. (2014) assessed the impact of Agro-dealers strengthening program which aimed at increasing farmers' access to inputs by reducing the distance travelled by farmers to reach an agrodealer from 40KM to 7KM resulting to 30% increase in fertilizer use and seeds which significantly increased productivity.

5.4 Conclusions

The study concludes that information access has a positive and significant influence on the adoption of CSA in Tigania West. The study concluded that more CSA training for farmers, government extension staff working at the local level, and use of communication tools to share and promote knowledge on CSA use to combat the global challenge of climate change are essential. Further, the study deduced that understanding barriers and enabling conditions to CSA adoption helps in designing and formulating extension messages and agricultural policies that can accelerate CSA dissemination and help safeguard agricultural production and food security. The CSA messages need to be packaged in a manner that is reliable, actionable, devoid of conflicting messages that may lead to CSA dis-adoption or lowly implemented.

The study concluded that land tenure system has a positive and significant influence on the adoption of CSA in Tigania West. The study also concluded that not all CSA practices require the same level of tenure security in order to encourage productivity- enhancing investment by farmers and herders. As compared with some conventional agricultural practices, many CSA investments require greater assurance and longer duration of rights. More emphasis should be channeled towards small-scale farmers and interventions that are suitable to these categories of farmers bearing in mind the continuous land fragmentation.

The study also concluded that agricultural inputs market access positively influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania West Sub County. The study concluded that when the inputs are made accessible, in satisfactory qualities and competitive prices to the farmers then more will be produced without having to increase land under agriculture hence being climate-smart.

5.5 Recommendations

However, to ensure that many farmers are empowered to benefit more from the improved agricultural practices, this study recommends that National and County governments to revamp extension initiatives bearing in mind the current technologies. This could be achieved by increasing and motivating farmer trainers to train more farmers, promoting farmer-to-farmer learning, and harmonizing CSA messages, establishing demonstration plots in their farms and organizing for additional field days and learning tours for farmer groups to build their capacity on CSA practices.

To overcome some of the financial constraints to adoption of CSA practices at the local level, as suggested by farmers themselves, there is a need for them to embrace collective action to mobilize resources through table banking, merry-go-rounds, cost-sharing and group credit access. Farmers also felt that strengthening capital bases on the existing farmer groups would provide the required group collaterals to access credit facilities. Deliberate arrangements are required to support farmer-to-farmer dissemination of promising improved practices. A reward mechanism requiring that non-participating farmers be periodically allowed to visit model farms maintained by participating farmers, will ensure that those farmers who are not necessarily in groups are also adopting climate-smart agricultural practices. This way the adoption of CSA practices will get entrenched and more economic and environmental benefits realized by many farmers. Sensitization of community members about the effects of climate change should be made participatory with farmers taking center stage in championing for the mitigation measures through lobbying and advocacy. Farmer-Centered civil society organisations should be encouraged to take the leading role in combating the effects of climate change and demand changes in policies governing farming.

Access to markets, credit and extension services and other information sources are found to play a crucial role in increasing CSA uptake. Therefore, it is important to focus on policies and plans that improve market access and enhance agricultural credit facilities and the quality of extension services. Dissemination of CSA knowledge and its role in climate risk mitigation is critical to promote it.

The study also deduced that agricultural financial services access influences adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Tigania west positively and significantly. The study concluded that access to credit and other income sources provides resources for long-term investments in CSA and are two proxies for market orientation. Access to capital – credit facilities and off-farm income – has positive impact towards enabling farmers to access CSA equipment and farm inputs with ease. This will definitely boost food production without necessarily increasing the acreage under agriculture. By so doing, the farmers will be able to meet the needs of current generation without compromising the potential of future generation to meet their needs.

5.6 Suggestion for Future Studies

The study focused on factors influencing adoption of climate-smart agriculture as a climate change adaptation in Tigania West Meru County – Kenya. The study suggests a similar study to be done in other counties so as to compare the findings. The study also recommends that a study to be done on factors influencing performance of climate-smart agriculture projects.

REFERENCES

- Abdulla, F., Hossain, M. & Rahman, M. (2014). On the Selection of Samples in Probability Proportional to Size Sampling: Cumulative Relative Frequency Method, *Mathematical Theory and Modeling*, 4 (6), 102-107
- Boden, T. A., Marland, G., & Andres, R. J. (2009). Global, regional, and national fossil-fuel CO₂ emissions. *Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, US Department of Energy, Oak Ridge, Tenn., USA doi, 10.*
- Branca, G., McCarthy, N., Lipper, L., & Jolejole, M. C. (2011). Climate-smart agriculture: a synthesis of empirical evidence of food security and mitigation benefits from improved cropland management. *Mitigation of climate change in agriculture series*, 3, 1-42.
- Braun, A., & Duveskog, D. (2011). The Farmer Field School approach—History, global assessment and success stories. *Background paper for the IFAD Rural poverty report.*
- Brown, O., Hammill, A., & McLeman, R. (2007). Climate change as the ‘new’ security threat: implications for Africa. *International affairs*, 83(6), 1141-1154.
- Bryan, E., Ringler, C., Okoba, B., Roncoli, C., Silvestri, S., & Herrero, M. (2013). Adapting agriculture to climate change in Kenya: Household strategies and determinants. *Journal of environmental management*, 114, 26-35
- Buchbinder, E. (2011). Beyond checking: Experiences of the validation interview. *Qualitative Social Work*, 10(1), 106-122.
- Bunyatta, D. K., Mureithi, J. G., Onyango, C. A., & Ngesa, F. U. (2006). Farmer field school effectiveness for soil and crop management technologies in Kenya. *Journal of International Agricultural and Extension Education*, 13(3), 47-63.
- FAO, 2010. Climate-Smart Agriculture: Policies, Practices and Financing for Food Security, Adaptation and Mitigation. Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), Rome, Italy.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (2011). *Predicting and changing behavior: The reasoned action approach*. Psychology Press.

- Goodman, B. (2014). The debate on climate change and health in the context of ecological public health: a necessary corrective to Costello et al.'s 'biggest global health threat', or co-opted apologists for the neoliberal hegemony. *Public health*, 128(12), 1059-1065.
- Hammer, J., & Pivo, G. (2017). The triple bottom line and sustainable economic development theory and practice. *Economic Development Quarterly*, 31(1), 25-36.
- Harbeson, J. W. (2012). Land and the quest for a democratic state in Kenya: bringing citizens back in. *African Studies Review*, 55(1), 15-30.
- Harvey, C. A., Chacón, M., Donatti, C. I., Garen, E., Hannah, L., Andrade, A., & Clement, C. (2014). Climate- smart landscapes: opportunities and challenges for integrating adaptation and mitigation in tropical agriculture. *Conservation Letters*, 7(2), 77-90.
- Howland, F., Andrieu, N., & Bonilla-Findji, O. (2018). Understanding socioeconomic aspects influencing CSA adoption.
- Jerop, R., Dannenberg, P., George Owuor, G., & Mshenga, P. (2018). Factors affecting the adoption of agricultural innovations on underutilized cereals: The case of finger millet among smallholder farmers in Kenya. *African Journal of Agricultural Research*, 13(36), 1888-1900.
- Johnson, S., & Nino-Zarazua, M. (2011). Financial access and exclusion in Kenya and Uganda. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 47(3), 475-496.
- Kabubo-Mariara, J., & Karanja, F. K. (2007). *The economic impact of climate change on Kenyan crop agriculture: A Ricardian approach*. The World Bank.
- Kiruja, L. K. (2013). *Factors Influencing The Growth Of Youth Owned Micro And Small Enterprises In Tigania West Division, Meru County, Kenya* (Doctoral dissertation, Doctoral dissertation, University of Nairobi).
- Klerkx, L., & Leeuwis, C. (2008). Matching demand and supply in the agricultural knowledge infrastructure: Experiences with innovation intermediaries. *Food policy*, 33(3), 260-276.
- Knight, J., Weir, S., & Woldehanna, T. (2003). The role of education in facilitating risk-taking and innovation in agriculture. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 39(6), 1-22.

- Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and psychological measurement*, 30(3), 607-610.
- Lin, J. Y. (1991). Education and innovation adoption in agriculture: evidence from hybrid rice in China. *American Journal of Agricultural Economics*, 73(3), 713-723.
- Lipper, L., McCarthy, N., Zilberman, D., Asfaw, S., & Branca, G. (Eds.). (2017). *Climate smart agriculture: building resilience to climate change* (Vol. 52). Springer.
- Lipper, L., Thornton, P., Campbell, B. M., Baedeker, T., Braimoh, A., Bwalya, M., ... & Hottle, R. (2014). Climate-smart agriculture for food security. *Nature climate change*, 4(12), 1068.
- Long, T. B., Blok, V., & Coninx, I. (2016). Barriers to the adoption and diffusion of technological innovations for climate-smart agriculture in Europe: evidence from the Netherlands, France, Switzerland and Italy. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 112, 9-21.
- Lyster, R. (2011). REDD+, transparency, participation and resource rights: the role of law. *Environmental science & policy*, 14(2), 118-126.
- McCarthy, N., Lipper, L., & Branca, G. (2011). Climate-smart agriculture: smallholder adoption and implications for climate change adaptation and mitigation. *Mitigation of Climate Change in Agriculture Working Paper*, 3, 1-37.
- Meijer, S. S., Catacutan, D., Ajayi, O. C., Sileshi, G. W., & Nieuwenhuis, M. (2015). The role of knowledge, attitudes and perceptions in the uptake of agricultural and agroforestry innovations among smallholder farmers in sub-Saharan Africa. *International Journal of Agricultural Sustainability*, 13(1), 40-54.
- Mottaleb, K. A., Krupnik, T. J., & Erenstein, O. (2016). Factors associated with small-scale agricultural machinery adoption in Bangladesh: Census findings. *Journal of rural studies*, 46, 155-168.
- Mutua John & Wamalwa Noah (2018) Budget Analysis 2018: Institute of Economic affairs.
- Läpple, D., & Hennessy, T. (2014). Exploring the role of incentives in agricultural extension programs. *Applied Economic Perspectives and Policy*, 37(3), 403-417.

- Mutunga, E. J., Ndungu, C. K., & Muendo, P. (2018). Factors Influencing Smallholder Farmers' Adaptation to Climate Variability in Kitui County, Kenya.
- Mwongera, C., Shikuku, K. M., Winowiecki, L. A., Okolo, W., Twyman, J., & Läderach, P. (2014). Climate smart agriculture rapid appraisal (CSA-RA) report from the Southern Agricultural Growth Corridor of Tanzania (SAGCOT).
- NCAPD, M. (2005). Adolescent Reproductive Health and Development Policy: Plan of Action 2005–2015. *Nairobi, Kenya: National Council for Population and Development.*
- NDMA. (2017). Meru North 2017 LRA Food security Assessment report. Meru: National Drought Management Authority, NDMA.
- NDMA. (2018). Meru North 2018 Long Rains food security Assessment report. Meru: National Drought Management Authority, NDMA; Kenya Food Security Steering Group (KFSSG) and Meru North County Steering Group
- Nyasimi, M., Amwata, D., Hove, L., Kinyangi, J., & Wamukoya, G. (2014). Evidence of impact: climate-smart agriculture in Africa.
- Ochieng, J., Kirimi, L., & Mathenge, M. (2016). Effects of climate variability and change on agricultural production: The case of small-scale farmers in Kenya. *NJAS-Wageningen Journal of Life Sciences, 77*, 71-78.
- Orodho, J. (2012). Techniques of writing research Proposals and reports in Education and Social Sciences Research methods. *Maseno: Kareja Publishers.*
- Prewitt, K. (1975). Introductory research methodology: East African applications.
- Rasheed Sulaiman V 2018 A Policy Brief: Enabling advisory services for climate-smart agriculture. FAO.
- Richardson, K. (2009). Global Risks, Challenges & Decisions.
- Richardson, K., Steffen, W., & Liverman, D. (Eds.). (2011). *Climate change: Global risks, challenges and decisions.* Cambridge University Press.

- Rigon, A. (2016). Collective or individual titles? Conflict over tenure regularization in a Kenyan informal settlement. *Urban Studies*, 53(13), 2758-2778.
- Siedenburg, J., Martin, A., & McGuire, S. (2012). The power of “farmer friendly” financial incentives to deliver climate smart agriculture: a critical data gap.
- Thuranira, N. M., & Mwangi, B. N. (2018). INFLUENCE OF STRATEGIC PLANS EXECUTION ON ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE IN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN TIGANIA WEST SUB COUNTY, KENYA. *Journal of Education and Practices*, 1(1), 13-13.
- Tubiello, F. N., Salvatore, M., Rossi, S., Ferrara, A., Fitton, N., & Smith, P. (2013). The FAOSTAT database of greenhouse gas emissions from agriculture. *Environmental Research Letters*, 8(1), 015009.
- Van Hulst, F. J., & Posthumus, H. (2016). Understanding (non-) adoption of conservation agriculture in Kenya using the reasoned action approach. *Land Use Policy*, 56, 303-314.
- Vercauteren, M. (2013). Impact of conservation agriculture (CA) on water conservation and yield in Nanyuki, Kenya.
- Wambugu, S. W., Chomba, S. W., & Atela, J. (2014). Institutional arrangements for climate-smart landscapes. *Climate-smart landscapes: Multifunctionality in practice*, 257-274.
- Westermann, O., Thornton, P. K., & Förch, W. (2015). Reaching more farmers: innovative approaches to scaling up climate-smart agriculture.
- Wollenberg, E. K., Campbell, B. M., Holmgren, P., Seymour, F., Sibanda, L. M., & Braun, J. V. (2011). Actions needed to halt deforestation and promote climate-smart agriculture.
- Zeller, M., Diagne, A., & Mataya, C. (1998). Market access by smallholder farmers in Malawi: Implications for technology adoption, agricultural productivity and crop income. *Agricultural Economics*, 19(1-2), 219-229.

APPENDICIS

Appendix 1: Letter for transmittal to the respondents

University of Nairobi,
School of Open and Distance Learning,
Meru Learning Center,
P. O. Box 3054-60200,
Meru.

Dear respondents,

RE: REQUEST TO FILL QUESTIONNAIRE

I am a student undertaking Masters of Arts Degree in project planning and management at the University of Nairobi, College of Education and External Studies, School of Continuing and Distance Education. I am currently carrying out a study on “factors influencing adoption of climate-smart agriculture as a climate change adaptation in Tigania West-Meru county Kenya.

This is therefore the purpose of this letter is to humbly request you to provide me with information by completing the attached questionnaire since you have been selected to participate in this study. Your contribution is crucial and will ensure the success of this study. Any information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will only be used for academic purpose only. Your assistance and cooperation will be highly appreciated.

Yours Sincerely,

Nickson Wafula Okoth.

Appendix II: Research questionnaire for farmers

Guidelines:

- i. The purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain information on “factors influencing adoption of climate-smart agriculture as a climate change adaptation in Tigania West-Meru county Kenya.
- ii. Please fill all the relevant boxes and blank spaces.
- iii. The information collected will be used solely for research as intended for this study and will remain confidential.

General Information

Ward..... Village.....

1) Please tick your Gender:

- (a) Male ()
- (b) Female ()

2) Please tick your age bracket from the choices below.

- a) 16- 30 years ()
- b) 31-45 years ()
- d) 46-60 years ()
- e) Over 60 Years ()

3) Kindly indicate your highest level of education attained.

- (a) Primary education ()
- (b) Secondary education ()
- (c) Tertiary education ()
- (e) Never went to school ()

Section A: CSA Adoption

4) Are you aware of Climate-Smart Agriculture (CSA)?

- a) Yes ()

b) No ()

5) Do you practice CSA on your farm?

a) Yes ()

b) No ()

6) If 'NO' what are the reasons?

a).....

b).....

c).....

7) Which of the following do you practice on your farm (Tick all applicable)?

a) Appropriate crop selection (early maturing, drought tolerant varieties)

b) Conservation Agriculture (Minimum Tillage, Soil cover, Crop rotation)

c) SLM (Sustainable Land Use Management; Terraces, reclamation etc)

d) Soil fertility management (Application of optimum quantities of recommended fertilizers and manures)

e) Agroforestry/Afforestation

f) Diversification of household income streams (Both on-farm and Off-farm)

g) Agricultural Insurance

h) Installed irrigation and water harvesting techniques?

i) IPM (Integrated Pest Management)

j) Permaculture

k) Good livestock husbandry practices

Section B: Information access (CSA)

8) What do you consider as your MAIN source CSA information?

a) Barazas

b) Extension workers

c) Internet/Social media/mobile phones

d) Other farmers

e) Print media (Newspapers etc)

- f) Radio/TV stations
- g) Other state.....

9) How often do you have access to CSA information?

- a) Frequently
- b) Promptly (Whenever needed)
- c) Rarely
- d) Never

10) Basing on CSA messages that you have ever had accessed, in your opinion do you consider them;

- a) Reliable/Actionable
- b) Conflicting/Contradicting/Confusing
- c) Unreliable/Less actionable
- d) Not Applicable

Section C: Land Tenure System

11) What is the land tenure of the land you're farming?

- a) Entirely own land
- b) Entirely Not your own on land
- c) Both

12) What size of land do you farm?

- a) Below 1 acre ()
- b) 1 - 5 acre ()
- c) 5 - 10 acres ()
- d) Over 10 acres ()

13) How did you acquire the land that you are currently farming?

- a) Freehold ()
- b) Leased/Hired ()
- c) Communal land ()
- d) Squatter

14) Who has the full rights to use of the main land you are currently farming?

- a) Self

- b) Parent
- c) Husband
- d) Wife
- e) Sibling
- f) Other (Lessor, Community)

15) If farming on land owned by someone else, what is the duration of the agreement?

- a) Less than 1 year ()
- b) 1 – 2 years ()
- c) 2 – 3 years ()
- d) Over 3 years ()
- e) Not Applicable ()

16) How likely can practice CSA on your own land?

- a) Most likely
- b) Likely
- c) Somewhat likely
- d) Unlikely
- e) Unknown

17) How likely can practice CSA on land that you are farming but owned by someone else?

- a) Most likely
- b) Likely
- c) Somewhat likely
- d) Unlikely
- e) Unknown

Section D: Agricultural Finance

18) Please tick your major source of capital for investing in farming.

- a) Credit ()
- b) Off- farm income ()
- c) On-farm income ()

19) Do you have any access to credit to finance your farming business?

Yes () (b) No ()

- 20) If 'yes' where did you access credit from?**
- a) Agro-Dealer input loan ()
 - b) Financial Institutions (Bank, MFIs) ()
 - c) Mobile Telephony
 - d) Table banking/Group Savings/loaning ()
 - e) Others/specify.....

- 21) What was the purpose of the credit acquired?**
- a) To buy farm inputs ()
 - b) To pay farming labour ()
 - c) To buy/Hire farm machinery ()
 - d) To lease more farming land ()
 - e) Others/specify.....

- 22) Are you aware of Agricultural Insurance?**
- a) Yes b) No

- 23) If yes, Have you taken any Agricultural Insurance?**
- a) Yes b) NO

- 24) If Yes, Which one?**
- a) Crop micro insurance
 - b) Livestock micro insurance
 - c) Other (Mention).....

Section E: Agricultural Inputs Market

- 25) Where do you mostly get information of which inputs to buy?**
- a) Barazas
 - b) Extension workers
 - c) Agro-dealer sales reps
 - d) Internet/Social media/mobile phones
 - e) Other famers

- f) Print media (Newspapers etc)
- g) Radio/TV stations
- h) Other state.....

26) How do you OFTEN source your farm inputs?

- a) Order online
- b) Agro-Vet shop
- c) Itinerant Agro-Inputs vendor
- d) Direct from Agro-input company
- e) Other (Mention).....

27) What is the distance from your home to the nearest Agro-Dealer shop?

- a) Less than 1KM
- b) Between 1- 5 KMs
- c) Between 5 – 10 KMs
- d) Over 10 KMs

28) How often do you get the recommended farm inputs?

- a) Always get all the recommended farm inputs I require whenever I want them
- b) Sometimes get all the recommended farm inputs I require whenever I want them
- c) Rarely do I get all the recommended farm inputs I require whenever I want them
- d) Never gotten all the recommended farm inputs I require whenever I want them

29) What can you say about the quality of the input you access?

- a) Mostly of good quality (perform as expected)
- b) Somewhat of good quality (give average results)
- c) Rarely are of good quality (Give below average results)
- d) Often of poor quality (Yield poor results)

30) How satisfied are you with the prices of inputs you typically use?

- a) Very satisfied
- b) Somewhat satisfied
- c) Not satisfied

Appendix III: Questionnaire for focus group discussion (FGD)
(CSA FARMER GROUP)

1. When was this group formed?

2. Membership.....

3. Main reasons for group establishment?

a)

b)

c)

4. What are the group's main activities with regards to CSA?

a).....

b).....

e)

5. Do all the members practice about CSA?

Yes () b) No ()

6. If "No" what are the reasons?

i.

ii.

iii.

7. Are there any difficulties or problems facing you as a group in the implementation of CSA?

i.

ii.

iii.

8. What do you think could be the solutions to the above problems?

i.

ii.

iii.

9. Does the group engage in CSA advocacy to other farmers?

Yes () b) No ()

10. How often does extension worker pay a visit the groups?

a) Once a week ()

b) Twice a month ()

c) Once a year ()

d) Never ()

11. What are the group's resource mobilization strategies?

a).....

b).....

c).....

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME.

Appendix IV: Checklist for key informants

(STAKEHOLDERS/PARTNERS)

Please indicate your position and Office below:

.....

1. For how long have you held this position?

2. In your own opinion does the village/ward know about CSA?

(a) Satisfactorily () (b) Not Satisfactorily ()

3. If not satisfactorily, what do you think could be the problem?

a)

b)

c)

4. What do you advise can be done about these problems?

a)

b)

c)

What has been your office's contribution towards advocacy of CSA?

a).....

b).....

c).....

5. In your position what can you influence in order to assist in adoption and implementation of CSA in the county and in the country at large?

a)

b)

c)

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME.

Appendix VII: Maize production and consumption trends in Kenya

