**Annual Report ‘In the shadows of a conflict’ programme, Mozambique, 2008-2009**

Dr. Alex Bolding, principal researcher, December 2009

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PREAMBLE

This report provides an overview of the activities undertaken by the Norwegian funded research programme, called: ‘In the shadow of a conflict: Impacts of Zimbabwe’s Land Reform on rural poverty and development in Mozambique, South Africa and Zambia’. In this annual report, which covers the period September 2008-December 2009, only the research effort hosted by the Universidade Católica de Moçambique in Beira, will be treated. Five consecutive sections treat the research objectives (1); Background on research sites in Mozambique and study methods (2); research staff involved (3); research outputs of the Mozambique country study so far (4); and, finally, a look ahead for the year 2010.

1 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research objectives for my part of the overall research programme are limited spatially, temporally and in terms of kind of migrants from Zimbabwe. At the Lusaka planning workshop (7-8 June 2007) it was agreed in principle to limit the spatial focus in Mozambique on Manica Province, particularly the border zone. In terms of time horizon, it was agreed to study effects precipitated by changes in Zimbabwe since the year 2000. This does not preclude data collection on events that have taken place before 2000, but it does define the frame and historical context. The research should be about what is specific about migration since the year 2000 in comparison with previous patterns/practices. Lastly, my part of the research focuses mainly on smallholders, former farm and estate labourers that were based in Zimbabwe but of different nationalities (predominantly Mozambican, but also Zimbabwean and Malawian), and other types of recent migrants seeking a livelihood in Mozambique (e.g. gold panners, seasonal labourers, hawkers, traders, money changers). Amanda Hammar will focus on the large scale commercial farmers, their work force and other white Zimbabweans that have ended up in the agro-industry and mining sector in Manica Province, as well as new inhabitants of Chimoio city. Randi Kaarhus has a specific focus on agrarian and land debates and policies, both in Maputo and Manica Province, and intends to select several or one case study concerning a community land delimitation.

My research objectives tie in with the following overall objectives:

1. To record and analyse the narratives of migrant farmers and farm workers in order to understand how they view the events that led them to leave Zimbabwe and why they chose their particular destinations. This objective includes new considerations of how they view themselves in terms of citizenship and levels of identity.

2. To assess how they entered their new communities, how they established themselves, and how they have been treated and regarded by their new hosts at various levels including national, regional and local ones.

3. To assess changes in patterns of use and ownership from a gender perspective.

4. To determine and analyse impacts of the migration on recipient communities with respect to agricultural production, labour markets, access to land, and community conflicts.

The final two objectives (5 & 6) of the overall programme do not pertain to my research effort, but to that of Amanda and Randi.
2  RESEARCH SITES, BACKGROUND, AND METHODS

Basically, four field research sites have been selected, two rural sites directly located on the Mozambican end of the mountainous border zone with Zimbabwe, one rural site on the Mozambique-Malawi border which supposedly is not affected by the Zimbabwe crisis, and one urban setting:
- Pandagoma in Phande, Messambize river valley, Búrze district
- Penhalonga & Msambuzi in Machipanda, upper Revue river, Manica district
- Tsangano, Ngombi river, Tsangano District
- Chimoio city.

The two key rural research sites contrast in terms of population density, proximity to urban markets, history of settlement and intensity of conflicts on leadership, access to land and access to forest resources. Yet both sites have witnessed a steady influx of people from Zimbabwe, mostly returning Mozambican labour migrants with previous experiences in irrigated agriculture and the production of commercial crops (tea, coffee, tobacco) at invaded white commercial farms and tea plantations in Zimbabwe. Amongst these former farm labourers are people of other nationalities as well (Malawian, Zimbabwean). In addition to these new settlers who open up new irrigation furrows and dry land (often on steep mountain sides, investing in bench terraces), there is an increasing flood of destitute Zimbabweans arriving illegally on a daily basis, as Zimbabwe’s economic and politically crisis deepens. The majority of these daily immigrants are hawkers, selling anything they can carry (from food to complete bedsets) in exchange for meticais. They also offer their labour for agricultural activities or gold digging, often in exchange for a meal or some mealies and sugarcane. In Vila de Manica, there is a veritable flood of hawkers selling their commodities on overcrowded roadside markets, young girls engaging in sex work, and young men plying the main road to Zimbabwe as money changers.

Whereas Pandagoma shares all the characteristics of a frontier area, with pioneer settlement starting only in 1969, the Penhalonga area is characterised by a long history of settlement and exchange with Zimbabwe. In Pandagoma, returning Mozambican labour migrants have been at the forefront of opening up new (irrigated) land, in three subsequent waves of settlement of increasing magnitude: (a) around Independence (1969-1978); (b) after the 1992 Peace deal between Frelimo and Renamo (1994-1998); and (c) since the outbreak of the Zimbabwe crisis (2001-now). Some of the new settlers have taken up commercial production of crops like tea, coffee, tobacco and paprika. Whist there is still plenty of unexplored forest land and a great potential for taking out more irrigation furrows, agricultural production in the area has been negatively affected by the Zimbabwe crisis. The collapse of the Zimbabwe dollar and agro-industry across the border has robbed the Pandagoma community of easy input supply and product markets. Yet, the community of Pandagoma is far removed from the weakly developed agro-industry in Chimoio, with bad access roads, no access to credit and high transport costs.

In contrast, the Penhalonga and Msambuzi area in Manica district is characterised by a high population density, heavy pressure on natural resources, proximity to urban markets, and an age-old exchange of people between Mozambique and Zimbabwe. The latter sea-saw dynamic of population movement has been instigated by various drivers such as restrictive conservationist land use policies in Zimbabwe (1940s & 1950s), forced labour policies in Mozambique (1950s &
1960s), droughts, and wars. Many families who reside in Penhalonga or Msambuzi have relatives who stay in Zimbabwe and vice versa. Chief Nhacuunicua, traditional ruler of the Penhalonga area, resorts under the paramount Chief Mutasa, who resides in Zimbabwe. During the Frelimo-Renamo civil war many internally displaced people and refugees flocked to the relatively safe Beira corridor, which included the Msambuzi and Penhalonga valleys. A study that was undertaken in 1991 by GTZ, towards the end of the war, found that population pressures were extremely high in the upper Revue and Msambuzi valleys. Both valleys harboured some 169 irrigation furrows commanding some 410 hectares of irrigated land, used by 806 farming households. Since then population densities have further increased, despite serious limitations in available land, due to the prevalence of the IFLOMA forestry estate and foreign investors developing commercial farm land. Preliminary findings from a re-study of the 1991 GTZ study reveal that despite the existing pressure on land and water resources, many more irrigation furrows have been opened up in Penhalonga. Also many young households are opening up land on steep hillsides, using bench terraces. Since the outbreak of the Zimbabwe crisis, gold panning has taken a tremendous flight in the area, negatively affecting fish ponds supplied by irrigation furrows and silting up canals.

This study aims to undertake a number of research activities, in order to acquire the necessary information associated with the above mentioned 4 objectives:
- On the basis of the detailed GTZ study undertaken in 1991, a re-study is done covering all members of irrigation furrows in Penhalonga and Msambuzi valleys. In this way a unique picture of the dynamics of irrigated agriculture can be obtained, including background information on the origins, settlement patterns, and life histories of its members. A similar survey has already been undertaken in Pandagoma;
- All irrigation furrows and irrigated plots, on both research sites, will be mapped by means of a GPS. Later, the mapping exercise will be expanded to include all forms of land use (dry land, wetland, forestry, range land). Thus a rich picture emerges of who has got access to land and other natural resources;
- Targeted qualitative research (life histories, migrant narratives) will be undertaken focused on particular groups of immigrants from Zimbabwe (e.g. day labourers, gold panners, hawkers, money exchangers).

To contextualize the results from the furrow irrigation studies in Manica Province and the effects produced by the Zimbabwe crisis, a ‘control’ area has been selected in Tsangano district, Tete Province, in the mountainous border zone between Mozambique and Malawi. A separate study on furrow irrigation in Tsangano district, that is unaffected by the Zimbabwe crisis, has born out the specificity of observations made in Manica and Báruè districts.

Finally, in Chimoio city the focus of the research efforts has been on the provision of drinking water in a number of townships (bairros). The aim here is to establish how different groups of drinking water users (including temporary dwellers) acquire access to this vital resource.
3 RESEARCH STAFF

The possibilities for hiring capable Mozambican staff are limited, since almost none are qualified to undertake the kind of qualitative field work required by the programme. Below I list a number of people who were or will at some stage get involved in the research.

- Rodrigues Lino Piloto (82-5758526), fixed research coordinator, running an office with computer at his residence in Chimoio.
- UCM BSc(hon) thesis students from Cuamba (agriculture), Beira and Chimoio (economics)
- MSc students from Wageningen University (WUR- irrigation and/or rural development sociology)
- Internship students from the Instituto Ágrario de Chimoio.

Since its start in July 2007, the programme has facilitated student research by 2 Mozambican Licenciatura (BSc-honours) students from the UCM in Cuamba, and 3 MSc students enrolled in the Masters Programme on International Land and Water Management of Wageningen University (2 Dutch students, 1 Malawian student). Of the former, two students have completed their studies in 2009. Another two internship students from the Instituto Ágrario de Chimoio (IAC) undertook research work in Manica in 2009.

In addition to the student research, field work has been undertaken by both the principal researcher, Dr Alex Bolding, and the Chimoio-based research coordinator, Rodriguez Piloto. Field research was undertaken by Alex Bolding in June 2007, April-May 2008, September 2008, February 2009 and May 2009. The research coordinator, Mr Piloto, has been continuously accompanying students and visiting researchers in the field to assist with introductions, interviews and GPS measurements.

4 RESEARCH OUTPUT

The research output so far consists of academic theses, conference and seminar papers, and study reports disseminated amongst policy makers, researchers and practitioners in Mozambique and beyond.

4.1 Thesis work by students

By December 2009, seven students had completed their thesis work, whilst another three will start in 2010. The list below highlights the research topics addressed by these four Mozambican, two Dutch and one Malawian student. Three more students (two Mozambican and one Dutch) are expected to complete research work in 2010.

Internship theses, defended at the Agricultural Institute of Chimoio (IAC):


BSc(hon.) theses, defended at the Faculty of Agriculture of the UCM, in Cuamba:


MSc theses, Irrigation and Water Engineering Group, Wageningen University:


4.2 Conference and seminar papers

So far two conference/seminar papers have been presented. These will in due time be published in internationally refereed journals.


4.3 Presentation of study results to policy makers, local communities and international research networks

Various opportunities have been used to disseminate results from the different studies undertaken amongst policy makers, local communities and an international researcher network (the CGIAR challenge programme).

Report presented to NGO Kwaedza Simukai, Manica, Mozambique:


Report presented to EU Review mission (reviewing 10 years of expenditure on irrigation in Mozambique, 1998-2008):

Report presented to World Bank identification mission for the Programme for Irrigation development (PROIRRI):


Report presented to Challenge Programme 66 ‘Water rights in informal economies’:


5 A LOOK AHEAD

Despite difficulties in identifying qualified Mozambican students to undertake relevant research work under the auspices of the programme, quite some ground has been covered. The prospect for more Mozambican involvement in 2010 is bright, with the new start of a Masters programme in District Planning and Regional Development at the UCM in Beira and continued commitment from the IAC in Chimoio. The change of guard at the GIS group of the UCM, where Dominic Kwesha gave way to Anjos as new director, has potential impact on the administration of the programme. I would like to thank the rector, vice rector Padre Ponsi, ex-director of CIG-UCM, Dominic Kwesha, new director Anjos and Ali Atumane for their unwavering commitment to the programme. Equally, I would like to once more pay my debts to Rodriguez Piloto, who despite considerable odds, has proven to be a steady and much-appreciated companion in executing and facilitating the research at field level, despite the untimely death of his beloved wife in July 2009.

Whilst the Unity government of Zimbabwe has been in power for quite a while now, it seems there is still no end in sight of the continuing crisis in that country. However, the dynamics of the effects produced by the Zimbabwe crisis has significantly changed in 2009. Most Zimbabwean day labourers and traders have returned to Zimbabwe to try and eke out a living there, instead of selling their services in Mozambique. Yet, the majority of economic refugees, which originally hailed from a (partly) Mozambican parentage, have continued to invest in an agriculturally based future in Mozambique. It is suggested to maintain this focus on water, whilst progressively paying more attention to the livelihood effects generated or denied to different groups of water users.

I’m confident that 2010 will prove to be another year of fruitful research and engagement with ongoing debates on poverty and rural development.
ANNEX 1: ABSTRACTS OF SELECTED RESEARCH OUTPUTS


In the course of the past century a dynamic indigenous furrow irrigation culture has emerged in the mountainous border region of eastern Zimbabwe and west-central Mozambique, inhabited by Shona speaking people. Its importance and existence has hitherto remained virtually unknown, despite the key role attributed to irrigation in the commercialisation of agrarian production, provision of food security, and poverty eradication. This paper demonstrates its importance in terms of irrigated area (10% of all irrigated land in both countries), contribution to food security and increased commercial production, and capacity to provide displaced people with a livelihood.

Studies of the ancient terracing and irrigation cultures of the Nyanga Highlands (Zimbabwe) and Engaruka (Tanzania) suggest that furrow irrigation was not primed on the need for intensified agricultural production (Sutton 1984). Rather the Nyanga terrace people are seen as ‘losers’ who turned to irrigation to survive the harsh environment they found themselves in, whilst Engaruka became the victim of its own success (conceptualised as ‘over-specialisation’). The main question addressed in this paper is whether the spread and decline of furrow irrigation based informal economies represents a drive towards agrarian modernisation or a last resort for survival of displaced smallholders, war refugees, and expelled migrant farm workers.

The paper seeks to first identify the origins and geographical spread of these furrows: are they part of a long standing indigenous irrigation culture; were they copied from white settler farmers by their African labour force; or were they spread by enterprising Mission-educated agriculturists? Second, the construction, management and maintenance of these irrigation furrows is characterised and contrasted with existing literature on similar irrigation ventures in Tanzania and Kenya. Next the paper presents three contrasting case studies on irrigated valleys in the upper Revue (Manica district, Mozambique), the upper Pungwe (Bárue district, Mozambique), and the upper Nyanyadzi rivers (Chimanimani district, Zimbabwe). The case studies focus on the different, historically situated, drives behind expansion and contraction of furrow irrigation; the identity, life-histories, modes of organisation and production strategies practised by the smallholder irrigators; and the local importance and marketing linkages of the informal economies thus established.

Several waves of expansion of furrow irrigation occurred, moderated by different drives, like the promotion of furrow irrigation by labour-hungry Rhodesian settler farmers (1890s onwards); Mission induced agrarian modernisation by migrating Africans looking for land (1910-30s), and the inhibitive effects of segregationist and conservationist policies in Rhodesia (1940s & 1950s). Recent waves of furrow expansion have been fed by returning Mozambican labour migrants (after 1975 Independence and 1992 Peace Deal), internally displaced war refugees (1980s), impoverished smallholders in the wake of the 1992 Drought, and Mozambican, Malawian and Zimbabwean farm labourers after the start of the political and economic crisis in Zimbabwe (2000-).

Whilst their importance has always lain in providing a livelihood and refuge in remote mountain valleys for people on the run, some furrow irrigation based informal economies have been able to link up with urban markets or contract crop based marketing outlets, providing the impetus for agrarian intensification and modernisation.

This presentation reports on research work in progress in central Mozambique along the mountainous border zone with Zimbabwe, where two concurrent ‘booms’ have occurred since the outbreak of the Zimbabwe crisis. In the densely populated Manica district, artisanal gold panning, both along rivers and at large scale mining sites, has taken a great flight. In the remote Baruè district, a huge expansion in area under furrow irrigation has occurred. Both activities have resulted in real gains in the wealth and livelihood security of resident smallholders. However, the cases of Pandagoma (Báruè) and Penhalonga (Manica district) display very different dynamics in terms of the impact of the Zimbabwe crisis. Whereas in Pandagoma returning Mozambican, and to a lesser extent Malawian and Zimbabwean, labour migrants with work experiences on white farms and tea and coffee estates in Zimbabwe, have been at the forefront of the accelerated development of irrigation furrows and commercial production of tea, coffee, tobacco and paprika; in Penhalonga an increasing number of returning relatives and destitute Zimbabweans has created further pressure on the already intensively used natural resource base of the area (land, water, forest, gold). Thus, where Pandagoma and the wider environment of the Messambize valley offer real opportunities for new comers to take out an irrigation furrow, open up new rain-fed land and engage in cattle ranching; in Penhalonga new comers, particularly those of Zimbabwean origin without resident families in Mozambique, have been forced to engage in manual labour (tending to irrigated crops or digging for gold) for poor remuneration (a meal or some food items) or else engage in different forms of petty trading or, in the case of women, into prostitution.
Farmer managed furrow irrigation in Africa has received scant attention in policy and academic circles. This stands in stark contrast to its significant contribution to livelihoods in mountainous areas and beyond. As part of the recently studied ‘islands of intensification’, the small scale irrigation sector in Africa has gained some interest. This study aims to increase an understanding of the performance of this small scale irrigation schemes with specific concern for the water management practices water users perform.

The functioning of farmer managed irrigation systems (FMIS) has been conceptualized by a wide array of researchers. The various concepts they have coined to explain the performance of these schemes have been analysed in this research and from them a coherent conceptual framework has been drawn up. The analysis of this ‘water network’ allows for a study of water resource flows that incorporates the dynamic social and physical environment in and through which actors operate. The framework has specifically been employed to study the (re)shaping of water management practices in four different situated case studies. Water management practices are understood to include the allocation of water flows, the maintenance of irrigation infrastructure and the mediation of conflicts.

From four situated case studies it was concluded that the current water management practices in furrow irrigation in de Manican hills can best be explained from four different angles. Firstly, the day-to-day practices of water organisation are elucidated by appreciating actors’ hydraulic position within the hydraulic network. Secondly, the principle of ‘giving everybody a chance’ has been found leading the organisation of water flows. Thirdly, it is important to recognise irrigated agriculture and its related water management practices as a component of an ‘African irrigation paradigm’. That is, irrigated agriculture is part of a larger livelihood portfolio available to local actors. In the highly dynamic socio-material environment multiple ‘escape options’ exist that render the relative importance of irrigated agriculture for livelihood purposes to fluctuate considerably over time.

The occurrence of collective action in water management was found to resemble the normal distribution curve when -following Wade 1988- collective action and water availability were contrasted on two axis. That is, both water abundance and water scarcity prompt actors to refrain from collective efforts to manage water sources. The curve does not completely explain the occurrence of collective action since actors were also found to utilize their hydraulic position to mediate downstream users into collective action.

These findings have subsequently been contrasted with some of the literature on FMIS, namely Ostrom (1990), Coward (1979, 1986) and Fleuret (1985). It was found that their conceptualisation of water management does not allow a full understanding of water management practices in the Manican hills. ‘Design principles’, the concept of ‘hydraulic property’ and the ‘reflection of a social order in material ordering’ have little explanatory power when contrasted with the practice of water management for irrigation in a fluid and dynamic socio-material ordering that was encountered in this study.

A final recommendation calls for joint efforts to develop a sustainable irrigated agriculture in a ‘politicised’ manner as it is hoped to provide an antidote to the increasing gold-mining-related environmental degradation.

Since the launch of the Millennium Development Goals in 2000, donor and governmental investments on drinking water supply in developing countries have been booming. This thesis deals with the question whether in the case of Mozambique the policy rationale behind these investments connect to the water practices and water supply preferences of actual beneficiaries at the local scale.

For this analysis a conceptual framework is applied that purposely does not evaluate domestic water supply on the basis coverage rates and financial sustainability, but focuses on assessing its effects on livelihoods and health conditions for the local actors involved. It does this by studying the physical environment of water supply, use and discharge in a socio-technical framework, which considers: 1) the type of water sources and technologies in use and their performance with regard to water quantity and quality; 2) the variation in means of households to access water and water fetchers’ considerations in source selection; and 3) the spatially-temporally distributed aspects of water supply, use and discharge.

Methodologically wise, a twofold strategy was applied. Academic literature, policy papers, project documents and media articles were consulted to understand the current discourses on domestic water supply in Mozambique and how they have evolved. These discursive perspectives were contrasted with fieldwork, consisting of GPS measurements, transect walks, observations, interviews and group discussions, on the ‘de facto’ water practices and water fetchers’ strategies in a typical bairro (township) of Chimoio city in central Mozambique.

The policy rationale and its historical evolution

Consulting and analysing policy documents on contemporary drinking water supply in Mozambique, one can generally observe two investment patterns. In cities, this involves the expansion of piped supply with the concomitant increase of individually paid connections, and in rural villages, the augmentation of communally managed deep wells. Communally managed connections to piped water supply are an in-between solution for peri-urban areas. Underlying this approach is the idea that two groups of domestic water users exist; those with and those without the ability to pay. For those with the ability to pay, it is perceived as logical that water should be considered an economic good and that a modern industrialised technology can be implemented for which the users contribute up to full cost-recovery. For those without the ability to pay, living in the rural and peri-urban spheres, drinking water should be guaranteed as a basic necessity and a human right. Convenient, individual connections are perceived as infeasible, because it is expected that the users cannot cover full costs. For this reason, a communally managed arrangement is promoted in which cost-recovery is limited to operational and maintenance expenses.

This dichotomy in the current policy rationale can be explained by referring to the national political history of Mozambique as well as the internationally dominant discourses on domestic water management. Already in colonial times (1890-1975), a bifurcated law system was present in which Portuguese settlers and assimilados were receiving privileged treatment over native Mozambicans (Mamdani, 1996; O’Laughlin, 2000). In respect to water supply, this translated itself in the development of piped water provision in urban centres, where the Portuguese lived, whereas no investments were made in the rural districts, where the indigenous population lived. After independence, when the liberation front FreLiMo took power, another imbalance in relation to development within the country evolved. FreLiMo, constituted of a highly educated elite and individuals wielding military power, promoted the collectivisation of production and consumption under the guise of a Leninist-Marxist party program (Finnegan, 1993). On the one hand, large investments were made to turn former Portuguese settler farms into modern agroindustries (O’Laughlin, 2000) and to develop the main Southern cities as important transit ports for Zimbabwe and South Africa (Cahen, 1993), whilst on the other hand, rural inhabitants were forced to live in communal villages and work in peasant cooperatives with very little governmental funding (O’Laughlin, 2000).

FreLiMo’s program did not fully take root however, and was disrupted by the armed forces of the guerrilla movement ReNaMo supported by South Africa. At first FreLiMo could restrict itself to solely accepting support from countries with a similar communist vision, but increasing instability led it to agreeing to structural adjustments towards market liberalisation in the 1980’s, in order to secure financial support from Western countries (Hanlon, 1996). From the moment the peace agreement between FreLiMo and ReNaMo (1992) was signed, Mozambique’s water policies started to follow the international trend. The collectively drafted Water Policy of the Mozambican
government under FreLiMo’s dominance and the international donor community in 1995, paved the way for the current model of privatised and centralized drinking water supply in cities, and communally managed and decentralised provision in the rural areas (República de Moçambique, 1995). Privatisation is perceived as a departure from FreLiMo’s earlier ideas with regard to development, however it can be claimed that the urban-rural divide is maintained. FreLiMo’s urban elite controls the newly privatised companies, enhancing their wealth, and ensuring that most investment occurs in the wealthier areas of cities, to the detriment of rural and peri-urban areas (Pitcher, 2002). This also applies to domestic water supply: for the city of Chimoio with a quarter of a million inhabitants a similar amount of money is spent on upgrading its drinking water system as for the almost two million people living in the countryside of central Mozambique.

‘De facto’ water practices and water supply networks
The observations, interviews and group discussions in the research area, bairro 16 de Junho in Chimoio city, demonstrated that urban water supply is not confined to the official domain of governmental policies. The current governmental actions in Mozambican cities are limited to a centralised piped water supply system with private connections for the prosperous and public standpipes for the poor. Although in the bairro 16 de Junho people cannot access this piped supply easily, they do connect to other form(s) of water supply. Over time, an array of archipelagos of “water supply networks” has evolved, influenced as much by important political events (as described in the previous section) as by demographic changes: population growth, migration of farmers to the city and refugee settlement (during Mozambican civil war and nowadays due to the political situation in Zimbabwe). Other factors influencing the water supply networks are related to the geographical features of the bairro: a gradually sloping terrain with at its lower border a brook, and the inaccessibility of groundwater due to rock formations at certain spots.

These water supply networks differ in relation to their technologies, from being decentralised and artisanal (e.g. shallow dug wells, open water bodies) to centralised and industrial, (e.g. connections to piped network supply). They also diverge in relation to their ownership and institutional arrangements, having individually owned and managed dug wells and yard tap connections, communally managed standpipes and boreholes, and open accessible and governmentally managed open water bodies. Along with the evolution of various water supply networks, a variety of water use networks have evolved engaging with the different sources of water supply. Water uses can be distinguished according to type of consumption, degree of safeguarding hygiene, and production purposes, each single one of them demanding another quality and quantity of water, leading to a set of water needs. These water needs are not equal to the actual water obtainment of users, but are constrained and sustained by the available water supply networks, actors’ means to access them and actors’ personal considerations and preferences.

Each single water supply network provides a solution to a particular water need and increases accessibility to certain users. In bairro 16 de Junho, piped water connections and deep wells are able to supply safe and tasty drinking water, which is appreciated for consumption purposes, but scarcity restricts supply, the use is dominated by individuals with the necessary financial resources and/or social connections. Open water bodies and shallow dug wells, are not ideal for drinking, but due to their ability to provide water in abundance to those unable to access more desirable sources (particularly in the wet season) they facilitate the pursuit of additional livelihood possibilities, such as kitchen garden cultivation, brick moulding, etc. Furthermore, these supply networks differ with regard to health risks. The first mentioned group of water supply networks, if well maintained, reduces the chance of its users suffering from water-related infectious diseases, while the second group due to its openness in the waterscape (especially in the rainy season) increases this risk. It is essential to add that in the case of 16 de Junho with no safe sewerage system is present, solid waste is scarcely collected and non-improved pit latrines form a majority. Overall, this increases the chance that people will contract water-related infectious diseases.

Water fetchers’ strategies and preferences
Besides providing an understanding of the natural and human-mediated relationships between water supply, use and discharge, this thesis highlights the criteria that determine users’ selection of particular water sources. Important to mention, in this respect, is that the management of (both private and public) water sources in bairro 16 de Junho is dominated by men, while water fetching is perceived as the task of women. Among the studied water fetchers in bairro 16 de Junho, mainly women being part of households without a private water source, it appeared to be most vital that domestic water supply is reliable, available every single day during daytime hours, and that the controller(s) are trustworthy, capable of guaranteeing quick repairs and not discriminating. This in order to secure water for at least the most essential needs within their families, while allowing time to undertake other domestic tasks and
livelihood securing activities. In this sense, the women make trade-offs. For consumptive water needs they are prepared to walk further, stand in queues, constantly check sources with intermittent flows and to use more manual force. For non-consumptive uses, they tend to opt for an inferior quality of water, if this saves time and energy and avoids the necessity to bargain with source controllers. Strikingly, the price of water was not the most critical factor in source selection among the interviewed water fetchers. The intra-household division in which women are expected to deliver the necessary labour and make the purchase, and the male household heads are responsible to provide the means to pay for water provision, (as in this case study), provides an explanation for this.

Presented conclusions
Overall, this study demonstrates that the current centralised approach towards drinking water supply in combination with the implementation of private connections and public standpipes in peri-urban areas in Mozambique, just partly complies with the water fetching strategies and the wishes of the studied socio-economically disadvantaged beneficiaries (female water fetchers without a private water source). This conclusion is based on the following observations:

1) Piped water supply does contribute to an equally regulated drinking water quality throughout the city, agreeing with the wish of the studied water fetchers to have a guaranteed safe water source for consumptive purposes without the trouble of water treatment at home. At the same time, the Mozambican policies ‘black-box’ urban water provision to “drinking water supply”, indirectly assuming that water requires to be completely free from micro-biological and organic contamination for all purposes of use. This underestimates the pivotal role of people’s use of water of various qualities in shaping a livelihood.

2) The distinction of domestic water consumers in two groups, those with and those without the ability to pay, in the current Mozambican Water Policy is problematic. This differentiation puts maximum emphasis on water users as “economically rational actors” who base their water obtainment strategies on water prices and prefer to obtain the highest quality water for the lowest price. Analysing the case study, this essentially will contribute to the well-being of the water payers, most frequently males, but not to the females responsible for water fetching, who care more about the security of supply and the reduction of labour investment.

3) The currently promoted water supply arrangements aiming at centralised provision are characterised by relatively high operation and maintenance prerequisites and energy demands. They are thus sensitive to unreliable supply on a day-to-day basis in comparison to decentralised sources of provision. This does not agree to the wish of the interviewed water fetchers, who perceive the security of supply as essential.

4) With the augmentation of connections, both private and public ones, walking distances and queue formation will be reduced, freeing up time for water fetchers to undertake other jobs. However, the crucial role of the management of these sources is neglected. The rules set by source operators and the social relationships between controllers and water fetchers are actually determining whether fetchers can access particular water supply networks and indirectly whether they can reduce their labour investments.

5) No precautions have been included in Mozambican project proposals so far to deal with the rise in wastewater discharge and associated health risks when piped water supply is augmented in urban environment.

6) The current policy division between urban and rural water supply neglects a significant group of underprivileged water users living at the fringes of the city; those who are able to access neither the piped water circuit from the city centre nor considered as the target group of the rural water supply programs.

Overall, it can be concluded that water supply investments will be most successful in reducing health risks and improving livelihood opportunities for socio-economically disadvantaged groups in peri-urban areas of Chimoio when they are able to reduce women’s time and energy investments in water fetching for all purposes, whilst simultaneously include measures to create a safer sanitary environment.

Farmer managed irrigation in Sub Saharan Africa has been responsible for the biggest expansion of irrigated areas in the past decade (Lankford, 2005). Yet, little is known about the ‘secret of their success’: why do they emerge and last in some places and not in others? How can outside agencies (whether public or private) contribute to their spread and improve their productivity, equity and sustainability, without falling into the trap of creating new dependencies on those very same outside agencies? This thesis unlocks the ‘secret of success’ of farmer managed irrigation systems (FMIS) in Tsangano District, Mozambique. It uses the hydraulic property concept (Coward, 1986b) as a prism to understand the functioning of these irrigation systems. The thesis shows that the organisational set up and the collective action surrounding water management and maintenance is a function of prior investment in the system, which determines both people-to-object and people-to-people relations. Different hydraulic property regimes are assessed to explain how productivity, equity and sustainability have been achieved in Tsangano FMIS without outside interference. These findings are contrasted with the central tenets of Irrigation Management Transfer programmes, viz. the need to establish a formal Water Users Association; creation of a sense of ownership through user participation in infrastructural rehabilitation; and the emphasis on financial accountability relations. The Tsangano case study suggests that rather than uncritically assuming the merits of neo-institutional policy prescriptions (cf Ostrom, 1992, 2005), interveners should investigate prior investment patterns and context specific, cultural logics that inform the sustainability of FMIS’s.