Review of Rainwater Harvesting Techniques and Evidence for their Use in Semi-Arid Tanzania

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Abstract

Rainwater harvesting (RWH) should be regarded as a continuum of techniques that link in-situ soil-water conservation at one extreme to conventional irrigation at the other. In-situ RWH, comprises a group of techniques for preventing runoff and promoting infiltration. Micro-catchment RWH comprises a group of techniques for collecting overland flow (sheet or rill) from a catchment area and delivering it to a cropped area in order to supplement the inadequate direct rainfall. The transfer normally occurs over a relatively short distance entirely within the land-holding of an individual farmer and the system is therefore sometimes known as an "internal catchment".. Macro-catchment RWH comprises a group of techniques in which natural runoff is collected from a relatively large area and transferred over a longer distance. Examples of each of these categories of RWH exist in parts of Tanzania, but their potential is largely neglected by research and extension services and they are under-exploited. The purpose of this paper was to assess the extent to which the different rainwater harvesting systems, are used in Tanzania. The findings show that there is a widespread practice of rainwater harvesting in Tanzania. Rainwater harvesting with storage of water for livestock has received government support in the past. However, many storage reservoirs have been destroyed by siltation. On the other hand rainwater harvesting for crop production has not received an adequate support from research and extension services. Therefore, although farmers are practicing rainwater harvesting, they are faced with shortage of appropriate technologies and knowledge.

Keywords: Rainwater harvesting, runoff agriculture, soil-water conservation, micro-catchments, macro-catchments

Introduction

In the semi-arid areas of Tanzania, agriculture and the livelihoods that depend upon it are greatly affected by the unreliable and highly variable rainfall regime. Any attempt to improve agriculture therefore must tackle the moisture constraint, but knowledge of appropriate techniques is surprisingly poor. It appears that a significant knowledge gap exists between two areas that have previously received far greater attention. On one hand, widespread concern about land degradation has led to a focus on soil erosion control. On the other hand, efforts to exploit water resources have led to a focus on irrigation. Between these two extremes, the middle ground of rainwater harvesting (RWH) has been largely neglected, although it represents the best prospect for sustainable intensification for the vast majority of dryland farmers. The challenge is to identify and disseminate appropriate technologies that will reduce their vulnerability to drought.

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Critiques of colonial and post-colonial soil conservation projects in sub-Saharan Africa began to appear in the late 1980s and various authors (Scoones *et al.*, 1996; Pretty and Shah, 1999) have pointed to the failure of approaches that attempt to impose technical "solutions" on unwilling farmers. A wide-ranging review by Hudson (1991) identified reasons for success or failure and defined what new farming practices should offer in order to be adopted by farmers. The well-documented experience of Machakos District in Kenya (Tiffen *et al.*, 1994) shows what is achievable when conditions are right. This is also made clear in the paper by Hatibu et al.(1999). The emergence of a new style of natural resource management, that is based on participatory approaches, provoked a re-evaluation of indigenous soil-and-water conservation techniques (Reij *et al.*, 1988; IFAD, 1992; Reij *et al.*, 1996). The question then became: how can external interventions transfer knowledge and facilitate technological innovation by farmers?

This review provides the context to the RWH research activity by first examining what is known about indigenous practices and introduced RWH techniques. Rainwater harvesting should be regarded as a continuum of techniques that links in-situ soil-water conservation at one extreme to conventional irrigation at the other. It can be defined as the practice of collecting rainfall run-off for cultivation (Pacey and Cullis, 1986; Boers and Ben Asher, 1982). Various attempts have been made to classify the different techniques according to the nature of the runoff process involved (Critchley and Siegert, 1991; Prinz, 1995; Barrow, 1999). For simplicity, this paper adopts a classification according to the size ratio and transfer distance between runoff producing normally called Catchment Area (CA) and the runoff receiving area, normally called Cropped Basin (CB).

In situ Rainwater Harvesting

In-situ RWH, otherwise known as soil-water conservation, comprises a group of techniques for preventing runoff and promoting infiltration. The aim is to retain moisture that would otherwise be wasted as runoff from the cropped area. Rain is conserved where it falls, but no additional runoff is introduced from elsewhere.

This approach is appropriate where the main constraints are soil-related, but rainfall is adequate. Water acceptance may be hindered by low rate of infiltration caused by surface crusting (capping). Alternatively, the problem may be attributable to low percolation rate caused by restrictive layers in the soil profile. These problems may be due to inherent soil characteristics or to previous mismanagement (e.g. formation of plough pan, compaction by trampling).

The following techniques can be identified:

i) Conservation Tillage

Conservation tillage is a generic term for the use of tillage techniques to promote in-situ moisture conservation. This can be achieved by creating micro-relief to increase retention storage (e.g. tied ridges), by breaking sub-surface pans by deep cultivation (e.g. chisel ploughing), or by contour ridges. Figure 1 illustrates effect of tillage on these characteristics. Recent research in semi-arid areas of sub-Sahara Africa (SSA) has been well documented in Kenya (Kiome and Stocking, 1993), in Zimbabwe (Twomlow and Hagmann, 1998) and more generally by Morse (1996). Experience in Tanzania is discussed by Rwehumbiza et al. (1999). These systems are well adapted to tractor and/or draught animal cultivation.

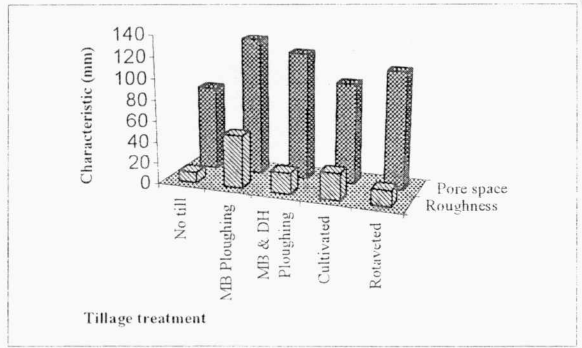

Figure 1: Effect of tillage on porosity and surface roughness

ii) Pitting

Planting pits (Figure 2) have been documented as an indigenous practice in Mali, Burkina Faso and Niger, where they are known as zay, zai or tassia (Reij *et al.*, 1996). In Tanzania, a notable example is the "ngoro" technique of the Matengo Highlands in Mbinga District. This system was documented during the colonial era (Pike, 1939; Stenhouse, 1944) and has received recent attention (Willcocks *et al.*, 1996). In semi-arid Tanzania, pits are typically about 30 cm diameter and 20 cm deep. The system is well adapted to hand cultivation and is beneficial especially when soil surface capping is a problem.

Micro-catchment RWH

Micro-catchment RWH comprises a group of techniques for collecting overland flow (sheet or rill) and delivering it to a cropped area in order to supplement the inadequate direct rainfall. This system involves a distinct division of CA and CB, but the two zones are adjacent. The transfer distance is typically in the range 5 m to 50 m. Both CA and CB are normally situated within the land holding of an individual farmer. The system is therefore sometimes known as an "internal catchment" system.

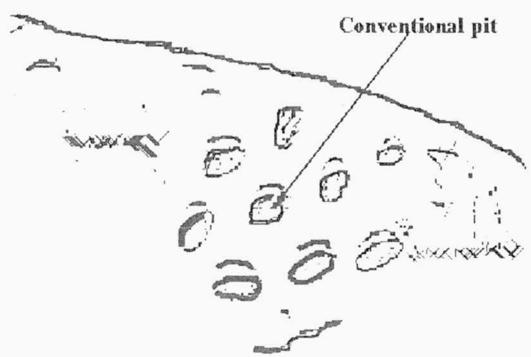

Figure 2: Layout of Pitting RWH

The short transfer distance ensures that the system offers relatively high runoff efficiency, possibly yielding as much as 50% of precipitation compared with as little as 5% contribution to streamflow in a natural catchment. The small catchment size ensures that the flow volume and speed are limited and soil erosion is therefore relatively easy to control. The main disadvantage of the system is that it involves leaving uncropped areas within the farmer's field. In evaluating the benefit therefore it is important to account for the opportunity cost of the cropped area.

The following techniques can be identified:

i) Strip catchment tillage

This technique (also known as contour strip cropping) involves alternating strips of crops with strips of grass or cover crops. Cultivation's are usually restricted to the row-planted crop strips. The uncultivated strips release runoff into adjacent crop strips (Figure 3). The system is normally used on gentle slopes (up to 2%) with the strip width being adjusted to suit the gradient. The CA: CB ratio is normally less than 2:1.

The system is widely practiced in many semi-arid areas, although farmers and extension workers may not recognise it as a RWH measure. Various studies have reported reduction in soil erosion and runoff, but little research has been done to evaluate improvement in crop performance (Kiome and Stocking, 1993). The system is suited to most crops and is easy to mechanize.

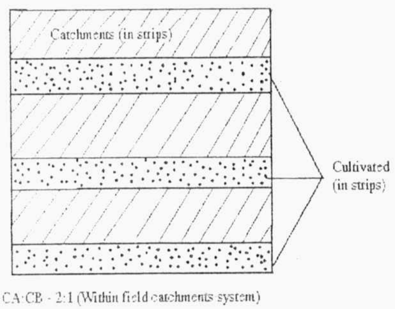

Figure 3: RWH with strip catchment tillage

ii) Contour barriers

This technique involves the creation of cross-slope barriers, which may be vegetative (grass strips, trash lines) or mechanical (stone lines, earth bunds). The barrier intercepts runoff from upslope and promotes infiltration in the cropped area. In the case of earth bunds, the barrier is designed to be impermeable and water is ponded behind it. Other barriers are semi-permeable and aim to slow down and filter runoff without ponding.

Contour bunds have been advocated widely in the past as a method of soil erosion control on slopes up to 5%. They are generally constructed manually with soil either being thrown upslope (*fanya juu*) or downslope (*fanya chini*). The former system has been successfully adopted in Machakos District of Kenya, but the latter system is more common in steep slope areas in Arusha, Morogoro, and Tanga Regions in Tanzania. Bunds are usually closely spaced (2 to 5 m). There are many reported experiences of failure due to breakage or overtopping of bunds, which may lead to progressive downslope damage due to flow concentration. This problem is generally associated with poor alignment and poor maintenance of the bunds. The risk is reduced if intermittent structures rather than continuous contour bunds are created. These structures (sometimes described as demi-lunes or lunettes) are found as a traditional practice in parts of West Africa (e.g. Niger). They are similar to water-spreading structures described below.

Stone barriers offer advantages over earth bunds in certain circumstances. In particular, the risk of overtopping and progressive failure due to flow concentration is reduced. There is a long tradition of their use in parts of West Africa (IFAD, 1992; Reij *et al.*, 1988) and they have been promoted widely as a RWH technique in recent years. Stone lines (Figure 4) are normally constructed manually approximately following the contour at spacing of 15 to 30 m depending largely on the amount of stones available. They are recommended for slopes up to about 2%.

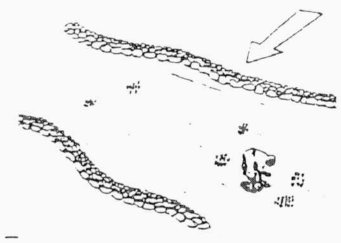

Figure 4: RWH with contour bunding (IFAD, 1992)

Semi-permeable barriers can also be formed using trash-lines (straw, crop residue, brushwood) or live barriers (grass strips, contour hedges). Trashlines are known to be in use as a traditional practice in Tanzania (Thornton, 1980). They have received little research attention, but Kiome and Stocking (1993) reported that they were successful as a RWH method in semi-arid Kenya. Grass strips are similar in principle to strip catchment tillage, but normally involve a narrower band (typically one metre) of a specially planted grass species. Particular emphasis has been given to vetiver grass but Srivastava *et al.* (1993) provide a full list of commonly used species. Contour hedges, possibly using leguminous perennials, can also provide an effective barrier (possibly combined with stone lines), but experience indicates that they are better suited to more humid environments, since competition for moisture is likely to be a problem in semi-arid conditions.

iii) Basin systems

This practice is commonly known as the "negarim" micro-catchment technique and is perhaps the best known RWH system. It is also known as the *meskat* system. In this system each micro-catchment feeds runoff to a discrete cropped basin (Figure 5). The basin size is typically in the range 10 m^2 to 100 m^2 and is surrounded by an earth bund approximately 30 to 40 cm high. They are particularly well suited to tree crops, but other crops can be grown successfully under non-mechanised farming systems. There is a long tradition of using this system in arid regions with low-intensity winter rainfall (Evenari *et al.*, 1971; Oweis and Taimeh, 1996). There is no experience of systematically designed micro-catchment basin systems in semi-arid Tanzania other than the research reported later in this issue. However, it is apparent that some farmers recognise the natural redistribution of runoff that occurs in the farming landscape and adjust their management to reflect differences in land capability.

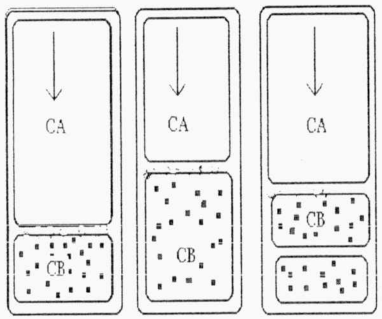

Figure 5 **RWH with Meskat-type Bunding**

Macro-catchment RWH

Macro-catchment RWH comprises a group of techniques for harvesting runoff from a catchment area (CA) and delivering it to a cropped area (CB), where CA and CB may have markedly different characteristics (e.g. slope and soil) and the transfer distance may be in the range 100 metres to several kilometres. The catchment generally lies outside the land holding of the farmer(s) using the runoff, so the system is sometimes known as an "external catchment" system. This distinct separation can be particularly beneficial if runoff events can be harvested at times when there is no direct rainfall in the cropped area.

The runoff efficiency is normally less than for a micro-catchment system, but the large catchment area ensures that the runoff volume and flow rates are high. This gives rise to problems in managing potentially damaging peak flows, which may lead to serious erosion and/or sediment deposition. Substantial channels and runoff control structures may be required and this usually involves collective effort amongst a group of farmers for construction and maintenance. This sometimes gives rise to problems over management of water distribution.

The following techniques can be identified:

i) Hillside systems

These systems exploit hillslope runoff processes by which runoff from stony outcrops and grazing lands in upland areas tends to flow naturally downslope. Some farmers grow their crops in wetter lowland areas, which receive runoff in this way without any active manipulation or management. Farms in these areas are called *mashamba ya mbugani* and are found throughout semi-arid Tanzania grown with maize, rice, sugar cane, vegetables and bananas. They are attractive not only for their improved moisture regime, but also because of higher fertility levels due to enrichment. In some villages there is high demand for such land and favoured areas which also have good access and low risk of flooding tend to be fully exploited.

One technique for improving the capture of hillslope runoff involves the construction of cross-slope barriers and basins using earth bunds to intercept and store runoff. In principle, these systems are similar to contour barriers and basin-type micro-catchment systems, but they involve larger external catchments (Figure 6). In Tanzania the *majaluba* system of Sukumaland is the best known example. It is used primarily for production of rainfed lowland rice (Meertens *et al.*, 1999). It is arguably not a traditional practice (Shaka *et al.*, 1996), but its introduction can be traced to the colonial era (Thornton and Allnut, 1949) and its rapid adoption and spread indicates the potential of RWH in semi-arid areas.

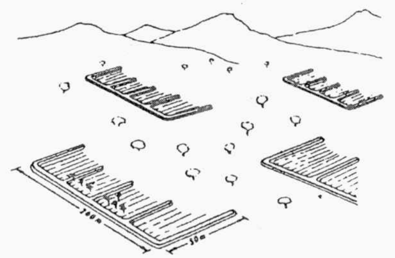

Figure 6: **Example of hill sheet flow RWH (After Reij, 1991).**

An alternative technique involves the construction of hillside conduits, which are dug along the contour to intercept runoff and convey it to an area suitable for crop production. The construction effort is justified if the hillslope runoff would otherwise not reach land that is suitable for cropping. This tends to be the case where low-intensity rain falls on stoney hillsides (Evenari *et al.*, 1971). Carter and Miller (1991) reported on experiments with similar systems in Botswana with CA:CB ratios between 17:1 and 50:1. Some *majaluba* systems receive runoff in a similar way by using cattle-tracks as channels and constructed conduits.

ii) Stream-bed systems

These systems use barriers, such as permeable stone dams or earth banks, to intercept water flowing in an ephemeral stream (wadi) and spread it across adjacent valley terraces to enhance infiltration (Figures 7). This technique is sometimes known as the *liman* system and is difficult to distinguish from spate irrigation. In north India (especially Rajasthan) the *khadin* system has received considerable attention (Hudson, 1992). In east Sudan a similar system, known locally as *teras* has also been studied extensively (van Dijk and Ahmed, 1993). The size of these structures varies a great deal, but some systems run for several kilometres with one structure spilling excess flow to another downslope and so on (Kolakar *et al.*, 1983). Normally, planting occurs at the end of the wet season using stored soil moisture.

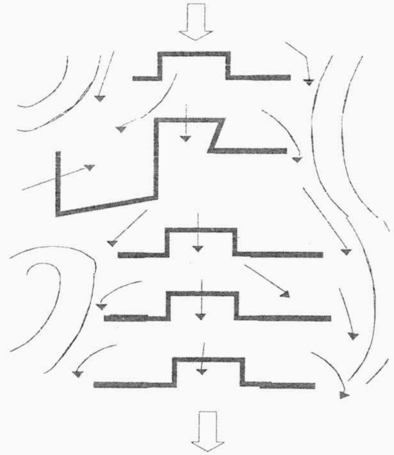

Figure 7: **Flood water harvesting within the streambed**

iii) Ephemeral stream diversion

These systems are also difficult to distinguish from spate irrigation, since they involve diverting water from an ephemeral stream and conveying it to a cropped area. There are two distinct ways of distributing the water in the cropped area. The first uses a cascade of open trapezoidal or semi-circular bunds (Figure 8). The water fills the top basin and spills around the end of the bund into the next basin (sometimes known as *caag* system). In the second system, the field is divided into closed basins and water is distributed either through a channel or in a basin-to-basin cascade using small spillways (as in the *majaluba* system).

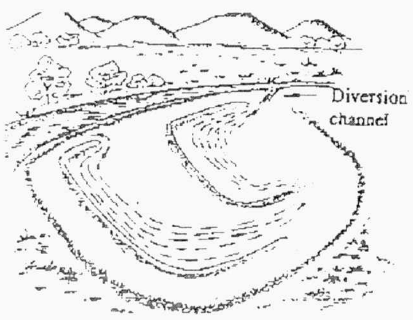

Figure 8: Ephemeral stream diversion (After Reij, 1991)

Traditional diversion structures may be earth banks, stone walls or brushwood barriers. They are subject to frequent damage and are likely to be washed away by large floods. Attempts to improve such systems by building "permanent" diversion structures concrete or stone-filled gabions have often encountered problems with flows by-passing the structure or with diversion of damaging flows during large floods. Similar difficulties occurred in Tanzania in the IFAD supported project to expand RWH systems for rice in Dodoma, Shinyanga, Mwanza, Tabora and Singida Regions. Considerable attention has been devoted to developing improved methodologies for planning and design of these systems (Tauer and Humborg, 1992).

iv) Storage systems

Macro-catchment RWH systems often yield high volumes of runoff and it may be advantageous to store it in a reservoir or use it to recharge groundwater. Simple reservoir systems have been used widely for livestock watering. They are sometimes known as "charco dams" or "haffirs". Siltation is often a problem and the labour requirement for sediment removal can be a considerable burden. Evaporation and seepage losses may also be high, but in some cases they are avoided by using sand dams as a method of small-scale groundwater recharge.

Conclusions

Evidence, that is largely anecdotal, suggests that water harvesting for various purposes is a widespread practice in Tanzania. In most instances the practice is opportunistic, but there are a number of traditional techniques in which runoff collection and distribution is actively managed. Some documented studies exist, but knowledge is patchy. Rainwater harvesting has been largely neglected by research and extension services, but represents the best prospect for sustainable intensification for the vast majority of dryland farmers. The challenge is to identify and disseminate appropriate technologies that will reduce vulnerability to rainfall variability and scarcity in the semi-arid areas.

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Evaluation of Contour Barriers for Soil and Water Conservation in Western Pare Low Lands, Tanzania

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Abstract

A study was undertaken in Mwanga District in the Western Pare Low Lands (WPLL) for seven seasons (1993 – 1999) to investigate the performance of three soil and water conservation techniques with regard to the production of maize, on land with 8% slope. Conservation treatments were, stone bunding (SB), contour ridging (CR), and live barriers (LB). Control treatments were flat cultivation (FC) and zero tillage (ZT). The treatments had no significant effect on profile moisture content. However, averaged over the entire study period and during long rains, SB, CR, and LB performed equally well with grain yield of between 2.5 to 2.7 tons per hectare. Flat Cultivation had 2.2 tons ha $^{-1}$ while ZT had only 1.7 tons ha $^{-1}$. Between treatments and during short rains, grain yield varied within a very narrow range of 0.8 to 0.9 tons ha $^{-1}$. If the 1997/98 season which was abnormal (El Nino rains) is excluded, overall mean grain yield would be very low at 0.3 tons ha $^{-1}$. Stone bunding and live barrier treatments had an additional advantage in that the barriers (5m apart) had over the years been transformed into bench terraces. Given the small increment in yield which was realized, the techniques can not be recommended for moisture conservation in this agro-ecological zone. However, since the barriers were effective in controlling soil crip down slope, they could be recommeded as a long term strategy for soil erosion control where this is considered a threat.

Key words: Contour barriers, soil and water conservation, erosion, stone bunding, vetiver grass, soil bunding.

Introduction

The problem of soil-water losses through surface runoff and evaporation is one of the major limiting factors in agricultural production in semi-arid areas (Rockstrom and de Rouw, 1997). Contour barriers comprise a group of techniques, which involve laying barriers along the contour to control surface runoff. These include techniques such as soil bunds, ridges, stone lines, trash lines and live hedges of grass, crops, bushes and trees. Examples of soil bunds include techniques such as *fanya- juu* and *fanya-chini* popularly used in Kenya (Thomas, 1997; Tiffen *et al.*, 1994) and the *Matengo* or *ngoro* pits used in south-west Tanzania (Tarimo *et al.*, 1998). Trash lines are barriers formed by placing crop residues or other plant material along the contour or across the field. Stone bunds are preferred in stony areas and are often formed as part of the process of clearing stones from the cultivated part of the field (IFAD, 1992). Live barriers involve the growing of strips of grass or other vegetations to intercept and slow down surface runoff. Vetiver grass (*Vetiveria zizanioides*) is

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one type of grass which has been widely promoted for soil and water conservation (Truong and Scattini, 1990). Work carried out at ICRISAT, India by Rao *et al.* (1991) revealed that vetiver grass was superior in reducing soil and water losses when compared to stone bunds, lemon grass and bare ground (control). They reported that the vetiver grass reduced rainfall runoff by 57% and soil loss by over 80%. At CIAT, Colombia, Laing and Ruppenthal, (1991) reported that vetiver hedges reduced soil loss from 142 tons/ha for bare fallow to 1.3 tons/ha for cropped cassava between vetiver hedges. Rainfall runoff was reduced from 11.6% to 3.6%.

Runoff plots involving flat and ridge cropping on a 4% slope at SUA, Morogoro showed that these treatments had no effect on maize grain yield (Gebremedhin, 1996). The yield was 2,300 $kgha^{-1}$ and 2,600 $kgha^{-1}$ respectively in flat and ridge cropping. The above was against the background of 1,570 m^3ha^{-1} (157mm) and 352 m^3ha^{-1} (35.2 mm) loss in runoff. Soil loss in flat and ridge cropping was 12.5 tha^{-1} and 2.5 tha^{-1} respectively. The lack of statistical significancy in grain yield was attributed to adequate and well-distributed rains.

Soil bunding is by far the most effective and widely practiced field measure for controlling or preventing erosion (Singh *et al.*, 1994). The conservation treatments meant to reduce or prevent sheet erosion also desirably conserve moisture. Land configuration options for sustainable crop production in southern India indicate that, for slopes less that 8% with scanty or erratic rainfall, contour soil bunding is practised to intercept the run-off flowing down the slope by an embankment whose ends may be closed or open to conserve moisture as well as reduce soil erosion (Selvaraju *et al.*, 1999). However, by their nature earth bunds can easily be washed away by flash floods. This problem is reduced by using barriers which are permeable.

Permeable barriers do not completely stop the runoff but slow it down and spread the water over the field thus enhancing water infiltration and reducing soil erosion. Silt trapped on the higher side of the barrier build-up to form natural terraces (Hudson, 1995). Compared with impermeable soil bunds, permeable contour-line barriers have the advantage of low risk of being damaged (Reijntjes *et al.*, 1992).

The new approach to soil and water conservation in semi-arid area is to focus on productivity enhancement rather than just erosion control (Stocking and Peake, 1987). This is because, in the semi-arid areas, crop yields are likely to be reduced more by loss of water rather than by that of soil. Therefore, it is important to reassess existing soil and water conservation techniques, interms of their effects on water conservation and hence productivity.

The main objective of this study was therefore to compare the performance of three soil conservation techniques, in relation to productivity of maize on fields with a 8% slope, in drought prone areas.

Materials and methods

Site description

The study was conducted in the Western Pare Lowlands (WPLL) in Kisangara village, Mwanga District, Kilimanjaro Region. The experimental site was located on an 8% slope. Before 1993 the area was under sisal. The climate is semi-arid with two rainy seasons. The short rains (*Vuli*) last from October to January. The long rains (*Masika*) last from February to June. Monthly rainfall amounts from 1993 to 1999 during *Vuli* and *Masika* are presented in Tables 1 (a) and (b), respectively. The soils on the experimental site are *Acri Ferric Luvisol* (FAO) or *Typic Plinthustalf* (USDA) (Ngatoluwa *et al.*, 1995).

Table 1 (a): Monthly rainfall data during *Vuli* at Kisangara from 1993 to 1999

Month	1993/94	1994/95	1995/96	*1997/98	1998/99
October	45.4	18.5	10.0	97.0	0.0
November	18.7	51.1	2.0	200.0	95.8
December	90.8	246.0	115.0	272.7	34.8
January	14.0	3.0	69.5	367.0	32.4
Season total	168.9	318.6	196.5	936.7	163.0

(**El Nino* rains).

Table 1(b): Monthly rainfall data during *Masika* at Kisangara from 1993 to 1999 (**El Nino* rains)

Month	1993	1994	1995	*1998	1999
February	47.5	66.0	61.5	77.2	5.0
March	74.1	189.6	196.5	20.5	194.1
April	99.7	36.5	149.5	299.7	92.7
May	43.8	88	102.1	164.5	75.0
June	0.0	1.0	0.0	1.6	29.8
Season total	265.1	381.1	509.6	563.5	396.6

Experimental design and lay-out

The study comprised of three (3) conservation treatments and two, (2) control treatments. Conservation treatments were: stone bunds (SB), contour ridges (CR), and live barriers of vetiver grass (LB). Control treatments were flat cultivation (FC) and zero tillage (ZT). A Complete Randomised Block Design (CRBD) with three replicates was adopted. The blocks (replications) run across the general slope. Each plot measured 25 m along the slope and 5 m across. Contour ridges, live barriers and stone bunds were spaced 5 m apart in each plot. Thus, each plot had four barriers. The stone bunds were built to a height of about 0.4 m.

Agronomic practices

Tillage for the SB, LB, CR, and FC treatments was done using a hand hoe, which is the common means of land preparation in the area. For the ZT treatment, the soil was loosened only where seed was sown. The land is usually clear of vegetation at the beginning of the rain season. The grass had since long died or been eaten by termites (or grazing animals under traditional practice). Thus, sowing without any primary tillage was not much of a problem.

Maize cultivar TMV1 was used as a test crop. Seed was sown at a spacing of 30 cm x 75 cm by placing two seeds per hill. Phosphatic fertilizer was applied at planting at a rate of 40 kg P/ha as TSP 46%. Sulphate of Ammonia (SA) at a rate of 40 kg N/ha was applied between the 2nd and the 3rd week after planting depending on soil moisture condition.

Measurements

Plant height was determined on 20 randomly selected plants from the central row in each treatment. Measurements were taken at 14, 25, 33, 41, 48 and 58 days after planting. Grain yield and biomass were determined at harvest.

Three sub-sampling plots were marked out in the upper, middle and lower parts of the main plot. Each subplot had an area of 6.6 m^2 and measured 2.2 m wide and incorporated 4 crop rows. Maize ears were removed from the stem leaving the husks intact and still attached to the stems. Stems were then cut at ground level for biomass determination. The grain and vegetative parts were oven dried to constant weight at 60°C. The weights were used to calculate grain and biomass yield. The sampling area was used to extrapolate yield per hectare.

The deposition of soil material on the upper side of the barriers was monitored at the end of each season by determining the depth of the deposition.

Rainfall was recorded using a standard rain gauge located at about 30 m from the plots. An automatic tipping electronic rain gauge (with data logger) was installed during the last two seasons.

Soil moisture was monitored fortnightly using a Theta Probe at 10, 30 and 50 cm depth. A soil auger was used to make a hole to the desired depth before introducing the probe.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed with Statgraphics Version 5 (Statistical Graphics Corporation, USA).

Results

Rainfall data

During *Vuli*, total rainfall amount varied from 163 mm (in 1998/99) to 937 mm (in 1997/98) (Table 1a). In *Masika*, seasonal rainfall varied from 265 to 564 mm respectively for 1993 and 1998 (Table 1b). It is important to note that *El Nino* affected the 1997/98 *Vuli* and 1998 *Masika* seasons cited above. The rainfall amount during *Vuli* was for example, more than three times the average amount that is usually less than 300 mm. More detailed analysis of rainfall patterns in the study area is given by Mahoo *et al.*, (1999).

Changes in plot configuration

Initially (i.e. in 1993), all plots had a uniform slope of 8% (Figure 1 a and c). Gradually, plots with treatments involving barriers (live barriers and stone bunds) were transformed into bench terraces Figures 1(b) and 1(d). When the study ended in 1999, the terrace steps measured between 0.35 to 0.40 m in height.

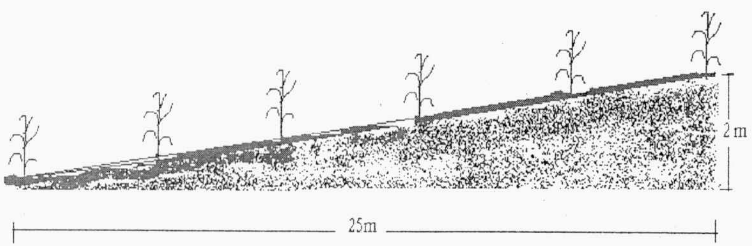

Figure 1a: **Live barrier treatment in conservation tillage experiment at initial stage in *Masika* 1993**

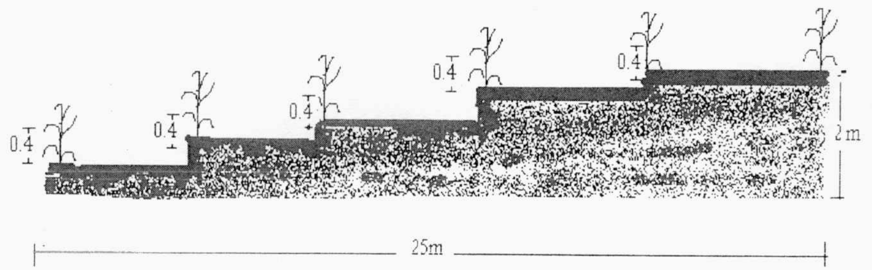

Figure 1b: **Live barrier treatment in the conservation tillage experiment at final stage in *Masika* 1999**

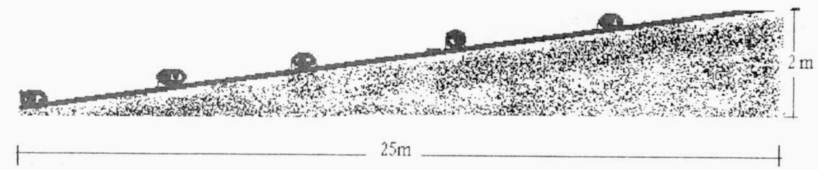

Figure 1c: **Stone bunding treatment in the conservation tillage experiment at initial stage in *Masika* 1993**

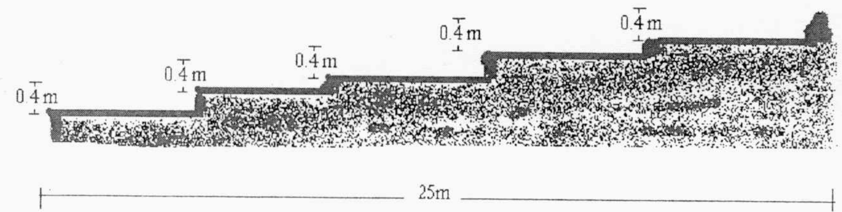

Figure 1d: **Stone bunding treatment in the conservation experiment at final stage in *Masika* 1999**

Soil moisture

Soil moisture measurements for the 1998 and 1999 *Masika* seasons are presented in Figure 2. Differences in soil moisture between treatments were not statistically significant (P= 0.05). However, SB, CR and LB had more profile moisture than the controls (ZT and FC). In all soil layers, SB had slightly less soil water than LB and CR.

Plant height

Plant height was affected by the treatments as shown in Figure 3. There were no conspicuous differences between treatments with regard to this parameter except for ZT, which tended to have shorter plants than in other treatments.

Biomass

Total biomass was affected by the treatments as presented in Figures 4 and 5. During *Masika* seasons, total biomass yield followed almost the same trend as that for grain yield (Figures 6 and 7). Overall, ZT produced the least biomass closely followed by FC.

Grain yield

Grain yield was affected by the different treatment as shown in Figure 6 for long rains and in Figure 7 for short rains. During the long rains, ZT had the lowest grain yield over the entire study period. For most seasons except in 1998, the yield under ZT was significantly (P= 0.05) lower than in treatments with barriers. During short rains between 1993 and 1999, statistical analysis indicated no significant difference between treatments. With the exception of 1997/98 (*El Nino* effect), yield was always less than 700 $kgha^{-1}$. In 1995/96 season for example, grain yield varied between 70 to 210 $kgha^{-1}$. There was no grain yield during 1993/94 *Vuli* season. During 1998/99 *Vuli* season, the rains failed (see Table 1) and thus the sown seed did not germinate.

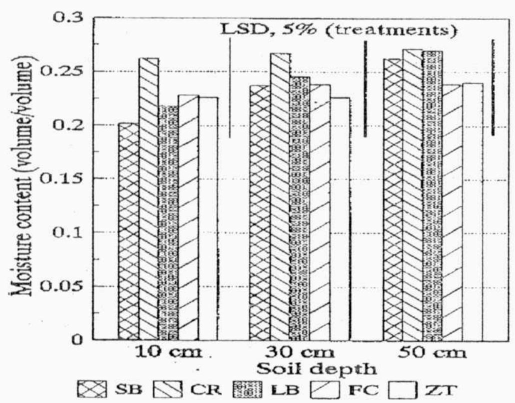

Figure 2: **Average soil moisture content in different conservation treatments during *Masika* 1998 and 1999 seasons at 10, 30 and 50 cm depth.**

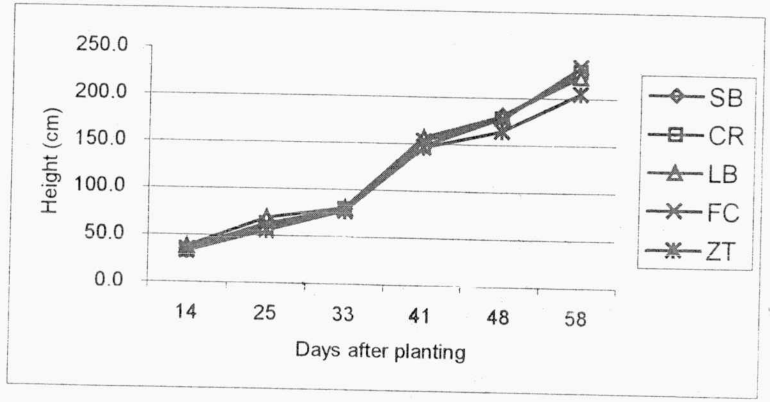

Figure 3: **Plant height as affected by conservation treatments during *Masika* 1999 season**

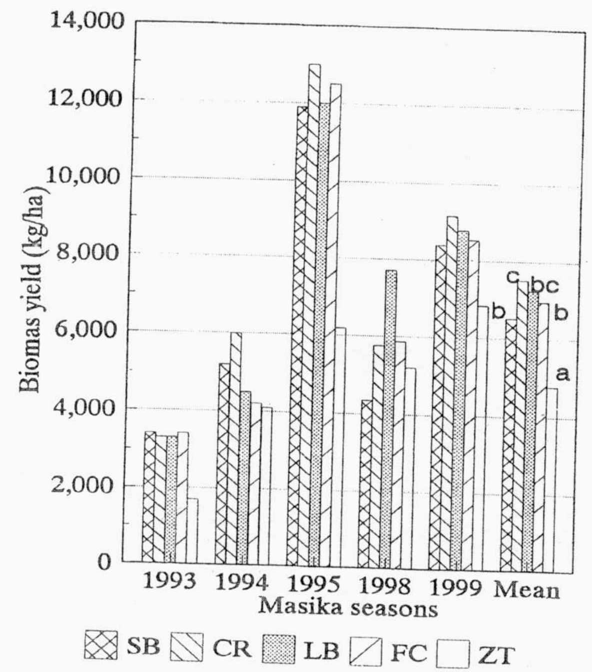

Figure 4: **Effect of the different treatments on biomass yield of maize during long rains (*Masika*)**

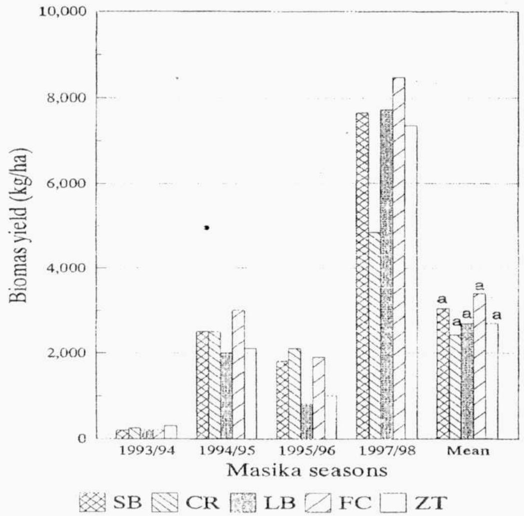

Figure 5: **Effect of different treatments on biomass yield of maize during short rains (*Vuli*)**

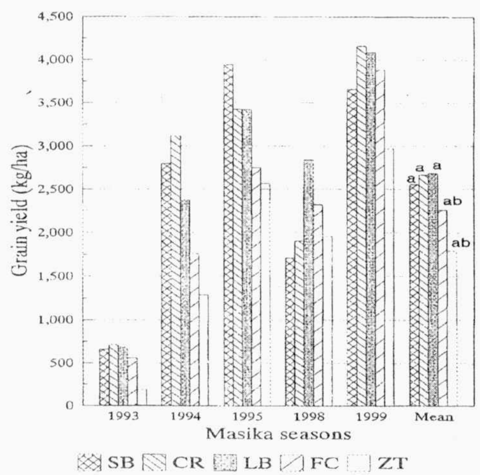

Figure 6: **Effect of different treatments on grain yield of maize during long rains (*Masika*)**

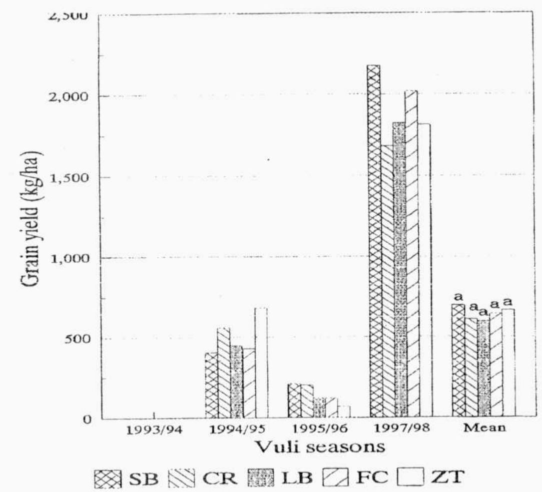

Figure 7: **Effect of different treatments on grain yield of maize during short rains (*Vuli*)**

Discussion

Rainfall data indicated that the amount is low and the distribution is very erratic. Over the study period and during *Vuli*, the amount varied from 0 mm to 97 mm in October, 2 mm to 200 mm in November, 35 mm to 273 mm in December, 3 mm to 367 mm in January, and 163 mm to 937 mm, in total. Short rains are indeed very inadequate. The *Vuli* rains are often lower than 200 mm which is too low to support a maize crop. Maize in WPLL requires at least 600 mm of well distributed rain (Hatibu *et al.*, 1999). The amount of rainfall received would still be insufficient even for drought torelant crops for example sorghum which requires 450 mm per season (Dorenboos and Kassam, 1979). That in a way explains the poor formance of the maize crop observed in this study. At times, the amount of water received from individual rainfall events was too low and very poorly distributed to even permit germination and emergence. The 1993/94 and 1998/99 *Vuli* seasons were such examples as the crop failed completely at establishment resulting in low biomass and no grain yield at all. There was no demonstrated advantage interms of grain yield between different treatments during *Vuli*. It is evident from this study that when seasonal rains are very low compared to crop water requirements as was the case during *Vuli*, the benefits interms of increased crop yield from SWC measures may not be realised. This may explain the low adoption rates of SWC measures in semi-arid areas (Hudson, 1991).

During all the *Masika* seasons except in 1994, flat cultivation (FC) had slightly lower grain yield that was not statistically differrent from that in treatments with barriers (SB, CR and LB). The above can be attributed to lack of significant differences in soil moisture between treatments. Similar findings were reported by Gebremedhin (1996) for a maize crop planted on flat and on ridges during long rains. Adequancy of rainfall and its good distribution were given as explanations which ruled out moisture differences despite enormous runoff losses from flat cropping. Results from almost similar studies by Critchley (1989) in Kitui District in Kenya, showed that crop yield responses to water conservation can be obtainned only in seasons of below-average rainfall.

Given the small increment in yield which was realized, farmers are unlikely to adopt the above conservation measures in this agro-ecological zone and especially for lowly valued maize in light of the investment costs in terms of labour and capital. According to Singh *et al.* (1994), SWC measures such as stone bunds or those involving earth movement require specialized knowledge, high labour and therefore cost. Such measures are therefore unlikely to be readily adopted if there are no tangible benefits to the farmer.

The gradual and natural formation of bench terraces, was an indication of the net movement of the soil down slope. In the absence of barriers, the almost invisible soil movement can not be checked, and its eventual loss from the crop fields can not be stopped. Thus, if the long term goal is to conserve soil on the slopes and pediments of western Pare (>8% slope) rather than water, then, any of the contour barrier practices evaluated in this study could be adopted.

Conclusions

Contour barriers had no significant effect on soil moisture conservation and on maize grain yield compared to the control. Given the small increment in yield which was realized, stones bunds, contour ridges and live barrier practices can not be recommended for moisture conservation in this agro-ecological zone. However, since the barriers were effective in controlling soil crip down slope, they could be recommeded as long-term measures for soil erosion control where this is considered a threat.

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