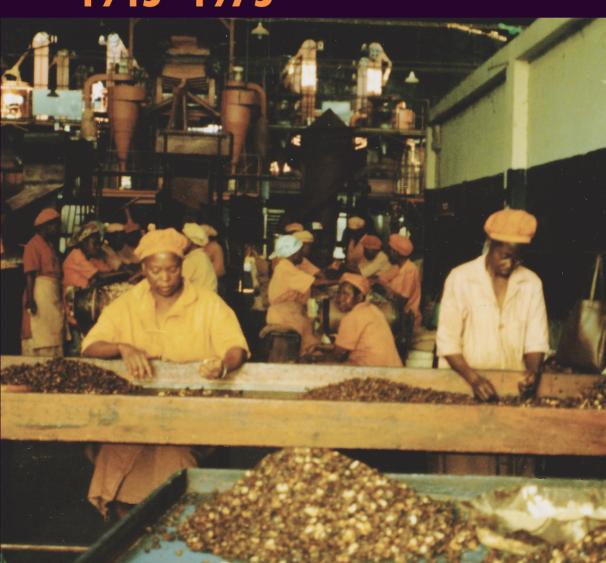
Jeanne Marie Penvenne

WOMEN, MIGRATION & THE CASHEW ECONOMY IN SOUTHERN MOZAMBIQUE 1945–1975



Women, Migration & the Cashew Economy in Southern Mozambique

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Até que enfim

to

The cashew shellers of Tarana with admiration and in solidarity

to

Norman Robert Bennett John Norman Bennett & Louis Penvenne Bennett for your patience and loving support

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Jeanne Marie Penvenne Tufts University & Duxbury MA

Abbreviations

ACLM Administração de Concelho de Lourenço Marques

AHM Arquivo Histórico de Moçambique

AHR American Historical Review

AIA Agribusiness Industries Association AICAJU Associação de Industria de Cajú

ASR African Studies Review

BNU Banco Nacional Ultramarino

BSEM Boletim da Sociedade de Estudos de Moçambique CEA Centro de Estudos Africanos, Universidade Eduardo

Mondlane

CEP Centro de Estudos de População

CIM/M Cajú Industrial de Moçambique in Machava

CJAS Canadian Journal of African Studies CMM Câmara Municipal de Maputo

CNCDP Comissão Nacional para as Comemorações dos

Descobrimentos Portugueses.

CNSL Cashew Nut Shell Liquid

Cx Caixa – Box

DGS Direcção Geral de Segurança, formerly PIDE DPAC Direcção Provincial de Administração Civil

DPCCN Departamento de Prevenção e Combate as Calamidades

Naturais

FGG Fundo do Governor Geral

IIED International Institute for Environment and

Development

IJAHS International Journal of African Historical Studies

ILO International Labour Office INCAJU Instituto de Fomento do Cajú

Inh Inhambane

ISANI Inspecção dos Serviços Administrativos e dos Negócios

Indígenas

JAH Journal of African History

JAPA Junta Autónomo do Povoamento de Baixo Limpopo

ISAS Journal of Southern African Studies

LM Lourenco Margues

xvi Abbreviations

MRLS Mozambique Rural Labour Market Survey

NGO Non-Government Organization

OMM Organização da Mulher Moçambicana

OT Oral Testimony

PAM Posto Administrativo de Munhuana

PIDE Polícia Internacional e de Defesa do Estado, later DGS

PNG Personal Narratives Group R/Cx Uncatalogued Red Box

RCNI Repartição Central de Negócios Indígenas RIEA Revista Internacional de Estudos Africanos

ROAPE Review of African Political Economy RTE Repartição Técnica de Estatística SAT Sociedade Agrícola e Tabacos

SINTIC Sindicato Nacional dos Trabalhadores da Indústria do

Cajú

SPSS Soft Programming for the Social Sciences

UEM Universidade Eduardo Mondlane

USACLM American Consul General, Lourenço Marques,

Mozambique

USAID United States Agency for International Development

WLSA Women and the Law in Southern Africa WNLA Witwatersrand Native Labour Association

Glossary

Acção Social Colonial era social work agency in

Mozambique

Amancebado Living as lovers or in common law marriage

Amêndoa Cashew almond or kernel

Arrumar Literally to clean up, commonly to set aside

the day's shelling efforts to fulfill a daily

quota the next day

Assimilado / a People of African heritage considered citizens

in colonial era

Bairro / bairros (pl) Neighbourhoods

Bairros de caniço Urban neighbourhoods where housing had

to be built from impermanent materials

Bebidas cafreais Literally kaffir drinks, home brewed or

distilled alcoholic drinks

Biscate Odd jobs, petty sales and services
Brincadeira / Literally 'little games' but generically
Brincadeiras foolishness, also sexual intrigues or

harassment

Cajú Literally cashew, vernacular for the cashew

industry and factory

Cajueiro Cashew tree, anacardium occidentale

Caniço Reeds used in home construction, vernacular

for bairros de canico

Cantina Small dry goods shop often combination bar

/ shop / rooms

Cantinheiro Shopkeeper / Barkeeper

Capulana Multi-use length of cloth worn by women

as a skirt wrap or shoulder shawl or used to

secure a child on one's back

Castanha Whole unshelled cashew nut Chitiki Rotating savings system

Colono Portuguese settler in Mozambique

Criado / a Djamangwana Person working general domestic service

Literally 'difficult', vernacular for shelling and peeling sections of the industry and for xviii Glossary

political prisoners and prison where they

were held in Machava

Dono / a da casa Literally 'master' or 'mistress' of the house,

husband or wife'

Épocha de Ucanhé Season of ritual first fruits and

accompanying drinking

Escudo / Escudos Portuguese currency in Mozambique from

1911 to 1980

Haháni Paternal aunt, the father's sister whose

bridewealth accrued to his marriage in patrilineal southern Mozambique

Indígena Literally native, colonial subject, non-citizen

Indigenato Body of laws that applied to persons

considered indígenas and subjected them to

special taxes and controls

Ku thekela To call in social debt for food in time of

famine / difficulty

Kwakwanana Literally 'rush rush', vernacular for brusque,

undignified treatment by Native Affairs

personnel

Lar Hearth, conjugal home

Lobolo Bridewealth paid by husband's family to

wife's family

Machamba Garden plot

Magaiça Mozambican man who returns to

Mozambique from employment in South

Africa, historically in the mines

Malalanyana Literally 'skinny one', nickname for A. H.

Ferraz de Freitas

Mamamele One who walks quietly like a cat, nickname

for Roquette

Mamana Mother, polite form of address for adult

woman

Mamparra magaiça Alternatively mambarha gayisa, magaiça

who squandered wages before returning

home

Marcar To mark a cashew shelling quota sheet as

complete for payment

Mathlothlomana Unending chaos, vernacular for brothels and

the areas of town with brothels

Matrikin People related through one's mother Mestiço / a People born of multiple heritages

Metical / meticais (pl) Mozambican currency, replaced Escudo in

1980

Milando Disputes, often around bridewealth or claims

on women and children

Glossary xix

Monhés Vernacular for South Asians especially

Muslims

Mudahomu A ritual herb necessary to settle disputes
Mugwaza Volunteer paid labour, but could elide into

forced labour if employers were short of labour, especially for women and children

Mulher sem dono Woman living outside the authorization /

care of a man

N'wamafasitela Literally 'the man who wears glasses',

nickname for Duarte Eduardo da Silva

N'wamagange Literally 'the man who wears blue jeans',

nickname for Bardin da Silva

N'wamacholo Literally 'old boys', vernacular for men who

were repeatedly seized for forced labour

N'wasalela Literally 'person who remains behind',

vernacular for a man wealthy enough not to

have to migrate for wages

Palmatório Portuguese instrument for punishment,

paddle with holes used to beat the palms of

hands, buttocks, breasts

Pancada de graça Literally 'a gratuitous beating', vernacular

for domestic violence

Pombe Home brewed maize beer

Quintal Backyard, enclosed area around home
Sul do Save Southern Mozambique, South of Save River
Tarana Vernacular for Jiva Jamal Tharani and his

factory

Tinumerini Vernacular for people who could count

Uputsu Home brewed maize beer Vale A debt chit from a shopkeeper

Wusiwana Ordinary poverty

Xaniseká Poverty that creates great suffering Xawani vamamana Respectful greeting of adult women

Xibalu Alternative spellings, forced labour, poorly

paid labour

Xicaju Cashew based alcoholic drinks

Xicalamidade Used clothing, used goods, divorcee or widow

Xiculungo Socially isolated, very poor person
Xidanguane One who lives by the sale of home made

cashew alcohol

Xilunguine Lourenço Marques, place of the whites Xipswahla Native Affairs Office in Munhuana Xungwa Woman who lives alone, suggests

promiscuity / prostitution

Zaunzwanas Gossips and rumour-mongers

Mozambican women and the cashew economy

In the early 1970s at the close of its colonial era, Mozambique was a global leader in cashew production. The Portuguese colony's cashew processing industry was inaugurated in the 1950s and by the 1970s it accounted for the largest share of the world's production of raw cashew nuts and the country's foreign exchange earnings. The cashew economy was big and important. At almost every stage, from planting to exporting cashews, the industry rested fundamentally on the work of Mozambican women. The women who sustained the factories of the emergent cashew industry put aside their usual work implement, the hoe they used to till their family fields, to embrace what they called 'the hoe of the city'. Celeste Mpandane explained: 'Axikomu xa lomu i *kutihra* – The hoe of the city is a job.' Jobs for women in Mozambique's cashew shelling factories became a beacon; fueling urban migration by Southern Mozambican women who wanted or needed to turn in their field hoe for a job. Although it is irrefutably true that the entire cashew processing industry depended upon the labour of African women, the raft of colonial era press, scientific and business literature about the promising industry made virtually no mention of the labour force in this labour intensive industry, and the handful of articles that mentioned the women portraved them as a constraint on production rather than the backbone of the industry. This is the history of the most successful industry in the late colonial era. It was reconstructed through an extensive oral history project anchored among three generations of women who comprised the great majority of the cashew industry's workforce from the late 1940s through to independence in 1975. It also draws touchstone concepts from four popular songs performed by women of Southern Mozambique. Each song captures themes and images that run through narratives and the following chapters.

The colonial era's print media may have failed to acknowledge Mozambican women when charting the spectacular growth of the era's signature cashew industry, but the women whose narratives

¹ OT, Celeste Marcos Mpandane, 26 May 1993.

comprise the basis of this study claimed their due. Rosa Joaquim Tembe was among the original cohort of workers at what became the colony's largest cashew processing factory, Cajú Industrial de Moçambique, in the Chamanculo neighbourhood of Mozambique's capital city, Lourenço Marques. After independence the city was renamed Maputo.² Tembe spoke for her cohort and subsequent generations of cashew shellers when she claimed: 'We worked hard for this factory. It grew from our strength.'3 In one way or another the women's narratives highlighted their contribution to the founding, growth and endurance of Mozambique's cashew economy. Their oral testimony revealed a great deal about the industry, the people and power relationships of life on the Chamanculo factory floor and also about migration and life in the African neighbourhoods of the late colonial capital city. They recounted the many paths that led women from the countryside to the cashew shelling factories. They explained their determination to make a life and livelihood in Lourenço Marques, and in so doing provided nuanced understandings of urban family formations, quotidian rhythms and women's strategies around housing, subsistence, partnerships and children. Their narratives and songs insist that women's perspectives are co-normative with men's. They comprise a treasury of complex and contrasting stories, and a window into the quite different ways women and men experienced and explained migration, factory labour, and urban living in the late colonial era.⁴ They fill a big gap.

The oral history narratives at the heart of the study capture a great deal of important information, but they also have a very important bias – they are the stories of those who survived working in the toxic and dangerous cashew shelling industry. The people who shared their recollections with this project included those who were barely surviving, those who were flourishing and many in-between, but if the historical actors here seem disproportionately strong, it is because they were. We did not hear from the thousands of women who 'couldn't take it,' and left.⁵

Mozambican women played an integral role in all aspects of the colony's developing cashew economy. Women planted, tended and harvested cashew trees to sell the fruit and nuts to wholesalers. They

² This study retains the colonial era name, Lourenço Marques.

³ OT, Rosa Joaquim Tembe, 2 June 1993.

⁴ As detailed below, many scholars highlight the different ways women and men explain the past. Jan Bender Shetler, *Imagining Serengeti: A History of Landscape Memory in Tanzania from Earliest Times to the Present* (Athens: Ohio University Press, 2007); Jan Bender Shetler, 'The Gendered Spaces of Historical Knowledge: Women's Knowledge and Extraordinary Women in the Serengeti District, Tanzania', *International Journal of African Historical Studies [IJAHS]*, Vol. 36, No. 2 (2003): 283–307; Nancy Rose Hunt, 'Introduction', *Gender & History*, 8, 3 (Nov. 1996): 323–37; Nancy Rose Hunt, 'Placing Women's History and Locating Gender,' *Social History*, 14 (1989): 359–79.

 $^{^5}$ As detailed in Chapter 2, 'Couldn't take it' was the phrase most women used to explain why some left their jobs in the cashew factory and others did not. OT, group of retirees, 2 June 1993; OT, Ester Tafula, 3 June 1993.

processed the fruits and nuts into food and drink for consumption in the household and gift economies and sold them in the informal economy. Finally, they were the core labour force for industrial cashew processing. Although the women's narratives focus on the industrialization of cashew shelling and life on the factory floor, they also shed light on the broader economy of cashew alcohol and food, on regional migration patterns and urban African social and economic history. The introduction sketches the appropriate historical context, explains the research methods and suggests how these findings and interpretations enhance contemporary scholarly literature. It seeds the main arguments and previews their location in the subsequent chapter order.

Women's knowledge and core concerns about factory production and urban life de-centre the essentially androcentric narrative of colonial labour history. That narrative inadequately embraces the pervasive and foundational contributions of women, and reproduces analyses that obscure women's historical contributions. Women's experiences and explanations explicitly conflated their participation, social claims and obligations across the home, gift, informal, and formal economies, highlighting the need for an analysis that allows historians to see connectivity and overcome artificial divisions that weight male dominated sectors of the economy over those populated by women and children. The discourses of first and second-generation migrants delightfully imbricated images from rural and urban, formal and informal, household and factory.

Women ordinarily developed resources, invested and staked claims in multiple family lineages and social networks in ways that scholars still neglect and misinterpret rather than anticipate and assess. Although the great majority of women who shared their experiences lived in societies accurately described as patrilineal, patriarchal and virilocal and upon marriage, most women moved from the lands and from the control of the appropriate people in their father's home to the lands and the control of the appropriate people in their husband's home, they did not then relinquish or cease making claims on resources in their father's or mother's lineages and lands upon marriage. The great range of urban and rural household and family forms that women developed suggests the need to test embedded assumptions about the superiority of and preference for some household and family forms over others. Scholarly literature often portrays women headed households, common-law marriage and polygyny as disadvantageous for women, but many women explained the advantages and disadvantages they experienced in these and other forms.

⁶ That was certainly true of my earlier work, Jeanne Marie Penvenne, African Workers and Colonial Racism: Mozambican Strategies for Survival in Lourenço Marques, Mozambique, 1877–1962 (Portsmouth: Heinemann, 1995); Jeanne Marie Penvenne, Trabalhadores de Lourenço Marques, 1870–1974 (Maputo: AHM, 1993).

⁷ OT, Celeste Marcos Mpandane, 26 May 1993; OT, Rabeca Notiço, 24 May 1993.

Finally, historical analysis of labour migration and urban labour that is grounded in the wholeness and connectivity of women's experiences and explanations, must open the field for women's agency and interrogate the utility of the gendered and hierarchical distinctions drawn among formal, informal, gift and household economies.⁸ This is particularly important for the cashew economy. The formal sector industrialization of cashew shelling and cashew by-products and the export of unprocessed cashew nuts generated foreign exchange and were charted in government statistics, but throughout Mozambique, cashews and cashew based drinks were important seasonal staples in the household, gift and informal economy, but were not understood or valued in the same way. These components were an integral part of the overall cashew economy. Women's broad and important contributions are only fully revealed when Mozambique's economy and society are treated as whole cloth. The important work women do is eclipsed if the focus is limited to the formal economy, or even the formal and informal economies. This is an effort to broaden the lens.

Historical context

This section provides the briefest historical context for Mozambique in Southern Africa, and as a colony of Portugal.9 Portugal and its African colonies (Mozambique, Angola, Guinea Bissau, São Tomé, Príncipe and Cabo Verde) were broadly engaged in colonial, regional and international relationships and tensions in the twentieth century. Mozambique's late colonial era, 1945 to 1975, was shaped by many factors, but four were particularly important: Portugal's authoritarian New State regime and its strategy of sponsored white settlement of her mainland African colonies; neighbouring South Africa's capacity to draw migrant labour from the southern African region into employment in its mining, agricultural and manufacturing sectors; South Africa's engineering of white minority rule at home and its support for white minority regimes in the region, including Mozambique, Southern Rhodesia, Angola and Namibia; and finally, the Cold War's shadow over this strategically and economically important southern African region. Although political control, economic domination, mineral and resource wealth were quite uneven, the southern African region clearly featured authoritarian white rule and the development of resources to profit colonial and minority populations at the expense of the majority African population.

⁸ Paul Tiyambe Zeleza brought attention to many of these dynamics in 'Gender Biases in African Historiography', in Ayesha M. Imam, Amina Mama, Fatou Sow, eds, *Engendering African Social Sciences* (Dakar: CODESRIA Book Series, 1997): 81–115.

⁹ Malyn Newitt, *A History of Mozambique* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1995); Malyn Newitt, 'The Late Colonial State in Portuguese Africa,' *Itinerário*, 23, 3/4 (1999): 110–22.



Map 1 Southern Africa, 1974 (Based on maps-africa.blogspot.com)



Map 2 Late Colonial Mozambique (Based on David Birmingham and Phyllis Martin *History of Central Africa: The Contemporary Years* (Longman, 1998), 230)

In the wake of World War Two, when Britain, France and Belgium began to transition away from colonial over-rule. Portugal's so-called New State regime (1930s to 1974), under António Salazar (to 1968) and Marcello Caetano (1968–1974), perversely committed itself to state-sponsored white settlement in Angola and Mozambique.¹⁰ Despite the intransigence of Portugal's political exclusion and economic exploitation of the African majority, her investment in Mozambique's economic growth and diversification in the closing decades of the colonial era provided increasing employment for Africans and white Portuguese alike. State and private investment in import substitution industries for the growing settler market and agricultural processing for the national and export markets opened more and better jobs. When the New State opened investment to international companies in the 1960s, in part to court support for Portugal's continuing colonial rule in Africa, some of those companies pushed for a more settled, better qualified, higher paid majority workforce. 11 The New State's bureaucracy aspired to place white Portuguese in the most attractive positions, and thereby antagonized educated and skilled black Mozambicans.¹² Africans comprised the rank and file workforce in the new processing and manufacturing jobs in Lourenço Marques and its suburbs.

Portugal's investment in Mozambique's infrastructure and opening to international and national expansion of processing industries took place in tandem with South Africa's reconfiguration of migrant to local labour in its mining and other employment sectors. From 1900 to 1970 between 60 to 80 per cent of South Africa's mine labour force was comprised of international migrants. In the early twentieth century men from Southern Mozambique made up as much as 70 per cent of the

Cláudia Castelo, Passagens para a África Portuguesa: O Povoamento de Angola e Moçambique com Naturais da Metrópole (c. 1920–1974). PhD thesis (Lisbon: Universidade de Lisboa, Instituto de Ciências Sociais, 2005); Eric Morier-Genoud and Michel Cahen, eds, Imperial Migrations: Colonial Communities and Diaspora in the Portuguese World (New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2012); Valentim Alexandre, 'The Colonial Empire,' in António Costa Pinto, ed. Modern Portugal (Palo Alto, CA: The Society for the Promotion of Science and Scholarship, 1998): 41–59; Jeanne Marie Penvenne, 'Settling against the Tide: The Layered Contradictions of Twentieth Century Portuguese Settlement in Mozambique', in Caroline Elkins and Susan Pederson, eds, Settler Colonialism in the Twentieth Century: Projects, Practices and Legacies (New York: Routledge, 2005): 79–94.

¹¹ Newitt, 'The Late Colonial State,' 110–22; Michel Cahen, 'Corporatisme et Colonialisme – Approche du Cas Mozambicain, 1933 –1979,' [Part I, 'Une Genése difficile, um Mouvement Squelettique,' Part II, 'Crise et Survivance du Corporatisme Colonial 1960–1979,'] *Cahiers d'Etudes Africaines*, 92 (1983): 383–417 and 93 (1984): 5–24; 'Annual Economic Report' and 'Annual Labor Report' [titles vary] from the US Consular Office in Lourenço Marques from the 1940s to the early 1970s make this clear. Many are available in the collections 'Documents concerning Labor and Economic Conditions in Mozambique from 1951 to 1963,' and 'Documents concerning Labor and Economic Conditions in Mozambique from 1964 to 1974' obtained from the Department of State through the Freedom of Information Staff, Bureau of Public Affairs, US Department of State, bound and held at Boston University's African Studies Library. ¹² The implications of white settlement on black workers is discussed in Jeanne Penvenne, 'Here Everyone Walked with Fear': The Mozambican Labor System and the Workers of Lourenço Marques, 1945–1962', in Frederick Cooper, ed. *Struggle for the City: Migrant Labor, Capital and the State* (Berkeley: Sage, 1983): 131–66 and 'Settling against the Tide'.

total. By the late 1920s the percentage of Mozambicans had dropped to the forties, and after World War Two, they were around a quarter of the total, but even at that percentage we are still talking about over 100,000 men. South Africa increasingly recruited from Lesotho and eventually more South African men took jobs in the mines. As opportunities for employment in South Africa diminished in the 1960s and 1970s, Mozambican men looked to jobs in Lourenço Marques. Women had never been recruited for jobs in South Africa, but Mozambican women also increasingly sought waged labour in the capital city's newly diversified manufacturing and processing plants, particularly in agricultural processing, textiles and garments. These economic shifts fueled and were fueled by the drive for political change.

Portugal's authoritarian New State did not tolerate political contestation in the metropole or colonies. Mozambicans and Portuguese ultimately mobilized political and military support to challenge colonial rule. In 1962 the group of Mozambican insurgents who emerged from contestation for leadership named themselves the Front for the Liberation of Mozambique, Frente de Libertação de Moçambique, and became known by the acronym FRELIMO.13 FRELIMO organized bases in Tanzania and launched an armed insurgency into Northern Mozambique in 1964. Portugal's counter-insurgency strategy required greatly expanding the transportation and communication infrastructure. As was the case with Portugal's economic investments, most new infrastructure was designed to benefit Portuguese settlers, and support the colonial state. The press and archives revealed that most colonial administrators continued to view the African majority as either implements for or impediments to settler driven development. Nonetheless, these changes and Portugal's push to Africanize the colonial military and court some level of elite African collaboration in light of the FRELIMO insurgency, provided a window particularly for men to move into more secure, better-paid jobs and even some positions of authority in the civil service and military.¹⁴

Although infrastructural and economic investment and relatively stable currency characterized late colonialism in Mozambique, growth was regionally and racially uneven. In the southern regions and Lourenço Marques investment and economic growth were strongest and white settlement was most dense. ¹⁵ These regions did not directly

¹³ Walter Opello, 'Pluralism and Elite Conflict in an Independence Movement: FRELIMO in the 1960s,' *Journal of Southern African Studies [JSAS]* Vol. 2, 1 (1975): 66–82; Georgi Derluguian, 'The Social Origins of Good and Bad Governance: Re-Interpreting the 1968 Schism in Frelimo', in Eric Morier-Genoud, ed. *Sure Road? Nationalisms in Angola, Guinea-Bissau and Mozambique* (Leiden: Brill, 2012): 90–98.

¹⁴ John P. Cann, Counterinsurgency in Africa: The Portuguese Way of War, 1961–1974 (Westport: Greenwood Press, 1997).

¹⁵ During the 1950s the capital's share of the nation's installed industrial capacity increased from around 10 per cent to 62 per cent, and by 1970 was nearly 89 per cent. Maria Clara Mendes, 'A rede urbana em Moçambique', *Livro de Homenagem a Orlando Ribeiro*, Vol. 2 (Lisbon: Centro de Estudos Geográficos, 1988): 609–17; Penvenne, 'Settling Against the Tide,' 79–94.

experience the violence of the anti-colonial insurgency by the time the Portuguese military coup of 25 April 1974 signalled the beginning of the end of the New State and its commitment to continued colonial rule. In the wake of the coup, FRELIMO forcefully negotiated Mozambican independence with Portugal, claiming to be the sole legitimate representative of the Mozambican people and rebuffing attempts by competing groups to contend for political power. When FRELIMO transitioned from a military insurgency to political leadership it retained the name Frelimo, but no longer as an acronym. On 25 June 1975 Mozambique became independent. Within two years Frelimo declared itself a Marxist-Leninist Vanguard Party, signaling its alignment with the Soviet Union and Eastern Block countries who helped train and support Frelimo's military and political cadres.

The rush tide of Portuguese white settlement in Mozambique had diminished throughout the 1960s and in 1971 it actually turned. Thousands of Portuguese whites left in the early 1970s, particularly after the coup in 1974. After independence, the nationalization of some properties and businesses, in combination with the Eastern block alignment encouraged a further exodus of both Portuguese and South Asians from Mozambique. Portuguese whites dominated management and skilled labour in industry, manufacturing, transportation and civil service, and South Asians were key to commerce, particularly rural trade. Their flight meant economic disruption was widespread and quickly resulted in a scarcity of basic goods.

The situation of economic scarcity, communication and transportation breakdowns was exacerbated by the late 1970s when a new insurgency emerged. Resistência Nacional Moçambicana, Mozambican National Resistance Movement, known by its Portuguese acronym, RENAMO (usually written as Renamo), was recruited, trained, funded, and fielded by the intelligence branch of the white minority government in Rhodesia. When Rhodesia was about to transition to majority rule in 1980 as Zimbabwe, the South African security and intelligence forces took over support of Renamo from the Rhodesians.

Renamo also picked up support from Mozambicans who had either never embraced Frelimo or had become disillusioned. By the mid to late 1980s Renamo's insurgents were widespread and had inflicted horrific violence and destruction, particularly in the centre and south of the country. With the political transformations in the early 1990s,

¹⁶ Norrie MacQueen, *The Decolonization of Portuguese Africa: Metropolitan Revolution and the Dissolution of Empire* (New York: Longman, 1997).

 $^{^{17}}$ John Saul, $Recolonization\ and\ Resistance\ in\ Southern\ Africa\ in\ the\ 1990s$ (Trenton, NJ: African World Press, 1993): p. xiii, n. 1. From this point I use Frelimo, rather than the upper case acronym, FRELIMO, to refer to this group regardless of the period.

¹⁸ Castelo, *Passagens para a África*, p. 178 fig. 3, p. 179 Quadro 17.

¹⁹ William Finnegan, A Complicated War: The Harrowing of Mozambique (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1992) Lina Magaia, Dumba Nengue, Run for Your Life: Peasant Tales of Tragedy in Mozambique (Trenton, N.J.: Africa World Press, 1988); Karl Maier, Conspicuous Destruction, War, Famine and the Reform Process in Mozambique (New York: Human Rights Watch, 1992); David

Renamo could no longer count on South African logistical and arms support, Regional, international and Mozambican attempts to forge agreement between Renamo and Frelimo were many and protracted. They eventually produced the Rome Peace Accord in October 1992.²⁰ By that time, more than a third of Mozambicans were refugees, internally displaced or affected by the war. Hundreds of thousands had been maimed or killed, many more thousands died of disease and starvation. Mozambique's economy and infrastructure were in complete ruin. Poorly mapped or unmapped land mines were planted all around the countryside. The capital city was under daily curfew. Travel everywhere was dangerous even if by military convoy.²¹ The decade 1982 to 1992 was a time of starvation, insecurity, dislocation and disillusion for hundreds of thousands of Mozambicans. It should never be forgotten that the country's industries, infrastructure, and plantations were neither simply neglected nor mismanaged, they were intentionally wrecked.

Despite continuing tensions and occasional violent flare-ups between Frelimo and Renamo in the decades since the Rome Peace Accord, Mozambique has maintained peace. The country has held elections and incrementally rebuilt its infrastructure and economy. Foreign and state investment is more regionally balanced than in the colonial era, but the southern capital city is still the power centre. Some parts of the colonial era economy recovered but others did not. Completely new sectors were built, changing the country and region's overall economic profile.²²

(contd) Birmingham, Nationalism in Angola and Mozambique (Trenton: Africa World Press, 1992); Phyllis Johnson and David Martin eds, Frontline Southern Africa: Destructive Engagement (New York: Four Walls Eight Windows, 1988).

²⁰ Alex Vines, 'Renamo's Rise and Decline: The Politics of Reintegration in Mozambique,' *International Peacekeeping*, Vol.20, No.3 (June 2013): 375–93; Margaret Hall and Tom Young, *Confronting Leviathan: Mozambique Since Independence* (Athens: Ohio University Press, 1997); Cameron Hume, *Ending Mozambique's War; The Role of Mediation and Good Offices* (Washington: United States Institute of Peace Press, 1994).

²¹ Jeanne Marie Penvenne, 'A Tapestry of Conflict: Mozambique 1960–1995', in David Birmingham and Phyllis Martin, eds, *History of Central Africa; The Contemporary Years* (London: Longman, 1998): 230–66.

Numerous scholars have assessed Mozambique's economy since independence. Carlos Nuno Castel-Branco and colleagues at Instituto de Estudos Sociais e Económicos http://www.iese.ac.mz/?__target__=home, Fernando Lima and colleagues weekly paper, Savana, http://www.savana.co.mz/and Joseph Hanlon all provide regular posts, http://www.open.ac.uk/technology/mozambique/. Hanlon also published a series of monographs on Mozambican economic and political changes, for example, Hanlon and Teresa Smart, Do Bicycles Equal Development? (Woodbridge, Rochester, NY: James Currey, 2008); Kathleen Sheldon, Pounders of Grain: a History of Women, Work and Politics in Mozambique (Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann, 2002); Anne Pitcher, Transforming Mozambique: the Business of Politics, 1975–2000 (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Merle Bowen, The State against the Peasantry; Rural Struggles in Colonial and Postcolonial Mozambique (Charlottesville: University Press of Virginia, 2000); Chris Alden, Mozambique and Construction of the New African State: from Negotiations to Nation Building (New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2001); Carrie Manning, Politics of Peace in Mozambique's Post Conflict Democratization, 1992–2000 (Westport: Praeger, 2002).