Policies and institutional framework for multiple use of water in Zimbabwe

Working paper

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Executive summary

The need for so-called multiple uses services has been made clear over the past years through an increasing body of literature, including from the Southern Africa region. In order to be able to follow a MUS approach at community level, an enabling environment of policies and institutions is needed both at intermediate and national level. Key elements of such an environment include policies which enable and promote multiple uses, coordination between sectors and levels and integrated financing streams. This report has tried to analyse that environment at national level in Zimbabwe.

Policies for water resources management are enabling a multiple use approach, though not actively promoting it. However, this opportunity hasn’t been seized by the domestic water supply or irrigation sector in the form of clear policies or guidelines on the development of water services for multiple purposes. In fact, a limited focus on health only and rigid technology standards have in the past even limited the scope for multiple use services. Yet, within the same policy framework, NGOs have been able to innovate and develop broader livelihoods-based approaches and more appropriate technologies. At national level, coordination and especially sharing of lessons between NGOs holds the possibility to scale up the approach to other NGO programmes, and even government policies. Brining the approach down to district level will be more difficult, with coordination mechanisms at that level having collapsed or being inactive.
Acknowledgements
This study has been carried out in the context of the action-research project called “Models for implementing multiple-use water supply systems for enhanced land and water productivity, rural livelihoods and gender equity”, MUS, which is part of the Challenge Program on Water and Food.

Abbreviations and acronyms

AREX  Agriculture Extension Services
CBM   Community Based Management
CC    Catchment Council
CP-WF Challenge Programme on Water and Food
DDF   District Development Fund
DWD   Department of Water resources Development
DWSSC District Water Sanitation Sub Committee
IRWSSP Integrated Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Programme
MLGNH Ministry of Local Government and National Housing (MLGNH)
MNAECC Ministry of National Affairs, Employment Creation and Co-operatives
MoHCW Ministry of Health and Child Welfare
MRRWD Ministry of Rural Resources and Water Development
MWRID Ministry of Water Resources and Infrastructural Development.
MYDGEC Ministry of Youth Development, Gender and Employment creation
MWRIS Ministry of Water Resources and Infrastructural services.
MFED  Ministry of Finance and Economic Development
Mus   Multiple use services
MUS   Multiple Use Systems project
NAC   National Action Committee for water and sanitation
NCU   National Coordination Unit
NGO   Non Governmental Organisations
NMWP  National Master Water Plan
PWSSC Provincial Water Sanitation Sub Committee
RDC   Rural District Council
SCC   Sub Catchment Council
UN    United Nations
VCW   Village Community Worker
VIDCOS Village Development Committees
VIP   Ventilated Improved Pit
WADCOS Ward Development Committees
WASH  Water, Sanitation and Hygiene
WES-WG Water and Environmental Sanitation Working Group
WPC   Water Point Committee
ZINWA Zimbabwe National Water Authority
Introduction

In rural and peri-urban areas, people require water for both domestic (drinking, washing, cooking, etc) and productive uses, such as market gardens, livestock, post-harvest crop processing and micro-enterprises. These productive uses can generate income and contribute to food security. However, most formal water services do not aim to meet these demands in an integrated way. "Domestic" water supply services are not usually planned to take account of small-scale productive uses, or managers prohibit such practices. In irrigation schemes, even other productive uses such as livestock watering are not considered. This limits the potential benefits that water services can have for the users. In addition, it can have a negative impact on sustainability.

In response to this situation, a so-called multiple use services (mus) approach is proposed. This is a holistic, needs-focused and demand-driven approach to service provision, built upon participatory approaches to the planning, design, and implementation of water infrastructure and institutions that effectively meets women's and men's multiple water needs; drawing where necessary upon multiple water sources (Van Koppen et al., 2006).

Zimbabwe has been one of the countries where such an approach, even though not always called as such, has been piloted over the last few years by a range of organisations (Robinson et al., 2004; Lovell, 2000; PumpAid, 2006; Makoni and Smits, 2005). A common denominator in these experiences is what can be called domestic-plus (Van Koppen et al., 2006). They started from and build upon domestic water supply programmes, opening these up to providing water for small-scale productive uses at household level, especially gardening, livestock and small home-based industries. In the actual implementation, many organisations have quite different approaches to the same issue, with varying results. However, many of these experiences are not systematically shared, leading to sub-optimal use of these experiences and no further mainstreaming in the sector (Makoni and Smits, 2005). In addition, it is noted that most of the documented experiences only focus at the community level. Obviously, this is the level where services are ultimately to be delivered and where impacts on people's livelihoods are expected. However, in order to follow a mus approach, an enabling environment at intermediate and national level is crucial (Van Koppen et al., 2006). Limitations in the enabling environment for multiple uses, may result in reduced capacity for scaling up and sustaining multiple use services beyond the pilot experiences mentioned.

The MUS (Multiple Use Services) project, in the context of which this study was carried out, aims to develop models, guidelines and tools for following a mus approach, and to build capacity among sector organisations to scale up this approach. Hence, the project's interest is to learn what factors in an enabling environment at national level could contribute to scaling up.

This report therefore aims to analyse the policy and institutional framework in relation to multiple uses of water in Zimbabwe, with the objective to see what opportunities or limitations that offers for scaling up the approach beyond the current experiences. It

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1 The intermediate level is usually the lowest level at which civil servants and elected officials work and plan together for service delivery. In theory, it is an aggregating level that allows for planning, priority setting, and resources identification closest to the community level at a higher integration scale. In Zimbabwe this coincides with the district, and arguably the provincial levels.
does so by mainly focusing on the national level, where the policies and institutional framework are defined, but also on the implications for intermediate and community level.

**Framework for analysis**

The analysis will follow the framework developed by Van Koppen et al. (2006), suggesting a set of principles (i.e. factors which ideally should be in place) for enhancing multiple use services. These principles are different for the community level, where service delivery takes place, and the intermediate and national level, where principles are needed to provide an enabling environment at intermediate and national level (see figure 2).

![Figure 1: framework for multiple use water services](image)

The key focus for this report is the national level. This is the level where policies are defined, which enable or not a MUS approach. It may do so, for example by the way water resources allocation is defined, the norms and standards for infrastructure, or by defining the scope of water services. Secondly, at this level the institutional roles, responsibilities and mandates of the different actors in the sector are defined, as well as their relation to each other, in terms of coordination and cooperation. In addition to the official framework, there may be all kinds of informal coordination mechanisms. For a MUS approach this is especially important, given that this often is an area where a range of stakeholders (e.g. those responsible for agriculture, water and sanitation or planning) have overlapping mandates, or in fact none at all. Coordination between actors at the national level can enable integrated action at intermediate level. Thirdly, the national level is the level that should give guidance and support to the intermediate level entities. As in many countries, decentralised entities have received many responsibilities under decentralisation policies, but often lack critical capacities and resources to carry out their work. National level entities can support these. Finally, the
national level is where financial allocations are made. In relation to MUS, not only the total amounts and conditions under which these allocations are made, but especially to which extent these can be used synergistically between the different decentralised entities. This report will try to analyse these four roles of the national level, and their implications for applying a multiple use approach.

Here, it must also be noted that this report is strongly biased towards what can be called the domestic-plus approach (see above). The main reason for that is where most of the experiences are, at least the documented ones. There has been some interest by the Department of Irrigation (Zawe, personal communication) in the productive plus approach, i.e. opening up the planning and design of irrigation schemes to cater for multiple uses. Relevant references to opportunities for that are made in the text.

Methodology
To carry out the analysis a literature study was done which involved reviewing of literature, reports, policies and strategies from different organizations. Interviews were also conducted through face-to-face and telephone with representatives of selected organisations, including government and NGOs. A number of visits were carried out to a number of districts (Marondera, Murehwa, UMP, Kadoma and Zvimba), where meetings and interviews were held with representatives of local government, the Department of Irrigation and NGOs).

A main limitation to this study was the lack of documentation in most organisations. Most of the information of the actually applied strategies by different organisations is only documented in grey literature, if at all. More details had to be obtained through interviews with those individuals directly involved in the programmes. Much of the information is highly qualitative. It must also be noted that Zimbabwe is going through political and economic challenges, affecting water services delivery. Especially, in the area of financing water services, it proved to be difficult to get any quantitative information. Therefore this aspect will receive less attention than others.

Structure of the report
This report starts with an introduction to the different policy frameworks, starting from the overall policies for poverty alleviation and then going into detail to see how water is articulated within that. A distinction is made there between the policies for water resources management and water services provision, in the different sub-sectors. There is no specific section dedicated to financing streams. The main reason for that is that reliable and recent quantitative figures are hard to get. In each of the sectoral policies we will pay attention to the way in which financing streams are defined in theory and how these have changed in a relative sense over time, and what implications that had had. Starting from this sub-sectoral perspective, that being the reality of how the sector is organised in the country (as in many other countries), we will look into mechanisms for coordination and integration across sectors and actors at different levels. Finally, we will draw conclusions about what this means for implementing and scaling up multiple uses of water in Zimbabwe.
Policies and legislation in relation to multiple uses of water

When looking into whether the policy framework can enable multiple uses of water, we first have to look at the overall policies for poverty alleviation and livelihood enhancement, and see how water fits into these policies. Then, we go more into detail into water policies. In this, we take both water resources regulation (i.e. the allocation of water resources for certain uses) and a water services perspective (i.e. the way in which water is abstracted, conveyed, stored and distributed for certain uses). Water services are normally defined according to sectors, such as water supply and sanitation and irrigation. This definition is followed here as well, but with the specific focus of looking whether these sectoral policies would allow for an integrated approach between the sectors. Given that the concept of multiple uses has only been coined relatively recently, it cannot be expected that it is articulated explicitly in past and recent policies, legislation and financing mechanisms. Therefore, we rather look at whether policies are actually hindering a mus approach, whether it enables such an approach (i.e. whether it provides enough flexibility to apply it locally), or whether it actively promotes it.

Poverty alleviation, livelihoods and water

The Poverty Alleviation Action Plans (PAAP) for Zimbabwe are lead by the Government through the Ministry of Youth and Employment Creation but other Ministries also link with them including Agriculture, Employment creation and Small Enterprise Development among others. However, water is not strongly articulated in the PAAPs. It is not clear how the water-related government departments, such the Ministry of Water and Infrastructure Development, link up in developing these plans. Other departments, such as the one responsible for rural development, have a mandate to develop water resources but not with an explicit focus on poverty alleviation. This is already a first sign that links between water, livelihoods and poverty alleviation are not made explicit.

Besides, due to the economic and political challenges donors and NGOs are less and less engaging with government in jointly defining these PAAPs, and overall development assistance is declining or turning to the humanitarian assistance sectors, including especially water supply and sanitation. Therefore, the actual significance of the PAAPs can be questioned in the current context.

Also one cannot look at poverty and livelihoods, without touching upon HIV and AIDS. With a current estimated HIV/AIDS prevalence of 18.2% amongst adult population, an estimated number of orphans of 1300 000, its impact on poverty is enormous. Water sector organisations recognised that water can play a big role in alleviating some of the impacts of the HIV/AIDS pandemic. Access to safe water and sanitation can reduce transmission of opportunistic diseases, such as diarrhoea; it can enable more convenience for those infected but also for their caregivers. Also, water for small-scale productive uses may enable to grow more nutritious food, such as vegetables, which are crucial to keep up compromised immune systems. This has been recognised by both government and non-government organisations, as witnessed by the joint development of a set of guidelines entitled the “Zimbabwe water and Sanitation Sector HIV and AIDS Response” (UNICEF, 2004). One of the key recommendations of this strategy is the urge to integrate nutrition gardens and other livelihood activities to support those infected and affected by HIV and AIDS into water supply and sanitation programmes.
Water resources management

Currently the main legal instrument guiding the development and management of water resources is the Water Act of 1998 (GoZ, 1998). It aims to provide for the development and utilisation of water resources of Zimbabwe and for the institutions governing them.

Two of the key changes in the Act are that they removed the concept of private ownership of water, and instead vests that in the President. Secondly, water rights are not anymore real rights in perpetuity. Instead, users need now to apply for a permit for use, for which a fee needs to be paid for secondary use.

Part IV of the Act deals with use of water. This part provides for the use of water for primary purposes and under permits. Clause 32 states that any person is entitled to use water for primary purposes, which is defined as follows:

Primary purposes in relation to the use of water, means the reasonable use of water for basic domestic human needs in or about the area of residential premises; or for the support of animal life, other than fish in fish farms or animals or poultry in feedlots; or for the making of bricks for the private use of the owner, lessee or occupier of the land concerned; or dip tanks.

This contrasts with the definition of water for agricultural purposes, which means the use of water for the irrigation of land; or fish farming purposes; or animal husbandry including the keeping of poultry, where the amount of water used exceeds ten thousand litres per day.

It is not only about the amounts abstracted, but also about installed storage capacity. Clause 32(4) of the Act states that “no person shall construct in a public stream water storage works capable of storing more than five thousand cubic metres of water for primary purposes except in terms of a permit issued”.

First of all, we should ask ourselves why these definitions are relevant and what their objective may be. By issuing permits (which need to be paid for), it is expected that water use and development can be regulated, and that a contribution is paid to manage the resources. At the same time, one wouldn’t want to see a situation where each small abstraction would need to get a permit or registration. That would only create an administrative burden. Besides, small basic uses are then exempt from the permit taxes, and hence access to the resource would be “free” from this perspective. Therefore, as in other countries, an attempt is made to distinguish between commercial and non-commercial activities. In addition to these definitions, the catchment council may specify the maximum number of livestock an individual owner may water for the purposes of the definition of “primary purposes”, so as to define more locally specific the difference between commercial and non-commercial activities, even though the distinction between the two will always be arbitrary.

These definitions leave the flexibility for including small-scale productive uses among the non-permitted uses. The definition even explicitly mentions examples of productive use (such as livestock and brick making), recognising the importance of water in rural livelihoods. However, it is noteworthy as well that small-scale irrigation, not even for backyard gardening, is mentioned among them. It is not clear why this is the case. Probably, the distinction is made to ensure that humans and cattle always receive

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This amount may be changed by the (sub)catchment councils depending on the local conditions.
priority, also in the case of drought. Also, the figure for storage capacity of 5000m$^3$ represents a value which would allow for a range of productive activities at household, or even village, level.

The reason why certain abstractions are permitted are often of administrative nature and to raise taxes for water resources management. The issue of providing water for multiple uses probably isn’t a major consideration in this. However, the current definitions leave a fair degree of flexibility for abstractions of water, including for multiple use services. Most of the small scale productive uses at household or village level would fit very well in these definitions and amounts. The Water Act therefore doesn’t pose any legal constraints on water resources for multiple uses.

In conclusion, it can be said that, even though the water resources legislation doesn’t put a constraint on developing multiple use systems, it doesn’t either actively promote it, as a comprehensive translation into a water development and management strategy for these primary purposes for the poor is not well articulated. The Water Act of 1998 gives more opportunities for a water development agenda than before, but is not very outspoken on that.

**Domestic water supply and sanitation**

Up to Independence, water development mainly intended to benefit urban dwellers and the formal agricultural sector. Little effort had been made to develop water for the rural areas and water supply for drinking water has so far been largely restricted to groundwater sources through the provision of boreholes with hand pumps.

At Independence in 1980, the Government of Zimbabwe placed great importance to the development of rural areas, particularly the Communal and Resettlement Areas, home of over 80% of Zimbabweans. In 1985 the National Master Water Plan (NMWP) was launched, in which the framework for water supply for domestic use and sanitation development in rural areas was defined for concerted actions of both government and NGOs (Inter-consult – NORAD, 1985). As part of the NMWP, the Integrated Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Programme (IRWSSP) was introduced. The IRWSSP is based on the concept of integrating the development of water and sanitation facilities with the promotion of health and hygiene education, the training and capacity building of personnel and institutions, the mobilisation of communities, the establishment of sustainable operation and maintenance systems and the transfer of technical and organisational skills and knowledge to user communities.

Health was the key driver for water supply and sanitation development. This is reflected to a large extent in the approaches, and especially in the definitions of service levels and norms and standards for water supply and sanitation. The IRWSSP focused on providing clean water for domestic use through the installation of communal boreholes and deep wells whilst Blair Ventilated Improved Pit (VIP) latrines met the sanitation requirements. To some extent the service level definitions started considering issues of water for multiple uses, but in an ad hoc way. A good example of that is how water for cattle was included in the programme. Initially, where possible, cattle troughs were provided alongside boreholes, and the costs of those were borne by the programme. However, not in all parts of the country, there was a demand for such troughs, as not everybody has cattle. In those areas, troughs ended up not being used. Then, the programme decided that if a community wanted a trough, they would have to pay those incremental costs themselves. This sounds like a fair compromise. In reality, often communities weren’t given that option, and many boreholes ended up without the
troughs. The definition of norms and standards de facto meant a limitation of what funds provided through the IRWSSP could be used for.

The realisation by government, through the NAC’s decade review in 1992, that poor operation and maintenance presented a serious challenge to sustainability of the water facilities. The review noted that the NMWP is outdated and is not able to respond to the broader livelihoods needs of the rural people through its rigid approach to technology. The water abstracting technologies limited the multiple use of water for productive in cases where water was abundant and could be used for other purposes apart from drinking. At the same time, NGO and donor-funded programmes started initiatives with other technologies such as rainwater harvesting, family wells, rope-and-washer pumps and spring water capturing gradually started to be promoted apart from the boreholes. These technologies provided more opportunities for multiple uses, and were embedded in the designed NGOs and donor funded programmes with a broader livelihoods focus.

In response to these dynamics, a revised Domestic Water Supply and Sanitation Policy is being developed and is now available in draft form. This draft policy (2004) is premised on relevant legislative provisions such as the Water Act (1998) and the other statutory instruments that include general poverty reduction policies.

The draft policy clarifies the government of Zimbabwe’s overall sector orientation with respect to all the spheres of government. Amongst others, it now recognises multiple water uses in a distinct section of the policy. It states that: “local authorities should plan to provide services necessary for basic health and hygiene as well as to support economic activities that support local economic development”. In the same vein it also provides for the research on innovative technologies that can be adopted were necessary.

So far, the domestic water supply and sanitation policies have been not very conducive to allowing for multiple uses of water, largely due to the technological standards that were used. With increasing technological innovation (mainly by NGOs) the need and possibility for multiple uses have been shown, and are now being included in new policies.

**Policies for small-holder irrigation and livestock**

Currently there is no standing national policy on smallholder irrigation. However, the promotion of smallholder irrigation development dates back to the early 1900s with government being the major player. Most of the schemes were located in the rural communities in order to promote food security through the harnessing water from rivers, dams and underground and its use through gravity or power driven mechanisms. After independence in 1980 majority (70%) of the schemes had become defunct and there was a deliberate move to rehabilitate and create new schemes. However, clear policies have never been enacted, as can be seen below:

- Policy paper on small Scale irrigation schemes by DERUDE (1983). This was the first post independence policy on small scale irrigation. It recommended that all government managed irrigation schemes should be farmer managed and that targeted subsidies be to high-risk schemes. Although the paper was used as a guide it lacked weight and backing by legislation. In addition the paper did not sufficiently cover all areas of interest in irrigation particularly at household levels how will they access water for different uses
- National Irrigation Policy and Strategy (1994). This policy emphasised equitable allocation and use of scarce resources, establishment of water pricing structure consistent with costs and social efficiency. The policy was not published or
circulated therefore was never used. Instead, the policy paper on small-scale irrigation schemes continued to be used.

- Agrarian Reform. Since independence the government of Zimbabwe has been implementing agrarian reforms. The policy on resettlement (1980) saw the rehabilitation of former large-scale irrigation schemes to accommodate the disadvantaged groups. The more recent reform has ushered in new farmers within the A1 villagised and A2 commercial farming models. A lot of the new farmers have settled on previously or currently irrigated areas and are facing challenges on water access for their different needs.

So, small-holder irrigation has developed in de facto absence of enacted small-holder irrigation policies. On the one hand, that could have given flexibility to the local level to develop schemes with the purpose of multiple uses of water, the so-called productive-plus approach. In practice, however, most of the focus has been on formal irrigation schemes, without concepts of multiple use of water (Zawe, personal communication). Robinson et al. (2004) analyse how this approach has not yielded positive results. There do not seem to be clear policy limitations why a domestic-plus cannot be pursued. However, as in the domestic water supply sector, the small-holder irrigation sector has to contend with very limited and fluctuating financing streams.

For water for livestock, both drinking and dipping tanks, no specific policies exist. In general, such provisions are supposed to be developed according to the best insights of the responsible authorities. But no specific guidance is given.

**NGO strategies**

As mentioned earlier, NGOs, UN bodies and donor programmes play an important role in the Zimbabwean water sector, in various areas of implementation, capacity building, research and advocacy. With the economic decline, which resulted in reduced national (government) capacity for investing in key sectors such as health, water and sanitation and education, their relative position is even increasing. For the last few years, the government IRWSSP had de facto come to a complete stand-still, meaning that nearly all investments in the water sector came from NGOs and UN bodies.

Although the legal framework and policies guide their operations, they often have their own specific implementation strategies, and focus of work. With the NGOs now being nearly the sole players, these strategies have gained relative importance. As we already saw, some of these strategies have helped developing technologies and approaches that facilitate providing water for broader livelihoods needs, now even influencing the draft domestic water supply and sanitation policy. The table below lists 7 of the most promising approaches and most influential organisations (out of the 50 or so in the sector). This doesn’t mean that other organisations are not following (elements of) a multiple use approach; these are among the most remarkable and influential ones.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Focus areas</th>
<th>Strategies relevant to multiple uses</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>Works for children’s rights, survival, development and protection. Their Water and Environmental Sanitation (WES) programme deals with the provision of water and sanitation services.</td>
<td>Encourages the productive water use for livelihoods enhancement. For example, water facilities implemented through their programmes have provision for drinking troughs for livestock, washing slabs, and encourage water use for gardens. Since the early 90’s UNICEF has</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
been promoting the multiple use approach for improved livelihoods and that of nutrition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Focus/Approach</th>
<th>Strategy/Programme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plan International</td>
<td>Focus mainly on improving health care, education and income generation through productive water use.</td>
<td>In its strategy Plan has continued to support projects that address poverty alleviation and income generation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Care International</td>
<td>Focus on long-term development approaches in areas of agriculture and natural resources</td>
<td>Promotes household livelihood programmes as an integrated multi-sectoral intervention whose purpose is to reduce vulnerability and improve livelihood security of drought prone areas in communal areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christian Care</td>
<td>To improve the quality of life and the self supporting capacities of disadvantaged people in Zimbabwe</td>
<td>To provide community support through nutrition gardens and health, by providing infrastructure such as water harvesting tanks for drinking water and small gardens, sand dams and small irrigation schemes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mvuramanzi Trust</td>
<td>Rural water supply and sanitation</td>
<td>The Trust’s focus shifted from primarily working on communal water points (usually bore wells fitted with hand pumps), to a focus on family water sources with low-cost high yield pumps. In this, specific attention is given to water and livelihoods for those infected and affected with HIV/AIDS.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAO</td>
<td>FAO’s mandate it is to raise levels of nutrition, improve agricultural productivity, better the lives of rural populations and contribute to the growth of the world economy</td>
<td>Supports community programmes and projects dealing with water use for agriculture, irrigation, aquaculture, livestock and other uses of water. Amongst others it aims to improve water productivity by use of better technology in irrigation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pump Aid</td>
<td>Pump Aid tackles poverty by working with local communities to establish sustainable supplies of clean water for improved health and increased agricultural production using low cost and environmental friendly technologies.</td>
<td>Through the development of the Elephant Pump (a kind of rope and washer pump) they promote use of water for multiple purposes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some of these organisations are not working in the water sector only, and have therefore a broader overall approach to livelihoods. Water development is then expected to contribute to this broader objective. At the same time, some organisations which have a strong tradition in the water sector (especially Mvuramanzi Trust and Pump Aid) have focused on technological innovation, driven by a range of motivations, especially the search for cheaper technologies, with less Operation and Maintenance requirements (more details about the different technologies will be given in Guzha et al., forthcoming). The combination of the two has proved to be conducive to the development of multiple use services. It is difficult to trace back the exact path through which these combinations came into existence. However, part of the answer can be found in the way in which coordination and sharing of experiences takes place.
Coordination amongst sectors and actors

As in any country, in Zimbabwe there are specialised agencies for different aspects of the water cycle: water resources management, water supply and sanitation and irrigation. Multiple uses of water imply coordination and cooperation within and across the sectors in order to be able to provide an integrated response to people’s water needs. Within the sector, coordination is needed to guarantee synergies and avoiding duplication.

Water resources management

Theoretically, Catchment Councils (CCs) and Sub-Catchment Councils (SCCs) have a potential role in planning and regulating water use and development for multiple uses at (sub)-catchment level. As mentioned, these types of multiple uses imply either water for primary use, or those that do not require permit for storage and are hence not directly under control of these agencies. However, it may consider these uses in their overall (sub)-catchment planning, and defending water rights for these uses in comparison to large-scale users if adequately empowered by legislation. It must be noted that currently many of the (S)CCs are not very active.

Domestic water supply and sanitation

There is a wide range of organisations with some role in domestic water supply and sanitation. Therefore, mechanisms for coordination at different levels have been established since the beginning of the IRWSSP. However, most of those aimed to get coordination within the sector, not across to other sub-sectors, as we will see in this section. Table 2 provides a summary of the different mechanisms, and involved actors. Each one of those will be detailed below.

Table 2: distribution of coordination and implementation functions between three levels of local Government.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Coordination</th>
<th>Implementation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>- National Action Committee (NAC )</td>
<td>- Sector ministries</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- National Coordination Unit (NCU)</td>
<td>- Private sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Water and Environmental Sanitation Working Group (WES-WG)</td>
<td>- NGOs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Province</td>
<td>- Provincial Water and Sanitation Sub-Committee (PWSSC)</td>
<td>- Sector ministries</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- NGOs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Private sector (drillers, trainers, manufacturers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District</td>
<td>- Rural District Council (RDC)</td>
<td>- RDC</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- District Water and Sanitation Sub-Committee (DWSSC)</td>
<td>- Sector ministries (extension staff)</td>
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<td>- NGOs</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Local private sector</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Community based structures</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Village Development Committee (VIDCO)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Ward Development Committee (WADCO)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>- Health Clubs</td>
</tr>
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</table>
At national level, IRWSSP was run on an inter-ministerial basis between the following ministries and agencies: the then Ministry of Local Government Public Works and National Housing (MLGPWNH), Ministry of Youth Development, Gender and Employment Creation (MYDGEC), Ministry of Health and Child Welfare (MoHCW), the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (MFED), Ministry of Water Resources and Infrastructural Services (MWRIS), the District Development Fund (DDF), and Agriculture Research and Extension Services (AREX) (see figure 1). The leadership of the inter-ministerial co-ordinating committee lies with the National Action Committee (NAC), chaird by the then MLGPWNH, with a National Coordination Unit (NCU) acting as its secretariat. The NAC is responsible for the overall coordination, management and monitoring of the sector of actions of both NGOs and government.

Figure 2: The structure of NAC

The district level is where the actual provision of WASH services takes place. Within the NMWP provision was made for the establishment of provincial and district water and sanitation sub-committees (PWSSCs and DWSSCs), which include local government, representatives of de-concentrated line ministries and NGOs. At district level, these sub-committees are coordinated by the Rural District Councils (RDCs), being the key local planning authorities. With decentralisation, the RDCs were made the project managers in their areas of jurisdiction and resources were channelled directly to the RDCs instead of through line ministries.

Day-to-day management of water and sanitation services is the responsibility of communities under the current focus on Community-Based Management (CBM). Structures such as Water Point Committees (WPCs) and health clubs normally take up these tasks. Where they still exist, they may be linked to ward development committees (WADCOs) and village development committees (VIDCOs).
Despite the fact that all these structures have been set up at all levels to bring about coordination, many of these are no longer effective or have become redundant. The main reason for that is the drying up of government financing for WASH services provision. So, there is hardly anything to coordinate anymore. NGOs are still investing in the sector but increasingly tend to by-pass the coordination structures, especially at district level, and directly work with communities.

Even at national level, the coordination role of NAC and NCU is no longer as strong as it used to be. Many NGOs are implementing water and sanitation programmes within the framework of the NMWP, but tend to use their own focus areas and strategies.

In response to this situation, there has been an effort to enhance coordinate through the Water and Environmental Working Group (WES-WG) being chaired by UNICEF (Jonga, 2005). This is not so much a formal co-ordinating body but a loose association of sector agencies that have common interest in developing WASH services for the poor and disadvantaged. Currently the WES-WG is now recognised as a sub committee of the NAC, which reports through the sustainability sub committee. It has legitimacy of the range of sector organisation. The issue of multiple uses has gradually come onto the WES-WG agenda, when NGOs started sharing their experiences with it in their programmes, and when concerns about technologies were raised. At a later stage, a more structured approach, this was more formalised by hosting the learning alliance on multiple uses of water, established through the MUS project. In this learning alliance, various organisations report on their experiences with MUS approaches. This was felt to be a big need, as many of the experiences are not well documented. The sharing through meetings tries to fill this gap. Another example of how multiple use came onto the agenda, is around technological innovation. In response to members' concerns about the costs of different technologies, a technical task force was established reviewing existing technological options. In this, they looked at different costs and benefits of technologies, and ways where to reduce costs and improve benefits. Additional benefits in terms of technologies that are able to supply more water for productive purposes became included here as well.

Smallholder irrigation

A wide range of government institutions have been responsible for the development of (smallholder) irrigation as from the early 1980s. Responsibility for small holder irrigation schemes has shifted from one department or ministry to another in line with changes happening in the government circles for example the formation of a new irrigation branch in 1985 by combining irrigation functions of Department of Rural Development (DERUDE) and irrigation extension services functions of Agritex. Its mandate was to develop, manage and operate irrigation schemes together with farmers. The other was the formation of department of irrigation within the Ministry of Rural Resources and Water Development to take over the functions of irrigation branch so as to expand the drive to develop irrigation from the land resettlement programme. In addition to institution listed in table 2, the Department of Veterinary Services also had a role in the provision and maintenance of cattle dips and advice on dipping and animal health.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agency</th>
<th>Mandate</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Lands resettlement and Rural Development now Ministry of Agriculture and Land Resettlement.</td>
<td>Overall policy making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Rural Development (DERUDE)</td>
<td>Responsible for the entire process of development of irrigation schemes, such planning, design and implementation, but also the establishment of irrigation management committees and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agency</td>
<td>Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural Rural Development Authority (ARDA)</td>
<td>Advice and consultancy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agritex (Agricultural Extension), now called AREX</td>
<td>Agriculture extension and training programs for irrigators.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Research and Specialist Services</td>
<td>Soil surveys, soil testing and analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ministry of Water Resources and Development (MWRD)</td>
<td>Provision and development of water supplies, installation and maintenance of pumping units, weirs and fencing up the field edge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What is relevant here, is whether and how these agencies coordinate or do joint planning with the domestic water supply agencies, especially at local level. Out of this list, only AREX and the Ministry of Water Resources and Development, are the only ones who form part of the domestic water supply coordination mechanisms as described above, the NAC, the PWSSC and DWSSC. During the field visits, representatives of AREX and the MWRD proved to be open to the concept of multiple uses, but it wasn’t an issue which had come up earlier in the DWSSC meetings. As mentioned earlier, there is scope for a productive plus approach, but having coordination mechanisms, in which different sectors are represented, isn’t necessarily a guarantee for initiating the approach.
Conclusions and implications for scaling up multiple use services

When analysing the policies and legislation in relation to multiple uses of water, we have mainly looked at whether these actually hinder, enable or promote the application of a multiple use approach. This showed that policies for poverty alleviation are not explicit on the role of water in that. Only, from the perspective of HIV/AIDS, these links have been recognised, but by the water sector. The water resources legislation leaves flexibility at local level to harness water resources for small-scale productive uses. The allowance for which no permit is needed, are generous enough to allow for typical small-scale uses to take place. However, this opportunity hasn't been seized by the domestic water supply or irrigation sector in the form of clear policies or guidelines on the development of water services for multiple purposes. In fact, a limited focus on health only and rigid technology standards have in the past even limited the use of water for multiple uses. Only recently, interest has been expressed in a productive-plus approach, but no further steps are taken to move ahead with that. Limited financing for irrigation infrastructure development is among the reasons. With the economic crisis that Zimbabwe is currently going through, the relative position of NGOs is increasing. Working within the national policy framework, they have been able to develop a broader livelihoods approach to water, and have started technological innovations. The new draft water supply and sanitation policy is taking cognisance of these developments and promoting multiple uses of water.

Although coordination within and across sectors could provide another opportunity for promoting multiple uses of water at different levels, this is only happening to a limited extent. Many of the previously existing coordination mechanisms, especially at district level, have collapsed or are inactive. These coordination mechanisms have mainly brought together stakeholders from within the sector, notably the water supply and sanitation sector. Where the district level coordination mechanisms still exist, there is some participation of agricultural organisations, but that hasn't lead to the concept of multiple use being taken forward.

Despite this bleak picture, there is a growing momentum, largely inspired by NGOs, to take the mus approach forward. A first element of that is that sharing and learning about experiences is taking place, through the WES WG, in which government, NGOs and UN agencies participate. This provides a forum for learning and sharing of innovations, experiences on technologies and approaches in the water sector. Multiple uses of water is receiving particular attention.

A key next step would now be for the sector organisations to take the approach forward in the work they do in the districts. Some NGOs are already following the approach, but not all. By being member of the WES-WG, these NGOs may pick up the ideas and start applying it in their own work. In addition, ideally, government would make it part of their programmes as well. To some extent that is already happening through the new draft policy. However, with the extremely limited government investments in the sector, it is not likely that this will soon translate into service delivery on the ground.

Even though most district level structures are hardly functional any more, it would be recommended that the organisations working in the sector, start sharing their experiences with mus also at that level. There are efforts to re-vitalise these structures. This can be seen as an opportunity to start institutionalising the mus approach locally, even when realising the current sector limitations.
References

Department of Irrigation (1982) Policy paper on small irrigation schemes


PumpAid (2006) www.pumpaid.org
